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**TREASURES OF THE  
EDUCATION SYSTEM  
IN SRI LANKA:  
RESTORING PERFORMANCE,  
EXPANDING OPPORTUNITIES AND  
ENHANCING PROSPECTS**

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# Abbreviations

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ADB	- Asian Development Bank
AFTH2	- Africa Region Human Development Unit 2
ANTRIEP	- Asian Network of Training and Research Institutions in Educational Planning
CCTE	- Chief Commissioner for Teacher Education
DDIT	- Double Deductions Tax Incentives for Training
DFID	- Department for International Development
DRT	- District Resource Teacher
DTET	- Department of Technical Education and Training
DVTC	- District Vocational Training Centers
ECAHD	- Europe and Central Asia Human Development Unit
ECCD	- Early Childhood Care and Development
ECD	- Early Childhood Development
ECE	- Early Childhood Education
EFA	- Education for all
GCE A/L	- General Certificate of Education - Advanced Level
GCE O/L	- General Certificate of Education - Ordinary Level
GDP	- Gross Domestic Product
GEP2	- General Education Project II
GOM	- Government of Malaysia
GOSL	- Government of Sri Lanka
GTZ	- German Agency for Technical Corporation
HREF	- Human Resources Endowment Fund
IEA	- International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
IT	- Information Technology
JICA	- Japan International Corporation Agency
LCSHE	- Latin America and the Caribbean, Human Development, Education
LFS	- Labor Force Survey
LKR	- Sri Lankan Rupees
LMIS	- Labor Market Information System
M&E system	- Monitoring and Evaluation System
MBO	- Multiple Textbook Option
MHRECA	- Ministry of Human Resource Development, Education and Cultural Affairs
MID	- Ministry of Industrial Development
MOE	- Ministry of Education

MTET	- Ministry of Tertiary Education and Training
MTEVT	- Ministry of Tertiary Education and Vocational Training
MYAS	- Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports
NAITA	- National Apprentice and Industrial Training Authority
NCOEs	- National Colleges of Education
NEC	- National Education Commission
NEP	- North Eastern Province
NEREC	- National Education Research and Evaluation Center
NGOs	- Non-Governmental Organizations
NIE	- National Institute of Education
NYSC	- National Youth Service Council
OLS	- Ordinary Least Squares
Pexp	- Potential experience
PSDG	- Province Specific Development Grant
RGDP	- Regional Gross Domestic Product
RVTC	- Rural Vocational Training Centers
SASHD	- South Asia Sector for Human Development
SBT	- School-Based Training/Support
SDP	- Skills Development Project
SIDA	- Swedish International Development Co-operation Agency
SLAAED	- Sri Lanka Association for the Advancement of Education
SLIATE	- Sri Lanka Institute of Advanced Technical Education
SMEs	- Small and Medium - size Enterprises
STR	- Student Teacher Ratio
TCs	- Teacher Centers
TEVT	- Technical Education and Vocational Training
TVEC	- Technical and Vocational Education Commission
U.K.	- United Kingdom
UGC	- University Grants Commission
UN	- United Nations
UNDP	- United Nations Development Program
UNESCO	- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	- United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
USD, US\$	- U.S. Dollars
VTA	- Vocational Training Authority of Sri Lanka
VTEC	- Vocational and Tertiary Education Commission
WBI	- World Bank Institute

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# Executive Summary

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## OVERVIEW, PRINCIPAL FINDINGS AND OPTIONS FOR THE FUTURE

### Introduction

1. The Sri Lankan education system has been celebrated in development policy circles and the economic literature for its success in providing widespread access to primary and secondary education, and enabling the country to attain a high level of human development for a low income economy. Up to the early 1990s Sri Lanka enjoyed the highest basic social development outcomes relative to per capita income among virtually all developing countries. This achievement was the result of strategic public policy decisions, over several successive generations, to invest resources in education, health and other social services. The Sri Lankan policy makers who designed the basic framework of the education system, in the 1930s and 1940s, were far ahead of their time in perceiving human capital as a promising investment with the potential to produce a wide range of important economic and social benefits.

2. Unfortunately, over the past fifty years the economic performance of the country lagged behind the pace of education development, with several adverse consequences for the education system. The poor economic growth rate of the country meant that, over time, Sri Lanka lacked the resources to invest sufficiently in education to keep up with countries which grew much faster, such as South Korea, Singapore, Hong Kong, Malaysia and Thailand. In consequence, Sri Lanka has lost its initial lead in education. In addition, due to slow growth, the demand for educated labor failed to expand sufficiently rapidly to match the supply of educated young people entering the labor market. This resulted in an enduring problem of educated youth unemployment. Modern Sri Lankan policy makers are aware of the country's lost education advantage and problems. In consequence, education has become an area of intense public interest, debate and policy

development in recent years [*see NEC (1997), (2003)*].

### Education Organization in Relation to Development Policy Models

3. The Sri Lankan education system has followed the classical recipe of development policy in two important respects. First, it has emphasized the importance of public financing and provision of basic education and secondary education to the entire population. This visionary emphasis, commencing in the 1930s and 1940s, was generations ahead of its time. Second, Sri Lanka limited public resources devoted to tertiary education, awarding emphasis to the basic and secondary cycles. The fruits of these policies have been reaped in subsequent generations, with basic education attainment, primary health outcomes and social development indicators close to levels observed in upper-middle income and developed countries.

4. Sri Lanka has also deviated from the classical recipe in one important respect. The establishment of private schools from grades 1-9 was legally banned in the early 1960s. This legal prohibition remains in force to date. This has made Sri Lanka one of the few countries in the world to legally forbid the establishment of schools. Other low income countries and states famous for their high basic education attainment levels, such as Costa Rica and the state of Kerala in India, rely heavily on the private sector. In Kerala, for instance, more than half of school enrollment is in private schools. The political economy context of Sri Lanka also makes it virtually impossible to invest in private universities, although there is no explicit legal barrier. However, from the 1990s onwards it has been possible to establish private degree awarding institutions, as long as they do not carry the title "university". In preventing formal private universities the Sri Lankan education system deviated from the model adopted by some of the highest performing education systems in the world, such as South Korea, which concentrated public resources on primary and basic education, followed by secondary education, while leaving university education largely to the private sector. Recently, however, Sri Lankan education policy makers have recommended amending

legislation to allow private schools and private universities to be established [see *NEC (2003)*]. This is a path breaking recommendation which, if implemented, would remove a major, self-imposed shackle on the education system and enable Sri Lanka to compete on more even terms with other countries.

### **Enrolment Patterns and Trends**

#### *The compulsory education cycle (grades 1-9)*

5. Net enrolment in grade 1 is about 97% for both boys and girls, and nearly all children complete grade 5. At the end of the compulsory education cycle, grade 9, completion rates are about 81% for boys and 84% for girls. The high primary education (grades 1-5) and junior secondary education (grades 6-9) enrolment rates are the outcome of several complementary and mutually reinforcing policies, such as tuition free schooling, special education programs for disadvantaged students, free textbooks, free uniforms and subsidized transport, and of strong household demand for education. The evidence also shows that Sri Lanka has not yet achieved universal compulsory education, with about 18% of children failing to complete grade 9. Hence, there still exists a considerable challenge to meet the target of providing all children between ages 6-14 with 9 years of schooling. Further, an

important equity issue exists, as the 18% of children who fail to complete grade 9 are drawn from poorer homes, economically disadvantaged geographical regions such as the rural hinterland, conflict affected areas and the estate sector, or are disabled and handicapped children. Strong policy action is needed to reach these vulnerable socio-economic groups, and achieve the target of universal enrolment and completion in the compulsory education cycle.

#### *The senior secondary education, GCE O/L and GCE A/L cycles*

6. School completion rates are less satisfactory in the senior secondary cycle, with comparatively low examination pass rates at the GCE O/L (grade 11) and GCE A/L (grade 13) examinations. The average pass rate at the GCE O/L examination for the country as a whole is 37%, implying that only about one out of every three candidates successfully completes the GCE O/L examination. Pass rates in the poorer and more disadvantaged areas of the country, such as the North-Eastern, North-Central, Uva and Central Provinces, range from 31%-32%. The prosperous and advanced Western Province alone stands out among the geographical regions, with GCE O/L pass rates of 48%, indicating that about one out of every two candidates in this area successfully completes the GCE

O/L examination. GCE A/L examination pass rates average about 56% for the country as a whole, suggesting that about one out of every two candidates is successful at this examination. This is on the low side, given that only the best students survive through to the GCE A/L cycle. The pass rates across the provinces are fairly similar, ranging from 52% in the Uva Province to 58% in the North-Western and North-Eastern Provinces. The relatively even distribution of GCE A/L examination pass rates across the country can be attributed to two key factors: (i) policy initiatives to ensure a wide network of good quality secondary schools in all provinces; and (ii) selectivity effects, as students in the GCE A/L cycle are the most able pupils in their age cohorts.

7. The time trend of GCE O/L and GCE A/L pass rates shows that, over about the past ten years, there has been improvement in GCE O/L pass rates, but that GCE A/L pass rates have been relatively constant. GCE O/L pass rates have risen from about 22% in 1993 to 37% in 2002, with much of the improvement occurring in the mid-late 1990s. In the GCE A/L cycle, pass rates have remained fairly steady between 1994 and 2002, except for one unusually high year, 1995 and one poor year, 1999. Sri Lankan policy makers have recognized that the country faces an

important challenge to increase the quality of education and enable students to achieve the standards set for the GCE O/L and GCE A/L examinations.

#### *Tertiary education enrolment*

8. The overall tertiary education enrolment rate is about 11% of the eligible population. This is slightly above the South Asia average (10%), and approximately equal to countries such as India, Morocco, Vietnam and Mauritius. It is also equal to countries such as South Korea, Singapore, Hong Kong, Malaysia and Thailand when they were at the current level of economic development of Sri Lanka. The major proportion of tertiary enrolment, about 6%, is in courses outside the domestic university and formal technical education sector. These students are enrolled in the private sector in a variety of professional courses, such as IT, management, accounting, marketing, law, business and finance, or in overseas universities. University enrolment is approximately 3%, and advanced technical education enrolment about 2%. About 70% of tertiary education enrolment is in the private sector, and the balance in the public sector. The high proportion of private sector enrolment at the tertiary level, in contrast to the primary and secondary levels, can be attributed to the policy framework, which does not

legally prohibit private investment at the tertiary level. The time trend of tertiary education enrolment shows that, over the recent past, enrolment has risen from about 8% in 1997 to 11% in 2002. Overall, tertiary education enrolment rates have expanded about 38% over the period 1997-2002. This growth has been particularly rapid in private tertiary education institutions in the most recent years.

### **Economic and Social Benefits of Investment in Education**

#### *External efficiency and rates of return to education*

9. Investment in education produces a wide array of economic and social benefits in Sri Lanka, including higher human capital and earnings, improved occupational attainment and social mobility, increased female labor force participation, and superior family health levels and child nutrition outcomes. The social rate of return to education is high, especially at the compulsory basic and senior secondary education grade cycles. Among men, social rates of return to education are 20% at the senior secondary schooling level and 15% at the compulsory basic education level. Among women, social rates of return to education are 20% at the compulsory schooling level and 18% at the senior secondary schooling level. These high

returns to compulsory basic and senior secondary education suggest that Sri Lanka under-invests in education at these levels. Externality effects, such as health and nutrition benefits, are also strong among primary and secondary educated mothers. Tertiary education generates high private returns to individuals, 26% for men and 24% for women. However, social returns to tertiary education, at 11% for men and 10% for women, are considerably below the private returns and smaller than for compulsory basic and senior secondary education. This suggests that the benefits of tertiary education accrue chiefly to individuals as private gains.

*Education, equity and poverty reduction*

10. Education exerts a powerful effect on poverty reduction and the economic welfare of the poor. The poverty rates of households fall sharply as the education level of the household head or principal income earner rises. The improvement in poverty rates is especially swift as household heads or principal income earners complete the basic education, GCE O/L and GCE A/L cycles. There is also a high degree of equity of government education investment across provinces, with progressively higher per student allocations for educationally disadvantaged regions. The broad range of policy measures to promote

enrolment, attendance and school completion, especially at primary and compulsory basic education levels, have enjoyed widespread success. And popular and successful policies, such as the norm-based unit cost resource allocation mechanism to distribute public resources to schools, have greatly enhanced the equity of resource distribution among schools. The allocation of public education spending across economic groups is progressive at the primary, basic and senior secondary education levels, with benefits relatively evenly distributed among all economic groups. However, at the tertiary education level the pattern of public education spending is regressive, with benefits accruing disproportionately to the highest economic class.

*Educated youth unemployment*

11. A major problem facing government policy makers is that of unemployed educated individuals, especially women. Unemployment rates tend to be highest among university graduates and GCE O/L and GCE A/L completers. The high unemployment rates of educated labor force participants are mainly caused by lengthy job search durations of new entrants into the labor market. These lengthy periods of job search have led to considerable social unrest in the past, particularly among university graduates. The main cause of high unemployment and long job

search among educated young people has been the slow growth rate of the economy, which has prevented the demand for educated labor rising sufficiently fast to absorb the increasing supply of educated young people entering the labor market. Secondary causes of educated youth unemployment have included the production of school completers and graduates with low generic skills in demand within the labor market, such as English language fluency and IT skills, the moderate quality of some university degree programs and inadequate orientation of the education system to the world of work, especially the development of skills such as a disciplined work ethic, good team work, creativity, flexibility and adaptability, effective communication and a problem solving approach to issues.

**Public and Private Investment in Education**

12. Government education expenditure in Sri Lanka currently amounts to about LKR 40,000 million (USD 415 million) annually. In recent years, the education budget has accounted for approximately 3% of national income and 7%-9% of government spending. This represents a comparatively modest level of public education investment by developing country standards. There are four main reasons for the relatively moderate volume of

public education investment in Sri Lanka: (i) the broad range of public services, such as universal free health care and wide-ranging access to poverty oriented safety nets, such as the Samurdhi program, which are generally not available in most other developing countries, and compete for government resources; (ii) high defense expenditure, which absorbs over 5% of GDP and crowds out other investments; (iii) low public revenue, which has contributed to large budget deficits and constrained government expenditures; and (iv) comparatively low teacher salaries, with Sri Lankan teachers receiving salaries about half or less, as a proportion of national income per capita, than teachers in countries such as India, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Thailand and South Korea.

*Capital expenditures: current spending and future priorities*

13. The tight budget constraint in recent years has fallen especially heavily on the capital budget. The education capital budget declined steeply from 5% of government capital spending in 1999 to 2.5% in 2002. In terms of shares of the education budget, the capital budget decreased from about 20% in 1998-2000 to 16% in 2001-02. This fall in capital investment constrained expansion and development of the education system. In terms of the composition of expenditures, the main share of

capital or investment expenditure in the school and university systems, accounting for over 80% of capital education investment, is on construction activities, mainly building of class room blocks in schools, and lecture halls, administrative complexes and residential facilities in universities. Only a relatively small proportion of resources, less than 20%, is invested in quality inputs, such as equipment, technology, furniture and tools. The classroom construction activities in the school system also appear *ad hoc*, without sound forward planning based on enrolment needs. In consequence, many rural schools carry excess capacity with empty classrooms, while urban schools are heavily congested and over-crowded. Construction activities in the university system, too, are uncoordinated, with heavy expenditure on buildings without a clear plan based on needs of the university system as a whole. As a result of the low investment in quality inputs, such as equipment and technology, the country could find itself on the wrong side of the digital divide and be seriously constrained in equipping future generations with the knowledge, skills and competencies required in the modern global knowledge economy.

14. The main challenges facing the education capital

budget are to:

- a. rationalize construction activities in the school system and universities;
- b. devote greater resources to expanding and increasing urban schools;
- c. enhance the allocation of resources to high level quality inputs, such as IT centers, science laboratories, libraries, workshops, activity rooms, multi-purpose rooms, computers, books, journals, audio-visual aids, educational software, equipment and tools in schools and universities; and
- d. improve the supply of basic facilities, such as water supply, sanitation and electricity, in rural and estate schools.

*Recurrent expenditures: current spending and future priorities*

15. The recurrent education budget has accounted for about 79%-84% of public education expenditure in the recent past. The chief component of recurrent education expenditure, accounting for about 85%-90% of the combined central and provincial recurrent education budgets, is salaries and wages. The major share of the salary bill is on the salaries of teachers and university staff, followed by the salaries of principals, education administrators and other staff grades. After salaries, the next highest shares of

recurrent education spending are on textbooks, which receive about 3% of the total recurrent education budget, and school uniforms, which account for about 2% of the total recurrent education budget. The balance funds are mainly used for administrative and operating costs such as electricity, communications, water and postal charges, and staff travel.

16. The principal challenges facing the recurrent education budget are to:

- a. allocate sufficient funds, once salaries and administrative costs have been met, to support education quality processes, such as professional development of teachers and principals, and delivery of on-site academic and administrative support to education institutions; and
- b. meet the operating costs of capital education investment in the school and university systems.

17. By international standards, average recurrent education expenditures per student in Sri Lanka are modest at primary and secondary education levels, but high at the tertiary education level. Average recurrent education expenditure per student as a share of national income per capita on primary and secondary education, at about 9% and 11% respectively, are among the lowest in South Asia and East Asia. In contrast,

average tertiary education expenditure per student as a share of national income per capita, at 100%, is slightly higher than India, and substantially above the level in East Asian countries such as South Korea, Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia and the Philippines. The main reason for the high share of public recurrent spending on tertiary education is the large unit cost of government universities. Overall, the pattern of average recurrent expenditure across education levels suggests that, in contrast to high performing East Asian countries, the balance of public resources in Sri Lanka may be tilted unduly in favor of tertiary education, at the expense of primary and secondary schooling.

*Unit costs and internal efficiency*

18. The internal efficiency of primary schooling (grades 1-5) and junior secondary schooling (grades 6-9), measured in terms of flow rates, are high. Repetition rates and drop out rates range from 2%-7%, with slightly higher repetition and drop out among boys than girls. The high student flow rates can be attributed to several policy measures: (i) the supply of sufficient school places, through the island-wide network of primary and secondary schools, to meet the demand for education from parents and students; (ii) incentive schemes,

such as free textbooks, school uniforms and subsidized transport, to enroll and continue through the school system; and (iii) automatic promotion from grades 1-11, with no formal mechanisms to fail pupils, unless students voluntarily repeat grades. Repetition rates at the key examination grades in the senior secondary education cycle, grades 11 and 13, however, are high. In grade 11, about 27% of students are repeaters, with the proportion of repeating boys and girls close to even. This is a high percentage, as it implies that about one in four students in grade 11 is in the class for the second time. In grade 13, the proportion of students repeating rises further. Among GCE A/L science students, 35% of students are repeaters, among GCE A/L arts students, 37% of students take the class for the second time; and among GCE A/L commerce students, 35% of students are repeaters. The repetition rates of boys and girls are very similar across grades 11 and 13, and among types of subjects. The GCE A/L repetition rates show that about 1 in 3 students in grade 13 is taking the class for the second time. The high repetition rates at grade 11 and grade 13 suggest the existence of considerable cost inefficiencies in the education system at these levels. The main reason for these high repetition rates at grade 11 and grade 13 are the low learning levels of students through the primary

and secondary cycle up to grade 11, which are exposed at the public examinations.

#### *Size and distribution of schools*

19. Sri Lanka maintains a large and geographically widely dispersed network of public schools, established over successive past generations to serve a population residing largely in rural areas. However, with economic development and expansion of the service and industrial sectors, the proportion of population living in cities and towns has been increasing in recent years. In addition, better transport and communications networks have placed rural villages in touch with schools in urban centers. In consequence, there has been sharply increasing demand for popular, prestigious urban schools and decreasing demand for rural and less prestigious semi-urban schools. This shift in demand has led to the existence of a large number of very small schools. About 5,900 schools (60% of schools) have less than 300 students. Further, about 2,700 schools (27% of schools) have under 100 students, and 1,360 schools (14% of schools) have less than 50 students. This network of small schools is expensive to maintain and operate. In particular, student-teacher ratios in small schools tend to be low, resulting in high unit recurrent costs. About 1,000 schools (10% of schools) have student-teacher ratios as low as 7:1 or less. Around 1,700

schools (17%) have student-teacher ratios less than 10:1, and about 6,000 schools (60%) have student-teacher ratios of 15:1 or less. Schools with such small student-teacher ratios are far more expensive to operate, and typically have unit recurrent costs about 100% greater than large schools with student-teacher ratios of about 25:1.

20. Public university education in Sri Lanka is expensive, with high unit operating costs in comparison to other developing countries. In addition, there are wide differences in unit costs among public universities, ranging from about 40,000-120,000 rupees per student per year. Generally, unit costs are related to student enrolment size, with smaller universities experiencing high costs and larger universities, which can reap economies of scale, enjoying low unit costs. The most expensive universities tend to be small, new institutions such as the Wayamba, Eastern and South-Eastern Universities. Larger, older universities such as Kelaniya, Sri Jayewardenapura, Colombo and Jaffna have the lowest unit costs, apart from the special case of the Open University, which only offers distance education courses and has high enrolment numbers and very low unit costs. The exception to the general rule above of an inverse relationship between unit costs and enrolment size is Peradeniya

University, which is the second largest university in terms of student numbers, but has unit costs comparable to the small South-Eastern University. A further important determinant of unit recurrent costs is the ratio of students to non-academic staff, as the latter strongly affects the university wage bill and hence recurrent expenditures. The public universities have extremely low student-non-academic staff ratios: ranging from 3:1 in universities such as Wayamba, Eastern, South-Eastern and Peradeniya to 8:1 in Sri Jaywardenapura. The average for student-non-academic staff ratio for the 12 public universities which offer on-site degree courses is only 4:1. In terms of academic staff to non-academic staff, too, the ratio is 1:4. This suggests a cost inefficient system, with an unduly large proportion of resources devoted to non-academic staff salaries.

#### *Private education expenditure*

21. Households invest considerable resources on education. In 1995/96, the most recent date for which information on household education expenditure is currently available, private expenditure in seven provinces was about 4,688 million rupees. At 1995/96 public education investment levels, this was equal to about 23% of government education expenditure. It was also greater than public capital education expenditure by about

13%. Based on certain assumptions concerning the income elasticity of demand for education, total private household education expenditure in 2002 can be estimated to be about 10,600 million rupees in 2002 prices. This would be equal to about 26% of total public education expenditure, and is 62% higher than the public capital education budget. This volume of household expenditure is in a legal and political economy environment unfavorable to private investment in education. The level of private investment could be substantially increased if the NEC (2003) proposals are implemented and the legal restriction on private schools is lifted.

### **Quality and Efficiency of Service Delivery**

22. The quantity and pattern of public expenditure on education is an extremely important determinant of education attainment and learning in a country. Equally important, however, is the quality and effectiveness of service delivery. In this context, Sri Lanka enjoys important positive features. A network of education institutions already exists to formulate policy; staff, plan and administer the school and university systems; develop curricula and syllabi for schools and degree programs in universities; provide professional development

opportunities for school principals, section heads and teachers, and university academics; and conduct examinations and provide certification that enjoys public confidence. Legally defined cadres exist for important services, such as the teachers' service, teacher educators' service and education administrators' service. The government also has reasonable financial management procedures, with double entry bookkeeping and cash accounting, although not yet accrual accounting. Further, there is both a supreme audit institution, the Auditor General's Department and an internal audit within the education system. Hence, the service delivery network of the education system is built on a strong foundation.

23. However, the service delivery network also faces a set of major structural challenges, especially to support policy initiatives to develop a high quality education system. These challenges include: (i) weak teacher deployment, with teacher surpluses in popular urban schools and teacher shortages in remote rural schools; (ii) high teacher absenteeism with, on the average, about one-fifth of teachers absent on a given school day; (iii) Low teacher salaries and poor teacher motivation, with teachers earning only about 85% of their incomes in 1978, in real terms;

(iv) inadequate managerial and academic empowerment of frontline education service delivery institutions, such as schools, National Colleges of Education (NCOEs) and Teacher Centers (TCs); (v) administrative weaknesses, with technical and operational constraints resulting from an excessive reliance on manual operations instead of automated and computerized systems, the absence of basic internal mechanisms and insufficient forward planning; (vi) external interference in administration which hampers decision making, rule compliance and civil service morale; (vii) procurement weaknesses, with problems in drawing up technical specifications, preparing tender and bidding documents, slow execution of technical evaluations, and weaknesses in producing clear and accurate technical evaluation and tender board reports and minutes; (viii) low academic salaries, leading to staffing difficulties in universities, especially those located outside Colombo and Kandy; (ix) university administrative and management structures excessively weighted towards undergraduate teaching and insufficiently oriented to support the full range of university outputs, including research, postgraduate programs, consulting and community services; and (x) student unrest in universities, leading to disrupted academic

programs and delays in course completion.

## **Education Quality and Learning Outcomes**

24. The Sri Lankan education system contains islands of excellence. Students from the best schools and university programs enjoy high demand in some of the world's leading universities and private corporations, and in international organizations. However, the average level education quality and learning outcomes are considered unsatisfactory by policy makers [see *NEC (1997),(2003)*]. Cognitive achievement tests among primary school children show substantial shortfalls in mastery of fundamental language and numeracy skills towards the end of the primary cycle. In first language (Sinhalese and Tamil), average mastery is only 37%. Writing (28%) and syntax (30%) are the weakest mother tongue skills. Comprehension (45%), too, is poor. Vocabulary skills (70%) are better, but even here one in three children has an inadequate command of the language. English language skills are extremely low. Only 10% of primary children achieve the targeted level of mastery. English language writing skills are virtually non-existent, with just 1% of children exhibiting the required skill level. English language comprehension (16%) and syntax (20%) are also very

poor. English language vocabulary skills are higher (35%), but show that two out of three children lack even this basic skill.

25. In mathematics achievement, too, overall mastery is only 38%. Mastery of mathematical concepts is 45%, procedures 51% and problem solving only 34%. The low level of cognitive achievement among primary students is especially worrying, from a policy perspective, as primary education forms the foundation upon which secondary and tertiary education and various types of skills training are built. Hence, the quality and performance of the entire education system is constrained by the low achievement levels in the primary grades.

26. In addition to these low overall achievement levels, there are also significant disparities in achievement between urban and rural areas. First language (Sinhalese or Tamil) mastery in urban areas is 51%, but falls to 34% in rural areas. In English language skills, 23% of urban children achieve mastery, but in rural areas only 7% of children reach mastery. In mathematics, 52% of urban children attain mastery, while just 35% of rural children achieve the required level of competence. Average learning achievements in the primary education cycle also show high regional variations. The proportion of primary students

attaining mastery of their first language, Sinhalese or Tamil, varies from 23% in the North-Eastern Province to 51% in the Western Province. Similarly, mastery of primary mathematics ranges from 25% in the North-Eastern Province to 52% in the Western Province, and mastery of English language competencies varies from 5% in the North-Eastern Province to 20% in the Western Province. The Central, Uva and North-Central Provinces, too, tend to perform poorly on language and mathematics scores. These regional and urban-rural differences can be attributed to a combination of factors, such as the lower quality of education services in disadvantaged provinces and rural areas, weaker parental capability and support, and poorer opportunities for child activities that promote learning.

27. The unsatisfactory state of education quality is also evident at the level of secondary education. The proportion of students passing the GCE O/L is low, only 37%, implying that about two out of every three students taking the examination fails. Further, this low pass rate has been fairly constant over the period 1998-2002. A substantial majority of students appear to struggle with subjects such as mathematics, English language, science and social studies. At the GCE A/L examination, too, pass rates have been around the 50-55 percent level since 1998 over

the 1998-2002 period. This implies that only about one out of every two students actually passes the GCE A/L examination. These are low pass rates at the GCE O/L and GCE A/L examinations, especially since successful completion of these examinations is necessary for a variety of skills training courses or access to tertiary education programs, or for entrance into a range of labor market occupations.

28. In addition to the problem of poor education quality as measured by low learning achievement scores or high examination failure rates, policy makers and employers have argued that other, non-cognitive dimensions of education quality are also unsatisfactory and need urgent improvement [see *NEC (1997), (2003)*]. Education policy makers have stressed the importance of producing characteristics such as a disciplined work ethic, good team work, creativity and initiative, a problem solving approach, effective communication, good leadership, flexibility, adaptability, initiative, drive and civic consciousness through the education system [see *NEC (2003)*].

### **Skills Development**

29. Skills development through technical education and vocational training (TEVT) is an important dimension of national policy. Economic analysis

shows that education and training are complements rather than substitutes in the Sri Lankan labor market, confirming the position of education policy makers that the best foundation for the world of work is a high quality general education [see *NEC (2003)*]. Individuals with greater education tend to receive more training and enjoy higher benefits from skills development. In particular, education and training interact positively to reduce job search and increase earnings. Formal training receives larger returns in the public sector, but the return on formal and informal training is about equal in the private sector.

30. The skills development sector faces a number of critical challenges. These include: (i) expanding the coverage of service provision to offer greater regional balance; (ii) stimulating private investment and forging private-public partnerships in service delivery; (iii) training mismatches, with the presence of TEVT courses for which there is insufficient demand and a shortage of TEVT courses which enjoy strong demand; (iv) internal inefficiencies in the sector with duplication of courses, outdated equipment and curricula, shortage of good trainers and high dropout rates; and (v) sub-optimal use of existing public sector workshops and laboratories; and insufficient linkages between the education and training sectors.

### **Early Childhood Development**

31. Early childhood development has begun to attract policy attention, especially given the emphasis on improving learning outcomes among young children and rising awareness of the central importance of the early pre-school years for brain development and cognitive capability. There has been a rapid growth of pre-schools and nurseries in recent years. In the 1970s, there were an estimated 2,000 pre-schools and nurseries. By 2003, this number had increased to be between 11,000 and 12,500, exceeding the quantity of schools in the country. Over 80% of pre-schools are in the private sector. The participation of children aged 3-5 in pre-school education, estimated to be about 20% in the 1980s, rose to 40% in 1994 and to about 60% in 2001. The Sri Lankan Draft Plan of Action for EFA sets a target of 80% coverage against a baseline of 62% for the period 2004 to 2008 and home based provision for the balance 20%.

32. The pre-school system faces several policy and developmental challenges. These include:

- a. widening service provision;
- b. increasing participation to meet the EFA goals;
- c. establishing quality standards and norms;

- d. creating awareness of appropriate curricula and pedagogical methods for pre-school children;
  - e. developing a system of teacher education and training for pre-school teachers;
  - f. linking pre-school activities and the primary education curriculum; and
  - g. creating an appropriate administrative structure, especially in the provincial councils, to encourage, support and develop pre-schools.
- Policy attention is urgently needed to address these challenges. Also, in future policy development, the government needs to build upon the broad foundation laid by the private sector in the pre-school system, as this substantially increases the resources invested and creates a built-in mechanism for quality development.

## The Forward Flowing Tide of Time: Options for the Future

### Enhancing Equity in Access

*Achieving universal enrolment and completion of compulsory basic education (grades 1-9)*

33. Sri Lanka has nearly completed the first stage of education development, providing universal access to primary and basic education, with primary (grades 1-5) completion rates of 97% and basic education (grades 1-9) completion rates of 83%. The final first generation challenge left is to attract and retain the last 17% of students, who currently drop out before completing grade 9, either within the formal school system or in non-formal education programs, until they complete the basic education cycle. These students belong to the poorest and most disadvantaged households in the country, including children in remote rural villages, street children in cities, students in isolated plantation communities and children in conflict affected areas. The government has a broad range

of initiatives to attract and retain these students in school, and achieve full enrolment and completion of the universal basic education cycle (grades 1-9), including:

- a. giving school children a choice of free textbooks;
- b. awarding free school uniforms;
- c. offering transport subsidies to attend school;
- d. reconstructing damaged schools in conflict affected areas; and
- e. providing special education, non-formal education and catch-up education programs as alternatives outside the formal school system.

These initiatives, especially special education, non-formal education and catch up education programs, need to be strengthened and implemented effectively. In addition, new demand-side initiatives, such as the use of economic incentives and social mobilization activities by local community

organizations, could be tried out among the most disadvantaged groups. Such demand side initiatives have proved successful in attracting and retaining hard to reach groups of children in several other countries, including South Asian neighbors such as India, Pakistan and Bangladesh.

34. Demand side actions to attract children from the most disadvantaged communities to school, based on successful international experience from other countries, can include:

- a. mobilizing local communities to promote school enrolment and attendance;
- b. creating a student-friendly environment, including producing attractive school buildings, comfortable class-rooms, and play areas; and
- c. reducing the opportunity cost of schooling, among working children in poor families, by linking a part of the income supplement

of the government poverty reduction program to school attendance or participation in alternative education programs by children in the relevant age group.

*Strengthening special education, non-formal education and catch-up education programs.*

35. In addition, the government could consider strengthening the role of special education, non-formal education and catch up education programs as alternatives to the formal school system. Priority development measures in this area include:

- a. clarifying the complementary role of these programs to formal education and on-the-job training;
- b. specifying the curriculum, learning outcomes and targeted populations of the various programs and installing a monitoring and evaluation system to give feedback to policy makers;
- c. improving linkages to the labor market, especially providing skills in sustainable livelihoods and income generating activities;
- d. increasing institutional capacity in the provincial education departments and zonal education offices to manage these programs; and

- e. developing the technical capacity of education staff engaged in delivering these programs.

### **Pursuing Excellence in Education Quality**

*Developing the quality of basic and senior secondary education*

36. The cardinal challenge facing Sri Lankan education policy makers is to develop and sustain a high quality education system. At present, the government has a wide array of development initiatives to improve the quality of the school system. These include:

- a. modernizing the school curriculum;
- b. promoting child-friendly teaching methods;
- c. improving the professional capabilities and skills of teachers;
- d. promoting effective school leadership and management; and
- e. reforming examination systems to enable flexible and continuous assessment of student performance.

These measures provide a promising foundation upon which Sri Lanka can build a high quality education system. The education development literature, the education reform experience of other countries, and the education experience of Sri Lanka itself, suggest several further development initiatives

that are urgently needed to improve the quality of education and establish high performing schools, universities and technical education institutions in the country.

*Improving understanding, at school level, of targeted competencies in the primary education curriculum*

37. Currently, the competencies, skills and expected learning outcomes of the primary school curriculum are clearly specified. However, understanding of these achievement levels among principals and teachers is limited and inadequate. Further, the capabilities of principals and teachers to translate these primary school achievement levels into effective teaching strategies in schools and classrooms are weak. The government could consider two key initiatives to combat this problem:

- a. ensure widespread dissemination and understanding of the competencies, skills and expected learning outcomes of the primary school curriculum among principals and teachers, including making printed versions of these achievement levels available to schools; and
- b. strengthen the capacity of teachers to equip students up to the achievement levels specified in the curriculum.

*Clarifying and detailing the secondary school curriculum*

38. Unlike in the primary school curriculum, the competencies, skills and expected learning outcomes of the secondary school curriculum are not clearly specified. In consequence, the secondary curriculum is disorganized, with poor sequencing across grade levels and cycles. In addition, schools are unable to set goals and targets for achievement levels in each grade, or organize their teaching methods and learning strategies around a clearly articulated curriculum.

Hence, two core development initiatives that can be considered by government to strengthen secondary education in the future are to:

- a. clarify and organize the secondary school curriculum, specifying the competencies, skills and expected learning outcomes in each grade and subject; and
- b. ensure widespread dissemination and understanding of these achievement levels among principals and teachers, including making relevant printed material available to schools.

*Strengthening professional competencies and skills of teachers*

39. The quality of the teaching force is of cardinal importance in any education

system. Sri Lanka invested heavily, over the past five years or so, to construct, staff and equip a complete network of national colleges of education (NCOEs) to provide pre-service teacher education and teacher centers (TCs) to deliver continuing teacher education. Virtually all school teachers are now trained, and enjoy opportunities for professional development during their career. The government can build on this institutional foundation to develop the professional capabilities and skills of teachers. Key actions that would help achieve this objective are:

- a. introducing continuing teacher training programs aimed at transforming and developing entire schools through on-site training, to complement the off-site training activities currently offered through teacher centers to enable individual teachers to upgrade their skills;
- b. modernizing the curricula and instructional practices of pre-service and continuing teacher training programs to equip teachers to utilize equipment and technology in teaching activities, such as course planning and organization, classroom practice, student assignments and homework, and assessment of student knowledge and skills;

- c. developing the curricula and instructional practices of pre-service and continuing teacher education programs to equip teachers with the pedagogical skills needed to promote child-centered and activity based teaching-learning approaches in the primary and secondary grade cycles;
- d. endowing teachers with the skills to forge partnerships with local communities to improve school quality;
- e. equipping teachers to assume responsibility, under the leadership of principals, to set and achieve high school performance standards; and
- f. strengthening the professional knowledge and understanding of subject areas and the pedagogical skills of teachers on a regular, continuing cycle over their teaching careers.

*Strengthening the leadership and management capabilities of principals, headmasters and headmistresses*

40. The central importance of high quality school leadership is appreciated by Sri Lankan education policy makers. A principals' training center is being developed to provide leadership and management training to principals and school

### Box 1. On Site School Based Training Support for Teachers in Egypt

School based training and support has been operating in several areas of Egypt since the mid-1990s for English teachers at the preparatory level. The main goal is to provide in-service training and support to increase the effectiveness of teachers through training and mentoring at the school site.

The targets of the programs include: (a) effective use of instructional texts by teachers in the classroom; (b) unifying teachers in a school and actively encouraging them to work as a team; (c) improving communication among Ministry of Education inspectors, senior teachers, school principals, school directors and parents; (c) recognizing and rewarding individual creativity to increase job satisfaction, enhance self-worth and motivate professional pride in teaching; (d) providing a model for sharing effective problem solving strategies; (e) actively encouraging individuals who are models of excellence and potential leaders in their schools; (f) providing a forum for participatory inputs that affects the sense of investment and consequent ownership that all participants develop towards their school; (g) encouraging inspectors, teachers and administrators to develop conflict resolution strategies; (h) encouraging active and communicative pupil participation in the learning process; and (i) institutionalizing the model of using the school as a unit for ongoing professional development.

The strengths of the program include the following: (a) receipt by teachers of teaching material on basic classroom techniques that can be used by teachers to make instructional texts and classroom practice more interesting and effective; (b) teachers are able to receive training without traveling long distances to a training site; (c) teachers can practice new techniques and discuss the new material with colleagues and senior teachers on a daily basis; (d) the principal (or other interested teachers) can give classroom demonstrations using SBT activities, or attend demonstrations given by other teachers in the school; (e) communication and sharing of ideas among staff improves; (f) the principal receives greater status and responsibility in the school; (g) teachers in schools which receive SBT develop a better rapport through working together; (h) all teachers in the school receive new material and observe demonstrations (rather than one or two teachers nominated to attend an off-site training session); (i) it provides a positive focus for school inspector visits, classroom observations and meeting with teachers; and (j) principals monitor teaching activities on a day-to-day basis and can thus better assist inspectors on their observation visits.

Source: LeBlanc, 1997.

section heads such as headmasters and headmistresses. Further, policy measures are being introduced to empower principals and devolve considerable managerial power to schools. Strengthening the leadership skills and managerial competencies of school principals, headmasters and headmistresses is a key area for development. Important leadership and management skills required in the future include the abilities to:

a.	clearly articulate the vision and educational goals of schools;	e.	motivate staff and students towards high performance;
b.	organize schools to implement the curriculum effectively;	f.	deploy and utilize physical resources to promote school goals;
c.	match the pedagogical competencies of teachers to the classroom and co-curricular needs of schools;	g.	develop close ties with community organizations, including parent-teacher associations and past pupils' associations; and
d.	appraise staff, especially teachers, and progressively improve their competencies and skills;	h.	maintain high visibility and accessibility to pupils, teachers, parents and other community members.

*Developing academic and administrative support systems for schools*

41. Support networks that provide academic and administrative assistance and guidance to schools are at a rudimentary stage in Sri Lanka. The existing system of in-service advisors to provide support to schools is poorly developed. Strengthening this system is of strategic importance for future education development. Priority areas for future development include:

- a. clearly articulating the roles and responsibilities of in-service advisors;
- b. selecting and appointing in-service advisors on the basis of proven professional competence and performance;
- c. equipping in-service advisors to provide services, including information and training regarding good instructional practices, to schools to raise performance;
- d. utilizing in-service advisors effectively to evaluate and provide constructive feedback on the academic performance and efforts of school principals and teachers; and
- e. incorporating on-site support to schools into the regular development activities of provincial

education authorities and zonal education offices.

*Expanding the education capital stock and increasing the use of equipment and technology in teaching and learning*

42. As Sri Lanka stands poised on the threshold of the second stage of education development, the school system needs to advance from a low-technology environment heavily dependent on “chalk and talk” to a modern, equipment and technology intensive education system. The education capital stock of IT centers and equipment, science laboratories, libraries, activity rooms, instruments and tools, needs to be increased in stages. Concurrently, equipment and technology have to be awarded a prominent role in teaching methods, learning approaches and examinations. For instance, instructional time in science can be weighted more in favor of laboratory work, and lab-based assignments used as part of the assessment mechanism. Similarly, teaching methods in subjects such as mathematics and physics can include the use of educational software to enable, *inter alia*, self-paced learning among children. Audio equipment can be utilized in language instruction, especially English, to develop vocabulary, pronunciation and oral fluency. And increasing use of libraries and reading material provide an extremely effective method of enhancing learning outcomes.

*Improving the quality of textbooks*

43. Textbooks constitute the main learning resource in the education system. Further, for a developing country such as Sri Lanka, it is likely to remain the chief quality input for many years into the future. As such, ensuring high quality textbooks is vitally important. In recent years, the government has implemented an important policy initiative to increase the quality of textbooks and widen the choice of textbooks available to schools by dismantling a state monopoly and opening textbook publication to competitive private firms. Future development of private sector textbook publication could include the following key steps:

- a. enhancing the technical capacity of textbook writers, illustrators and editors in the country;
- b. strengthening quality control of manuscripts and drafts, including checking factual accuracy and eliminating material that hurts different religious and ethnic groups,
- c. speeding up contracting and delivery to ensure timely distribution to schools prior to the commencement of the academic year; and
- d. developing technical capacity among writers to produce supplementary reading material,

## Box 2. School-Level Pilots in Civics and Citizenship - an Example from Northern Ireland

The two-year 'Social, Civic and Political Education Project' was a partnership between the Council for Curriculum, Examinations & Assessment, and a university. The project included the development and trialing of curriculum resources, teacher training modules, and models of cooperation between schools, curriculum developers, NGOs and community organizations. Through a process of piloting different approaches, the project arrived at a model of teaching and learning where 'citizenship' concepts were designed to be investigated, rather than taught didactically: "In the attempt to move beyond 'polite exchange' and to avoid a compliance model of citizenship we have arrived at an investigatory curriculum driven by questions rather than answers."

workbooks and textbook guides.

### *Enhancing the health and nutrition status of children*

44. The analysis of the relationship between cognitive scores and school, household and health variables show that poor health and low nutrition status among children are negatively associated with learning outcomes. In consequence, attempts to improve education quality and learning levels could benefit from actions to improve the health and nutrition levels of poor children. The basic framework for an effective school health and nutrition program could contain the following core elements:

- a. health-related school policies that provide a safe and secure physical environment, a favorable and affirmative psycho-social environment, and address issues such as student abuse, sexual harassment, school violence, and bullying.
- b. good school construction and maintenance practices

to ensure safe drinking water and adequate, clean sanitation facilities;

- c. skills based health education to develop knowledge, attitudes, values and life skills to enable students to make and act on the most appropriate and positive health related decisions; and
- d. school-based health and nutrition services to address problems such as micronutrient deficiencies and worm infestations, hunger, dental caries, myopia and hearing impediments.

### *Promoting social cohesion through education*

45. Enhancing civic knowledge and understanding among students is an important measure to promote respect for diversity, democratic governance and civic liberties in the backdrop of the 20 year long secessionist conflict in the country. Additional measures to promote social cohesion through education include producing textbooks that are sensitive to the cultures of different social

groups, using the curriculum and co-curricular activities to promote respect for diversity, introducing schools where children from different ethnic groups can study together and promoting the use of English as a link language. These are useful measures, although their impact clearly depends on the cooperation of different social groups. In particular, the cooperation of dominant groups in the conflict affected areas are needed to promote these activities effectively.

### *Reconstructing damaged education institutions in conflict affected areas*

46. Enrolment and learning levels are lowest in the conflict affected areas, which experience special challenges caused by the destruction of education infrastructure. Government education institutions in the conflict affected areas, especially schools, suffered damaged during the conflict period. An assessment of the reconstruction, rehabilitation and developmental needs of the region [see UNICEF-World Bank (2003)] estimated that

about USD140 million is required to restore the education capital stock in the region. Technical capacity, however, is a major challenge in implementing education reconstruction and rehabilitation work in the conflict affected regions. In particular, there are shortages of material and skilled labor. Also, as funds have poured into the region for reconstruction work, prices of goods and wages have risen. Long-term support to restore the education system in the conflict affected areas requires considerable capacity building activity.

*Improving the quality of university education*

47. The university system has not experienced the same intensive process of consultative policy development as the school system. However, the UGC and individual universities have developed several initiatives to enhance quality. These include reforming curricula and examination systems, especially organizing degree programs around course unit systems and introducing continuous assessment systems, developing corporate plans for universities, introducing performance appraisal systems for staff, setting up an accreditation process under an independent board, and introducing an element of performance based funding. These initiatives have yet to be tested, and good evaluations,

especially of the older initiatives such as the introduction of course unit systems and continuous assessment mechanisms, could be helpful to policy makers and academics.

**Orienting the Education System to the World of Work**

48. The Sri Lankan education policy framework stresses the importance of orienting the education system to the world of work [see NEC (2003)]. Policy makers are aware that the best foundation for the world of work is a high quality school system which can supply the labor market with trainable individuals and provide a strong spring board for technical, professional and university education. The school system plays a pivotal role in producing knowledge and generic skills, such as team work, decision making, initiative, problem solving, responsibility, leadership and communication, which are important in the world of work. The school system also constitutes the basic curriculum framework for the acquisition of knowledge and specific capabilities in demand in the labor market. Plans to improve the orientation of the Sri Lankan education system to the world of work needs priority development initiatives in curricula, use of IT and technology in education, language skills and fluency, and career guidance and counseling.

*Developing and implementing an activity based curriculum*

49. The activity based curriculum approach advocated by Sri Lankan policy makers for secondary education is explicitly designed to develop a sound work ethic among school children [see NEC (2003)]. As such, it can play a key role in orienting the education system to the world of work. The future development and implementation of the activity based curriculum approach depends on key initiatives to:

- a. train teachers in activity based pedagogy;
- b. train principals to organize schools for an activity based curriculum;
- c. provide sufficient classroom space and activity rooms to implement activity based learning; and
- d. make adequate equipment, technology and reading material available in schools to support activity based teaching and learning.

*Increasing IT literacy and skills and introducing IT based teaching and learning*

50. IT literacy and skills are fundamental in the modern world, and vastly increase the national and global labor market prospects of school completers and university graduates. Education policy makers are aware of the cardinal importance of IT, and advocate expanding

and deepening the use of IT in the education system. This is an extremely important, high priority policy measure. Key initiatives to develop the use of IT in the school system and implement IT based teaching and learning include:

- a. equipping schools with IT facilities and connectivity in stages;
- b. establishing a national education network to maximize access to IT based education material;
- c. training teachers in IT equipment, educational software and on-line education resources;
- d. creating awareness among school principals on the use of IT in education; and
- e. making provision for IT equipment and IT based educational resources in school quality input allocations.

*Improving English language skills*

51. English language skills and fluency enjoy strong demand in the national labor market. In addition, English language competency opens job prospects in the global economy. In consequence, developing English language skills constitutes a central element of the education policy framework to improve the labor market orientation of the school system. Important development initiatives for the future include:

- a. allowing private schools to provide students a choice of English as a medium of instruction, along with Sinhalese and Tamil, from grade 1 upwards;
- b. introducing English as a medium of instruction in government schools in stages, as and when adequate teachers become available;
- c. training teachers, including re-training " excess teachers " in the system, to teach English as a subject;
- d. training teachers, including re-training " excess teachers " in the system, to teach in English as a medium of instruction;
- e. utilizing audio-visual educational resources and IT based education material widely for English language teaching and learning.

*Strengthening skills development and training*

52. Skills development constitutes the chief active labor market strategy of the government to promote the job prospects and labor productivity of school leavers. Several promising development initiatives and policy measures have been proposed by policy makers, including:

- a. strengthening the Technical and Vocational

Education Commission (TVEC) as the apex body for TEVT;

- b. developing the role of government to function as a facilitator, standard setter and regulator of training;
- c. fostering private sector participation in training;
- d. promoting government-industry partnerships in skills development;
- e. accrediting and monitoring the quality of public and private training institutions;
- f. rationalizing the public sector TEVT system;
- g. improving the linkages of the TEVT system with the school and university systems; including establishing career guidance and counseling in schools and universities;
- h. promoting vocational training for the informal sector; and
- i. providing financial incentives for training targeting the corporate sector.

These are rational and potentially productive ideas, reflecting international thinking and practice. The actual stage of development of these various policy initiatives is modest, with many ideas still at the level of blue prints. Translating these policy ideas into development strategies and implementing them constitute the next major

challenges faced by the TEVT sector.

*Developing career guidance and counseling*

53. An important government recommendation to link education to the world of work is the development of effective career guidance and counseling. Universities have commenced career guidance and counseling activities. However, in the school system, career guidance and counseling is virtually non-existent. Developing career guidance and counseling in schools is an important initiative for future implementation. Key actions to promote this initiative include:

- a. training a core cadre of school staff in career guidance and counseling;
- b. prioritizing schools in poor regions in the development of guidance and counseling, as students in such areas have less access to labor market information; and
- c. developing information networks between vocational training and technical education institutions and guidance counselors in schools.

**Education Resource Allocation and Distribution**

54. The government faces several cardinal challenges to ensure universal completion of the basic compulsory education

cycle (grade 1-9), enhance the quality of education, orient the education system to the world of work, improve equity of public spending, strengthen service delivery within the system, and develop the economic and social relevance of the education and training system. These challenges exist at a time when public investment in education is modest by developing country standards, government education spending has been declining in real terms and the state experiences a heavy fiscal deficit which compels a conservative budgetary policy. In this context, it is extremely important that the education system uses the limited public resources available equitably and efficiently.

*Improving equity and quality through future development of the norm-based, unit cost resource allocation mechanism*

55. The norm-based, unit cost resource allocation mechanism used to allocate public resources to schools during the last 4-5 years has considerably increased the equity of resource allocation and distribution in the education system. The first stage of implementation of this formula treated all schools similarly, with adjustments only for school size to accommodate economies of scale, poverty levels of the most disadvantaged schools, and variations in subjects taught and grade cycles covered. The country can now move on to the second stage of the norm-based,

unit cost resource allocation mechanism. This would involve:

- a. allowing variation in the funding formula to incorporate provincial and zonal differences in education needs and socio-economic development;
- b. refining the formula to allocate resources for curriculum enhancement in schools selected, over successive development stages, to increase the equipment and technology intensity of the curriculum, and offer IT based education and English medium education;
- c. strengthening the technical and institutional capacity of central and provincial education and finance authorities to allocate and distribute resources according to the more advanced model of the norm-based, unit cost resource allocation mechanism.

*Enhancing the efficiency and equity of public education spending across education cycles*

56. The social benefits of education are highest at the compulsory basic education and senior secondary education cycles. This suggests that the best return to education investment is at the basic education and senior secondary

### Box 3. Components of an Education Resource Allocation Formula and Some Examples from Developed Economies.

An education resource allocation formula typically has four components:

- I. A basic allocation, based on the numbers of students in a school, and a grade level supplement to cover the differential resource of different grades. The norm-based unit cost resource allocation mechanism developed for schools in Sri Lanka over the past 6 years focuses on this component.
- II. Curriculum enhancement, where additional resources are provided for selected groups of students, with the choice based on ability or aptitude. For instance, in Australia, the State of Victoria provides funds for a number of state wide initiatives to enable schools to participate in specific-purpose programs such as instrumental music programs and languages other than English. In New Zealand, additional staffing is provided to operate manual training centres to support the delivery of technology programmes and extra resources are awarded to facilitate school-to-work transition.
- III. Supplementary educational needs, especially to promote equity by accommodating special groups such as children with learning impediments. For instance, in the U.S.A. school districts in Cincinnati and Seattle provide supplementary resources for special education and school health programs, while in Edmonton, Canada special resources are provided for children with mild, moderate and special disabilities.
- IV. School site allocations, to take into account differential school costs, based on location, that are caused by structural factors outside the managerial control of the school. Typically, such factors include physical isolation from population centers, regional differences in the prices of educational resources and environmental features such as altitude and temperature. In the United Kingdom, for instance, small schools receive supplementary resources to protect them from losing on the basis of diseconomies of scale. The formula implemented in Sri Lanka, too, has special provision for small schools and for schools located in cold temperatures above 5,000 feet.

education levels. The pattern of student enrolment over major grade cycles, and the unit costs of education by grade level, show that investment in basic and senior secondary education are relatively progressive and benefit students from low and middle income households substantially, whereas investment in tertiary education mainly tends to benefit students from upper-income households. In consequence, there is a strong case for allocating the major share of any increase in public resources for the education sector to basic and senior secondary education, while carefully controlling the expansion of the public

university system and allowing enrolment expansion in tertiary education take place mainly in the private sector. Opportunities for poorer students to access tertiary education could be expanded through schemes such as student vouchers and student loans, rather than through direct provision.

#### *Intra-budget shifts in resource allocation to enhance education quality*

57. Development initiatives to improve the quality of education and orient the education system to the world of work, such as increasing the equipment and technology intensity of the curriculum, promoting IT

literacy and IT based education, and expanding English language fluency and skills, will require substantial investment in the education capital stock. Hence, over time, the balance of capital and recurrent spending within the education budget needs to shift to allocate a greater share of resources to capital expenditure. Within the capital budget, a higher proportion of resources needs to be invested in quality inputs such as IT centers, science laboratories, libraries, activity rooms, multi-purpose rooms, books, journals, computers, educational software, equipment, technology and tools. The construction and expansion of

buildings, which absorbs the highest share of the capital budget, needs to be rationalized, prioritizing the urban school system which is experiencing rising demand. Within the recurrent budget, too, resources need to be reallocated from salaries and administrative expenses to quality processes, such as teacher education and training, management and academic training of school principals, the purchase of teaching material and learning resources, and to meet the operating expenses of higher capital investment.

*Increasing private sector investment and participation in education*

58. As the country advances to higher levels of education quality the education system needs to supplement the government budget by raising alternative sources of revenue. This is especially important and

urgent in an unfavorable macroeconomic environment with a large and persistent budget deficit. Relaxing legal obstacles to the establishment of private schools and introducing strategic initiatives to counter the adverse political economy environment to private sector participation in education could produce several benefits:

- a. it would increase the overall volume of resources invested in the education sector,
- b. since the students attending private schools and education institutions are likely to be drawn from upper income families, it would release more public resources, on a per student basis, for students from poorer families,
- c. it would stimulate economic activity in a sector where investment

has been artificially restricted and contribute to higher growth, and

- d. it would provide an alternative model of service delivery, with considerable power and responsibility at the level of the individual education institutions, such as private schools and institutes. These private education institutions would be compelled to offer high quality services to remain viable in an economic context where they are in competition with free public education institutions.

59. The establishment of private universities has been an extremely contentious issue, with several past attempts resulting in student violence and social unrest. Hence, it is highly unlikely that private universities

**Box 4. Tertiary Education Strategy in the Republic of Korea**

The Republic of Korea is one of the outstanding economic success stories of modern times. The Republic of Korea also has an education system that consistently comes among the top achievers in numerous global studies of education performance. As the country grew rapidly from the 1960s onwards, reaching a per capita income level that now places it among the ranks of high income countries, the education system also expanded to keep pace with the growth of the economy and the rising demand for educated labor. The tertiary education system made a key contribution to growth at the higher industrial and service levels. Key stages in the development of tertiary education in Korea were: (a) in the 1960s, encouragement of private institutions, with limited public funding for capital costs and scholarships; (b) in the 1970s and 1980s, the expansion of engineering and technical education to meet human resource requirements; and (c) in the 1990s, a focus on quality, research and development capacity, accountability, deregulation, and performance-based funding. Two key outcomes of the tertiary education strategy in Korea are: (i) the proliferation of private tertiary education institutions in Korea, enrolling 85% of the total student population by 2000; and (ii) active promotion of university-industry partnerships by the government. The predominance of the private sector in tertiary education financing and provision has enabled Korea to increase the supply of highly educated labor rapidly enough to exploit the growth opportunities enjoyed by the economy.

Source: World Bank (2002).

can be established in Sri Lanka in the medium-term. The government has responded to the opposition to private universities by encouraging the private sector to participate in non-contentious areas. These have mainly been the establishment of private degree awarding institutions, usually linked to foreign universities, and investment in tertiary level programs such as professional courses and technical fields. The government needs to explore options to expand private participation in tertiary level non-university education, especially in professional and technical fields where the demand for labor, both within and outside the country, is strong.

*Promoting cost sharing in public university education*

60. The analysis clearly shows that public university undergraduate education yields high private returns, well in excess of social returns, and disproportionately benefits the wealthiest quintile of households. Given these facts, there is a strong case for increasing the share of university income that is drawn from private households. Equally, it is important to take into account the political economy context of Sri Lanka, where tuition free public university education has been the norm for decades, and the international experience of countries that have sought to

introduce cost sharing into free public university systems, which have resulted in strong resistance, especially from student groups. Hence, it is unlikely that Sri Lanka will be able to introduce cost sharing into public undergraduate education anytime in the near future. However, over the long-term, especially as the economy grows and the wealth of households increases, cost sharing will need to become a live policy option. In this context, an area which has aroused considerable interest in transition economies is that of income contingent student loans. The government could consider pilot testing some student loans of this type, perhaps to be used in private tertiary institutions in the first instance. Meanwhile, an area where cost sharing is possible in public university education is that of postgraduate degrees. The majority of postgraduate students in universities are employed and engage in part-time, fee paying courses. This is an area that has considerable potential for further expansion to increase university incomes and improve the supply of well educated human resources in the country.

**Improving the Quality and Efficiency of Education Service Delivery**

61. Development initiatives and strategies to widen education access to the poorest

and most disadvantaged economic groups, improve education quality and learning outcomes, and orient the education system to the world of work, also requires strengthening the efficiency and quality of service delivery within the education system. Government strategy to improve service delivery contains several promising elements.

*Empowering frontline service delivery institutions, such as schools and universities*

62. A key government policy initiative under consideration is to devolve managerial power to frontline service delivery institutions, such as schools and universities. In the school system, the aim of devolving managerial authority is to empower principals, headmasters and headmistresses, and teachers; enable schools to forge links with local communities to improve resource mobilization and public accountability; and improve the speed and sensitivity of decision making by decreasing administrative layers. In devolving managerial autonomy to schools, it is important that different models of school development boards be pilot tested, as the governance capacity of schools varies significantly, depending on such factors as location, size and history. For instance, the main public schools in cities and towns are likely to possess vastly greater managerial

## Box 5. Alternative Models of School Based Management in Developed and Developing Countries

School-based management can involve a variety of activities in which responsibility to make decisions about one or more of the following is devolved to the school level: the allocation of resources; choice of teaching materials; approval of school budgets; setting policies within centrally determined guidelines; drawing up a school development plan; preparation of an annual performance report; a mechanism for teachers to be involved in certain decisions; purchase of advisory services; hiring and firing of staff; staff development training; setting disciplinary policies; assigning students and staff to classes; paying teachers' salaries; and a role for parents, through a school-site management body, board, or council of teachers, parents, and other members of local communities, in an advisory or decision-making capacity.

SBM systems vary in the degree of emphasis they accord to one or more of these activities. On the basis of the activities which are most prominent, four models have been identified: an administrative control model, a professional control model, a community control model, and a balanced control model.

- I. In the administrative control model, the principal teacher makes decisions about budget, personnel, and curriculum, following consultation with teachers, parents, students, and community representatives. An example of this model is to be found in Edmonton, Canada, where the head can make decisions in almost all areas of school administration (personnel, budget, curriculum).
- II. In the professional control model, teachers make decisions about budget and curriculum (and occasionally about personnel). The model is based on the assumption that professionals that are closest to students have the most relevant knowledge for decision-making. A council with decision-making powers that includes parents may be associated with this model; if this is the case, teachers will have the largest proportion of members. Examples of systems in which teachers assume leadership are to be found in Santiago, Chile and Columbus Ohio in the U.S.A.
- III. The community control model is based on the assumption that the school curriculum should directly reflect the values and preferences of parents and the local community, to which the school should be accountable. In this model, parents/ community will have the majority, or at least the greatest proportion, of membership on school councils and will be empowered to make decisions about curriculum, budget, and personnel. In the extreme case (e.g., in New Zealand), the council makes decisions about budgets, the appointment and dismissal of principal teachers, teachers, and other staff, building maintenance, and overall performance of the school. The community control model of SBM is also found in Australia and in El Salvador where it originated in rural areas during civil war when families got together to run schools in the absence of government services. The success of this experience moved the government to open the governance of schools to teachers, parents, and students.
- IV. The balanced control model attempts to balance professional and parental control. Teachers' knowledge is privileged in making key decisions in the school; the school, however, is accountable to parents and the local community. In one balanced control SBM model (in Spain), the school council is responsible for student admissions, curriculum, budget, school management, extra-curricular activities, supervision of administration and instruction. The mixed model is also found in Nicaragua.

While the models provide a useful conceptual framework, it should be noted that considerable variation exists in how they are implemented from site to site.

capabilities and sophisticated administrative staff, tailor authorities. These measures, community support than small academic salaries to individual however, may be controversial rural schools in remote villages. staff members, and decide on from a political economy perspective. For instance, 63. Universities already enjoy considerable autonomy, but increase the motivation, providing universities freedom further powers to recruit responsibility and accountability to tailor academic salaries to of university staff and individual staff members can be

highly controversial in a context where academics are accustomed to a uniform salary scale. Similarly, devolving responsibility for student admissions to individual universities has to be made consistent with the policy of allocating student quotas to disadvantaged districts.

64. The government could also consider applying the principle of devolving governance to other education institutions, such as National Colleges of Education (NCOE's) and Teacher Centers (TC's). Currently, the NCOE's have little managerial responsibility and autonomy. Curriculum design, assessment and certification of teacher education courses offered by NCOE's are undertaken by the National Institute of Education (NIE). Recruitment of academic staff is to a centralized teacher educators service, and NCOE's rarely have a voice in the choice of academic staff allocated to them. TC's operate in an inefficient administrative structure. The NIE designs the curricula of continuing teacher education programs offered by TC's. The NCOE's act as academic advisors to TC's. For administrative purposes, including finances, the TC's come under the zonal education offices. This complex administrative and academic structure has badly hampered the development of TC's. Devolving a greater degree of

managerial autonomy and responsibility to NCOE's and TC's could increase the operational efficiency of the institutions and enhance the quality of service delivery.

*Developing performance appraisal systems and introducing fiscal incentives for performance*

65. The strengthening of performance appraisal systems could contribute strongly to higher quality service delivery. Within the university system, performance appraisal has commenced, especially for academic staff. However, measures to introduce performance appraisal to the school system have proved controversial, and left undeveloped. Three key initiatives that could assist the government to introduce performance appraisal effectively into the school system are:

- a. communicating to stakeholders, especially education unions, the value of performance appraisal systems as feedback mechanisms to strengthen service delivery and reward good performance, rather than as punitive measures for poor performance;
- b. designing performance appraisal systems for the various education services, such as the teachers service,

education administrators service, principals service and the teacher educators service, in close consultation with stakeholders, including the relevant unions; and

c. enhancing the technical capacity of education institutions and education administrators to manage and utilize performance appraisal systems.

66. Introducing financial incentives for performance, especially for key services, can also be a promising initiative. For instance, poor teacher deployment and high teacher absenteeism in difficult areas is a key constraint on effective service delivery within the education system. Further, the impact of weak teacher deployment falls disproportionately on poor students, as the most unpopular regions, where teacher absenteeism is highest, are typically remote, economically disadvantaged, rural locations. To improve teacher deployment and attendance, the government could implement the NEC (2003) proposals to offer financial incentives to teachers locating in schools in difficult areas. In addition, to reduce teacher absenteeism, teachers could be entitled to encash unutilized leave. The main constraint to introducing fiscal incentives for performance is the tight budget situation, which precludes expensive new policy

measures. However, if cost savings could be generated within the education system, some of the resources obtained could be allocated to introduce such performance incentives measures.

*Streamlining roles, responsibilities and accountability within the education system*

67. Many of the measures suggested to improve education service delivery would require government officials in the central ministry, provincial councils and zonal offices to assume new and additional roles and responsibilities, while devolving some of their current powers to frontline service delivery institutions, such as schools, national colleges of education and teacher centers. During this process of decentralization and empowerment of local institutions, the current pattern of responsibility and accountability and the future models required need to be analyzed carefully.

*Human resource development of central, provincial and zonal education authorities*

68. The complex system of education governance, with multiple tiers of administration at the central, provincial and zonal levels, requires a wide range of administrative, technical and operations skills and competencies from staff working at each tier. An overall human resource strategy needs to be developed and implemented, across the different tiers of the education system, to equip central, provincial and zonal education staff with the necessary administrative, technical and operations skills and competencies. In addition, this strategy needs to provide for regular and continuous updating of skills and competencies as technical and operations skills advance and develop.

*Institutional strengthening of central, provincial and zonal education authorities*

69. Strengthening the operational procedures, capabilities and performance of

central, provincial and zonal education authorities can contribute significantly to the quality and efficiency of education planning, administration and service delivery in the future. Lessons from recent policy measures and development initiatives, including reforms supported by donors such as the World Bank and Asian Development Bank, suggest some key areas where institutional strengthening is urgently required.

*Administrative processing*

70. The administrative processes in central, provincial and zonal offices tend to be long and cumbersome, resulting in considerable delays in operational activities. One major reason for these delays are the use of outdated manual systems for important administrative tasks, including correspondence, filing, record keeping and inventory control. Developing computerized operating systems for normal and routine administrative tasks would substantially increase the efficiency of government operations.

**Box 6. Use of National Assessment Results in Argentina**

Following a national assessment of learning outcomes in Mendoza Province, each school received an individualized report at the beginning of the school year, which contained results for the school as well as provincial, departmental, and sectoral (urban, rural marginal and rural) average scores. Test scores for the school were disaggregated by classroom and by student, as well as skill area (geometry, probability etc.), and test item. Schools were assigned an overall ranking relative to all other schools within their sector. A series of analytical documents, videos and workshops about specific difficulties encountered by students and proposing pedagogical changes to address perceived shortcomings was provided. Patterns of student achievement in terms of gender, geographical location, and public/private management variables were described.

### *Strengthening procurement capabilities*

71. The ability of government officials to draft bidding documents, prepare technical specifications, praise proposals, and draw up technical evaluation reports and tender board recommendations to international standards is limited, resulting in lengthy procurement processes. Strengthening the procurement capabilities of government officials, hence, is an important area for future institutional development.

### *Addressing political economy constraints*

72. Communicating the rationale for controversial but important policy measures to stakeholders and beneficiaries and building stakeholder participation in reforms is an important area where government capacity is still modest. For instance, the government implemented a school rationalization program over 1998-2002, which achieved over 75% of its target. This was a well-designed, successful rationalization program. However, it generated intense controversy, and central and provincial education authorities were unable to explain the rationale for the program clearly to local communities, resulting in its temporary suspension in 2003. Similarly, the government commenced a multiple textbook policy, to widen choice and improve quality, which

generated intense controversy and delayed implementation for several years. Again, central and provincial education authorities lacked the capability to communicate the policy effectively. The country also has, in the aggregate, a surplus of school teachers, although there are deficiencies in certain subjects, especially English, and in the Tamil medium. However, there is intense pressure to employ more teachers, inter alia to reduce the pressure of unemployed educated young people. Again, government agencies have often found it nearly impossible to withstand this pressure. Hence, strengthening the ability of government education agencies, at each level of the administrative tier, to communicate the rationale for potentially controversial policy measures and build stakeholder support is a vitally important area for future institutional strengthening.

### *Capacity development to undertake education research and analysis, policy formulation and planning*

73. There are three key initiatives that would contribute to the development of a high performing education system, especially at the level of analysis, policy formulation and planning.

### *Promoting education research, monitoring and evaluation*

74. Sound research,

monitoring and evaluation, based on statistically valid procedures and measurable indicators, is extremely valuable for policy makers. In advanced education systems analytically rigorous education research and evaluation, including national assessments of learning outcomes, constitutes the foundation for policy formulation. The Sri Lankan education system currently has several promising initiatives, such as the annual school census, the assessment of grade 4 learning outcomes by NEREC, and the NEREC qualitative study of education management practices, that provide a basis for a rich and informative monitoring and evaluation framework. This education research, monitoring and evaluation system could be developed with special emphasis on the analysis of education performance and causal factors useful for policy making. Education research, monitoring and evaluation activities can be encouraged to utilize both quantitative and qualitative methods, and use modern research techniques such as experimental designs, randomized trials and longitudinal surveys.

### *Medium-term budgeting and a multi-year planning horizon*

75. An important initiative to improve education planning and resource management is the development of a medium-term budget framework to facilitate

multi-year planning. The medium term budget could cover a period of about three years, with provision for annual updating to take into account fresh information and needs. The medium-term budget could also be embedded in a long-term rolling plan for education development. It would facilitate education planning, and management by improving the predictability of resources and providing a longer-term development horizon than is permitted by the current annual budgets.

*Public expenditure tracking*

76. A public expenditure tracking system would constitute an important management tool for education policy makers and finance officials and complement the medium-term budgeting system. It would provide the central government and the provinces information on the flow of funds through the education system and the actual level of resources reaching various service delivery points, such as schools, universities, national colleges of

education and teacher centers. It would also increase the transparency of resource flows through the system. Such information could then feed back into policy formulation and resource allocation as education development needs evolve, and central government and provincial plans are refined.



# කායවිකාශන කාරාංශය

## සමාලෝචනය, ප්‍රධාන නිගමන හා අනාගත විකල්ප

### ප්‍රාරම්භය

1. ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය, ප්‍රාථමික අධ්‍යාපනයට හා ද්විතියික අධ්‍යාපනයට පුළුල් අවස්ථා සලසමින් අඩු ආදායම් පවත්නා ආර්ථිකයකට ප්‍රමාණවත් වූ උසස් මට්ටමක මානව සංවර්ධනයක් රටට උදාකරලීමට සමත්කම දැක්වූ නිසා සංවර්ධන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් අතරෙහිත් ආර්ථික ප්‍රකාශනවලත් ප්‍රශංසාවට ලක් වී තිබේ. 1990 දශකයේ මුල් අවධිය දක්වා සංවර්ධනය වන රටවල් සියල්ල අතරින්ම වාගේ ප්‍රතිශීර්ෂ ආදායමට සාපේක්ෂව උපරිම මූලික සමාජ සංවර්ධන ප්‍රතිලාභ භුක්ති විඳීමට ශ්‍රී ලංකාව සමත් විය. මේ සාර්ථකත්වය, පරම්පරා ගණනාවක් තුළ නිරතුරුවම අධ්‍යාපනය, සෞඛ්‍යය හා වෙනත් සමාජීය සේවාවන්හි සම්පත් ආයෝජනය කිරීමට ගන්නා ලද උපායශීලී රාජ්‍ය ප්‍රතිපත්ති තීරණවල ප්‍රතිඵලයකි. 1930 දශකයේත් 1940 දශකයේත් අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියේ මූලික සැලසුම් රාමුව සකස් කළ ශ්‍රී ලාංකික ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් මානව ප්‍රාග්ධනය වැදගත් ආර්ථික හා සමාජීය වාසි පුළුල් පරාසයක් ඉපැයීමේ විභව ශක්තියක් ඇති සවිශ්වාස ආයෝජනයක් ලෙස දැකීමෙන් සිය කාලය ඉක්මවා අනාගතය දෙස දුර දක්නා නුවණින් බලා ඇත.

2. එහෙත් අවාසනාවකි, පසුගිය පණස් වසර තුළ රටේ ආර්ථික කායවිකාශනය, අධ්‍යාපන සංවර්ධන වේගය හා සමඟ පියනැඟීමට අසමත්වීමෙන් අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියේ අනිටු ප්‍රතිවිපාක කිහිපයක් ඇති විය. රටේ දුර්වල ආර්ථික වර්ධන වේගය නිසා සිදුවූයේ දකුණු කොරියාව, සිංගප්පූරුව, හොංකොං, මැලේසියාව හා තායිලන්තය වැනි වැඩි වේගයෙන් වැඩුණු රටවල් හා එකට ගමන් කරනු පිණිස අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි ආයෝජනය සඳහා ප්‍රමාණවත් සම්පත් කලක් තිස්සේම ශ්‍රී ලංකාවෙහි හිඟවීමය. මෙහි ප්‍රතිඵලයක් වශයෙන් ශ්‍රී ලංකාවට

අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි ලා තිබුණු මුල්තැන ගිලිහී ගියේය. මීට අතිරේකව, මන්දගාමී වර්ධන වේගය තුළ ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළට පිවිසෙන උගත් තරුණ පෙළ නමැති සැපයුමට සරිලන පරිදි උගත් ශ්‍රම ඉල්ලුම ප්‍රමාණවත් වේගයෙන් ව්‍යාප්ත නොවීය. මෙහි ප්‍රතිඵලය වූයේ උගත් තරුණ විරැකියාව නමැති නොවිසඳුණු ගැටලුවක් පැවතීමය. වර්තමාන ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයෝ රටට නැතිවූණු ඒ අධ්‍යාපනික වාසියත් එහි ගැටලුත් වටහා ගෙන සිටිති. එබැවින්, මෑත කාලයෙහි අධ්‍යාපනය තියුණු මහජන විමසුමටත් විවාදයටත් ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදනයටත් භාජනය වූ විෂයයක් වී තිබේ. [NEC (1997), (2003) බලන්න.]

### සංවර්ධන ප්‍රතිපත්ති ආකෘතීන්ට සාපේක්ෂව අධ්‍යාපන සංවිධානය

3. ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය සම්භාව්‍ය වට්ටෝරුවේ වැදගත් කරුණු දෙකක් අනුගමනය කර තිබේ. පළමුව, එය සමස්ත ජනතාවටම මූලික අධ්‍යාපනයක් ද්විතියික අධ්‍යාපනයක් සම්පාදනය කර, ඒ සඳහා මුදල් යෙදවීමේ වැදගත්කම අවධාරණය කර ඇත. අධ්‍යාපන දෘෂ්ටිය අරබයා 1930 දශකයේ හා 1940 දශකයේ ඇරඹුණු මෙම අවධාරණය පරම්පරා ගණනාවක් ඉදිරියෙන් සිටියේය. දෙවනුව, මූලික අධ්‍යාපන හා ද්විතියික අධ්‍යාපන වක්‍ර වෙත අවධාරණය තබමින් තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනය කෙරෙහි රාජ්‍ය සම්පත් යෙදවීම සීමා කරන ලදී. මූලික අධ්‍යාපනයේ සඵලතාව, ප්‍රාථමික සෞඛ්‍ය ප්‍රතිලාභ හා සමාජ සංවර්ධන දර්ශක යන මේ කරුණු ඉහළ-මධ්‍යම ආදායම්ලාභී සහ සංවර්ධිත රටවල දක්නට ලැබෙන මට්ටම්වලට ආසන්න වීමෙන් මෙම ප්‍රතිපත්තිවල ප්‍රතිඵල පසු පරම්පරාවල දී නොලාගෙන ඇති බව පෙනී යයි.

4. ශ්‍රී ලංකාව සම්භාව්‍ය වට්ටෝරුවෙහි එක් වැදගත් අංශයකින් අනෙක් මගක් ගෙන ඇත. 1960 මුල් කාලයේදී 1-9 ශ්‍රේණි සඳහා පෞද්ගලික පාසල් පිහිටුවීම නීතියෙන් තහනම් කෙරිණි. මේ නීතිමය තහනම අද දක්වාම වලංගුව පවතී. මේ හේතුවෙන්, පාසල් පිහිටුවීම නීති මඟින් තහනම් කරන ලෝක රටවල් අතලොස්ස අතරෙහි ශ්‍රී ලංකාව ද ගැනේ. කොස්ටාරිකා ද ඉන්දියාවේ කේරළ ප්‍රාන්තය ද වැනි උසස් මූලික අධ්‍යාපන සඵලතා මට්ටම් ගැන ප්‍රසිද්ධියක් ඇති අඩු අදායම්ලාභී අනෙක් රටවල් ද පෞද්ගලික අංශය කෙරෙහි බලාපොරොත්තු තබා ඇත. නිදසුනක් ලෙස, කේරළයේ පාසල් බඳවා ගැනීමේවලින් අඩකට වැඩිය පෞද්ගලික පාසල් කරා ඇදී යයි. ප්‍රකාශිත නීතිමය බාධකයක් නැතත්, ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ දේශපාලන අධ්‍යාපන පාලනය තුළ පෞද්ගලික විශ්ව විද්‍යාල සඳහා ආයෝජනය කිරීම මුළුමනින්ම වාගේ දුෂ්කරය. එසේ වුව ද, 1990න් මෙපිට "විශ්ව විද්‍යාලය" යන නම යොදා නොගන්නා තාක් පෞද්ගලික උපාධි ප්‍රදානය කරන ආයතන පිහිටුවීමට ඉඩ සලස්වා තිබේ. විධිමත් පෞද්ගලික විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පිහිටුවීම තහනම් කිරීමෙන් ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය තුළ සිදුවී ඇත්තේ ප්‍රාථමික හා මූලික අධ්‍යාපනයන්, ඉන්පසු, ද්විතියික අධ්‍යාපනයන් කෙරෙහි රාජ්‍ය සම්පත් ඉඳුරා වෙන් කරමින් විශ්ව විද්‍යාල අධ්‍යාපනය විශාල වශයෙන් පෞද්ගලික අංශයට භාර දෙන දකුණු කොරියාව වැනි උසස්තම ඵලදායී අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධති ඇති රටවල ක්‍රියාත්මක ආකෘතියෙන් වෙනස් මගක් ගැනීමකි. එහෙත් මෑතකදී, ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් විසින් පෞද්ගලික පාසල් හා පෞද්ගලික විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පිහිටුවීම පිණිස නීති සංශෝධන නිර්දේශ කර තිබේ. [NEC (2003) බලන්න.] මේ වූ කලී නව මං පහදන යෝජනාවකි. මෙය ක්‍රියාත්මක වුව හොත්, අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය විසින් ලා ගත් මහත් හැකිල්ලක් ගිලිහී යාමෙන් ශ්‍රී ලංකාවට වෙනත් රටවල් සමඟ වඩා සම තලයක තරඟ කිරීමට ඉඩ ලැබෙනු ඇත.

**බඳවා ගැනීමේ රටා හා ප්‍රවණතා**

**අනිවාර්ය අධ්‍යාපන චක්‍රය (1-9 ශ්‍රේණි)**

5. 1 ශ්‍රේණියේ දැනට ඇතුළත් කර ගැනීම පිරිමි හා ගැහැණු දෙවර්ගයටම සමාන අයුරින් 97% කි. ළමයින් සියල්ලම පාහේ 5 ශ්‍රේණිය සම්පූර්ණ කරති. අනිවාර්ය අධ්‍යාපන චක්‍රයේ අවසානය වන 9 ශ්‍රේණියේදී සමාජ කිරීමේ අනුපාතය පිරිමි ළමයින් වෙනුවෙන් 81% ද, ගැහැණු ළමයින් වෙනුවෙන් 84%

ද වේ. ප්‍රාථමික අධ්‍යාපනය (1-5 ශ්‍රේණි) හා කතිෂ්ඨ ද්විතියික අධ්‍යාපනය (6-9 ශ්‍රේණි) උදෙසා බඳවා ගැනීම් ඉහළ මට්ටමක පවතින්නේ නොමිලයේ (නිදහස්) ඉගැන්වීම, අගතිගතමින් පීඩනයන් සඳහා විශේෂ අධ්‍යාපන වැඩසටහන්, නොමිලයේ පෙළ පොත්, නොමිලයේ නිල ඇඳුම් හා සහනදායී ප්‍රවාහනය වැනි අනුපූරක හා අන්‍යෝන්‍ය සවි ගන්වන ප්‍රතිපත්ති කිහිපයක්ද අධ්‍යාපනය ලබාගැනීම පිණිස මාපිය වැඩිහිටි ආදීන්ගේ ප්‍රබල ඉල්ලීම ද හේතු කොට ගෙනය. ලැබී ඇති සාක්ෂ්‍ය අනුව දැනුදු 18% ක් 9 ශ්‍රේණිය සම්පූර්ණ කිරීමට අසමත් වන බව පෙනෙන හෙයින් ශ්‍රී ලංකාවෙහි තවමත් සමස්ත අනිවාර්ය අධ්‍යාපනය ඉටු නොවන බව පැහැදිලි වේ. එහෙයින්, වයස 6-14 කාණ්ඩයෙහි සිටින ළමයින් සියල්ලටම වසර නමයක අධ්‍යාපනයක් දීමේ ඉලක්කය සපුරා ගැනීමට සෑහෙන ප්‍රමාණයක අභියෝගයක් තවමත් පවතී. තවද, 9 ශ්‍රේණිය සමාජ කිරීමට අපොහොසත් වන 18% දිළිඳු පවුල්වලින් හෝ ඇත පිරිසර ගම්මාන වැනි ආර්ථික අගතිගතමින් පෙළෙන ප්‍රදේශවලින් හෝ සටන් නිසා විනාශ වූ ප්‍රදේශවලින් හෝ වතුකරයෙන් හෝ පැමිණෙන්නන් වීමත්, නැතහොත් විකලාංගී ආබාධිතයන් වීමත් නිසා සාධාරණතාව මත වැදගත් ගැටලුවක් ද මතු වේ. මෙවන් පරිපීඩිත සමාජ ආර්ථික කණ්ඩායම් වෙත ලඟාවී සමස්ත බඳවා ගැනීමේ හා අනිවාර්ය අධ්‍යාපන චක්‍රය සමාජ කිරීමේ ඉලක්කය සපුරා ගැනීමට නම් ශක්තිමත් ප්‍රතිපත්තිමය ක්‍රියාමාර්ග අවශ්‍ය වේ.

ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතියික අධ්‍යාපනය, අ.පො.ස. සා./පෙ. හා අ.පො.ස. උ./පෙ. වකු

6. අ.පො.ස. සා./පෙ. (11 ශ්‍රේණිය) හා අ.පො.ස. උ./පෙ. (13 ශ්‍රේණිය) විභාගවල සාපේක්ෂ අඩු සමත්වීමේ අනුපාත ඇති ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතියික වකුයෙහි පාසල් සමාජ කිරීමේ අනුපාත මෙතරම් සතුටුදායක නැත. මුළු රටටම අදාළ වූ අ.පො.ස. සා./පෙ. විභාගයෙහි සමත්වීමේ සාමාන්‍ය අනුපාතය 37% වීමෙන් හැඟී යන්නේ හැම අයදුම්කරුවන් තිදෙනෙකුටම එක් අයෙකු තරම් අඩුවෙන් මේ විභාගය සාර්ථකව නිම කරන වගය. උතුරු-නැගෙනහිර, උතුරු-මැද, ඌව, මධ්‍යම වැනි රටේ වඩා දිළිඳු හා අගතිගතමින් අධිකව පෙළෙන ප්‍රදේශවල මෙය 31%-32% වේ. අ.පො.ස. සා./පෙ. ප්‍රතිඵලවල සාමර්ථ්‍ය අනුපාත 48% හෙවත් සෑම අපේක්ෂකයන් දෙදෙනෙකුට පමණ එක් අයෙකු සමත්වීම වාර්තා කරන සමාද්ධිමත් හා දියුණු බස්නාහිර පළාත පමණක් භූගෝලීය ප්‍රදේශ අතරෙහි

කැපී පෙනෙයි. අ.පො.ස. උ./පෙ. සාමර්ථය අනුපාතවල සාමාන්‍යය, මුළු රටටම 56% හෙවත් සෑම අපේක්ෂකයන් දෙදෙනෙකුට පමණ එක් අයෙකු සමත්වීම සලකුණු කරයි. උ./පෙ. වක්‍රය වෙත පිවිසෙන්නේ දක්ෂතම සිසුන් බැවින් මෙය අව-පක්ෂයට බරවීමකි. උභව පළාතේ 52% සිට වයඹ හා උතුරු-නැගෙනහිර 58% අතර පවතින සමත් වීමේ පළාත් අනුපාත බෙහෙවින් සමාන බව පෙනී යයි. රට පුරාම අ.පො.ස. උ./පෙ. සමත්වීම් අනුපාත සාපේක්ෂව සමාන වීමට ප්‍රධාන සාධක දෙකක් දැක්විය හැකිය. (1) හැම පළාතකම උසස් තත්වයේ ද්විතීයික පාසල් ජාලයක් ඇති කිරීමට ගන්නා ලද ඇරඹුම් පියවර හා (2) විශේෂතාවේ ප්‍රතිඵල: එනම්, අ.පො.ස. උ./පෙ. වක්‍රයේ සිසුන් ඒ ඒ වයස් කාණ්ඩවල අති දක්ෂ සිසුන් වීම යන මේ දෙකය.

7. අ.පො.ස. සා./පෙ. හා අ.පො.ස. උ./පෙ. සාමර්ථය අනුපාතවල කාල ප්‍රවණතාව අනුව පෙනෙන්නේ පසුගිය වසර දහය පමණ කාලය තුළ සා./පෙ. සාමර්ථය අනුපාත දියුණු වූ අතර, උ./පෙ. සාමර්ථය අනුපාත සාපේක්ෂව නොවෙනස්ව පැවති බවකි. සා./පෙ. අනුපාත 1993 දී 22% පමණ සිට 2002 දී 37% දක්වා වැඩි වීණි. ඉහුදු, වැඩිම දියුණුව වූයේ 1990 මැද හා අග කාලයේය. අසාමාන්‍යව උසස් 1995 ද, අසාමාන්‍යව දුර්වල 1999 ද අත්හළ විට 1994 හා 2002 අතර කාලය තුළ උ./පෙ. සමත්වීමේ අනුපාත සාමාන්‍යයෙන් සම මට්ටමක පැවතිණ. අ.පො.ස. සා./පෙ. හා අ.පො.ස. උ./පෙ. විභාගයේදී අපේක්ෂිත තත්වයට සිසුන් පැමිණවීම පිණිස අධ්‍යාපනයේ ගුණාත්මක අංශය වැඩිදියුණු කිරීමේ ප්‍රබල අභියෝගයට මුහුණදීමේ අවස්ථාවට ශ්‍රී ලංකාව පත්වී ඇතිබව ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් වටහා ගෙන ඇත.

**තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයට බඳවා ගැනීම**

8. තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනය සඳහා සමස්ත බඳවා ගැනීම්, සුදුසුකම් ලද ජන සංඛ්‍යාවෙන් 11% පමණ වෙයි. මෙය දකුණු ආසියාවේ සාමාන්‍යය වූ 10% මඳක් වැඩිවන අතර, ඉන්දියාව, මොරොක්කෝව, වියට්නාමය හා මොරිෂස් වැනි රටවල් හා දළ වශයෙන් සමානය. තවද දකුණු කොරියාව, සිංගප්පූරුව, හොංකොං, තායිලන්තය වැනි රටවල් දැන් ශ්‍රී ලංකාව පවතින ආර්ථික සංවර්ධන තත්වයේ පැවති කාලයේ ලබාගත් මට්ටමට ද සමානය. තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයට බඳවා ගැනීම්වලින් වැඩි කොටසක්, එනම් 6% පමණ, සම්ප්‍රදායික විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවලින් හා විධිමත් තාක්ෂණික අධ්‍යාපන

අංශයෙන් බැහැර වූ පාඨමාලා සඳහා වී තිබේ. මෙසේ බැඳුණු ශිෂ්‍යයන් පිවිස ඇත්තේ තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණය, කළමනාකරණය, ගණකාධිකරණය, වාණිජ්‍යය, නීතිය, ව්‍යාපාරවේදය හා මූල්‍යය වැනි විවිධ වෘත්තීය පාඨමාලා සපයන පෞද්ගලික අංශයට හෝ විදේශීය විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවලටය. විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල බඳවා ගැනීම් දළ වශයෙන් 3%ක් ද උසස් තාක්ෂණික අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි 2%ක් පමණ ද වේ. තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයේ බඳවා ගැනීම්වලින් 70%ක් පමණ පෞද්ගලික අංශයේ වූ අතර ඉතිරි කොටස රාජ්‍ය අංශයෙහි වූයේය. ප්‍රාථමික හා ද්විතීයික මට්ටම්වල තත්වයට ප්‍රතිපක්ෂව, තෘතීයික මට්ටමෙහි දී පෞද්ගලික අංශයේ බඳවා ගැනීම්වල ඉහළ අනුපාතය, තෘතීයික මට්ටමෙහි පෞද්ගලික ආයෝජන නීති මගින් තහනම් නොකෙරෙන ප්‍රතිපත්ති රාමුව තුළ වූ සංසිද්ධියකි. තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයේ බඳවා ගැනීම්වල කාල ප්‍රවණතාව අනුව පෙනී යන්නේ, මෑත කාලයේ දී බැඳීම් වැඩිවීමකි. එය 1997 දී 8% සිට 2002 දී 11% දක්වා වැඩිවී තිබේ. මුළුමනින්ම තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයේ බඳවා ගැනීම් අනුපාත 1997 සිට 2002 කාලය තුළ 38%ක් පමණ ප්‍රසාරණය වී ඇත. ඉතාම මෑත වර්ෂවල දී පෞද්ගලික තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපන ආයතනවල මේ වර්ධනය වෙසෙසින් වේගවත් වී තිබේ.

**අධ්‍යාපනයේ ආයෝජනයෙන් ලැබෙන ආර්ථික හා සමාජීය ඵල-ප්‍රයෝජන**

**බාහිර කාර්යක්ෂමතාව හා අධ්‍යාපනයේ ප්‍රතිලාභ අනුපාත**

9. අධ්‍යාපනයේ ආයෝජනයෙන් ශ්‍රී ලංකාවට ඉපැයෙන පුළුල් ආර්ථික හා සමාජීය ඵල-ප්‍රයෝජන සමූහය ඇතුළත උසස්තර මානව ප්‍රාග්ධනය හා ඉපැයුම්, වැඩිදියුණු වෘත්තීය උපලබ්ධි හා සමාජ-වලනය, ශ්‍රම බලකායෙහි ස්ත්‍රී සහභාගිත්වය වැඩිවීම, විශිෂ්ට පවුල් සෞඛ්‍ය මට්ටම් හා ළමා පෝෂණ අභිවෘද්ධිය යනාදිය ගිණිය යුතුය. අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිලාභයෙහි සමාජීය අනුපාතය, විශේෂයෙන් අනිවාර්ය මූලික හා ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපන ශ්‍රේණි වක්‍රයෙහි දී ඉහළ මට්ටමක පවතී. පිරිමින් අතරේ අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිලාභයෙහි සමාජීය අනුපාත ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතීයික පාසල් මට්ටමෙහි දී 20%ක් ද, අනිවාර්ය මූලික අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටමෙහි දී 15%ක් ද වේ. ස්ත්‍රීන් අතරේ අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිලාභයෙහි සමාජීය අනුපාත අනිවාර්ය මූලික අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටමෙහි දී

20%ක් ද, ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතියික පාසල් මට්ටමෙහි දී 18%ක් ද වේ. මෙලෙස, අනිවාර්ය මූලික හා ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතියික අධ්‍යාපනයේ ඉහළ තලයක ප්‍රතිලාභවලින් හැඟී යන්නේ යටකී අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටම්වල දී මෙරට අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි උගත ආයෝජනයක් පවතින බවය. සෞඛ්‍ය හා පෝෂණ ඵල ප්‍රයෝජන වැනි බාහිර ප්‍රතිඵල ද ප්‍රාථමික හා ද්විතියික අධ්‍යාපනය ලද මැණිවරුන් අතරේ සුලබය, ප්‍රබලය. තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනය, පුද්ගලයන්ට උසස් පෞද්ගලික ප්‍රතිලාභ, එනම් පිරිමින්ට 26%ක් ද ස්ත්‍රීන්ට 24%ක් ද වශයෙන් උපයා දෙයි. එහෙත්, පිරිමින්ට 11%ක් හා ස්ත්‍රීන්ට 10%ක් වැනි තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයේ සමාජීය ප්‍රතිලාභ පෞද්ගලික ප්‍රතිලාභවලට වඩා බෙහෙවින් අඩුය. එමෙන්ම, අනිවාර්ය මූලික හා ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතියික අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිලාභ තරම්වත් නොවේ. මෙයින් හැඟෙන්නේ තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයේ ප්‍රතිලාභ ප්‍රධාන වශයෙන්ම පුද්ගලයන්ගේ පෞද්ගලික ලාභ වශයෙන් ඔවුන්ට හිමිවන බවයි.

**අධ්‍යාපනය, සාධාරණතාව හා දිළිඳුකම පිටුදැකීම**

10. දිළිඳුකම අඩුකිරීමෙහි ද දිළින්නන්ගේ ආර්ථික ශ්‍රහසිද්ධිය සැලසීමෙහි ද අධ්‍යාපනය ප්‍රබල අයුරින් බලපායි. පවුලක ප්‍රධානියාගේ හෝ ප්‍රධාන ආදායම්ලාභියාගේ හෝ අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටම ඉහළ නැතිද්දී ඒ ඒ පවුල්වල දිළිඳුකම් අනුපාත තියුණු ලෙස පහත වැටේ. පවුල් ප්‍රධානීන් හෝ ප්‍රධාන ආදායම්ලාභීන් හෝ මූලික අධ්‍යාපනය, අපොස සා/පෙ හා උ/පෙ වකු සමාජික කරත් ම දිළිඳුකම් අනුපාතවල වැඩිදියුණුව වෙසෙසින් ඉක්මන් වේ. අධ්‍යාපනිකව වරප්‍රසාද-හීන ප්‍රදේශවලට ක්‍රමිකව වැඩිවන ප්‍රති-ශිෂ්‍ය ප්‍රතිපාදන සහිත වූ රජයේ අධ්‍යාපන ආයෝජන පිළිවෙතෙහි පළාත් අතර උසස් ප්‍රමාණයක සාධාරණතාවක් ද දක්නට ලැබේ. ඇතුළුවීම්, පාසල් පැමිණීම හා සමාජීය සම්බන්ධ පහසුකම්, විශේෂයෙන් ප්‍රාථමික හා අනිවාර්ය මූලික අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටම්වල දී, වර්ධනය කිරීම උදෙසා වූ පුළුල් පරාසයක ප්‍රතිපත්ති පියවර ඉතා සාර්ථක අයුරින් ව්‍යාප්ත වී තිබේ. තවද පාසල්වලට රාජ්‍ය සම්පත් බෙදාහැරීම පිණිස වූ ප්‍රතිමාන පාදක ඒකීය පිරිවැය සම්පත් වෙන්කිරීමේ යාන්ත්‍රණය වැනි ජනප්‍රිය හා සාර්ථක ප්‍රතිපත්ති පාසල් අතර සම්පත් බෙදාහැරීමේ සාධාරණතාව බෙහෙවින් දියුණු කර ඇත. අධ්‍යාපනය සඳහා ආර්ථික කණ්ඩායම්වලට රජයේ වියදම් වෙන්කිරීම ප්‍රාථමික, මූලික හා ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතියික මට්ටම්වල දී ක්‍රමයෙන් වැඩිවෙත් ම එහි ප්‍රතිඵල සියලු ආර්ථික කණ්ඩායම් අතර සාපේක්ෂව සමාන අයුරින් බෙදී යයි. එහෙත්,

තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටමේ දී රාජ්‍ය අධ්‍යාපන වියදම් රටාව ප්‍රතිගාමී වෙමින් ඉහළතම ආර්ථික පන්තියට විෂමානුපාතිකව වැඩි ප්‍රතිලාභ අත්කර දෙයි.

**උගත් තරුණ විරැකියාව**

11. රැකියා විරහිත උගතුන්, විශේෂයෙන් කාන්තාවන් පිළිබඳ ගැටලුව රජයේ ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් විසින් විසඳිය යුතු විශාල ගැටලුවකි. විශ්ව විද්‍යාල උපාධිධාරීන්, අපොස සා/පෙ හා උ/පෙ සමතුන් අතර විරැකියා අනුපාත ඉහළතම මට්ටමක පවතින වගක් පෙනේ. උගත් ශ්‍රම බලකායට පත්වන්නන් අතර අධික විරැකියා අනුපාත ඇතිවීමට බෙහෙවින් හේතුවන්නේ ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළට පිවිසෙන නවකයන් රැකියා සෙවීමෙහි දිගු කලක් නිරතවීමය. මෙලෙස දිගු කලක් රැකියා සෙවීමට සිදුවීමෙන් පසුගිය වකවානුවේ දී සෑහෙන ප්‍රමාණයක වියවුල් ඇතිවිය. මෙය විශේෂයෙන් තදබල වූයේ විශ්ව විද්‍යාල උපාධිධාරීන් අතරෙහිය. අධික විරැකියාවටත් උගත් තරුණයන්ට දිගු කලක් රැකියා සෙවීමෙහි යෙදීමටත් ප්‍රධාන හේතුව නම් ආර්ථිකයේ මන්දගාමී වර්ධනයයි. මෙහිදී සිදුවන්නේ ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළට ඇතුළු වන උගත් තරුණ පිරිස් නමැති වැඩිවන සැපයුම මුළුමනින් උකහා ගැනීමට තරම් වේගයකින් උගත් ශ්‍රමය පිළිබඳ ඉල්ලුම නැඟියාමට බාධා පැමිණීමය. උගත් තරුණ විරැකියාවට ද්විතියික හේතු අතරේ ගත හැකිවන්නේ ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා ප්‍රවීණතාව, තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණ කුසලතා වැනි ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළෙහි ඉල්ලුම ඇති ගණිය කුසලතාවන්හි දුබල පාසල් සමාජිකරුවන් හා උපාධිධාරීන් බිහිකිරීම, ඇතැම් විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පාඨමාලාවල නුසස් ගුණය, විශේෂයෙන්ම විනිත ශ්‍රම-සමාවාරය, යහපත් කණ්ඩායම් හැඟීම්, නිර්මාණ කෞශල්‍යය, සුනම්‍යතාව, අනුවර්තනය, සාර්ථක සන්නිවේදනය හා ගැටලු විසඳන ආකල්පයකින් කරුණු විමසීම ආදී කුසලතා දියුණු වන පරිදි අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය ශ්‍රම ලෝකයට ප්‍රමාණවත්ව නැඹුරු නොවීම යනාදිය ගිණිය යුතුය.

**අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි රාජ්‍ය හා පෞද්ගලික ආයෝජන**

12. මෙකල ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ රජයේ වාර්ෂික අධ්‍යාපන වියදම ලංකා රුපියල් මිලියන 40,000 (ඇමෙරිකානු ඩොලර් මිලියන 415) වේ. මෑත වර්ෂවල දී අධ්‍යාපන විය-පැහැදුම් දළ වශයෙන් ජාතික ආදායමෙන් 3%ක් ද රජයේ වියදමෙන් 7-9% අතර ද ගණනය වූයේය. සංවර්ධනය වන රටවල ප්‍රමිති අනුව බැලූ කල මෙය

රජයේ අධ්‍යාපන ආයෝජන වශයෙන් සාපේක්ෂව සුළුතර මට්ටමකි. ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ රජයේ අධ්‍යාපන ආයෝජන මෙතරම් සුළුතර වීමට ප්‍රධාන හේතු ලෙස 1) නොමිලයේ සැපයෙන සර්වත්‍ර සෞඛ්‍යාරක්ෂාව ද සංවර්ධනය වෙමින් පවතින අන් බොහෝ රටවල සාමාන්‍යයෙන් නොමැති දිළිඳුකම ඉලක්ක කරගත් සමෘද්ධි වැඩසටහන වැනි රජයේ සම්පත්වලට තරඟ කරන ආරක්ෂණ ජාලවලට පිවිසීමේ පුළුල් අවකාශ ද ඇතුළු විශාල මහජන සේවා පරාසය 2) දළ දේශීය නිෂ්පාදිතයෙන් (GDP) 5%ක් වැය ගන්නා හා වෙනත් ආයෝජන පසෙකට තල්ලු කරන විශාල රාජ්‍යාරක්ෂක වියදම් 3) රාජ්‍ය අයවැය ලේඛනයෙහි ඉමහත් හිඟයකට තුඩු දෙමින් රජයේ වියදම් අවහිර කරන රජයේ පහත් ආදායම් හා 4) ඉන්දියාව, බංග්ලාදේශය, මැලේසියාව, තායිලන්තය හා දකුණු කොරියාව වැනි රටවල ගුරුවරුන්ගේ ප්‍රතිශීර්ෂ ආදායමේ අනුපාතයක් ලෙස ගත් කල සාපේක්ෂව අඩක් පමණ හෝ ඊටත් අඩු වූ පහත් වැටුප් ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ගුරුවරුන්ට නියම වීම යන කරුණු හතර දැක්විය හැකිය.

*ප්‍රාග්ධන වියදම්: වර්තමාන විය-පැහැදුම් හා අනාගත ප්‍රමුඛතා*

13. මෑත කාලයේ දී දැඩි අය-වැය අවහිරයකට ලක් වූයේ ප්‍රාග්ධන අය-වැය ලේඛනයයි. 1999 දී අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රාග්ධන අය-වැය රජයේ ප්‍රාග්ධන විය-පැහැදුමෙන් 5% සිට ක්ෂණිකව පිරිහීමෙන් 2002 දී 2.5% විය. අධ්‍යාපන අය-වැයෙහි කොටස් අනුව සැලකූ විට, 1998-2000 දී 20% පමණ වූ ප්‍රාග්ධන අය-වැය 2001-02 දී 16% දක්වා අඩුවිය. ප්‍රාග්ධන ආයෝජනයේ මේ පහත වැටීම අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියේ ප්‍රසාරණය හා සංවර්ධනය අවහිර කළේය. වියදම් සංයුතිය අනුව, පාසල් හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතිවල අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රාග්ධන ආයෝජනයෙන් 80%ට වැඩි කොටසක් වන ප්‍රාග්ධන හෝ ආයෝජන වියදමේ විශාලතම කොටස වැය වී ඇත්තේ ඉදිකිරීම්, එනම් පාසල්වල පන්ති කාමර ජේළි හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල දේශන ශාලා, පරිපාලන සංකීර්ණ සහ නේවාසික පහසුකම් ආදිය සඳහාය. උපකරණ, තාක්ෂණය, දැව භාණ්ඩ හා මෙවලම් වැනි ගුණාත්මක යෙදවුම් සඳහා ආයෝජනය වී ඇත්තේ සම්පත්වලින් සාපේක්ෂව ඉතා සුළු කොටසක් හෙවත් 20%ටත් අඩු ප්‍රමාණයකි. පාසල් පද්ධතියේ පන්ති කාමර ඉදිකිරීම් පවා සිසුන් බඳවාගැනීමේ අවශ්‍යතා හෝ යහපත් අනාගත සැලසුම් හෝ නොමැතිව හිතූ-හිතූ වේලාවට කළ සේ පෙනේ. මෙහි ප්‍රතිඵලයක් වශයෙන් පිටිසර පාසල් ගණනාවක හිස් කාමර සහිත අතිරික්ත

ධාරිතාවක් පවතිද්දී නාගරික පාසල්වල ඉඩ-කඩ මිදිකමින් අධික තදබදයක් ඇති වී තිබේ. විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතියේ වුවද ඉදිකිරීම් කටයුතු මැනවින් සම්බන්ධ වී නැත. සමස්ත විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතියේ අවශ්‍යතා අනුව ගිය පැහැදිලි සැලැස්මක් නොමැතිව ගොඩනැගිලි සඳහා අධික ලෙස වියදම් කර තිබේ. උපකරණ කට්ටල හා තාක්ෂණය වැනි ගුණාත්මක යෙදවුම්වල අඩු ආයෝජනයේ විපාක වශයෙන් පරිගණක තාක්ෂණ දියුණුවේ අලස පැත්තේ ලගින මේ රට නූතන විශ්ව-ව්‍යාප්ත දැනුම් ආර්ථිකයෙහි අවශ්‍ය වන දැනුම, දක්ෂතා හා නිපුණතා ආදියෙන් අනාගත පරම්පරා සන්නද්ධ කිරීමෙහිලා දැඩි අවහිරතාවකට පත් වනු ඇත.

14. අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රාග්ධන අය-වැය වෙත එල්ල වන ප්‍රධාන අභියෝග වන්නේ, 1) පාසල් හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතියේ ඉදිකිරීම් කටයුතු ඥානාන්විතව මෙහෙයවීම 2) නාගරික පාසල් විශාල කිරීමටත්, වැඩි කිරීමටත් වැඩි සම්පත් යෙදවීම 3) පාසල්වල හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණ කේන්ද්‍ර, විද්‍යාගාර, පුස්තකාල, අත්කම් පන්ති කාමර, රැගුම් කාමර, බහු-සේවා කාමර, පරිගණක, පොත්-පත්, සඟරා, ශ්‍රව්‍ය-දෘෂ්‍ය උපකරණ, අධ්‍යාපනික මෘදුකාංග, මෙවලම් කට්ටල ආදිය වැනි උසස් මට්ටමේ ගුණාත්මක යෙදවුම් සඳහා වෙන් කරන සම්පත් ප්‍රමාණය වැඩි කිරීම 4) ග්‍රාමීය හා වතුකරයේ පාසල්වල ජල සැපයුම, සනීපාරක්ෂණය හා විදුලිය වැනි මූලික පහසුකම් සැපයුම වැඩි දියුණු කිරීම වේ.

*පුනරාවර්තන වියදම්: වර්තමාන විය-පැහැදුම් හා අනාගත ප්‍රමුඛතා*

15. මෑත අතීතයේ දී අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්වලින් 79%-84%ක් පමණ පුනරාවර්තන අධ්‍යාපන අය-වැය සඳහා කැප වී ඇත. පුනරාවර්තන අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්වල ප්‍රධාන සංරචකය වන්නේ සංගෘහිත මධ්‍යම හා ප්‍රාදේශීය පුනරාවර්තන අධ්‍යාපන අය වැයෙහි 85%-90% තරමක් උකහා ගන්නා වැටුප් හා චේතනය. වැටුප් වැයකරයේ විශාලතම කොටස වෙන් වන්නේ පාසල් ගුරුවරුන් හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල අවාර්ය මණ්ඩල සඳහාය. ඊළඟට විදුහල්පති, අධ්‍යාපන පරිපාලන හා වෙනත් සේවා මණ්ඩල ආදීන්ගේ වැටුප් සඳහාය. පුනරාවර්තන අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්වලින් වැටුප් ළඟටම එන අනෙක් විශාලතම අංශය වන්නේ මුළු පුනරාවර්තන අධ්‍යාපන අය-වැයෙන් 3%ක් පමණ වන පෙළ පොත් සඳහා වියදමය. ඊළඟට 2%ක් පමණ වැය වන පාසල් නිල ඇඳුම්ය. ඉතිරි මුදල් ද වැඩි වශයෙන් විදුලිය,

සන්නිවේදනය, ජලය, තැපැල් ගාස්තු හා මාණ්ඩලික ගමන් වියදම් ඇතුළු පරිපාලන හා මෙහෙයුම් පිරිවැය සඳහාය.

16. පුනරාවර්තන අධ්‍යාපන අය-වැය ඉදිරියෙහි ඇති ප්‍රමුඛතම අභියෝග වන්නේ 1) වැටුප් හා පරිපාලන පිරිවැය වෙන්කිරීමෙන් පසු ගුරුවරුන්ගේ හා විදුහල්පතිවරුන්ගේ වෘත්තීය සංවර්ධනය හා අධ්‍යාපන ආයතනවලට අන්තර්ක ශාස්ත්‍රීය හා පරිපාලන සහාය සැපයීම වැනි අධ්‍යාපනික ගුණාත්මක ක්‍රියාවලි තහවුරු කිරීම පිණිස ප්‍රමාණවත් මුදල් වෙන් කිරීම හා 2) පාසල් හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතිවල ප්‍රාග්ධන අධ්‍යාපන ආයෝජනයේ මෙහෙයුම් පිරිවැය සපුරාලීම යන මේ දෙකය.

17. ජාත්‍යන්තර ප්‍රමිති අනුව ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ප්‍රති-ශිෂ්‍ය පුනරාවර්තන අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්වල සාමාන්‍යය ප්‍රාථමික හා ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටම්වල දී මැදිහත් වුවද තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටමේදී අධිකය. ප්‍රති-ශිෂ්‍ය පුනරාවර්තන අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්වල සාමාන්‍යය, ප්‍රාථමික හා ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපනය සඳහා ප්‍රති-ශීර්ෂ ජාතික ආදායමේ කොටසක් ලෙස සැලකූ කළ පළමුවැන්නට (ප්‍රාථමික අධ්‍යාපනය) 9% ද, දෙවැන්නට (ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපනය) 11% ද යනු දකුණු ආසියාවේ හා නැගෙනහිර ආසියාවේ ඉතාම අඩු ප්‍රමාණයක් ලෙස ගැනෙන්නකි. මීට ප්‍රතිපක්ෂව, ප්‍රති-ශිෂ්‍ය තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්වල සාමාන්‍යය ප්‍රති-ශීර්ෂ ජාතික ආදායමෙන් කොටසක් ලෙස 100%කි. මෙය ඉන්දියාවට මඳක් ඉහළින් ද, දකුණු කොරියාව, සිංගප්පූරුව, මැලේසියාව, තායිලන්තය, ඉන්දුනීසියාව හා පිලිපීනය වැනි නැගෙනහිර ආසියාවේ රටවල් මට්ටමින් සැහෙන ඉහළින් ද පැවතීමකි. තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනය සඳහා වූ රාජ්‍ය පුනරාවර්තන වියදම් මෙසේ විශාල කොටසක් වීමට ප්‍රධාන හේතුව වන්නේ රජයේ විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල විශාල ඒකක පිරිවැයයි. සමස්තව ගත් කල, අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටම්වලට කැපවූ සාමාන්‍ය පුනරාවර්තන වියදම් රටාවෙන් ඉඟි කෙරෙන්නේ උසස් සාධනයක් පෙන්වන නැගෙනහිර ආසියානු රටවල්වලට ප්‍රතිපක්ෂව ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ රාජ්‍ය සම්පත් නමැති කුලාව ප්‍රාථමික හා ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයට අවාසිව ද තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයට වාසිව ද අයෝග්‍ය අයුරින් එක් පසෙකට බර වී ඇති බවකි.

*ඒකක පිරිවැය හා අභ්‍යන්තර කායරීක්ෂමතාව*

18. සාන්දන අනුපාත අනුව මිනූ කල ප්‍රාථමික පාසල් (1-5 ශ්‍රේණි) තුළ ගමනේත්, ද්විතීයික පාසල් (6-9 ශ්‍රේණි) තුළ ගමනේත් අභ්‍යන්තර

කායරීක්ෂමතාව උසස්ය. එක් ශ්‍රේණියක නැවත උදෙන හෝ කලින් ඉවත්වන හෝ සිසුන් පිළිබඳ අනුපාත 2%-7% වේ. මේ දෙකොටසෙහිම වැඩි වන්නේ පිරිමි ළමුන්ය. සිසු සාන්දන අනුපාත ඉහළ තත්ත්වයක පැවතීමට හේතු වශයෙන් ප්‍රතිපත්ති තීරණ කිහිපයක් සඳහන් කළ හැකිය. 1) දෙමාපියන්ගේ හා සිසුන්ගේ ඉල්ලීම් ඉටු කරනු පිණිස දීපව්‍යාප්ත ප්‍රාථමික හා ද්විතීයික පාසල් ජාලාවක් මගින් අධ්‍යාපනය ලබාදීමට ප්‍රමාණවත් පාසල් ඉඩ-කඩ සැලසීම 2) පාසල් පද්ධතියට වී දිගටම රැඳී සිටීමට අනුබල ලෙස නොමිලයේ පෙළ පොත්, පාසල් නිල ඇඳුම් හා ප්‍රවාහන සහනාධාර වැනි පෙළඹුම් සැලසීම හා 3) 1-11 ශ්‍රේණි වකුස තුළ නිර්බාධිතව ඉහළ ශ්‍රේණියට මාරු කිරීම හා සිසුන් සිය කැමැත්තෙන් නැවත එම පන්තියේ සිටීම හැර අසමත් කිරීමේ විධිමත් යාන්ත්‍රණයක් නොතිබීම යන මේවාය. එසේ වුවත්, ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපන වකුසේ තීරණාත්මක විභාග ශ්‍රේණි වන 11 සහ 13 ශ්‍රේණිවල නැවත රැඳී-සිටීම අධිකය. 11 ශ්‍රේණියේ නැවත රැඳෙන්නන් 27%කි. ගැහැණු පිරිමි දෙවගෙහිම අනුපාත ඉතා සමීප-සමානය. මෙයින් 11 ශ්‍රේණියේ සිසුන් හතර දෙනෙකුගෙන් එක් අයෙකු පමණ එම පන්තියේම දෙවතාවක් සිටින වග හැගෙන නිසා මෙය අධික ප්‍රතිශතයකි. 13 ශ්‍රේණියේ දී යළි පෙනී සිටින සිසුන්ගේ අනුපාතය තව දුරටත් වැඩිවේ. අපොස උ/පෙ විද්‍යා සිසුන්ගෙන් 35% යළි පෙනී සිටිති; කලා සිසුන්ගෙන් 37%ක් ද වාණිජ සිසුන්ගෙන් 35%ක් ද නැවත පන්තියේ සිටින්නෝය. 11 ශ්‍රේණියේත් 13 ශ්‍රේණියේත් පිරිමි ගැහැණු අතර ද විවිධ විෂයයන් අතර ද නැවත පෙනී සිටින්නන්ගේ අනුපාතවල සැලකිය යුතු වෙනසක් නොපෙනේ. අපොස උ/පෙ දෙවෙනි වර පෙනී සිටීමේ විස්තර අනුව; 13 ශ්‍රේණියේ සිසුන් තිදෙනෙකුගෙන් එක් අයෙක් දෙවෙනි වර පෙනී සිටින්නෙකි. 11 ශ්‍රේණියේත් 13 ශ්‍රේණියෙන් නැවත පෙනී සිටීමේ අනුපාත අධිකවීමෙන් පෙනෙන්නේ මේ මට්ටම්වල දී අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියෙහි සැලකිය යුතු පිරිවැය අකායරීක්ෂමතා ඇති වගකි. 11 හා 13 ශ්‍රේණිවල අධික යළි පෙනී සිටීමේ අනුපාතවලට ප්‍රධාන හේතුව වන්නේ ප්‍රාථමික හා ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපන වකුස තුළ 11 ශ්‍රේණිය දක්වා සිසුන්ගේ දුබල ඉගෙනුම් මට්ටම් ප්‍රසිද්ධ විභාගවල දී එළිදරව් වීමය.

*පාසල් විශාලත්වය හා විසරණය*

19. බොහෝ සෙයින් ග්‍රාමීය ප්‍රදේශවල පදිංචි ජනතාවකට සේවය දීම සඳහා පරම්පරා කිහිපයක් පුරා පැවත එන විශාල දීපව්‍යාප්ත රාජ්‍ය පාසල්

ජාලයක් ශ්‍රී ලංකාව සතුව තිබේ. එසේ වුවද, මෑත කාලයේ ආර්ථික සංවර්ධනයත්, සේවා හා කාර්මික අංශ පුළුල්වීමත් නිසා මහ නගරවලත් සුළු නගරවලත් පදිංචි වී ඇති ජන සංඛ්‍යාවේ අනුපාතය වැඩි වී ඇත. තවද, වඩා හොඳ ප්‍රවාහන හා සන්නිවේදන ජාල මඟින් ග්‍රාමීය ප්‍රදේශ ද නාගරික මධ්‍යස්ථානවල පාසල් සමඟ සම්බන්ධකම් පැවැත්වීමේ ප්‍රතිඵලයක් ලෙස ජනප්‍රිය සුප්‍රසිද්ධ නාගරික පාසල් කෙරෙහි වේගවත් වැඩි ඉල්ලුමක් ද ග්‍රාමීය හා අප්‍රකට අර්ධ-නාගරික පාසල් කෙරෙහි අඩු ඉල්ලුමක් ද පෙනීයයි. මෙසේ ඉල්ලුම විතැන්වීම නිසා ඉතා කුඩා පාසල් විශාල සංඛ්‍යාවක් ක්‍රියාත්මක වනු පෙනේ. රටේ පාසල් 5,900ක (පාසල් 60%ක) ඇත්තේ ළමයින් 300කට අඩු ගණනකි. තවද පාසල් 2700 (පාසල් 27%) ක 100ට අඩු සංඛ්‍යාවක් ද පාසල් 1360 (පාසල් 14%) ක 50ට අඩු සංඛ්‍යාවක් ද සිටින බව පෙනේ. මෙවන් කුඩා පාසල් ජාලයක් පවත්වාගෙන යාම අධික වියදමට මඟකි. ඉදිරි කිවහොත්, කුඩා පාසල්වල ශිෂ්‍ය-ගුරු අනුපාත අඩුවී අධික ඒකක පුනරාවර්තන පිරිවැයකට කුඩු දෙයි. පාසල් 1000 (පාසල් 10%)ක පමණ 7:1 හෝ ඊට අඩු ශිෂ්‍ය-ගුරු අනුපාත හමුවේ. පාසල් 1700 (පාසල් 17%)ක පමණ 10:1 හෝ ඊට අඩු ශිෂ්‍ය-ගුරු අනුපාත ද පාසල් 6000 (පාසල් 60%)ක පමණ 15:1 හෝ ඊට අඩු ශිෂ්‍ය-ගුරු අනුපාත ද හමුවේ. මේ සා කුඩා ශිෂ්‍ය-ගුරු අනුපාත ඇති පාසල් පවත්වාගෙන යාම 25:1 පමණ ශිෂ්‍ය-ගුරු අනුපාත ඇති විශාල පාසල් පැවැත්වීමට වඩා අධිකව වැයාධික වන්නාසේම වාර්ගිකව එවන් පාසල්වලට වඩා 100% ගුණයෙන් විශාලතර ඒකක පුනරාවර්තන පිරිවැයෙන් ද යුක්තවේ.

20. ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ රාජ්‍ය විශ්ව විද්‍යාල අධ්‍යාපනය ද සංවර්ධනය වන අතර රටවල් හා සැසඳූ විට අධික ඒකක මෙහෙයුම් පිරිවැයකට කුඩුදෙන අධික වියදම් සහිත අංශයකි. මේ හැර, සිසුවෙකුට වසරකට රුපියල් 40,000-120,000 තරම් පරාසයක පුළුල් වෙනස්වීම් පෙන්වන ඒකක පිරිවැය මෙම විශ්ව විද්‍යාල අතර දක්නට ලැබේ. සාමාන්‍යයෙන් ඒකක පිරිවැය පවතින්නේ ඇතුළු කර ගැනුණු ශිෂ්‍ය සංඛ්‍යාවට සාපේක්ෂවය. එබැවින්, කුඩා විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල ඉහළ පිරිවැය ද පරිමාණානුගත පිරිමැසුම්වලට ඉඩ ඇති විශාලතර විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල පහත් ඒකක පිරිවැය ද පෙනේ. වියදම් වඩාත්ම අධික විශ්ව විද්‍යාල කුඩා වන සෙයක් දක්වයි. අභිනවයෙන් පිහිටු වූ වයඹ, නැගෙනහිර හා අග්නිදිග විශ්ව විද්‍යාල නිදසුන් වේ. ඉතා අඩු ඒකක පිරිවැයක් දක්වන, විශාල ශිෂ්‍ය සංඛ්‍යා බඳවාගන්නා විවෘත

විශ්ව විද්‍යාලය සපයන්නේ දුරස්ථ පාඨමාලා පමණි. ඒ විශේෂ නිදසුන හැරුණු විට කැලණිය, ශ්‍රී ජයවර්ධනපුර, කොළඹ හා යාපනය වැනි විශාලතර පැරණි විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල ද අවම ඒකක පිරිවැය දක්නට ලැබේ.

ඉහතින් දැක්වූ සාමාන්‍ය නීතියට ව්‍යතිරේකයක් ලෙස ඒකක පිරිවැයත්, බඳවාගැනීම් ප්‍රමාණත් අතර ප්‍රතිලෝම සබඳතාවක් පෙන්වන්නේ ජේරාදෙණිය විශ්ව විද්‍යාලයයි. ශිෂ්‍ය සංඛ්‍යා අතින් දෙවැනි විශාල විශ්ව විද්‍යාලය වන මෙහි ඒකක පිරිවැය කුඩා අග්නිදිග විශ්ව විද්‍යාලයේ ඒකක පිරිවැය හා සමානය. ඒකක පුනරාවර්තන පිරිවැයට බලපාන තවත් වැදගත් නිර්ණායකයක් වන්නේ ශිෂ්‍යයන් හා අනධ්‍යයන සේවක මණ්ඩල අතර අනුපාතයයි. මෙහි දෙවැනි පක්ෂය විශ්ව විද්‍යාල වැටුප් අංශයට හෙවත් පුනරාවර්තන වියදමට විශාල බරකි. රාජ්‍ය විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල ඇත්තේ ඉතා කුඩා ශිෂ්‍ය-අනධ්‍යයන සේවක අනුපාතය වයඹ, නැගෙනහිර, අග්නිදිග හා ජේරාදෙණිය වැන්නෙහි 3:1 සිට ශ්‍රී ජයවර්ධන-පුරයෙහි 8:1 තරම් පරාසයක මේවා හමුවේ. අන්තර්ක උපාධි පාඨමාලා සපයන රාජ්‍ය විශ්ව විද්‍යාල 12 හි ශිෂ්‍ය-අනධ්‍යයන සේවක අනුපාතයෙහි සාමාන්‍යය 4:1 පමණකි. අධ්‍යයන සේවා මණ්ඩල හා අනධ්‍යයන සේවා මණ්ඩල අනුපාතය ද 1:4කි. මෙය අනධ්‍යයන සේවක වැටුප් සඳහා නොනිසි ලෙස විශාල සම්පත් අනුපාතයක් වෙන් කෙරෙන පිරිවැය අකායෑක්ෂම පද්ධතියක් සලකුණු කරයි.

**පෞද්ගලික අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්**

21. පවුල් ඒකක විසින් අධ්‍යාපනය උදෙසා ආයෝජනය කරන සම්පත් ප්‍රමාණය ඉහළ මට්ටමක පවතී. පවුලක් විසින් අධ්‍යාපනය උදෙසා වැය කරන මුදල් පිළිබඳ නවීනතම තොරතුරු ලබාගත හැකි 1995/1996 වර්ෂයෙහි පළාත් හතක පෞද්ගලික වියදම් ප්‍රමාණය රුපියල් මිලියන 4,688ක් පමණ විය. 1995/96 රාජ්‍ය අධ්‍යාපන ආයෝජන මට්ටම් අනුව මෙය රජයේ අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්වලින් 23% පමණ වේ. තවද, මෙය රාජ්‍ය ප්‍රාග්ධන අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්වලින් 13%ක් පමණ වැඩිවූවකි. අධ්‍යාපනය සඳහා වූ ඉල්ලුමෙහි ආදායම් නම්‍යතාව පිළිබඳ ඇතැම් උපකල්පන පාදක කර ගෙන 2002දී මුළු පෞද්ගලික පවුල් අධ්‍යාපන වියදම 2002දී පැවති මිල ගණන් අනුව රුපියල් මිලියන 10,600 පමණ වෙතැයි ඇස්තමේන්තු කළ හැකිවේ. මෙය මුළු රාජ්‍ය අධ්‍යාපන වියදමෙන් 26%කට පමණ සමාන වන අතර, රාජ්‍ය ප්‍රාග්ධන අධ්‍යාපන වියදමෙන් 62%ට වඩා ඉහළය. නෛතික හා දේශපාලනමය ආර්ථික

පරිසරයක් තුළ මේසා පවුල් වියදම් සම්භාරයක් තිබීම අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි පෞද්ගලික ආයෝජනයට අවාසිදායකය. ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන මණ්ඩලයේ (2003) යෝජනා ක්‍රියාවට නඟා පෞද්ගලික පාසල් පිහිටුවීම වළකන තෛතික බාධා ඉවත්කළ හොත් පෞද්ගලික ආයෝජන මට්ටම බෙහෙවින් වැඩිකළ හැකිය.

**සේවා ප්‍රදානයේ ගුණය හා කායඝීක්ෂමතාව**

22. අධ්‍යාපනය උදෙසා කැපවන රජයේ වියදම් ප්‍රමාණය හා රටාව රටක අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිලබ්ධිය හා ඉගෙනුම කෙරෙහි අත්‍යන්තයෙන් බලපාන වැදගත් නිර්ධාරකයකි. එසේ වුවත්, සේවා ප්‍රදානයේ ගුණාත්මකභාවයත්, කායඝීක්ෂමතාවත් ඒසාම වැදගත් වන්නේය. මෙහිලා, ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ප්‍රබල ධනාත්මක ලක්ෂණ දැකිය හැකිය. ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදනය සඳහා ද පාසල් හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතියට සේවා මණ්ඩල පත්කර සැලසුම් සාදා පාලනය කිරීම පිණිස ද පාසල්වලටත් විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල උපාධි වැඩසටහන්වලටත් විෂයමාලා හා විභාග නිර්දේශ පිළියෙළ කිරීම පිණිස ද පාසල් විදුහල්පතින්, අංශ ප්‍රධානීන් හා ගුරුවරුන් මෙන් විශ්ව විද්‍යාල විද්‍යාර්ථීන් උදෙසා වෘත්තීය සංවර්ධනාත්මක අවස්ථා ලබාදීම සඳහා ද විභාග පවත්වා මහජන විශ්වාසය දිනන සහතික පත්‍ර ප්‍රදානය සඳහා ද වූ අධ්‍යාපන ආයතන ජාලයක් දැනුදු පිහිටුවා ඇත. ගුරු සේවය, ගුරු උපදේශක සේවය හා ගුරු පරිපාලන සේවය වැනි භාරදුර සේවාවන්ට තෛතිකව නිශ්චිත සේවක ගණ සිටිති. උපවිත ගණකාධිකරණය තවම හඳුන්වා නැතත් ද්විත්ව-සටහන් පොත් තැබීම හා මුදල් ගණකාධිකරණය ඇතුළුව, සතුටුදායක මූල්‍ය කළමනාකරණ ක්‍රියාපටිපාටි රජය සතුව ඇත. මේ මතුවට, විගණකාධිකාරී දෙපාර්තමේන්තුව නමැති උපරිම විගණක ආයතනයක් ද අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය තුළ අභ්‍යන්තර විගණනයක් ද යනුවෙන් ආයතන දෙකක් ඇති හෙයින් අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියේ සේවා ප්‍රදාන ජාලය ශක්තිමත් පදනමක පිහිටා තිබේ.

23. ඒ කෙසේ වුවත්, සේවා ප්‍රදාන ජාලය ද විපුලතර ව්‍යුහීය අභියෝගවලට මුහුණ දෙමින් පවතී. මේවා විශේෂයෙන් බලපාන්නේ උසස් ගුණයෙන් යුක්ත අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියක් වර්ධනය කිරීමට තුඩුදෙන ප්‍රතිපත්ති පියවර තහවුරු කිරීමටය. මේ අභියෝග අතරෙහි 1) ජනප්‍රිය නාගරික පාසල්වල ගුරු අතිරික්තයක් ද දුරස්ථ ග්‍රාමීය පාසල්වල ගුරු හිඟයක් ද ඇති කිරීමට බලපාන දුර්වල ගුරු

ස්ථානගත කිරීමේ පිළිවෙත, 2) සාමාන්‍යයෙන් කවර හෝ පාසල් දිනකදී ගුරුවරුන් පහෙන් එකක් පමණ පාසලට නොපැමිණෙන අයුරක ගුරුවරුන්ගේ නොපැමිණීම, 3) 1978දී මෙන් මූර්ත ආදායම නියත ආදායමෙන් 85%ක් තරම් ලඝු කෙරෙන අඩු ගුරු වැටුප් ක්‍රමයක් හා දුර්වල ගුරු උද්යෝගය, 4) පාසල්, ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන පීඨ (NCOE) හා ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථාන (TC) වැනි මුල් පෙළේ අධ්‍යාපන සේවා ප්‍රදාන ආයතනවලට ප්‍රමාණවත් කළමනාකරණ හා ශාස්ත්‍ර-විෂයක බල-තල නොදීම, 5) ස්වයංක්‍රීය වූ ද පරිගණකාශ්‍රිත වූ ද පද්ධති වෙනුවට කායික ක්‍රියාකාරකම් කෙරෙහි අධිකව යැපීමේ හේතුවෙන් ඇතිවන තාක්ෂණික හා මෙහෙයුම් අවහිරතා ද මූලික අභ්‍යන්තර යාන්ත්‍රණයන් නොතිබීම හා අනාගත සැලසුම් මඳිවීම ද නිසා වූ පරිපාලනමය දුර්වලතා, 6) තීරණ ගැනීම, විධිවිධානවලට අනුකූලවීම හා සිවිල් සේවයේ උද්යෝගය අවහිර කරමින් පරිපාලනයට එල්ල වන බාහිර මැදිහත්වීම්, 7) තාක්ෂණික පිරිවිතර නියම කිරීමෙහි ද ටෙන්ඩර් ලියවිලි හා ලංසු තබන ලියවිලි සුදානම් කිරීමෙහි ද ගැටලු; තාක්ෂණික ඇගයීම් නිමා කිරීමේ ප්‍රමාද; පැහැදිලි, නිවැරදි තාක්ෂණික තක්සේරු හා ටෙන්ඩර් මණ්ඩල වාර්තා හා සාකච්ඡා විස්තර සැපයීමේ දුබලතා නිසා වූ හාණ්ඩ සපයා ගැනීමේ දුර්වලකම්, 8) විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල, විශේෂයෙන් කොළඹින් හා මහනුවරින් බැහැර පිහිටි විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල, ආවායඝී මණ්ඩල බඳවාගැනීමේ දී දුෂ්කරතාවලට තුඩු දෙන අඩු විද්‍යාර්ථී වැටුප්, 9) උපාධි අපේක්ෂකයන්ට ඉගැන්වීම කෙරෙහි අධික ලෙස නැඹුරු වෙමින් පර්යේෂණ, පශ්චාත්-උපාධි වැඩසටහන්, උපදේශක හා ප්‍රජාසේවා ඇතුළු විශ්ව විද්‍යාලයක මුළු නිමැවුම් පරාසය ම ඉටු කිරීමට තරම් ප්‍රමාණවත්ව නැඹුරු නොවූ විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පරිපාලන හා කළමනාකරණ ව්‍යුහ හා 10) අවුල් වූ ශාස්ත්‍රීය වැඩසටහන් හා පාඨමාලා සමාජිකයේ ප්‍රමාද ඇති කරවන ශිෂ්‍ය නොසන්සුන්තාව යන මේවා ඇතුළු වන්නේය.

**අධ්‍යාපන ගුණය හා ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිලාභ**

24. ශ්‍රී ලංකා අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියේ, විශිෂ්ටතා නමැති “දූපත්” තිබේ. උසස්තම පාසල්වලින් හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවලින් පිටවන සිසුන්ට ලෝකයේ ප්‍රමුඛ විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවලත් පෞද්ගලික සමායතනවලත්, ජාත්‍යන්තර සංවිධානවලත් ඉහළ ඉල්ලුමක් ලැබේ. එසේ වුවත්, අධ්‍යාපනයේ ගුණාත්මක භාවයේත් ඉගෙනුමේ ඉපැයුම්වලත් සාමාන්‍ය මට්ටම අසතුටුදායක යැයි ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයෝ කල්පනා

කරති. [NEC (1997), (2003) බලන්න.] ප්‍රාථමික පාසල් ළමයින් පිළිබඳ සංජානන සාධන පරීක්ෂණ අනුව ප්‍රාථමික වක්‍රාන්තය ළඟාවෙත්ම සිසුන්ගේ ආවශ්‍යක භාෂා හා සංඛ්‍යා කුසලතා ප්‍රගුණත්වයේ සැලකිය යුතු උග්‍රතාව හෙළිවිය. පළමු බසෙහි (සිංහල/දෙමළ) සාමාන්‍ය ප්‍රගුණත්වය 37%කි. ලිවීම (28%) හා වාක්‍ය-සංයෝජනය (30%) මව් බසෙහි දුබලම කුසලතාය. අවබෝධය (45%) ද දුර්වලය. වචන කුසලතා (70%) ප්‍රතිඵල වඩා හොඳ වුවත්, මෙහිදී තිදෙනෙකුගෙන් එක් අයෙක් භාෂා භාවිතයෙහි අදක්ෂකම පෙන්වයි. ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා කුසලතා අතිශයින් දුර්වලය. ඉලක්ක කුසලතා මට්ටම සාක්ෂාත් කර ගන්නේ ප්‍රාථමික සිසුන්ගෙන් 10%ක් පමණි. ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂාවෙහි අපේක්ෂිත කුසලතා මට්ටම යම්තම් 1% විසින් දැක්වීමෙන් මෙහිලා භාෂා ලිවීමේ කුසලතා නැත්තටම නැතිතරම් යයි කිව හැකිවේ. ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා අවබෝධය (16%) හා වාක්‍ය සංයෝජනය (20%) ද දුර්වලය. ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා වචනමාලා කුසලතා (35%) තරමක් උසස් වුවත්, සිසුන් තිදෙනෙකුගෙන් දෙදෙනෙකුට මෙම මූලික කුසලතාව පවා නැති බව ස්ථිර වේ.

25. ගණිත විෂයයේ සාධනයෙහි පවා සමස්ත ප්‍රගුණතාව 38%ක් පමණි. ගණිත සංකල්ප ප්‍රගුණතාව 45%කි; ගණිත ක්‍රම 51%කි; ගැටලු විසඳීම 34%ක් පමණි. ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයත් විවිධ කුසලතා පරිචයන් යන මේ සියල්ලට පදනම ප්‍රාථමික අධ්‍යාපනය වන හෙයින් ප්‍රාථමික සිසුන්ගේ පහත් මට්ටමේ සංජානන ප්‍රගුණතාව ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදක අංශයේ බලවත් කනස්සල්ලට හේතු වන්නකි. එබැවින්, ප්‍රාථමික ශ්‍රේණිවල පහත් ප්‍රගුණතා මට්ටම් නිසා සමස්ත අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියේ ගුණයන් සාධනයන් අවහිර වන්නේය.

26. සමස්ත සාධන මට්ටම් මෙලෙසින් පහත්වීමට අතිරේකව නාගරික හා ග්‍රාමීය යන ප්‍රදේශ අතර ද සාධන ප්‍රතිඵල ආශ්‍රිත ප්‍රකට විෂමතා පැන නැඟී ඇත. නාගරික ප්‍රදේශවල පළමු බස (සිංහල/දෙමළ) ප්‍රගුණතාව 51% වෙත්ම ග්‍රාමීය ප්‍රදේශවල එය 34%කි. ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා කුසලතාවන්හි නාගරික ළමයින් 23%ක් ප්‍රගුණතාව දැක්වුවත්, ග්‍රාමීය ප්‍රදේශවල එම සමත්කම් දක්වන්නේ 7%ක් පමණි. නාගරික ළමයින් 52% ගණිතයෙහි ප්‍රගුණතා දැක්වුවත් අපේක්ෂිත සමත්කම් දක්වන ග්‍රාමීය ළමයින් යම්තම් 35%කි. ප්‍රාථමික අධ්‍යාපන වක්‍රයේ සාමාන්‍ය ඉගෙනුම් සාධනයෙහි ද ඉහළ ප්‍රමාණයේ විවිධතා දිස්වේ. සිංහල හෝ දෙමළ පළමු බස ප්‍රගුණතා ඉටුකර ගන්නා ප්‍රාථමික

සිසුන්ගේ අනුපාතය උතුරු-නැගෙනහිර පළාතේ 23% සිට බස්නාහිර පළාතේ 51%ක් දක්වා විහිදේ. එමෙන්ම, ප්‍රාථමික ගණිත ප්‍රගුණතාව උතුරු-නැගෙනහිර පළාතේ 25% සිට බස්නාහිර පළාතේ 52% දක්වා ද ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂාවේ ප්‍රවීණතාව උතුරු-නැගෙනහිර පළාතේ 5% සිට බස්නාහිර පළාතේ 20% දක්වා ද විහිදෙයි. මධ්‍යම, උග්‍ර හා උතුරු-මැද පළාත්වල භාෂා හා ගණිත ලකුණු එහි දුර්වලත්වය හෙළි කරයි. මේ ආකාර ප්‍රාදේශීය හා නාගරික-ග්‍රාමීය විවිධතාවලට හේතුව පහසුකම් හිඟ පළාත්වල හා ග්‍රාමීය ප්‍රදේශවල පහත් ගුණාත්මක අධ්‍යාපන සේවා, දුබලතර දෙමාපිය ශක්තිය හා අනුග්‍රහය, ඉගෙනුම් සංවර්ධක ළමා ක්‍රියාකාරකම් සඳහා අවකාශ හීන වීම වැනි සාධක කිහිපයක එක්වීම් වීමක් ලෙස දැක්විය හැකිය.

27. ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටමේදී ද අධ්‍යාපන ගුණයේ අසතුටුදායක තත්වය පැහැදිලිව පෙනේ. අපොස සා/පෙ විභාගය සමත්වන්නන්ගේ අනුපාතය 37% තරම් පහත්ය. මේ විභාගයට පෙනී සිටින හැම තිදෙනෙකුගෙන් දෙදෙනෙකු අසමත් වන වගක් දක්වයි. තවද, මේ අඩු සාමර්ථ්‍ය අනුපාතය 1998-2002 වකවානුව තුළම තරමක් අවිචල්‍යව තිබිණි. සිසුන්ගේ වැඩිතර කොටසක් ගණිතය, ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂාව, විද්‍යාව හා සමාජ අධ්‍යයන යන විෂයයන්හි දුබල සටනක යෙදෙන්නන් සේ වෙති. අපොස උ/පෙ විභාගයෙහි ද 1998න් පසු 1998-2002 කාල සීමාව තුළ සාමර්ථ්‍ය අනුපාත 50%-55% මට්ටමේ පැවතිණි. උ/පෙ විභාගයට පෙනී සිටින සිසුන් දෙදෙනෙකු ගෙන් එක් අයෙකු පමණක් සමත් වීමේ නියත තත්ත්වයක් මෙයින් ගම්‍ය වේ. අපොස සා/පෙ හා අපොස උ/පෙ විභාගය අරඹයා මේ සමත්වීමේ අනුපාත පහත් යයි සැලකිය යුත්තේ මේ විභාගවල පාඨමාලා සාර්ථකව සමාප්ත කිරීම විවිධ කුසලතා පුහුණු කිරීමේ පාඨමාලා ගණනාවකටත් තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපන වැඩසටහන්වලටත් පිවිසීම පිණිස ද ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළේ රැකියා පරාසයකට ඇතුළුවීම පිණිස ද විශේෂයෙන් අවශ්‍යවන නිසාය.

28. පහත් ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිඵල හෝ අධික ප්‍රමාණයේ විභාග අසමත්වීම් තුළින් මැනෙන දුර්වල අධ්‍යාපනික ගුණාත්මකය නමැති ගැටලුවට අතිරේකව අධ්‍යාපන ගුණයට බලපාන සංජානන-විමුක්ත වෙනත් අංශ ද අසතුටුදායක යයි ද එබැවින් ඒ අංශ යුහු-යුහුව දියුණු කළ යුතු යයි ද ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් හා සේවා-ස්වාමි පක්ෂය තර්ක කරති. [NEC (1997), (2003) බලන්න.] අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය තුළින් විනීත ශ්‍රමාවාර

ධර්ම, යහපත් කණ්ඩායම් හැඟීම්, නිර්මාණ කුසලතා හා පෙරදැක්වීම, ගැටලු විසඳීමේ ආකල්පය, සාර්ථක සන්නිවේදනය, ප්‍රශස්ත නායකත්වය, සුන්‍යතාව, අනුවර්තනය, පුරෝගාමීත්වය, උද්යෝගය හා පුරවැසි විඥානය වැනි ගති-ලක්ෂණ ප්‍රගුණ කරවීමේ වැදගත්කම අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් විසින් අවධාරණය කර තිබේ. [NEC (2003) බලන්න.]

**කුසලතා වර්ධනය**

29. තාක්ෂණික අධ්‍යාපනය හා වෘත්තීය පුහුණුව (TEVT) තුළින් කුසලතා සංවර්ධනය ජාතික ප්‍රතිපත්තිමාලාවේ වැදගත් අංශයකි. අධ්‍යාපනය හා පුහුණුව ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළෙහි ආදේශක ම නොව අනුපූරක වන බව ආර්ථික විශ්ලේෂණය පෙන්වා දෙයි. මෙය, ශ්‍රම ලෝකයට හොඳම පදනම වන්නේ උසස් ගුණයෙන් හෙබි පොදු අධ්‍යාපනයකැයි අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් දරන මතය තහවුරු කරන්නකි. [NEC (2003) බලන්න.] වැඩිපුර අධ්‍යාපනයක් ලද පුද්ගලයෝ වැඩිපුර පුහුණුව ලැබීමටත් කුසලතා සංවර්ධනයෙන් උසස් ප්‍රතිඵල භුක්ති විඳීමටත් යොමු වෙති. වෙසෙසින්ම, අධ්‍යාපනය හා පුහුණුව ධනාත්මකව එකිනෙකට බලපාමින් රැකියා සෙවීම අඩු කරයි, ඉපැයුම් වැඩි කරයි. විධිමත් පුහුණුව රාජ්‍ය අංශයෙහි වඩා විශාල ප්‍රතිලාභ ලබන අතර, පෞද්ගලික අංශයෙහි විධිමත් පුහුණුවේත් අවිධිමත් පුහුණුවේත් ප්‍රතිලාභ සම-සමව වාගේම පවතී.

30. කුසලතා සංවර්ධන අංශය තීරණාත්මක අභියෝග කිහිපයකට මුහුණ පා සිටී. ඒවා අතර 1) ප්‍රාදේශීය සමතුලිතතාව වැඩි කරනු වස් සේවා ප්‍රතිපාදන පරිශ්‍රය පුළුල් කිරීම 2) පෞද්ගලික ආයෝජනය උනන්දු කරවීම හා සේවා ප්‍රදානයෙහිලා පෞද්ගලික-රාජ්‍ය හවුල් සම්බන්ධතා බිහි කිරීම 3) ප්‍රමාණවත් නොවූ ඉල්ලුමක් ඇති TEVT පාඨමාලා තිබීමත් ප්‍රබල ඉල්ලුමක් ඇති TEVT පාඨමාලා හිඟවීමත් නිසා වූ නොගැළපෙන පුහුණු ක්‍රම 4) පාඨමාලා පිටපත්කරණය, යල් පිහු උපකරණ හා විෂයමාලා, දක්ෂ පුහුණුකරුවන් හිඟවීම හා විශාල පිරිසක් කලින් ඉවත්වීම ආදිය නිසා අංශයෙහි ඇතිවන අභ්‍යන්තර අකායච්ඡිකමතා 5) දැනට තිබෙන රාජ්‍යාංශයේ කම්හල් හා විද්‍යාගාර අර්ධ-ප්‍රශස්ත ප්‍රමාණයෙන් භාවිත කිරීම හා අධ්‍යාපනය හා පුහුණුව යන අංශ දෙක අතර සබඳතා ප්‍රමාණවත් නොවීම යන මේවා ද ඇතුළු වේ.

**ලමා සංවර්ධනයේ මුල් අවධිය**

31. මුල් ලමා අවධියේ සංවර්ධනය ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදනයෙහිදී අවධානයට පාත්‍රවීමට පටන් ගෙන ඇත. බාල දරුවන්ගේ ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිඵල දියුණු කිරීම අවධාරණය වීමත් මොළයේ සංවර්ධනය හා සංජානන ශක්‍යතාව උදෙසා මුල් පෙර-පාසල් කාලයේ හරවත් වැදගත්කම පිළිබඳ නැඟී එන දැනුවත්කමත් නිසා මෙය විශේෂයෙන් කාලීනය. මෑත වසරවල දී පෙර-පාසල් හා ළදරු පාසල් ඇරඹීම වේගවත් වී තිබේ. 1970 ගණන්වල පෙර-පාසල් හා ළදරු පාසල් 2000ක් තිබිණැයි ඇස්තමේන්තු කරන ලදී. 2003 වන විට මේ සංඛ්‍යාව 11,000ත් 12,000ටත් අතර දක්වා වැඩි වී රටේ සාමාන්‍ය පාසල් සංඛ්‍යාව ඉක්මවා ගියේය. පෙර-පාසල්වලින් 80%ට වැඩි ගණනක් පෞද්ගලික අංශයේය. පෙර-පාසල් අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි නිරත වයස 3-5ත් වන ළමයින් ගණන 20%ක් පමණැයි 1980දී ඇස්තමේන්තු කළ ද 1994 දී 40%ටත් 2001දී 60%ට පමණ වැඩි විය. සැමටම අධ්‍යාපනය (EFA) සඳහා වූ ශ්‍රී ලංකා ක්‍රියාවලි කෙටුම්පත් සැලසුම (Draft Plan of Action for EFA) අනුව 2004-2008 දක්වා 62%ක පාදක රේඛාවක් ඇතිව 80% ආවරණ නිශ්චායක් ද ඉතිරි 20%ට ගෘහ-පාදක ප්‍රතිපාදනයක් ද යෝජිතය.

32. පෙර-පාසල් පද්ධතිය ඉදිරියෙහි ප්‍රතිපත්තිමය හා සංවර්ධනය ආශ්‍රිත අභියෝග කිහිපයක් තිබේ. ඒවා අතර 1) සේවා සැපයුම පුළුල් කිරීම 2) "සැමටම අධ්‍යාපනයේ" නිශ්චායවලට ළඟාවීමට වැඩිමනත් සහභාගිත්වය 3) ගුණාත්මක ප්‍රමිතීන් හා ප්‍රතිමාන පිහිටුවීම 4) පෙර-පාසල් ළමයින් සඳහා යෝග්‍ය විෂයමාලා හා ඉගැන්වුම් ක්‍රම පිළිබඳ දැනුවත් කිරීම 5) පෙර-පාසල් ගුරුවරුන් සඳහා ගුරු අධ්‍යාපනය හා පුහුණු ක්‍රම පිළියෙළ කිරීම 6) පෙර-පාසල් ක්‍රියාකාරකම් හා ප්‍රාථමික අධ්‍යාපන විෂයමාලාව සම්බන්ධ කිරීම 7) පෙර-පාසල්වලට අනුබල, සහාය හා දියුණුව උදෙසා යෝග්‍ය පරිපාලන ව්‍යුහයක්, විශේෂයෙන් පළාත් සභා තුළ නිර්මාණය කිරීම. මේ අභියෝගවලට මුහුණ දීමට ප්‍රතිපත්තිමය අවධානය නොපමාව දිය යුතුය. තවද, අනාගත ප්‍රතිපත්ති සංවර්ධනයේදී රජයේ යුතුකම විය යුත්තේ පෞද්ගලික අංශය විසින් පෙර-පාසල් පද්ධතියෙහි දමා ඇති පුළුල් පදනම මත ගොඩනැඟීමයි. මෙසේ කළ හොත් ආයෝජන සම්පත් බෙහෙවින් වැඩි වී ගුණාත්මක වර්ධනය සඳහා ඇතුළතින්ම සැකසුණු යාන්ත්‍රණයක් බිහිවේ.

**කාලයේ ඉදිරි උදුම් රළු: අනාගත විකල්ප**

**සාධාරණ ප්‍රවේශ ප්‍රස්තාව වැඩි කිරීම**

සර්වත්‍ර ප්‍රවේශවීම් සලසා අනිවාර්ය මූලික අධ්‍යාපනය (1-9 ශ්‍රේණි) සමාජික කිරීම

33. 1-5 ශ්‍රේණිවලින් සමන්විත ප්‍රාථමික අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි 97%ක සමාජික අනුපාත ද, 1-9 ශ්‍රේණිවලින් සමන්විත මූලික අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි 83%ක සමාජික අනුපාත ද ඉටුකර ගැනීමේ හේතුවෙන් ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ අධ්‍යාපන සංවර්ධනයේ පළමු අවධිය හෙවත් ප්‍රාථමික අධ්‍යාපනයන් මූලික අධ්‍යාපනයන් වෙත පිවිසීමේ සර්වත්‍ර ප්‍රස්තාව සැලසීම සම්පූර්ණයෙන්ම වාගේ සපුරා ඇත. පළමුවන පරම්පරාවේ අවසාන අභියෝගයෙන් ඉතිරිවී ඇත්තේ 9 වෙනි ශ්‍රේණිය සමාජික නොකර ඉවතට හැළෙන අන්තිම 17%ක ශිෂ්‍ය සංඛ්‍යාව මූලික අධ්‍යාපන චක්‍රය සම්පූර්ණ කරන තෙක් විධිමත් පාසල් පද්ධතියට හෝ නොවිධිමත් අධ්‍යාපන වැඩසටහන්වලට හෝ පොළඹවා රඳවා ගැනීමය. මේ සිසුහු රටේ ඉතාම දිළිඳු, ඉතාම සම්පත්-හීන පවුල්වලින් එන එනම්, දුරබැහැර පිටිසර ගම්මානවල ළමයි, නගරවල “විටී” දරුවෝ, හුදකලා වතුකර ප්‍රජාවට අයිති සිසුන් හා සටන්වලින් පීඩිත ප්‍රදේශවල ළමයි ආදීහු වෙති. මේ සිසුන් පොළඹවා පාසලේ රඳවා ගැනීමෙන් පූර්ණ ප්‍රවේශන හා සර්වත්‍ර මූලික අධ්‍යාපන චක්‍රය (1-9 ශ්‍රේණි) සම්පූර්ණ කිරීම ඉටුකර ගැනීම සඳහා උපායයන් පුළුල් පරාසයක් රජය සතුය. මේ අතර 1) පාසල් සිසුන්ට නොමිලයේ ලැබෙන පෙළ-පොත් තෝරා ගැනීමේ වරණයක් 2) පාසල් නිල ඇඳුම් සැපයීම 3) පාසලට පැමිණීම පිණිස සහනදායී ප්‍රවාහන පිළිවෙතක් 4) සටන්වලින් පීඩිත ප්‍රදේශවල කැඩී-බිඳී ගිය පාසල් යළි ගොඩ නැගීම හා 5) විධිමත් පාසල් පද්ධතියෙන් බැහැරව විකල්ප වශයෙන් විශේෂ අධ්‍යාපනය, නො-විධිමත් අධ්‍යාපනය හා උගන-පුරණ අධ්‍යාපනය යටතේ වැඩසටහන් සම්පාදනය යන මේවාද ඇතුළත්ය.

මේ උපායයන් අතරින් විශේෂ අධ්‍යාපනය, නොවිධිමත් අධ්‍යාපනය හා උගන පුරණ අධ්‍යාපනය යටතේ වැඩසටහන් වෙසෙසින්ම ශක්තිමත් කර කායඝ්ණික ක්‍රියාවට නැගිය යුතුය. මීට අතිරේකව, ප්‍රාදේශීය ප්‍රජා සංවිධාන මඟින් ආර්ථික අනුබලපැමි හා සමාජ සජීවීකරණ කටයුතු භාවිතය වැනි අභිනව ඉල්ලුම් පක්ෂයේ උපායයන් ද අභියෝගයන් සම්පත්-හීන කණ්ඩායම් අතරෙහි යොදාගත හැකිවේ. ඉන්දියාව, පාකිස්ථානය, බංග්ලාදේශය වැනි සම්පත්-හීන දකුණු ආසියානු රටවල් ඇතුළු රටවල් කිහිපයකම

ලඟාවීමට අපහසු ළමා කණ්ඩායම් පොළඹවා රඳවා ගැනීමට මෙවන් ඉල්ලුම් පක්ෂයේ උපායයන් සාර්ථක වී තිබේ.

34. ඉතාම සම්පත්-හීන ප්‍රජාවල දරුවන් පාසලට ආකර්ෂණය කරගනු පිණිස යෝග්‍ය යයි පිළිගත් වෙනත් රටවල අත්දැකීම් අනුව සැලකිය හැකි ඉල්ලුම්-පක්ෂයේ ක්‍රියාමාර්ග අතර 1) පාසල් ප්‍රවේශන හා නිත්‍ය පැමිණීම වැඩිදියුණු කිරීමට ප්‍රාදේශීය ප්‍රජාවන් උත්සුක කිරීම 2) අලංකාර පාසල් ගොඩනැගීම, සුව-පහසු පංති කාමර හා ක්‍රීඩා භූමි සැපයීම ද ඇතුළුව ශිෂ්‍ය-මිත්‍ර පරිසරයක් බිහි කිරීම හා 3) දිළිඳුකම අඩුකිරීමෙහිලා රජයේ වැඩසටහනෙහි ආදායම් පරිපූරකයෙන් කොටසක් අදාළ වයස් කාණ්ඩයේ ළමයින්ගේ නියත පාසල් ගමනට හෝ විකල්ප අධ්‍යාපන වැඩසටහන්වල සහභාගීවීමට හෝ සම්බන්ධ කිරීමෙන් දිළිඳු පවුල්වල වැඩ කරන ළමයින් අතර පාසල් අධ්‍යාපනයේ ආවස්ථික පිරිවැය අඩුකිරීම යන මේවා ගිණිය හැක.

*විශේෂ අධ්‍යාපනය, නො-විධිමත් අධ්‍යාපනය හා උගන-පුරණ අධ්‍යාපනය තුළ වැඩ-සටහන් ශක්තිමත් කිරීම*

35. මීට අතිරේකව, විශේෂ අධ්‍යාපනය, නො-විධිමත් අධ්‍යාපනය හා උගන-පුරණ අධ්‍යාපනය තුළ වැඩසටහන්වල භූමිකාව විධිමත් පාසල් පද්ධතියට විකල්පයක් ලෙස ශක්තිමත් කිරීම රජයේ සැලකිල්ලට පාත්‍ර කළ හැකි වේ. මේ අංශයෙහි ප්‍රමුඛතා අනුව ගත යුතු සංවර්ධනාත්මක පියවර අතර 1) විධිමත් අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි හා කායඝ්ණික පුහුණුවෙහිලා මේ වැඩසටහන්වල පරිපූරක භූමිකාව පැහැදිලිව නිශ්චය කර ගැනීම 2) මෙහිලා විවිධ වැඩසටහන්වල විෂයමාලාව, ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිඵල හා ඉලක්ක ජන කොටස් විශේෂිතව නියම කරගෙන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන්ට පසු-පෝෂණය පිණිස නියාමන හා ඇගයීම් පද්ධතියක් පිහිටුවාලීම 3) යැපුම්-ප්‍රමාණ දිවි පෙවෙතකට හා ආදායම් උපයන කාර්තව්‍යයන්හි අවශ්‍ය දක්ෂතා විශේෂයෙන් සපයමින් ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළ හා සබඳකම් වැඩිදියුණු කිරීම 4) මේ වැඩසටහන් මෙහෙයවීම පිණිස ප්‍රාදේශීය අධ්‍යාපන දෙපාර්තමේන්තු හා කලාපීය අධ්‍යාපන කායඝ්ණික තුළ ආයතනික හැකියාව වැඩි කිරීම 5) මේ වැඩසටහන් ඉටුකරලන අධ්‍යාපන සේවා මණ්ඩලවල තාක්ෂණික ශක්‍යතාව දියුණු කිරීම යන මේවා ද ඇතුළත්වේ.

**අධ්‍යාපන ගුණයේ විශිෂ්ටතාව හඹායාම**

මූලික හා ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයේ ගුණය දියුණු කිරීම

36. ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් මුහුණ පා ඇති ප්‍රමුඛතම අභියෝගය වන්නේ උසස් ගුණයෙන් යුත් අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියක් දියුණු කර පවත්වාගෙන යාමයි. මෙකල පාසල් පද්ධතියේ ගුණය වැඩි කිරීම පිණිස රජය සතු සංවර්ධනාත්මක ප්‍රේරක ගණනාවක් තිබේ. මේවා අතර 1) පාසල් විෂයමාලා නවීකරණය 2) ළමා-මිත්‍ර ඉගැන්වීම් ක්‍රමවලට අනුබල දීම 3) ගුරුවරුන්ගේ වෘත්තීය හැකියා හා කුසලතා ප්‍රගුණ කරවීම 4) කායච්ඡේද පාසල් නායකත්වය හා පරිපාලනය ශක්තිමත් කිරීම 5) ශිෂ්‍ය උපලබ්ධි නම්‍යශීලීව අඛණ්ඩව ඇගයීම පිණිස විභාග පද්ධති සංශෝධනය කිරීම යන මේවා ඇතුළත්වේ.

මේ පියවර ශ්‍රී ලංකාවට උසස් ගුණැති අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියක් ගොඩනඟා ගැනීමෙහිලා ඵලදායී පදනමක් සලසාලයි. අධ්‍යාපන සංවර්ධනය සඳහා වූ පොත-පත ද වෙනත් රටවල අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිසංස්කරණ අත්දැකීම් මෙන්ම ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ අධ්‍යාපන අත්දැකීම් ද පවා අධ්‍යාපනයේ ගුණාත්මකභාවය වැඩිදියුණු කර රට තුළ උසස් ප්‍රතිඵල ගෙන දෙන පාසල් ද විශ්ව විද්‍යාල ද තාක්ෂණික අධ්‍යාපන ආයතන ද පිහිටුවීම පිණිස වහාම අවශ්‍ය තවත් සංවර්ධන ප්‍රේරක කිහිපයක් පෙන්වා දෙයි.

*ප්‍රාථමික අධ්‍යාපන විෂයමාලාවේ නිපුණතා නිශ්ඨා පිළිබඳ අවබෝධනය පාසල් මට්ටමේදී දියුණු කිරීම*

37. ප්‍රාථමික පාසල් විෂයමාලාවේ නිපුණතාත් කුසලතාත් අපේක්ෂිත ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිඵලත් මෙකල ඉතා පැහැදිලිව දක්වා ඇත. එසේ වුවද, මේ සාධන මට්ටම් ගැන විදුහල්පතින්ගේ හා ගුරුවරුන්ගේ අවබෝධය සීමා සහිතය, ප්‍රමාණවත් නොවේ. තවද, මේ ප්‍රාථමික පාසල් සාධන මට්ටම් පාසලේදී හා පංති කාමරයේදී කායච්ඡේද ඉගැන්වීම් උපාය මාර්ගවලට පරිවර්තනය කරගැනීමෙහිලා විදුහල්පතින්ගේ හා ගුරුවරුන්ගේ හැකියා දුර්වලය. මේ ගැටලුව විසඳනු වස් රජය විසින් තීරණාත්මක ප්‍රේරක දෙකක් සලකා බැලිය හැකිය. 1) ප්‍රාථමික පාසල් විෂයමාලාවේ නිපුණතා, කුසලතා හා අපේක්ෂිත ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිලාභ පිළිබඳ අවබෝධය විදුහල්පතින් හා ගුරුවරුන් අතර පුළුල් ලෙස ව්‍යාප්ත වීමට සැලසීම හා මේ සාධන මට්ටම්වල මුද්‍රිත පිටපත් පාසල්වලට ලබාදීම හා 2) විෂයමාලාවෙහි විශදව දැක්වූ සාධන මට්ටම් වෙත සිසුන් පැමිණවීමට ගුරුවරුන්ගේ ශක්‍යතාව ශක්තිමත් කිරීම.

*ද්විතීයික පාසල් විෂයමාලාව පහදා විස්තර කරලීම*

38. ප්‍රාථමික පාසල් විෂයමාලාවෙහි මෙන් නොව ද්විතීයික පාසල් විෂයමාලාවේ නිපුණතා, කුසලතා හා අපේක්ෂිත ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිලාභ පැහැදිලිව නියතව දක්වා නැත. එහි ප්‍රතිඵලයක් ලෙස ද්විතීයික පාසල් විෂයමාලාව අවුල් සහගතය. ශ්‍රේණි මට්ටම් හා වක්‍ර අනුව අනු-පිළිවෙලකින් ගළපා නැත. මේ හැර, එක් එක් ශ්‍රේණියේ සාධන මට්ටම් සඳහා අවසාන අරමුණු හා ඉලක්ක නියම කර ගැනීමට හෝ පැහැදිලිව ප්‍රකාශිත විෂයමාලාවක් ආශ්‍රිතව පාසලේ ඉගැන්වුම් ක්‍රම හා ඉගෙනීමේ උපාය මාර්ග සංවිධාන කර ගැනීමට හෝ පාසල් අසමත් වී තිබේ. එබැවින් අනාගතයේදී ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපනය ශක්තිමත් කිරීම පිණිස රජය විසින් සලකා බැලිය හැකි කේන්ද්‍රීය සංවර්ධන ප්‍රේරක දෙකක් නම් 1) එක්-එක් ශ්‍රේණියෙහි හා විෂයයෙහි නිපුණතා, කුසලතා හා අපේක්ෂිත ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිලාභ නියතව දක්වමින් ද්විතීයික පාසල් විෂයමාලාව පහදා සංවිධාන කිරීම හා 2) අදාළ මුද්‍රිත දැ පාසල්වලට සැපයීම ඇතුළු ඉහත කී සාධන මට්ටම් පිළිබඳ අවබෝධය විදුහල්පතින් හා ගුරුවරුන් අතර විපුලතරව පැතිර යාමට සැලැස්වීම යන මේවාය.

*ගුරුවරුවන්ගේ වෘත්තීය නිපුණතා හා කුසලතා ශක්තිමත් කිරීම*

39. කුමන අධ්‍යාපන ක්‍රමයේත් ඉගැන්වීම් බලකායේ ගුණාත්මක තත්වය තීරණාත්මකව වැදගත් වේ. පුර්ව-සේවා ගුරු අධ්‍යාපනය සැලසීමට ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන පීඨ (NCOE) පූර්ණ ජාලයක් ද අඛණ්ඩ ගුරු අධ්‍යාපනය සැපයීමට ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථාන (TC) ද ඉදිකර සේවා මණ්ඩල හා උපකරණාදියෙන් අංග සම්පූර්ණ කිරීම පිණිස ශ්‍රී ලංකා රජය විසින් පසුගිය පස් වසර පමණ කාලය තුළදී අධික ලෙස ආයෝජනය කර තිබේ. මේ වන විට ගුරුවරුන් සියල්ලම වාගේ පුහුණුව ලබා ඇත. මුළු ඉදිරි සේවා කාලය තුළදීම ඔවුන්ට වෘත්තීය දියුණුව සඳහා අවකාශ පෑදී තිබේ. මේ ආයතනික අඩිතාලම මත ගුරුවරුන්ගේ වෘත්තීය හැකියා හා කුසලතා සංවර්ධනය කිරීම රජයට ඇරඹිය හැකිය. ඒ අභිමතාර්ථය සාක්ෂාත් කර ගැනීමට සහාය වන ප්‍රධානතම කර්තව්‍යය වන්නේ 1) ස්ථානීය පුහුණුව මගින් මුළු පාසලක්ම නව මුහුණුවරකට පත් කර දියුණු කිරීම අරමුණු කොටගත් අඛණ්ඩ ගුරු පුහුණු වැඩසටහන් හඳුන්වාදීම, එක්-එක් ගුරුවරයාට තමන්ගේ කුසලතා උසස් තත්ත්වයකට පත් කර ගැනීමට මඟ සැලසෙන පරිදි මෙකල ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථාන තුළින් කෙරෙන විස්ථානීය පුහුණු කටයුතු

පරිපූර්ණයට පත් කිරීම. 2) පාඨමාලා සැලසුම හා සංවිධානය, පංති කාමර පරිවය, ශිෂ්‍ය පැවරුම් හා ගෙදර වැඩ, සිසු දැනුම හා කුසලතා ඇගයීම වැනි ගුරු කාර්යයන්හිදී මෙවලම් කට්ටල හා තාක්ෂණය භාවිතා කිරීමට ගුරුවරු සන්නද්ධ වන පරිදි පූර්ව-සේවා හා අඛණ්ඩ ගුරු පුහුණු වැඩසටහන්වල විෂයමාලා හා උපදේශන පරිව නවීකරණය 3) ප්‍රාථමික හා ද්විතියික ශ්‍රේණි වකු කුළදී ළමා-කේන්ද්‍රීය හා ක්‍රියාකාරකම්-පාදක ඉගැන්වුම්-ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රවේශන වැඩි-දියුණු කිරීම පිණිස අවශ්‍ය වන ශික්ෂණ විද්‍යාත්මක කුසලතා ලබාදීමට පූර්ව-සේවා හා අඛණ්ඩ ගුරු අධ්‍යාපන වැඩසටහන්වල විෂයමාලාත් උපදේශන වර්ගවනුත් දියුණු කිරීම 4) පාසල් ගුණයේ වැඩිදියුණුව පිණිස ප්‍රාදේශීය ප්‍රජාවන් සමඟ සහයෝගිතා ඇති කර ගැනීමට අවශ්‍ය කුසලතා ගුරුවරුන්ට ලබාදීම 5) විදුහල්පතින්ගේ නායකත්වය යටතේ උසස් පාසල් සාධන ප්‍රමිතීන් නියම කරගෙන ඒවා සාක්ෂාත් කරගැනීමේ වගකීම භාරගැනීමට ගුරුවරුන් සන්නද්ධ කිරීම 6) ගුරුවරුන්ගේ ඉගැන්වුම් ජීවිතය පුරාම නිරන්තර අඛණ්ඩ වකුසක් කුළ වෘත්තීය දැනුම, විෂය කරුණු ගැන අවබෝධය හා ශික්ෂණ කුසලතා ශක්තිමත් කිරීම.

විදුහල්පතින්ගේ ද ප්‍රධානාචාර්යයන්ගේ ද ප්‍රධානාචාරීන්ගේ ද නායකත්ව හා කළමනාකරණ හැකියාවන් ශක්තිමත් කිරීම

40. උසස් ගුණයේ පාසල් නායකත්වයේ කේන්ද්‍රීය වැදගත්කම ශ්‍රී ලාංකික අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් විසින් අගය කරනු ලැබේ. විදුහල්පතින්ට මුල්ගුරු මහත්ම-මහත්මාවන් වැනි අංශ නායක-නායිකාවන්ටත් නායකත්ව හා කළමනාකරණ පුහුණුවක් දීම පිණිස විදුහල්පතින් පුහුණු කිරීමේ මධ්‍යස්ථානයක් සකසා ගෙන යනු ලැබේ. තවද, විදුහල්පතින්ට බලය දෙමින් සැලකිය යුතු ප්‍රමාණයක කළමනාකරණ බලය පාසල්වලට පැවරීම පිණිස ප්‍රතිපත්තිමය පියවර ද ගනු ලැබ ඇත. පාසල් විදුහල්පතින්ගේද මුල්ගුරු මහත්ම-මහත්මාවන්ගේද නායකත්ව කුසලතා හා කළමනාකරණ හැකියා ශක්තිමත් කිරීම සංවර්ධනයට භාජනය විය යුතු තීරණාත්මක අංශයකි. අනාගතයේදී අවශ්‍ය වන වැදගත් නායකත්ව හා කළමනාකරණ දක්ෂකම් අතර 1) පාසල්වල දර්ශනය හා අධ්‍යාපනික අරමුණු පැහැදිලිව ප්‍රකාශ කිරීම 2) විෂයමාලාව කාර්යක්ෂමව ක්‍රියාවට නැඟීමට පාසල් සංවිධානය කිරීම 3) ගුරුවරුන්ගේ ශික්ෂණ නිපුණතා පංති කාමරයටත් පාසල්වල විෂයමාලා-බද අවශ්‍යතාවලටත් ගලපා ගැනීම 4) සේවා මණ්ඩල - වෙසෙසින්

ගුරුවරු- තක්සේරු කරමින් ඔවුන්ගේ නිපුණතා හා කුසලතා ක්‍රම-ක්‍රමයෙන් දියුණු කිරීම 5) සේවා මණ්ඩල ද සිසුන් ද උසස් සාධන මට්ටම් කරා පෙළඹවීම 6) පාසල් නිශ්ඛා සපුරා ගැනීමට භෞතික සම්පත් තැනට ඔබින පරිදි යොදා භාවිතයට ගැනීම 7) ගුරු-දෙගුරු සංගම්, ආදි-ශිෂ්‍ය සංගම් ඇතුළු ප්‍රජා සංවිධාන සමඟ සමීප-සම්බන්ධතා වර්ධනය කර ගැනීම හා 8) සිසුන්, ගුරුවරුන්, දෙමාපියන් හා ප්‍රජාවේ වෙනත් සාමාජිකයන් ආදීන්ට පහසුවෙන් දැකගැනීමටත් හමුවීමටත් මනා අවකාශ සැලසවීම යන කරුණු ඇතුළත්වේ.

පාසල් සඳහා ශාස්ත්‍රීය හා පරිපාලන ආධාරක පද්ධති පිහිටුවීම

41. ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ පාසල්වලට ශාස්ත්‍රීය හා පරිපාලන සහාය හා මඟ-පෙන්වීම යොමු කරන ආධාරක ජාලා තවම ඇත්තේ නොදියුණු අංකුර තත්ත්වයේය. පාසල්වලට ආධාරක සැපයීමට දැන් පවත්නා සේවාස්ථ උපදේශන පද්ධතිය ඉතා දුර්වලය. මේ ක්‍රමය ශක්තිමත් කිරීම අනාගත අධ්‍යාපන සංවර්ධනයට උපාය-මාර්ගීව වැදගත් වේ. අනාගත සංවර්ධනය සඳහා ප්‍රමුඛතා ලැබෙන අංශ අතර 1) සේවාස්ථ උපදේශකවරුන්ගේ භූමිකා හා වගකීම් පැහැදිලිව ප්‍රකාශ කිරීම 2) සනාථ වූ වෘත්තීය නිපුණත්වය හා සාධනය පදනම් කර ගෙන සේවාස්ථ උපදේශකවරුන් තෝරා පත් කිරීම 3) පාසල්වල සාධන මට්ටම් නැංවීම පිණිස යහපත් උපදේශන වර්ගවන් පිළිබඳ තොරතුරු සහ පුහුණුව ඇතුළු සේවා පාසල්වලට සැපයීමට සේවාස්ථ උපදේශකවරුන් සන්නද්ධ කිරීම 4) පාසල් විදුහල්පතින්ගේ ද ගුරුවරුන්ගේ ද ශාස්ත්‍රීය සාධනයන් ප්‍රයත්න ගැන ඇගයීම් පවත්වා ඒ අනුව ඵලවත් පසු-පෝෂණය සැපයීම කාර්යක්ෂමව ඉටු කර ගැනීම පිණිස සේවාස්ථ උපදේශකයන් උපයෝගී කර ගැනීම හා 5) පාසල්වලට ස්ථානීය පිටිවහළ දීම ප්‍රාදේශීය අධ්‍යාපන අධිකාරීන්ගේත් කලාපීය අධ්‍යාපන කාර්යාලවලත් නිත්‍ය සංවර්ධන කාර්යයක් වශයෙන් අන්තර්ගත කිරීම යන කරුණු ඇතුළත් වේ.

අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රාග්ධන සම්භාරය පුළුල් කිරීම හා ඉගැන්වීමේදීත් ඉගෙනීමේදීත් මෙවලම් කට්ටල හා තාක්ෂණ භාවිතය වැඩි කිරීම

42. ශ්‍රී ලංකාව දැන් අධ්‍යාපන සංවර්ධනයේ දෙවෙනි අදියරේ ඵලපත්තෙහි සිටින නිසා පාසල් පද්ධතිය “රට හුණු හා කතාව” කෙරෙහි අධිකව රැදුණු මද-තාක්ෂණ ඇති පරිසරයකින් ඉවත්ව උපකරණ හා තාක්ෂණ-සුක්ෂ්ම නවීන අධ්‍යාපන

පද්ධතියක් කරා ඉදිරියට යා යුතුය. තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණය (IT) මධ්‍යස්ථාන හා උපකරණ, විද්‍යාගාර, පුස්තකාල, ක්‍රියාකාරකම් කාමර, උපකරණ හා මෙවලම් සහිත අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රාග්ධන සම්භාරය අවධියෙන් අවධියට ක්‍රමයෙන් පුළුල් කළ යුතුය. ඒ සමගම, ඉගැන්වීමේ ක්‍රම, ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රවේශ හා විභාග ආදියෙහි දී උපකරණවලට හා තාක්ෂණයට ප්‍රමුඛ භූමිකාවක් ප්‍රදානය විය යුතුය. නිදසුන් වශයෙන්; විද්‍යා පාඨමි සඳහා වෙන් කළ කාලයෙන් වැඩි කොටසක් විද්‍යාගාර වැඩට යොමු කරන අතරම ඇගයීම් යාන්ත්‍රණයේ කොටසක් ලෙස විද්‍යාගාරස්ථ පැවරුම් භාවිත කළ හැකිය. එමෙන්ම ගණිතය, භෞතික විද්‍යාව වැනි විෂයයන්හි ඉගැන්වීම් ක්‍රම අතරට අධ්‍යාපන මෘදුකාංග යොදා ගැනීමෙන් ළමයින්ට ස්ව-වේගයෙන් ඉගෙනීමට සැලසිය හැකිය. භාෂා --විශේෂයෙන් ඉංග්‍රීසි-- ඉගැන්වීමේදී වචනමාලාව, උච්චාරණය සහ වතුරභාවය දියුණු කිරීමට ශ්‍රව්‍ය-උපකරණ භාවිත කළ හැකිවේ. පුස්තකාල හා කියවන ද්‍රව්‍ය වැඩිපුර භාවිත කිරීම ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිඵල දියුණු කර ගැනීමේ අතිශය ඵලදායී උපක්‍රමයකි.

**පෙළ-පොත්වල ගුණාත්මකභාවය දියුණු කිරීම**

43. අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය තුළ ප්‍රධාන ඉගෙනුම් සම්පතකි, පෙළ-පොත්. තවද, මෙය ශ්‍රී ලංකාව වැනි සංවර්ධනය වන රටකට අනාගතයේදී ද ප්‍රධාන ගුණාත්මක යෙදවුම විය හැකිය. එබැවින්, උසස් ගුණැති පෙළ-පොත් සැපයුම ඉතා වැදගත්ය. මෑත කාලයේදී රජය විසින් පෙළ-පොත්වල ගුණය දියුණු කිරීමටත් පාසල්වලට ලබාගත හැකි පෙළ-පොත්මාලාව පුළුල් කිරීමටත් වැදගත් ප්‍රතිපත්ති ප්‍රේරකයක් ක්‍රියාවට නගා තිබේ. මෙය කරන ලද්දේ රජයේ ඒකාධිකාරයක් ඉවත් කර තරඟකාරීව ක්‍රියාකරන පෞද්ගලික වෙළඳ සමාගම්වලට පෙළ-පොත් ප්‍රකාශනය විවෘත කිරීමෙනි. පෞද්ගලික අංශයේ පෙළ-පොත් ප්‍රකාශනයේ අනාගත සංවර්ධනයෙහිලා පහත දැක්වෙන තීරණාත්මක පියවර ඇතුළත් විය හැකිය: 1) රටේ පෙළ-පොත් ලේඛකයන්, විත්‍ර ශිල්පීන් හා සංස්කාරකයන් සතු තාක්ෂණික හැකියාව දියුණු කිරීම 2) තරුණ කරුණුවල නිරවද්‍යතාව ගැන වග බැලීමත් යම් කිසි ආගමක හෝ ජන වර්ගයක හෝ කණ්ඩායමකට වේදනා දෙන කරුණු ඉවත් කිරීමත් ඇතුළුව අත්පිටපත්වල හා කෙටුම්පත්වල ගුණය අවේක්ෂණය කරන ක්‍රම ශක්තිමත් කිරීම 3) පාසල් වර්ෂය ඇරඹීමට පෙර කලට වේලාවට පාසල්වලට පොත් බෙදා හැරීම පිණිස ගිවිසුම් සැකසීම හා පොත් භාරදීම ඉක්මන්

කිරීම 4) අතිරේක කියවීම් ද්‍රව්‍ය, වැඩ පොත් හා පෙළ-පොත් සඳහා මග-පෙන්නුම් පොත් නිමැවීමට ලේඛකයන්ගේ තාක්ෂණික හැකියාව දියුණු කිරීම.

**ළමයින්ගේ සෞඛ්‍ය හා පෝෂණ තත්ත්වය වැඩි-දියුණු කිරීම**

44. සංජානන ලකුණු මට්ටම් හා පාසල්, ගෘහීය සහ සෞඛ්‍ය විවලයයන් අතර සබඳතාව පිළිබඳ විශ්ලේෂණය තුළින් පෙනී යන්නේ ළමයින්ගේ දුර්වල සෞඛ්‍ය හා පහත් පෝෂණ තත්ත්ව ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිලාභ සමග සෘණාත්මකව ගැළපෙන බවකි. මේ හේතුවෙන්, දිළිඳු දරුවන්ගේ සෞඛ්‍ය හා පෝෂණ මට්ටම් දියුණු කිරීමේ පියවර තුළින් අධ්‍යාපන ගුණාත්මකය හා ඉගෙනුම් මට්ටම් උසස් කිරීමේ ප්‍රයත්නවලින් යහපත් ඵල-ප්‍රයෝජන ලැබෙනු ඇත. කායීකෂම පාසල් සෞඛ්‍ය හා පෝෂණ වැඩ සටහනක් සඳහා වූ මූලික රාමුවක් තුළ පහත සඳහන් හරවත් අංග ඇතුළත්වීම වැදගත් වන්නේය. 1) ආරක්ෂිත, ස්ථාවර භෞතික වටපිටාවක් ද සුවදායී ධනාත්මක මනෝ-සමාජීය පරිසරයක් ද සලස්වන අතර, ශිෂ්‍ය අපවාරය, ලිංගික වධහිංසා, පාසල් ප්‍රචණ්ඩත්වය හා බලවතුන්ගේ බිය වැද්දුම් වැනි ගැටලුවලට විසඳුම් සපයන සෞඛ්‍යාශ්‍රිත පාසල් ප්‍රතිපත්ති 2) පිරිසිදු පානීය ජලය හා ප්‍රමාණවත් පවිත්‍ර සනීපාරක්ෂක පහසුකම් තහවුරු කරන නිදොස් පාසල් ගොඩනැගිලි නිර්මාණය හා නිත්‍ය නඩත්තු කටයුතු 3) සෞඛ්‍යය පිළිබඳ ඉතාම යෝග්‍ය හා ධනාත්මක වූ ද තීරණවලට එළඹ ඒ අනුව කටයුතු කිරීමට සිසුන්ට අවශ්‍ය දැනුම, ආකල්ප, හරයන් හා ජීවන කුසලතා වර්ධනය කිරීම පිණිස කුසලතා-පාදක සෞඛ්‍ය අධ්‍යාපනය හා 4) සුක්ෂම-පෝෂක ඌණතා හා පණු දහනය, සා ගින්න, දන්ත ව්‍යසනය, මිලවක්ෂුව හෙවත් මයෝපියාව හා ශ්‍රවණාබාධ වැනි ගැටලුවලට පිළියම් සපයන පාසල්-පාදක සෞඛ්‍ය හා පෝෂණ සේවා යන අංගය.

**අධ්‍යාපනය තුළින් සමාජීය සංසක්තිය වර්ධනය කිරීම**

45. රට තුළ විසි වසරක් තිස්සේ පැවති ජන-වාර්ගික වෙන්වීමේ සටන පසුබිම් කොට ගෙන විවිධත්වය, ප්‍රජාතාන්ත්‍රීය රාජ්‍ය පාලනය හා සිවිල් නිදහස යන මේවා පිළිබඳ ගෞරවය වර්ධනය කිරීම පිණිස සිසුන්ගේ පෞර දැනුම හා අවබෝධය දියුණු කිරීම වැදගත් පියවරකි. අධ්‍යාපනය තුළින් සමාජීය සංසක්තිය වැඩි දියුණු කිරීමට ඉවහල් වන අතිරේක පියවර වශයෙන් විවිධ සමාජ කණ්ඩායම්වල සංසක්තියට සංවේදී පෙළ-පොත් බිහි කිරීම, විෂයමාලාව හා විෂයමාලා-බද්ධ ක්‍රියාකාරකම් යොදා ගනිමින් විවිධත්වය වර්ධනය කරන හැඟීම් නියුණු

කිරීම, විවිධ ජනවාර්ගික කණ්ඩායම්වල ළමයින්ට එක්වී අධ්‍යයන කටයුතුවල යෙදීමට ඉඩ සලසන පාසල් ඇරඹීම හා සම්බන්ධීකරණ භාෂාවක් වශයෙන් ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා භාවිතය වැඩි දියුණු කිරීම සැලකිය හැකිය. මේවායේ බලපෑම් විවිධ සමාජීය කණ්ඩායම්වල සහයෝගය මත ඉදිරුම රැඳෙනත් ඒවා ප්‍රයෝජනවත් පියවර වේ. මේ කටයුතු කායඝ්‍රීකමව වැඩිදියුණු කිරීමට නම් සටන්වලින් පීඩිත ප්‍රදේශවල ප්‍රබලතම කණ්ඩායම්වල සහයෝගය වෙසෙසින්ම අවශ්‍යය.

සටන් පැවතුණු ප්‍රදේශවල හානියට පත් අධ්‍යාපන ආයතන ප්‍රතිසංස්කරණයට පාත්‍ර කිරීම

46. බඳවා ගැනීම් හා ඉගෙනුම් මට්ටම් ඉතාම අඩු වන්නේ සටන්වලින් පීඩිත ප්‍රදේශවලය. මේ තැන්වල අධ්‍යාපන යටිතලය විනාශවීමේ හේතුවෙන් විශේෂ අභියෝග එල්ල වී තිබේ. සටන් පැවති කාලයේ දී එම සටන්වලින් පරිපීඩිත ප්‍රදේශවල රජයේ අධ්‍යාපන ආයතන --විශේෂයෙන් පාසල්-- හානියට පත්විය. මේ ප්‍රදේශයේ ප්‍රතිසංස්කරණ, පුනරුත්ථාපන හා සංවර්ධන අවශ්‍යතා පිළිබඳ තක්සේරුවකින් [UNICEF-World Bank (2003) බලන්න.] මේ ප්‍රදේශයේ අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රාග්ධන වත්කම් ප්‍රකාශිත තත්ත්වයට ගෙන ඒමට ඇමෙරිකානු ඩොලර් මිලියන 140ක් විතර උවමනා වෙතැයි ගණන් බලා තිබේ. කෙසේ වෙතත්, මෙවන් ප්‍රදේශවල අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිසංස්කරණ හා පුනරුත්ථාපන කටයුතු නිම කිරීමෙහි ප්‍රධාන අභියෝගය තාක්ෂණික හැකියාවට එල්ලවේ. මෙහි විශේෂයෙන්ම ඉදිකිරීමේ ද්‍රව්‍යන් පුහුණු ශ්‍රමයන් හිගය. තවද, ප්‍රතිසංස්කරණ කටයුතු සඳහා මේ ප්‍රදේශයට මුදල් ගලා ඒමත් සමග බඩු මිල හා වැටුප් වැඩි වී තිබේ. සටන්වලින් හානි වූ ප්‍රදේශවල අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය යළි පිහිටුවීමේ දීර්ඝ-කාලීන පිටිවහළ සඳහා ශක්‍යතා-වර්ධන කායඝ්‍රීයන් බොහොමයක් තිබේ.

විශ්ව විද්‍යාල අධ්‍යාපනයේ ගුණය වැඩිදියුණු කිරීම

47. විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතිය, පාසල් පද්ධතිය තරම්ම නියුණු සංවාදාත්මක ප්‍රතිපත්ති සංවර්ධන ක්‍රියාවලියකට භාජනය වී නැත. එසේ වුවද, විශ්ව විද්‍යාල ප්‍රතිපාදන කොමිසමත් එක් එක් විශ්ව විද්‍යාලයන් ගුණාත්මක වර්ධනය සඳහා ප්‍රේරක කිහිපයක් සකසා තිබේ. විෂයමාලා හා විභාග ක්‍රම ප්‍රතිසංස්කරණයක් --විශේෂයෙන් පාඨමාලා ඒකක පද්ධති වටා උපාධි වැඩ-සටහන් ගැළපීම හා අඛණ්ඩ ඇගයීමේ ක්‍රම ඇරඹීම ඇතුළු විශ්ව විද්‍යාල සඳහා සංස්ථාපන සැලසුම් සැකසීම, සේවා මණ්ඩල උදෙසා

සාධන ඇගයීම් ක්‍රම ඇරඹීම, ස්වාධීන මණ්ඩලයක් යටතේ ප්‍රස්ථාපන ක්‍රියාවලියක් පිහිටුවීම හා සාධන-පාදක මුදල් ප්‍රතිපාදන පිළිවෙතක් හඳුන්වාදීම මෙවායින් කිහිපයකි. මේ ප්‍රේරක මේ දක්වාම පරීක්ෂණයට ලක්වී නැත. ඒ සමඟම පාඨමාලා ඒකක ක්‍රමය හා අඛණ්ඩ ඇගයීම් යාන්ත්‍රණය වැනි පැරණි ප්‍රේරක පිළිබඳව එලවත් විමර්ශන පැවැත්වීම ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන්ටත් විද්‍යාර්ථීන්ටත් සහාය වනු ඇත.

අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය ශ්‍රම ලෝකයට නැඹුරු කිරීම

48. අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය ශ්‍රම ලෝකයට නැඹුරු කිරීමේ වැදගත්කම ශ්‍රී ලංකා අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති රාමුව තුළ අවධාරණය වී තිබේ. [NEC (2003) බලන්න.] ශ්‍රම ලෝකයට හොඳම පදනම වන්නේ ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළට පුහුණු කළ හැකි පුද්ගලයන් සැපයීමට හා තාක්ෂණික, වෘත්තීය හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල අධ්‍යාපනයට පිවිසීමට යෝග්‍ය ප්‍රබල පිනුම් පුවරුවක් සැකසීමට ශක්තිය ඇති උසස් ගුණයෙන් යුතු පාසල් පද්ධතියක් බව ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයෝ දැන සිටිති. දැනීම හා ගණිය කුසලතා, එනම්, කණ්ඩායම් හැඟීම, තීරණ ගැනීම, ප්‍රේරණය, ගැටලු විසඳීම, වගකීම, නායකත්වය හා සන්නිවේදනය වැනි ශ්‍රම ලෝකයෙහි වැදගත් ගණිය කුසලතා නිමැවීමෙන් පාසල් පද්ධතිය කේන්ද්‍රීය භූමිකාවක් දරයි. තවද, පාසල් පද්ධතිය ද, දැනීමත් ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළේ ඉල්ලුම ඇති විශේෂිත කුසලතාත් ලබාගැනීමට ඉවහල් වන පාදක විෂයමාලා රාමු කට්ටුවෙන් සමන්විතය. ශ්‍රී ලංකා අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය ශ්‍රම ලෝකයට නැඹුරුවීම වැඩිදියුණු කරන සැලසුම්වල විෂයමාලා, තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණය (IT) හා තාක්ෂණ විද්‍යාව අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි යොදා ගැනීම, භාෂා කුසලතා හා ප්‍රවීණතාව, වෘත්තීය මාර්ගෝපදේශනය හා අනුශාසනය යන මෙහිලා ප්‍රමුඛතානුගත සංවර්ධන ප්‍රේරක අවශ්‍යවේ.

ක්‍රියාකරකම්-පාදක විෂයමාලාවක් නිමවා ක්‍රියාවට නැඟීම

49. ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයින් විසින් ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපනය උදෙසා ප්‍රකාශිත ක්‍රියාකාරකම්-පාදක විෂයමාලා ප්‍රවේශය ඉදිරුම සැකසී ඇත්තේ පාසල් දරුවන් තුළ යහපත් ශ්‍රමාචාර ධර්ම වර්ධනය ඇති කරනු පිණිසය. [NEC (2003) බලන්න.] එබැවින්, ඒ මඟින් අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය ශ්‍රම ලෝකයට නැඹුරු කිරීමෙහිලා ප්‍රමුඛ භූමිකාවක් දරනු ඇත. ක්‍රියාකරකම්-පාදක විෂයමාලා ප්‍රවේශයේ අනාගත වර්ධනයත් ක්‍රියාවට නැඟීමත් රැඳී ඇත්තේ පහත එන කරුණු

පිළිබඳ ප්‍රමුඛ ප්‍රේරක කෙරෙහිය. 1) ක්‍රියාකරකම්-පාදක ඉගැන්වීමෙහිලා ගුරුවරුන් පුහුණු කිරීම 2) ක්‍රියාකරකම්-පාදක විෂයමාලාවක් සඳහා පාසල් සංවිධානයට විදුහල්පතින් පුහුණු කිරීම 3) ක්‍රියාකරකම්-පාදක ඉගෙනුම ක්‍රියාවට නැඟීම පිණිස ප්‍රමාණවත් පංති කාමර ඉඩ-කඩ හා ක්‍රියාකාරකම් කාමර සැපයීම 4) ක්‍රියාකරකම්-පාදක ඉගැන්වීමට හා ඉගෙනීමට අනුබල වශයෙන් පාසල්වලට ප්‍රමාණවත් උපකරණ කට්ටල, තාක්ෂණය හා කියවන ද්‍රව්‍ය සැපයීම.

තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණ-ඥානය හා කුසලතා වර්ධනය: තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණ-පාදක ඉගැන්වීම හා ඉගෙනීම ඇරඹීම

50. තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණ (IT) ඥානය හා කුසලතා වර්ධනය ලෝකයේ අත්‍යාවශ්‍යක වන අතර, පාසල් වකුස සමාජික කරන්නන් හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල උපාධිධාරීන් සඳහා ස්වදේශීය හා ගෝලීය ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළෙහි පිවිසීම් බෙහෙවින් වැඩිකරයි. තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණයෙහි (IT) කේන්ද්‍රීය වැදගත්කම දන්නා අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයෝ අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියෙහිලා IT භාවිතය ව්‍යාප්ත කිරීම ස්ථාවර කිරීමටත් අනුග්‍රහ දක්වති. මෙය අතිශයින් වැදගත් උසස් ප්‍රමුඛතා ඇති ප්‍රතිපත්තිමය පියවරකි. අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියෙහි IT භාවිතය වැඩිකර IT-පාදක ඉගැන්වීම හා ඉගෙනීම පිණිස වූ තීරණාත්මක ප්‍රේරක අතරෙහි 1) පාසල්වලට IT පහසුකම් හා සම්බන්ධතා ක්‍රමවත් පියවරින් සැපයීම 2) IT-පාදක අධ්‍යාපන මෙවලම්වලට ළඟාවීමේ අවකාශ උපරිමයට නැංවීම පිණිස ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන ජාලයක් පිහිටුවීම 3) IT උපකරණ, අධ්‍යාපනික මෘදුකාංග හා අන්තර්-ජාල (on-line) අධ්‍යාපන සම්පත් ගැන ගුරුවරුන් පුහුණු කිරීම 4) අධ්‍යාපනයෙහිලා IT භාවිතය පිළිබඳව පාසල් විදුහල්පතින් තුළ අවබෝධයක් ඇති කිරීම 5) පාසල්වල ගුණාත්මකභාවය සඳහා වෙන්වන යෙදවුම් අතරෙහි තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණ (IT) -පාදක අධ්‍යාපන සම්පත් වෙනුවෙන් ප්‍රතිපාදන සැලසීම යන කටයුතු ඇතුළත්ය.

ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා කුසලතා දියුණු කිරීම

51. ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා කුසලතා හා වාතුර්යය ස්වදේශීය ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළෙහි බලවත් ඉල්ලුමට පාත්‍රවේ. එපමණක් නොව, ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා ප්‍රවීණතාව ලෝක ආර්ථිකයෙහි රැකියා අපේක්ෂණ බිහි කරයි. මේ හේතුවෙන් ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළ වෙත පාසල් පද්ධතියේ නැඹුරුව වැඩිකිරීම පිණිස අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති රාමුව තුළ ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා කුසලතා වර්ධනය කේන්ද්‍රීය

අංගයක් වන්නේය. අනාගතය උදෙසා වැදගත් සංවර්ධන ප්‍රේරකයන් අතරෙහි 1) 1 ශ්‍රේණියේ සිට ඉහළට සිංහල හා දෙමළ මෙන්ම, ඉගැන්වීමේ මාධ්‍යයක් වශයෙන් ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂාව තෝරා ගැනීමේ වරණය පෞද්ගලික පාසල් සිසුන්ට ලබාදීම 2) ප්‍රමාණවත් ගුරුවරුන් ලබාගත හැකිවීම අනුව රජයේ පාසල්වල ඉගැන්වීමේ මාධ්‍යය වශයෙන් ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂාව පියවරින් පියවර යොදා ගැනීම 3) ඉංග්‍රීසි විෂයයක් වශයෙන් ඉගැන්වීමට ගුරුවරුන් පුහුණු කිරීම හා පද්ධතියෙහි “අතිරේක ගුරුවරුන්ට” යළි-පුහුණුවක් ලබාදීම 4) ඉගැන්වීමේ මාධ්‍යයක් වශයෙන් ඉංග්‍රීසියෙන් ඉගැන්වීමට ගුරුවරුන් පුහුණු කිරීම හා පද්ධතියෙහි “අතිරේක ගුරුවරුන්ට” යළි-පුහුණුවක් ලබාදීම 5) ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂාවෙන් ඉගෙනීමටත් ඉගැන්වීමටත් ශ්‍රව්‍ය-දෘෂ්‍ය අධ්‍යාපන හා තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණ-පාදක (IT) අධ්‍යාපන ද්‍රව්‍ය භාවිතය පුළුල් කිරීම යන කටයුතු ඇතුළත්ය.

කුසලතා සංවර්ධනය හා පුහුණුව ශක්තිමත් කිරීම

52. පාසල් හැරයන්නන්ගේ රැකියා භව්‍යතා හා ශ්‍රම ඵලදායිතාව දියුණු කිරීම පිණිස රජය විසින් ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළ අරබයා ගන්නා ප්‍රධාන සක්‍රීය උපාය මාර්ගය වන්නේ කුසලතා වර්ධනයයි. ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන් විසින් මෙහිලා ඵලදායී සංවර්ධන ප්‍රේරකයන් හා ප්‍රතිපත්තිමය පියවර කිහිපයක් යෝජනා කර තිබේ. මේ අතරෙහි 1) තාක්ෂණික අධ්‍යාපනය හා වෘත්තීය පුහුණුව (TEVT) සඳහා වූ අග්‍රස්ථ ආයතනය වශයෙන් තාක්ෂණික හා වෘත්තීය අධ්‍යාපන කොමිසම (TVEC) ශක්තිමත් කිරීම 2) පහසුකම් සලසන, ප්‍රමිතිදායක, පුහුණු සංවිධායක වශයෙන් රජය සතු භූමිකාව වර්ධනය කිරීම 3) පුහුණුවෙහිලා පෞද්ගලික අංශයේ සහභාගිත්වයට අනුබලදීම 4) කුසලතා වර්ධනයෙහිලා රජය හා කර්මාන්ත අංශ දෙක අතර හවුල් ව්‍යාපාර ඇරඹීම 5) රාජ්‍ය හා පෞද්ගලික පුහුණු ආයතනයන්හි ගුණාත්මකභාවයට ප්‍රසාදත්වය පැවරීම හා එය අවේක්ෂාවට ලක් කිරීම 6) රාජ්‍ය අංශයේ තාක්ෂණික අධ්‍යාපනය හා වෘත්තීය පුහුණු (TEVT) පද්ධතිය අර්ථවත් කිරීම 7) පාසල්වලත් විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවලත් වෘත්තීය මාර්ගෝපදේශනය හා අනුශාසනය පිහිටුවීම ඇතුළුව, තාක්ෂණික අධ්‍යාපනය හා වෘත්තීය පුහුණු (TEVT) පද්ධතිය සමඟ පාසල්වල හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතියේ සබඳතා වැඩිදියුණු කිරීම 8) සුළු ව්‍යාපාර අංශය උදෙසා වෘත්තීය පුහුණුව සඵල කිරීම 9) සංස්ථා අංශය ඉලක්ක කරගෙන පුහුණුවට මූල්‍ය අනුබල සම්පාදනය යන පියවර ඇතුළත් වේ. මේවා ජාත්‍යන්තර වින්තනය හා භාවිතයන් පිළිබිඹු

කරන බුද්ධිගෝචර හා එලදායී පෙර-ලකුණු සහිත අදහස්ය. මේ විවිධ ප්‍රතිපත්තිමය ප්‍රේරක තර්කව සුළුතර සංවර්ධන අවධියක පවතී. ඇතැම් අදහස් තවමත් පිඹුරුපත් අවධියේමය. මේ ප්‍රතිපත්තිමය අදහස් සංවර්ධන උපාය-මාර්ගවලට පෙරළා ක්‍රියාවට නැගීම TEVT අංශයේ මිලඟ ප්‍රධාන අභියෝගය වන්නේය.

**වෘත්තීය මාර්ගෝපදේශනය හා අනුශාසනය**

53. අධ්‍යාපනය ශ්‍රම ලෝකයට සම්බන්ධ කිරීම පිණිස රජයේ වැදගත් නිර්දේශයක් වන්නේ කායභීක්ෂම වෘත්තීය මාර්ගෝපදේශනය හා අනුශාසනය දියුණු කිරීමයි. විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල වෘත්තීය මාර්ගෝපදේශනය හා අනුශාසනය අරඹා තිබේ. එසේ වුවත්, පාසල් පද්ධතියෙහි වෘත්තීය මාර්ගෝපදේශනය හා අනුශාසනය නැත්තටම නැති කරමිය. පාසල්වල වෘත්තීය මාර්ගෝපදේශනය හා අනුශාසනය දියුණු කිරීම අනාගතයෙහි ක්‍රියාවට නැගිය යුතු වැදගත් ප්‍රේරකයකි. මේ ප්‍රේරකයට අනුබල වශයෙන් මුල්විය යුතු කර්තව්‍යයන් අතර 1) වෘත්තීය මාර්ගෝපදේශනය හා අනුශාසනය සඳහා පාසල් ආචාර්ය මණ්ඩලවල කේන්ද්‍රීය කණ්ඩායමක් පුහුණු කිරීම 2) දිළිඳු ප්‍රදේශවල සිසුන්ට ශ්‍රම වෙළඳපොළේ තොරතුරු ලබාගැනීමේ අවකාශ අඩු නිසා වෘත්තීය මාර්ගෝපදේශනය හා අනුශාසනය දියුණු කිරීමේ දී එබඳු ප්‍රදේශවල පාසල්වලට ප්‍රමුඛතා සැපයීම 3) වෘත්තීය පුහුණු හා තාක්ෂණික අධ්‍යාපන ආයතන හා පාසල්වල මාර්ගෝපදේශකයන් අතර තොරතුරු ජාල පිහිටුවීම යන කායභීයන් ඇතුළත් වේ.

**අධ්‍යාපන සම්පත් වෙන් කිරීම හා බෙදාහැරීම**

54. මූලික අනිවාර්ය අධ්‍යාපන වකුය (1-9 ශ්‍රේණි) සර්වත්‍රව සම්පූර්ණ කිරීම, අධ්‍යාපන ගුණය වැඩිදියුණු කිරීම, අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය ශ්‍රම ලෝකයට නැඹුරු කිරීම, රාජ්‍ය වියදම් සමච බෙදියාම තහවුරු කිරීම, පද්ධතිය තුළ සේවා ප්‍රදානය ශක්තිමත් කිරීම, හා අධ්‍යාපන හා පුහුණු පද්ධතියේ ආර්ථික හා සමාජීය අදාළත්වය වර්ධනය කිරීම යන මේ කායභීයන්හි රජය ඉදිරිපිට ප්‍රබල අභියෝග කිහිපයක්ම තිබේ. මේ අභියෝග පවතින්නේ සංවර්ධන රටවල්වල මට්ටමෙන් බලන විට, අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි රාජ්‍ය ආයෝජන සුළුතර වූ ද, සංරක්ෂක අය-වැය ප්‍රතිපත්තියකට බල කෙරෙන අධිකතර මූල්‍ය හිඟයකින් රජය පෙළෙන හේතුවෙන් රජයේ අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්වල මූර්ත වටිනාකම හීන වූ ද කාලයකදීය. මේ තත්වය යටතේ දැනට ඇති සීමිත

රාජ්‍ය සම්පත් අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය විසින් සාධාරණ වූ ද කායභීක්ෂම වූ ද අයුරින් උපයෝගී කරගැනීම අභියෝග වැදගත් වේ.

**ප්‍රතිමාන-පාදක ඒකක පිරිවැය සම්පත් වෙන්කිරීමේ යාන්ත්‍රණයේ අනාගත දියුණුව තුළින් සාධාරණත්වය හා ගුණය දියුණු කිරීම**

55. පසුගිය වසර 4-5 තුළ පාසල් සඳහා රාජ්‍ය සම්පත් වෙන්කිරීමට භාවිතා වූ ප්‍රතිමාන-පාදක ඒකක පිරිවැය සම්පත් වෙන්කිරීමේ යාන්ත්‍රණයෙන් අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය තුළ සම්පත් වෙන්කිරීමේ හා බෙදාහැරීමේ සාධාරණතාව බෙහෙවින් වැඩිවී තිබේ. මේ සූත්‍රය ක්‍රියාවට නැගීමේ පළමු අදියරේදී පාසල් සියල්ලම සමාන ලෙස සලකන ලදුව ද, පරිමාණානුගත පිරිමැසුම් සඳහා පාසලේ විශාලත්වය ද ඉතා අඩු සම්පත් ඇති පාසල්වල දිළිඳුකම් මට්ටම් ද ඉගැන්වෙන විෂයයන්ගේ විවිධත්වය හා අදාළ ශ්‍රේණි වකු ද වෙනුවෙන් පමණක් සුළු වෙනස්වීම් සලසන ලදී. දැන් මේ රටට ප්‍රතිමාන-පාදක ඒකක පිරිවැය සම්පත් වෙන්කිරීමේ යාන්ත්‍රණයේ දෙවැනි අදියරට පිවිසිය හැකිය. මේ සඳහා 1) අධ්‍යාපන අවශ්‍යතා හා සමාජ-ආර්ථික සංවර්ධනය ආශ්‍රිත පළාත්-බද හා කලාපීය වෙනස්කම් ඇතුළත් කර ගැනීම පිණිස මුදල් සැපයුම් සූත්‍රයේ වෙනස්කම්වලට ඉඩ තැබීම 2) තෝරාගත් පාසල්වල විෂයමාලාවේ උපකරණ භාවිතය හා තාක්ෂණික තිවුත්වය වැඩිකර IT-පාදක අධ්‍යාපනය හා ඉංග්‍රීසි මාධ්‍ය අධ්‍යාපනය සැපයීමටත් මේ සූත්‍රය පරිශෝධනය කිරීම 3) ප්‍රතිමාන-පාදක ඒකක පිරිවැය සම්පත් වෙන්කිරීමේ යාන්ත්‍රණයේ නවීනතම ආකෘතිය අනුව සම්පත් වෙන්කර බෙදා හැරීම පිණිස මධ්‍යම හා ප්‍රාදේශීය අධ්‍යාපන මූල්‍ය බලධාරීන්ගේ තාක්ෂණික හා ආයතනික හැකියාව ශක්තිමත් කිරීම යන මේවා ඉවහල් වේ.

**අධ්‍යාපන වකු හරහා රාජ්‍ය අධ්‍යාපන වියදම්වල කායභීක්ෂමතාවන් සාධාරණත්වයන් වැඩිදියුණු කිරීම**

56. අධ්‍යාපනයේ සමාජීය එල-ප්‍රයෝජන උච්චතම වන්නේ අනිවාර්ය මූලික අධ්‍යාපන හා ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපන වකුවලදීය. මෙයින් හැඟෙන්නේ, අධ්‍යාපන ආයෝජනයේ විශිෂ්ටතම ප්‍රතිලාභය මූලික අධ්‍යාපන හා ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපන මට්ටම්වලදී සාක්ෂාත් වන බවය. උසස් ශ්‍රේණි වකු තුළ සිසුන් බඳවා ගැනීමේ රටාවන් ශ්‍රේණි මට්ටම් අනුව අධ්‍යාපන ඒකක පිරිවැයන් පෙන්වා දෙන්නේ මූලික හා ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි ආයෝජනය සාපේක්ෂව ප්‍රමාණී බවත්, එය පහත් ආදායම් හා මධ්‍ය ආදායම් ලබන පවුල්වල සිසුන්ට විපුලතර එල-ප්‍රයෝජන උදා

කරන අතර, තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයේ ඵල-ප්‍රයෝජන ඉහළ ආදායම් ලබන පවුල්වල සිසුන්ට බෙහෙවින්ම වාසිදායක වන බවත් වේ. එබැවින්, අධ්‍යාපන අංශයෙහි රාජ්‍ය සම්පත් යෙදවීම වැඩිකරනු ලබන විට එහි වැඩි කොටසක් මූලික හා ජ්‍යෙෂ්ඨ ද්විතීයික අධ්‍යාපනය උදෙසා වෙන් කිරීමටත්, රාජ්‍ය විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතියේ ව්‍යාප්තිය කියුණුව පාලනය කර තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයට පිවිසීම් ප්‍රධාන වශයෙන් පෞද්ගලික අංශය වෙත ව්‍යාප්ත වීමට සැලසීමටත් මෙය ප්‍රබල හේතුවක් වෙයි. දිළිඳු සිසුන්ට තෘතීයික අධ්‍යාපනයට පිවිසීම වැඩි කළ යුත්තේ සෘජු ප්‍රතිපාදනයෙන්ම නොව, සිසු වවුචර, සිසු ණය ක්‍රම වැනි ප්‍රතිපාදන කුලීනි.

*අධ්‍යාපන ගුණාත්මක වර්ධනය සඳහා සම්පත් වෙන් කිරීමේදී අය-වැය කුළ සංශෝධන*

57. අධ්‍යාපන ගුණය දියුණු කිරීමට හා අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය ශ්‍රම ලෝකය වෙත නැඹුරු කරවීමට යෝග්‍ය සංවර්ධන ප්‍රේරක, එනම් විෂයමාලාවේ උපකරණ භාවිතය හා තාක්ෂණික තීව්‍රතාව වැඩි කිරීම, තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණ-ඥානය හා තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණ-පාදක අධ්‍යාපනය වැඩිදියුණු කිරීම, ඉංග්‍රීසි භාෂා වාතුර්යය හා කුසලතා ව්‍යාප්තිය වැනි ප්‍රේරක සඳහා අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රාග්ධන වත්කම්වල විපුලතර ආයෝජනයක් අවශ්‍යවේ. එබැවින්, ඉදිරි කාලයේදී අධ්‍යාපන අය-වැය කුළ ප්‍රාග්ධන හා පුනරාවර්තන වියදම් අතර කුලනය ප්‍රාග්ධන වියදම් උදෙසා වඩා විශාල සම්පත් කොටසක් වෙන් වන පරිදි සංශෝධනය කළ යුතුවේ. ප්‍රාග්ධන අය-වැය කුළ ද තොරතුරු තාක්ෂණ මධ්‍යස්ථාන, විද්‍යාගාර, පුස්තකාල, ක්‍රියාකාරකම් කාමර, බහුවිධ උපයෝගී කාමර, පොත්-පත්, සඟරා, පරිගණක, අධ්‍යාපනික මෘදුකාංග, උපකරණ කට්ටල, තාක්ෂණය හා මෙවලම් වැනි ගුණාත්මක යෙදවුම් සඳහා වැඩි සම්පත් අනුපාතයක් ආයෝජනය කළ යුතුය. ප්‍රාග්ධන අය-වැය කුළ විශාලතම කොටස ඇදගන්නා ගොඩනැගිලි ඉදි කිරීමේ හා පුළුල් කිරීමේ අංශයද නැඟී එන ඉල්ලුමක් ඇති නාගරික පාසල් පද්ධතියට ප්‍රමුඛතාවක් දෙමින් යුක්තියෝග්‍ය කළ යුතුය. පුනරාවර්තන අය-වැය කුළ ද පවා, වැටුප් හා පරිපාලන වියදම් අඩු කර ගුරු අධ්‍යාපනය හා පුහුණුව, පාසල් විදුහල්පතින්ගේ පරිපාලන හා ශාස්ත්‍රීය පුහුණුව, ඉගැන්වුම් ද්‍රව්‍ය හා ඉගෙනුම් සම්පත් මිලයට ගැනීම වැනි ගුණාත්මක වර්ධන ක්‍රියාවලි සඳහාත් අධිකතර ප්‍රාග්ධන ආයෝජනවල මෙහෙයුම් වියදම් සඳහාත් වැඩිමනක් සම්පත් වෙන් කළ යුතුය.

*අධ්‍යාපනයෙහිලා පෞද්ගලික ආයෝජනය හා සහභාගිත්වය වැඩි කිරීම*

58. අධ්‍යාපන ගුණයෙහි උසස් මට්ටම් කරා රට ඉදිරියට යත්ම, අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය ද විකල්ප ආදායම් ප්‍රභව මතු කර ගනිමින් රජයේ අය-වැයට අනුසූරක සහාය දිය යුතුය. විශාල හා නිරන්තර අය-වැය හිඟයක් සහිත අවාසිදායක සර්වත්‍ර-ආර්ථික පරිසරයක් තුළ මෙය වෙසෙසින්ම වැදගත්ය, කල් දැමිය නොහැකිය. පෞද්ගලික පාසල් පිහිටුවීමට එරෙහි නීති බාධක ලිහිල් කර, අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි පෞද්ගලික අංශයේ සහභාගිත්වය කෙරෙහි දේශපාලන ආර්ථික පරිසරයෙන් නැගෙන විරෝධයට ප්‍රතිපක්ෂ වූ උපාය-මාර්ගික ප්‍රේරක හඳුන්වාදීම කිහිපාකාරයකින් එළවත් විය හැකිය. ඒ මඟින් 1) අධ්‍යාපන අංශයෙහි ආයෝජන සමස්ත සම්පත් ප්‍රමාණය වැඩි කරනු ලැබේ 2) පෞද්ගලික පාසල් හා පෞද්ගලික අධ්‍යාපනයන් කරා යන සිසුන් ඉහළ ආදායම් පවුල්වලින් එන්නන් විය හැකි බැවින්, ප්‍රතිශීර්ෂ පදනම අනුව, වැඩිමනක් රාජ්‍ය සම්පත් දිළිඳුතර පවුල්වල සිසුන්ට බෙදී යයි 3) කෘත්‍රීම අයුරින් ආයෝජන සීමා කරන ලද අංශයක ආර්ථික ක්‍රියාවලි අවදිකරවා වඩා උසස් ආර්ථික වර්ධනයකට දායකත්වයක් ලබා ගත හැකිය 4) පෞද්ගලික පාසල් හා ආයතන වැනි තනි තනි අධ්‍යාපන ආයතන මට්ටමේදී සැලකිය යුතු බලයක් හා වගකීමක් සහිත විකල්ප සේවා සැපයුම් ආකෘතියක් සලසනු ලැබේ. නිදහස් රාජ්‍ය අධ්‍යාපන ආයතන සමඟ තරඟයේ යෙදෙන ආර්ථික පරිසරයක ස්ථාවරව සිටීම පිණිස මේ පෞද්ගලික අධ්‍යාපන ආයතන විසින් උසස් ගුණයේ සේවා ලබාදීම අනිවාර්ය වන්නේය.

59. පෞද්ගලික විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පිහිටුවීම අතිශයින් විවාදාහිමුඛ ගැටලුවක් වී තිබේ. අතීත ප්‍රයත්න කිහිපයකදීම සිසු සැහැසිකම් හා සමාජීය වියවුල් ආදියෙන් මේවා කෙළවර විය. එබැවින්, මධ්‍ය-අවධි පිළිවෙතක් වශයෙන් ශ්‍රී ලංකාවෙහි පෞද්ගලික විශ්ව විද්‍යාල ඇරඹෙනැයි සිතීම උගහටය. පෞද්ගලික විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පිහිටුවීමට එරෙහි විරෝධයට මුහුණදෙන රජයේ ප්‍රතිචාරය වී ඇත්තේ පෞද්ගලික අංශයට විවාදාපත්ත නොවූ අංශවල සහභාගිවීමට අනුබලදීමයි. මෙහිලා ප්‍රධානවම බොහෝවිට විදේශීය විශ්ව විද්‍යාල හා සබැඳි පෞද්ගලික උපාධි ආයතන පිහිටුවීමත් වෘත්තීය පාඨමාලා වැනි තෘතීයික මට්ටමේ වැඩසටහන්වල හා තාක්ෂණික ක්ෂේත්‍රවල ආයෝජන කිරීමත් ඇතුළත් වේ. මෙහිදී රජයේ කායභීය වන්නේ විශ්ව විද්‍යාල අධ්‍යාපනයෙන් බැහැර තෘතීයික මට්ටමේ --විශේෂයෙන්, මෙරට තුළත් රටින් පිටතත්

තදබල ශ්‍රම ඉල්ලුමක් ඇති-- වෘත්තීය හා තාක්ෂණික ක්ෂේත්‍රවල පෞද්ගලික අංශයේ සහභාගිකත්වය ව්‍යාප්ත කළ හැකි විකල්ප සෙවීමය.

රාජ්‍ය විශ්ව විද්‍යාල අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි පිරිවැය බෙදාගැනීමට අනුබල දීම

60. රාජ්‍ය විශ්ව විද්‍යාලයීය උපාධි අපේක්ෂක අධ්‍යාපනය සමාජීය ප්‍රතිලාභවලට වඩා බෙහෙවින් අධික උසස් පෞද්ගලික ප්‍රතිලාභ අත් කර දෙන බව ද රටේ ගෘහීය අංශයෙන් ඉතාම ධනවත් පංචකයට විෂමානුපාතිකව උසස් ප්‍රතිඵල ලබා දෙන බව ද මේ විශ්ලේෂණය පැහැදිලිව පෙන්වා දෙයි. මේ තතු යටතේ රටවැසි පවුල්වලින් පෞද්ගලික විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවලට ඇදී එන ආදායම් කොටස වැඩිකිරීමට මහඟු අවස්ථාවක් පැදේ. ඒ සමගම, දශක ගණනාවක් පුරා ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ රාජ්‍ය විශ්ව විද්‍යාල අධ්‍යාපනය කිසිදු අය කිරීමකින් තොරව සැපයීම ප්‍රතිමානයක් ලෙස පැවති දේශපාලන-ආර්ථික තත්ත්වය ගණන් ගත යුතුය. එමෙන්ම, ජාත්‍යන්තර තලයෙහි නිදහස් රාජ්‍ය විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතිවලට පිරිවැය බෙදාගැනීමේ පිළිවෙත ඇතුළු කිරීමට එරෙහිව දැක්වුණු තදබල විරෝධය --විශේෂයෙන්ම ශිෂ්‍ය කණ්ඩායම් තුළින් මතු වූ විරෝධය-- අත්දැකීමක් ලෙස ගණන් ගත යුතුය. එබැවින්, ශ්‍රී ලංකාවේ රාජ්‍ය උපාධි අපේක්ෂක අධ්‍යාපනය තුළට පිරිවැය බෙදාගැනීමේ පිළිවෙත නුදුරු අනාගතයේ දී කිසිවිටක ඇතුළු කළ හැකි වෙතැයි සිතිය නොහැකිය. එසේ වුවත්, දීර්ඝ-කාලීනව --විශේෂයෙන්ම ආර්ථික වර්ධනයක් ඇති වී රටවැසි පවුල්වල ධනය වැඩි වෙත්ම-- පිරිවැය බෙදාගැනීම ජීවමාන ප්‍රතිපත්ති විකල්පයක් ලෙස පිළිගැනීම අවශ්‍යවනු ඇත. මෙබඳු තත්ත්වයක් තුළ ආපතික ආදායම්-පාදක ශිෂ්‍ය ණය ක්‍රමය මෙකල සංක්‍රාන්තික ආර්ථික පවත්නා රටවල උනන්දුවෙන් සලකා බලනු ලැබෙන්නකි. මේ ආකාරයේ ශිෂ්‍ය ණය ක්‍රමයක්, පටන් ගැනීමක් වශයෙන් බාගෙවිට පෞද්ගලික තෘතීයික ආයතනවල නියාමක මට්ටමින් පැවැත්වීමට රජයේ සැලකිල්ල යොමු කළ හැකිය. ඒ අතරම, රාජ්‍ය විශ්ව විද්‍යාල අධ්‍යාපනයෙහි පිරිවැය බෙදාගැනීමට ඉඩ ඇති එක් අංශයක් නම්, පශ්චාත්-උපාධි පාඨමාලාය. විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවල පශ්චාත්-උපාධි පාඨමාලා හදාරන්නන් වැඩි පිරිසක් රැකියාවල නියුක්තෝය. ඔවුහු ගාස්තු අය කරන අර්ධ-කාලීන පාඨමාලාවල සහභාගී වෙති. විශ්ව විද්‍යාල ආදායම් වැඩි කර ගනිමින් රටේ උසස් උගතුන් නමැති මානව සම්පත් සැපයුම වැඩි දියුණු කිරීම උදෙසා වූ උපායක් ලෙසින් තවදුරටත් බොහෝ ව්‍යාප්ත කිරීමට ඉඩ ඇති අංශයකි, මෙය.

**අධ්‍යාපන සේවා ප්‍රදානයේ ගුණයන් කායඝීක්ෂමතාවන් දියුණු කිරීම**

61. දිළිඳුකමින් හා සම්පත් හිඟයෙන් අතිශයෙන් පරිපීඩිත ආර්ථික කණ්ඩායම්වලට අධ්‍යාපනයට පිවිසීමේ අවකාශ පුළුල් කිරීමටත් අධ්‍යාපන ගුණය හා ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිලාභ දියුණු කිරීමටත් අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය ශ්‍රම ලෝකයට නැඹුරු කිරීමටත් යොමුවන සංවර්ධන ප්‍රේරක හා උපාය මාර්ග සාර්ථක වීමට නම් අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය තුළ සේවා ප්‍රදානයේ ගුණයන් කායඝීක්ෂමතාවන් ශක්තිමත් කිරීම ද අවශ්‍ය වේ. සේවා ප්‍රදානය දියුණු කිරීම සඳහා රජය අදහස් කරන උපාය මාර්ගයෙහි ඵලදායී අංග කිහිපයක්ම ඇතුළත් වේ.

පාසල් හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල වැනි ඉදිරි පෙළේ සේවා ප්‍රදාන ආයතන ප්‍රබල කිරීම

62. පාසල් හා විශ්ව විද්‍යාල වැනි ඉදිරි පෙළේ සේවා ප්‍රදාන ආයතනවලට කළමනාකරණ බලය පැවරීම දැනට සැලකිල්ලට බඳුන් වූ රජයේ ප්‍රධාන ප්‍රතිපත්ති ප්‍රේරකයකි. පාසල් පද්ධතියෙහි කළමනාකරණ අධිකාරිය පැවරීමේ අරමුණ වන්නේ, විදුහල්පතින්, මුල් ගුරු මහත්ම-මහත්මාවන් හා ගුරුවරුන් බලවත් කිරීමයි. එමෙන්ම, සම්පත් උකහා ගැනීම හා මහජනයා වෙත වගකීම ශක්තිමත් කිරීම පිණිස ප්‍රාදේශීය ප්‍රජාව සමඟ සබඳතා ඇති කරගැනීමට පාසල්වලට ඉඩ සැලසීම ද පරිපාලන ස්තර අඩු කොට තීරණ ගැනීමේ වේගයත් සංවේදීතාවත් වැඩිදියුණු කිරීම මෙහිලා අරමුණු වන්නේය. පාසල්වලට කළමනාකරණ ස්වාධීනත්වය පැවරීමේදී විවිධ පාසල් සංවර්ධන මණ්ඩල ආකෘති නියාමක මට්ටමින් පරීක්ෂණයට ලක් කිරීම වැදගත්වේ. ඒ ස්ථානය, ප්‍රමාණය, හා ඉතිහාසය වැනි සාධක ආශ්‍රිතව පාසල්වල පාලන විධියෙහි ශක්තිය බෙහෙවින් විචල්‍ය වන හෙයිනි. නිදසුනක්: ඇත පිටිසර ගම්මානවල කුඩා පාසල්වලට වඩා ප්‍රබලතර කළමනාකරණ හැකියා හා ප්‍රගාමක සහායක් ද මහා නගරවල හා සුළු නගරවල රජයේ ප්‍රධාන පෙළේ පාසල් සතුව තිබිය හැකිය.

63. විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවලට දැනුණු සෑහෙන ස්වාධීනත්වයක් හිමිව ඇතත්, පරිපාලන සේවකයන් බඳවා ගැනීම, ආවායඝී මණ්ඩල සාමාජිකයන්ගේ වැටුප් පුද්ගල-බද්ධ ක්‍රමයකට නතු කිරීම හා ශිෂ්‍ය බඳවා ගැනීම් ගැන තීරණ ගැනීම වැනි බලතල ද පැවරුව හොත් විශ්ව විද්‍යාල සේවා මණ්ඩලවල හා අධිකාරීන්ගේ උනන්දුව, වගකීම, හා අවංකභාවය

දියුණු වනු ඇත. එහෙත්, මේ පියවර දේශපාලන ආර්ථික දෘෂ්ටියෙන් විවාදශීලී විය හැකිය. නිදසුනක් වශයෙන්, සමානරුචී වැටුප් පරිමාවලට හුරුවූ විද්‍යාර්ථීන් සිටින පරිශ්‍රයක පෞද්ගලික තලයෙන් වැටුප් නියම කිරීමේ නිදහස විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවලට පැවරීම අත්‍යන්තයෙන් විවාදශීලී වනු ඇත. එමෙන්ම, සිසුන් ඇතුළත් කර ගැනීමේ වගකීම විශ්ව විද්‍යාලවලට වෙන වෙනම පවරනු ලැබේ නම්, වරප්‍රසාද-හීන දිස්ත්‍රික්කවලට ශිෂ්‍ය සංඛ්‍යා නියම කිරීමේ ප්‍රතිපත්තිය හා ගැලපෙන අයුරින් එය කළ යුතුය.

64. ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන පීඨ (NCOE) හා ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථාන (TC) වැනි වෙනත් අධ්‍යාපන ආයතනවලට ද පාලන බලය පැවරීමේ ප්‍රතිපත්තිය අදාළ කිරීම රජයේ කල්පනාවට භාජන විය හැකිය. මෙකල නම් ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන පීඨවලට කළමනාකරණ වගකීම හා ස්වාධීනත්වය නැතිසේය. ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන පීඨවලින් සම්පාදිත ගුරු අධ්‍යාපන පාඨමාලාවල විෂයමාලා සැලසුම ද ඇගයීම හා සහතික පත් ප්‍රදානය ද ඉටු කරනු ලබන්නේ ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන ආයතනය (NIE) විසිනි. මේ පීඨවල අධ්‍යයන සේවා මණ්ඩලවලට බඳවා ගැනීම් කරනු ලබන්නේ මධ්‍යම ගුරු අධ්‍යාපන සේවයක් මගිනි. මේ ආයතනවලට ලැබෙන අධ්‍යයන සේවා මණ්ඩල සාමාජිකයන් තෝරා පත් කර ගැනීමේදී ඔවුන්ගේ කටහඬට ඉඩ ලැබෙන්නේ කලාතුරෙකිනි. ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථාන පැවතෙන්නේ දුර්වල පරිපාලන ව්‍යුහයක් තුළය. ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථාන විසින් සැපයෙන අඛණ්ඩ ගුරු අධ්‍යාපන වැඩ සටහන්වල විෂයමාලා සැලසුම් කෙරෙන්නේ ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන ආයතනය විසිනි. ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථානවල අධ්‍යයන උපදේශනය ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන පීඨ විසින් සැපයෙයි. මුදල් ඇතුළු පරිපාලන අරමුණු සඳහා ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථාන කලාපීය කායභීල යටතේ පවතී. මේ සංකීර්ණ පරිපාලන හා අධ්‍යයන ව්‍යුහය ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථානවල වර්ධනය බෙහෙවින් අවහිර කර තිබේ. ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන පීඨවලටත් ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථානවලටත් කළමනාකරණ ස්වාධීනත්වයන් වගකීමක් මීට වැඩිමනත් ප්‍රමාණයකින් පැවරීමෙන් මෙම ආයතනවල කර්තව්‍යයන්හි කායභීක්ෂමතාව වැඩිකර ඒවායේ සේවා සැපයුමෙහි ගුණාත්මකභාවය උසස් කළ හැකිය.

කායභීසාධන ඇගයීම් ක්‍රම සැකසීම හා කායභීසාධනය උදෙසා මූල්‍ය අනුබල හඳුන්වාදීම

65. කායභීසාධන ඇගයීම් ක්‍රම ප්‍රබල කිරීම

උසස්තර ගුණාත්මක සේවයක් සම්පාදනයෙහිලා බෙහෙවින් ඉවහල් වෙයි. විශ්ව විද්‍යාල පද්ධතිය තුළ කායභී-සාධන ඇගයීම --විශේෂයෙන් ආචාර්ය මණ්ඩල සඳහා-- ඇරඹී ඇත. එසේ වුවත්, පාසල් පද්ධතියට කායභීසාධන ඇගයීම හඳුන්වාදීමේ පියවර විවාදාපන්නවීමෙන් දියුණු කිරීමට බැරවී තිබේ. පාසල් පද්ධතියට කායභීසාධන ඇගයීම සාර්ථකව ඇතුළු කිරීමට රජයට සහාය වන ප්‍රධාන ප්‍රේරක තුනක් දැක්විය හැකිය. 1) කායභීසාධන ඇගයීම් ක්‍රම සේවා ප්‍රදානය ශක්තිමත් කරන්නට හා යහපත් කායභීසාධනයට පාරිතෝෂ දීම පිණිස පසු-පෝෂණ යාන්ත්‍රණයක් මිස දුබල කායභීසාධනයට දඬුවම් දීමේ ක්‍රමයක් නොවන බව මෙහි ලාභාර්ථීන්ට, විශේෂයෙන් අධ්‍යාපන වෘත්තීය සංගම්වලට දැනුම්දීම 2) අදාළ වෘත්තීය සංගම් ඇතුළු උපලබ්ධිකයන් සමඟ සමීප සාකච්ඡා මඟින් ගුරු සේවය, අධ්‍යාපන පරිපාලන සේවය, විදුහල්පති සේවය, ගුරු අධ්‍යාපන උපදේශක සේවය වැනි විවිධ අධ්‍යාපන සේවාවලට කායභීසාධන ඇගයීම් ක්‍රම පිළියෙළ කිරීම හා 3) කායභීසාධන ඇගයීම් ක්‍රම පාලනය කිරීමත් භාවිතයත් අරබයා අධ්‍යාපන ආයතනවල හා අධ්‍යාපන පරිපාලකයන්ගේ තාක්ෂණික හැකියාව දියුණු කිරීම යන තුනයි.

66. ආවශ්‍යක සේවාවන් විශේෂ කොට කායභීසාධනයට අනුබල වශයෙන් මූල්‍ය දීමනා ක්‍රමයක් හඳුන්වාදීම ද ඵලදායී ප්‍රේරකයක් වනු ඇත. නිදසුනක් වශයෙන්, දුෂ්කර පළාත්වල අසතුටුදායක ගුරු ස්ථානගත කිරීම් ද ගුරුවරුන් පාසලට නොපැමිණීම අධික වීමද අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය තුළ කායභීක්ෂම සේවා ප්‍රදානය අවහිර කරයි. තවද, දුර්වල ගුරු පත්වීම් ක්‍රමය දුප්පත් සිසුන් කෙරෙහි ඉතා අසාධාරණ ලෙස බලපායි. ගුරුවරුන්ගේ නොපැමිණීම් අධික ජනප්‍රිය නොවූ ප්‍රදේශ සිරිතක් මෙන් දුරස්ථ, ආර්ථික අංශයෙන් සම්පත්-හීන ග්‍රාමීය ප්‍රදේශ වන හෙයින් දුර්වල ගුරු පත්වීම් ක්‍රමයක බලපෑම දිළිඳු සිසුන් වෙත විෂමානුපාතිකව වැටෙයි. ගුරුවරුන්ට පත්වීම් නියම කිරීමත් දෛනික පැමිණීමත් වඩා සාර්ථක කිරීම පිණිස දුෂ්කර ප්‍රදේශවල ස්ථානගත වූ ගුරුවරුන්ට මූල්‍ය අනුබල දීමේ යෝජනා [NEC (2003) බලන්න] රජය විසින් ක්‍රියාවට නැඟිය හැකිය. මීට අතිරේකව, ගුරුවරුන්ගේ දෛනික නොපැමිණීම් අඩු කරනු පිණිස ඔවුන් ලබා නොගත් නිවාඩු මුදල්වලට හැරවීමේ වරප්‍රසාදය දිය හැකිය. කායභීසාධනයට මුදල් අනුබල දීමට ප්‍රධාන බාධාව වන්නේ වැයාධික අභිතව ප්‍රතිපත්ති පියවර වළක්වන රජයේ අය-වැය දුබලතාවයි. එසේ වුවත්, අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය තුළ පිරිවැය ඉතුරු කිරීම් නිපැයුව

හැකි නම්, එසේ ලබාගත් සම්පත් සමහරක් මෙවන් කායඝීසාච්චයනා අනුබල පියවරවලට වෙන් කළ හැකිවේ.

අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය තුළ භූමිකා, වගකීම් හා යුතුකම්භාරය සුසංගත කිරීම

67. අධ්‍යාපන සේවා සම්පාදනය වැඩිදියුණු කිරීම පිණිස යෝජිත උපාය බොහොමයකටම මධ්‍යම අමාත්‍යාංශයේත්, ප්‍රාදේශීය සභාවලත්, කලාපීය කායඝීසාච්චයන් රජයේ නිලධාරීන්ට අනිත්ව හා අතිරේක භූමිකා හා වගකීම් දැරීමටත් ඔවුන්ගේ ඇතැම් වර්තමාන බලතල සමහරක් පාසල්, ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන පීඨ හා ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථාන වැනි ඉදිරි පෙළේ සේවා සම්පාදක ආයතනවලට පැවරීමටත් සිදුවේ. මේ විමධ්‍යගත කිරීමේ හා ප්‍රාදේශීය ආයතනවලට බලය පැවරීමේ ක්‍රියාවලිය පවතිදී වර්තමාන වගකීමේ හා යුතුකම්භාරයේ රටාව ද අනාගතයේදී අවශ්‍ය ආකෘති ද සැලකිල්ලෙන් විශ්ලේෂණය කළ යුතුය.

මධ්‍යම, ප්‍රාදේශීය හා කලාපීය අධ්‍යාපන අධිකාරීන්ගේ මානව සම්පත් සංවර්ධනය

68. මධ්‍යම, ප්‍රාදේශීය හා කලාපීය මට්ටම්වල බහුවිධ පරිපාලන ස්තර සහිත සංකීර්ණ අධ්‍යාපන පරිපාලන පද්ධතිය උදෙසා එක්-එක් ස්තරයෙහි වැඩ කරන නිලධාරීන් පරිපාලන, තාක්ෂණික හා මෙහෙයුම් අංශයන්හි පුළුල් පරාසයක කුසලතාවලින් හා නිපුණතාවලින් සමන්විත විය යුතුය. මධ්‍යම, ප්‍රාදේශීය හා කලාපීය අධ්‍යාපන නිලධාරීන් අවශ්‍ය පරිපාලන, තාක්ෂණික හා මෙහෙයුම් කුසලතාවලින් හා නිපුණතාවලින් සන්නද්ධ කිරීම පිණිස අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියේ විවිධ ස්තර හරහා සමස්ත මානව සම්පත් උපාය මාර්ගයක් සකසා ක්‍රියාවට නැගීම අවශ්‍යය. ඊට අතිරේකව, තාක්ෂණික හා මෙහෙයුම් කුසලතා වැඩිදියුණු වී වැඩෙත්ම, මෙවන් කුසලතා හා නිපුණතා නිතිපතා අඛණ්ඩව යාවත්-කාලීන කිරීමට අවකාශ ද මේ උපාය මාර්ගයෙහි ඇතුළත් විය යුතුය.

මධ්‍යම, ප්‍රාදේශීය හා කලාපීය අධ්‍යාපන අධිකාරීන් ආයතනිකව ශක්තිමත් කිරීම

69. මධ්‍යම, ප්‍රාදේශීය හා කලාපීය අධ්‍යාපන අධිකාරීන්ගේ මෙහෙයුම් ක්‍රියාවලි, දක්ෂකම් හා කායඝීසාච්චයන් ශක්තිමත් කිරීම අනාගතයේ දී අධ්‍යාපන සැලසුම් සෑදීම, පරිපාලනය හා සේවා සම්පාදනය යන අංශවල ගුණාත්මකභාවයටත් කායඝීසාච්චයන් විපුලතර ව දායක වනු ඇත. ලෝක බැංකුව, ආසියානු සංවර්ධන බැංකුව වැනි ප්‍රදායකයන්ගෙන් අනුබල ලද සංශෝධන ඇතුළුව

මෑතකදී ගත් ප්‍රතිපත්ති පියවරන් හා සංවර්ධන ප්‍රේරකවලින් ලැබුණු පාඩම් තුළින් යුතුව ආයතනිකව ශක්තිමත් කළ යුතු ප්‍රධාන අංශ ගැන ඉඟියක් ලැබේ.

පරිපාලනමය ක්‍රියාවලි ක්‍රමගත කිරීම

70. මධ්‍යම, ප්‍රාදේශීය හා කලාපීය අධ්‍යාපන කායඝීසාච්චය පරිපාලනමය ක්‍රියාවලි ඉතා දීර්ඝවූ හැසිරවීම දුෂ්කර වූ මගක යන හෙයින් මෙහෙයුම් කටයුතු බෙහෙවින් ප්‍රමාද වේ. මේ ප්‍රමාදවලට එක් ප්‍රධාන හේතුවක් වන්නේ ලිපි ලේඛන, ලිපි ගොනු, වාර්තා තැබීම් හා භාණ්ඩ ලේඛන පාලනය වැනි කටයුතු ඇතුළු වැදගත් පරිපාලනමය කර්තව්‍යයන් සඳහා යල් පිනූ කායික උපක්‍රම යොදා ගැනීමය. නිතිපතා සිරිත් පරිදි කෙරෙන සාමාන්‍ය පරිපාලන කර්තව්‍යයන් සඳහා පරිගණකගත මෙහෙයුම් පද්ධති සැකසීම රජයේ මෙහෙයුම්වල කායඝීසාච්චය බොහෝදුරට වැඩිකරනු ඇත.

සපයා ගැනීමේ හැකියා ශක්තිමත් කිරීම

71. ජාත්‍යන්තර ප්‍රමිතීන්ට අනුකූලව ඇණවුම් ලියකියවිලි කෙටුම්පත් කිරීම, තාක්ෂණික මිනුම් සීමා පිළියෙළ කිරීම, යෝජනාවලි ඇගයීම, තාක්ෂණික ඇගයුම් වාර්තා හා ටෙන්ඩර් මණ්ඩල නිර්දේශ සැකසීම ආදියෙහිදී රජයේ නිලධාරීන්ගේ හැකියා සීමිතය. මෙහි ප්‍රතිඵලය වන්නේ සපයා ගැනීම් සඳහා දීර්ඝ කාලයක් ගතවීමය. එබැවින්, රජයේ නිලධාරීන්ගේ සපයා ගැනීමේ හැකියා ශක්තිමත් කිරීම අනාගත ආයතනික සංවර්ධනය පිණිස යෝග්‍ය වැදගත් අංශයකි.

දේශපාලන ආර්ථික බාධාවලට මුහුණ දීම

72. විවාදාපන්න වුවත් වැදගත් වූ ප්‍රතිපත්ති පියවර පිළිබඳ වූ හේතු යුක්තිය ලාභාර්ථීන්ට හා උපලබ්ධිලාභීන්ට පෙන්වාදී සංශෝධන කායඝීසාච්චය ඒ ලාභාර්ථීන්ගේ සහභාගිත්වය යොදා ගැනීමේ දී රජයේ දුර්වලත්වය මොනවට පැහැදිලි වේ. නිදසුනක් වශයෙන්, 1998-2002 කාලයේදී රජය විසින් ක්‍රියාවට නැගූ පාසල් ප්‍රතිසංවිධාන වැඩසටහන නියමිත ඉලක්කයෙන් 75%ක් සාර්ථක විය. සංඛ්‍යාත්මකව එය සාර්ථක ප්‍රතිසංවිධානයක් වූයේය. එහෙත්, තියුණු විවාදයට ලක්වූ එය ගැන මධ්‍යම, ප්‍රාදේශීය හා කලාපීය අධ්‍යාපන අධිකාරීන් ප්‍රාදේශීය ප්‍රජාවට මේ වැඩසටහනේ හේතු යුක්තිය පහදාදීමට අසමත්වූයෙන් එය 2003දී තාවකාලිකව නැවැත්වීමට සිදුවිය. එමෙන්ම තෝරාගැනීමේ අවකාශ පුළුල් කර ගුණය දියුණු කිරීම පිණිස රජය ඇරඹූ බහුවිධ පෙළ-පොත් ප්‍රතිපත්තියද දැඩි විවේචනයට පාත්‍ර වූ හෙයින් එය

ක්‍රියාවට නැඟීම වසර කිහිපයක්ම ප්‍රමාද විය. එවර ද මධ්‍යම, ප්‍රාදේශීය හා කලාපීය අධ්‍යාපන අධිකාරීන්ට මේ ප්‍රතිපත්තිය සාර්ථකව පහදා දීමේ හැකියාව නොතිබුණේය. එසේම, සමස්තයක් වශයෙන් රටේ පාසල් ගුරු අතිරික්තයක් තිබේ. ඇතැම් විෂයයන්හි --විශේෂයෙන් ඉංග්‍රීසියෙහි හා දෙමළ මාධ්‍යයෙහි ගුරු හිඟයක් ඇතත්, සමස්තව රටේ පාසල්වල ගුරු අතිරික්තයක් පවතී. එසේ වුවත්, අනිකුත් දේ ද ඇතුළුව රැකියා විරහිත උගත් තරුණ පෙළෙන් එන බලපෑම අඩු කිරීම අරමුණු කරගෙන තවදුරට ගුරුවරුන් බඳවා ගැනීමට ප්‍රබල බලපෑම් එල්ලවනු පෙනෙයි. මෙහිලා ද රජයේ අධිකාරීන් මේ බලපෑම්වලට මුළුමනින්ම ඔරොත්තු දී නැත. එබැවින්, විවාදාපත්ත වීමට ඉඩ ඇති ප්‍රතිපත්ති පියවර අරඹයා හේතු-යුක්ති පහදා ලාභාර්ථීන්ගේ සහාය ලබා ගැනීමේ හැකියාව එක් එක් පාලන ස්තරයේ රජයේ අධ්‍යාපන අධිකාරීන් තුළ ශක්තිමත් කිරීම අනාගත ආයතනික ශක්තිය වැඩිකිරීමෙහිලා තීරණාත්මකව වැදගත් අංශයක් වන්නේය.

*අධ්‍යාපන පර්යේෂණ හා විශ්ලේෂණ, ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදනය හා සැලසුම්කරණය භාර ගැනීමේ හැකියා වර්ධනය*

73. විශ්ලේෂණ, ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදන හා සැලසුම්කරණ මට්ටමෙහිලා, විශේෂයෙන්ම උසස් සාධන ඇති අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියක් වර්ධනය කිරීමට දායක වන ප්‍රධාන ප්‍රේරක තුනක් තිබේ.

*අධ්‍යාපන පර්යේෂණ, අවේක්ෂණය හා ඇගයීම් උසස් තත්ත්වයට නැංවීම*

74. සංඛ්‍යා විද්‍යාත්මකව වලංගු ක්‍රියාවලි හා මිතිය හැකි දර්ශක පාදක කරගත් සාර්ථ පර්යේෂණ, අවේක්ෂණය හා ඇගයීම් අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන්ට අතිශයෙන් අගනේය. දියුණු අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිවල ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිලාභ පිළිබඳ ජාතික ඇගයීම් ඇතුළුව විශ්ලේෂණය ව දැඩි වූ අධ්‍යාපන පර්යේෂණ හා ඇගයීමේ ක්‍රියාවලි අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදනයේ පදනම වන්නේය. වාර්ෂික පාසල් සංගණනය, ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන පර්යේෂණ හා ඇගයීම් කොමිසම හෙවත් NEREC විසින් කළ 4 ශ්‍රේණියේ ඉගෙනුම් ප්‍රතිලාභ තක්සේරුව හා එම කොමිසම විසින්ම පැවැත් වූ අධ්‍යාපන කළමනාකරණ භාවිතයන් පිළිබඳ ගුණාත්මක අධ්‍යයනය වැනි එලදායී ප්‍රේරක කිහිපයක් මෙකල ශ්‍රී ලංකා අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතියෙහි දක්නට ලැබේ. මේ ප්‍රේරක සාරවත් හා විස්තරාත්මක අවේක්ෂණ හා ඇගයීම් රාමුවකට පදනම සපයයි. මේ අධ්‍යාපන පර්යේෂණ, අවේක්ෂණ

හා ඇගයීම් පද්ධතිය අධ්‍යාපන සාධනය හා ප්‍රතිපත්ති නිමැවුම සඳහා වැඩදායී වූ හේතුකාරක සාධක විශ්ලේෂණය කෙරෙහි විශේෂ අවධාරණය ඇතිව දියුණු කළ හැකි වේ. අධ්‍යාපන පර්යේෂණ, අවේක්ෂණ හා ඇගයීම් කටයුතුවලදී ප්‍රමාණාත්මක හා ගුණාත්මක යන ක්‍රම දෙකම භාවිත කිරීමටත් පර්යේෂණාත්මක සැලසුම්, අහඹුගත ප්‍රයත්න හා සිරස් සමීක්ෂණ වැනි නූතන පර්යේෂණ ශිල්පීය ක්‍රම යොදා ගැනීමටත් උනන්දුවක් ඇතිවිය යුතුය.

*මධ්‍යම-කාලීන අය-වැය සැකසීම හා බහු-වාර්ෂික සැලසුම්කරණ දර්ශනයක්*

75. අධ්‍යාපන සැලසුම්කරණය හා සම්පත් කළමනාකරණය දියුණු කිරීමෙහිලා වැදගත් ප්‍රේරකයක් නම්, බහු-වාර්ෂික සැලසුම් සෑදීම පහසු කරවන මධ්‍යම-කාලීන අය-වැය රාමුවක් සකසා ගැනීමය. මධ්‍යම-කාලීන අය-වැය වසර තුනක පමණ කාලයක් ආවරණය කරන අතර, අනිතව තොරතුරු හා අවශ්‍යතා වෙත සැලකිල්ල දැක්වීම පිණිස වාර්ෂිකව යාවත්-කාලීන කිරීමට ඉඩ දී තැබිය යුතුය. මධ්‍යම-කාලීන අය-වැය අධ්‍යාපන සංවර්ධනය සඳහා වූ දීර්ඝ-කාලීන ප්‍රවර්තන සැලසුමක් තුළ ද ඇතුළු කළ හැකිය. මෙය සම්පත් පිළිබඳ පූර්ව-ඥානය කියුණු කර රජයේ වර්තමාන වාර්ෂික අය-වැයෙන් සැලසෙනවාට වඩා දීර්ඝ-කාලීන සංවර්ධන දෘෂ්ටි පථයක් සකසා අධ්‍යාපන සැලසුම්කරණයත් කළමනාකරණයත් පහසු කරයි.

*රාජ්‍ය වියදම් අනුබැඳුම*

76. රාජ්‍ය වියදම් අනුබැඳීමේ පද්ධතියක් අධ්‍යාපන ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදකයන්ටත් මූල්‍ය නිලධාරීන්ටත් වැදගත් කළමනාකරණ මෙවලමක් වී මධ්‍යම-කාලීන අය-වැය ලේඛන පද්ධතියට අනුපූරකයක් ද වන්නේය. මේ මඟින් අධ්‍යාපන පද්ධතිය තුළ මුදල් ගලායාම හා පාසල්, විශ්ව විද්‍යාල, ජාතික අධ්‍යාපන පීඨ හා ගුරු මධ්‍යස්ථාන වැනි විවිධ සේවා සම්පාදක ආයතන වෙත යන තර්ථ සම්පත් මට්ටම පිළිබඳ තොරතුරු මධ්‍යම රජයටත්, ප්‍රාදේශීය ආයතනවලටත් සපයනු ඇත. තවද, එය පද්ධතිය හරහා සම්පත් ගලා යාමේ විනිවිදභාවය කියුණු කරනු ඇත. අධ්‍යාපන සංවර්ධන අවශ්‍යතා මතු වෙත්ම ද මධ්‍යම රජයේ සැලසුම් හා ප්‍රාදේශීය සැලසුම් විභද වෙත්ම ද මෙවන් තොරතුරු ප්‍රතිපත්ති සම්පාදනයටත් සම්පත් වෙන්කිරීමටත් පසුපෙවුමක් වශයෙන් ක්‍රියා කරයි.

## ஒரு பார்வை, முக்கியமான ஆய்வு முடிவுகளும் எதிர்காலத்திற்கான தெரிவுகளும்

### அறிமுகம்

1. இலங்கையின் கல்வி முறைமையானது ஆரம்ப மற்றும் இடைநிலைக் கல்விக்கான வாய்ப்புக்களை பரவலாக வழங்குவதில் கண்ட வெற்றிக்காகவும் குறைநிலை வருமான நாடொன்றிலே உயர்மட்டத்திலான மனிதவிருத்தியை அடைந்துகொண்டமைக்காகவும் அபிவிருத்திசார் கொள்கைநெறிக் குழுக்களாலும் பொருளாதார ஏட்டுத்தொகுதிகளாலும் போற்றப்படுகின்றது. 1990 களின் ஆரம்பகாலம் வரையில் இலங்கையானது சகல அபிவிருத்தியடைந்துவரும் நாடுகளிடையே தலாவருமானம் தொடர்பான உயர்ந்த அடிப்படைச் சமூக அபிவிருத்தியின் பலாபலன்களை அனுபவித்துக் கொண்டது. இத்தகைய பெறுபேறுகள் கல்வி, சுகாதாரம் மற்றும் ஏனைய சமூக சேவைகளில் பல தலைமுறைகளாக தந்திரோபாய முறையில் மேற்கொள்ளப்பட்ட பொதுக்கொள்கைத் தீர்மானங்களின் விளைவாகும். 1930 களிலும் 1940 களிலும் கல்விமுறையின் அடிப்படை அமைப்பினை உருவாக்குவதில் ஈடுபட்ட இலங்கையின் கொள்கை உருவாக்குவோர் தமது காலத்தையும் கடந்து முக்கியமான பொருளாதார மற்றும் சமூக நன்மைகளை பரவலாக உருவாக்குவதில் மனித மூலதனத்தை நம்பிக்கையூட்டும் ஒரு முதலீடாக கருதினர்.

2. அதிஸ்டவசமாக கடந்த 50 ஆண்டுகாலமாக, நாட்டின் பொருளாதாரப் பெறுபேறுகள் கல்விசார் அபிவிருத்தியிலும் பார்க்கப் பின்தங்கியமையால் கல்வி முறையில் பல பிரதிகூலமான விளைவுகள் தோன்றின. நாட்டின் வறிய பொருளாதார வளர்ச்சி காரணமாக, காலப்போக்கில் இலங்கையானது மிகத்துரிதமாக வளர்ச்சி பெறும் நாடுகளான

தென்கொரியா, சிங்கப்பூர், ஹொங்ஹொங், மலேசியா மற்றும் தாய்லாந்து போன்ற நாடுகள்போல கல்வியில் போதியளவு முதலீடு செய்யும் வளமின்றி இருந்தது. மேலும் கல்விகற்ற தொழிலாளருக்கான கேள்வியில் உண்டான மெதுவான வளர்ச்சி, தொழிற்சந்தையில் புகும் கற்றஇளைஞர்களின் நிரம்பலுடன் பொருந்தும் வகையில் போதியளவில் விரிவாக்கம் பெறத்தவறிவிட்டது. இது கற்றஇளைஞர் வேலையின்மைப் பிரச்சனையை நிலைத்திருக்கச் செய்தது. தற்கால இலங்கையில் கல்விக்கொள்கை உருவாக்குவோர், நாட்டின் இழந்த கல்வி அனுசூலங்களையும் பிரச்சனைகளையும் அறிவார்கள். அதன் விளைவாக அண்மைக்காலத்தில் கல்வியானது மக்களின் ஆர்வத்திற்குரிய, விவாதத்திற்குரிய மற்றும் கொள்கை அபிவிருத்திக்குரிய துறையாக உருவாயிற்று. [பார்க்க NEC (1997), (2003)]

### அபிவிருத்திக் கொள்கை மாதிரிகள் தொடர்பான கல்வி ஒழுங்கமைப்பு.

3. இலங்கையின் கல்விமுறையானது இரண்டு முக்கியமான விடயங்களிலே பழைய முறையிலான அபிவிருத்திக் கொள்கையைப் பின்பற்றியது. முதலாவதாக, அரசு நிதியீட்டங்களின் முக்கியத்துவத்தினையும், ஆரம்ப மற்றும் இடைநிலைக் கல்வியை முழுச்சனத்தொகைக்கு வழங்குவதையும் வலியுறுத்திற்று. 1930 களிலும் 1940 களிலும் இடம்பெற்ற இத்தகைய நோக்குடைய வலியுறுத்தல்கள், அக்காலச் சந்ததியினருக்குத் தேவையான அளவிலிருந்தும் முன்னோக்கியதாக அமைந்தன. இரண்டாவதாக, இலங்கையானது முன்றாம் நிலைக் கல்விக்கு ஒதுக்கிய அரசு

வளங்களை மட்டுப்படுத்தியதுடன் ஆரம்ப மற்றும் இடைநிலை வட்டங்களுக்கான முக்கியத்துவத்தையும் கொடுத்தது. இத்தகைய கொள்கைகளின் பலபலன்களை அடுத்துவந்த சந்ததியினர் அனுபவித்துக் கொண்டனர். ஆரம்பக் கல்வியடைவுகளும், ஆரம்ப சுகாதார விளைவுகளும் சமூக அபிவிருத்திக் குறிகாட்டிகளும் உயர் மத்திய வருமான மட்டத்திற்கும் வளர்ச்சியடைந்த நாடுகளுக்கும் அண்மியதாக இருந்தன.

4. இலங்கையும் அதன் பழைய முறையிலிருந்து ஒரு முக்கியமான விடயத்தில் வேறுபட்டிருந்தது. ஒன்று தொடக்கம் ஒன்பதாம் தரம் வரையிலான தனியார் பாடசாலைகளின் உருவாக்கம் 1960 களின் ஆரம்பத்தில் தடைசெய்யப்பட்டிருந்தது. இத்தகைய சட்ட ரீதியான தடை இன்றுவரை நடைமுறையிலுள்ளது. பாடசாலைகளை உருவாக்குவதனைச் சட்டரீதியாக தடுத்து நிறுத்தும் நாடுகள் சிலவற்றுள் இலங்கையும் ஒன்றாக அடங்கும். ஏனைய குறைவருமான நாடுகளும் அரசுகளும் அவற்றின் உயர் ஆரம்பக்கல்வி அடைவுகளினால் பிரபல்யமடைந்த நாடுகளான கோஸ்டோறிக்கா மற்றும் இந்தியாவிலுள்ள கேரளமாநிலம் போன்றவை பெருமளவுக்குத் தனியார் துறையிலேயே தங்கியுள்ளன. கேரளத்தில், உதாரணமாக பாடசாலைச் சேர்வில் அரைவாசிக்கு மேற்பட்டவர்கள் தனியார் பாடசாலைகளிலேயே உள்ளனர். இலங்கையின் அரசியற் பொருளாதார நிலைமைக்கூட, வெளிப்படையான சட்டரீதியான தடைகள் இல்லாதிருந்தும் தனியார் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களில் முதலீடு செய்வதனைச் சாத்தியமாக்கியது. ஆயினும், 1990 களிலிருந்து தனியார் பட்டங்களை மட்டும் வழங்கும் நிறுவனங்களை உருவாக்குதல் சாத்தியமாயிற்று. எனினும் அவை பல்கலைக்கழகம் என்ற பெயரைப் பெற்றிருக்கவில்லை. இலங்கையின் கல்விமுறையில் முறைசார் தனியார் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களைத் தடுத்தலானது, தென் கொரியா போன்ற உலகில் உயர் வினையாற்றல் கொண்ட சில நாடுகள் பின்பற்றும் மாதிரியிலிருந்து விலகியிருந்தது. அவை அரசு வளங்களை ஆரம்ப மற்றும் அடிப்படைக்கல்வியிலும் அதனைத் தொடர்ந்து இடைநிலைக் கல்வியிலும் ஈடுபடுத்தும் அதேவேளையில் பல்கலைக்கழகக் கல்வியைப்

பெருமளவுக்கு தனியார்துறைக்கு விட்டுள்ளன. அண்மைக் காலத்தில் இலங்கையின் கல்விக் கொள்கையை உருவாக்குவோர் தனியார் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களையும் தனியார் பாடசாலைகளையும் அனுமதிக்கும் சட்டங்களை இணைப்பதற்குப் பரிந்துரை செய்துள்ளன.[பார்க்க NEC (1997 - 2003)] இது வழியை மாற்றியமைக்கும் பரிந்துரையாக உள்ளது, இது நடைமுறைப்படுத்தப்பட்டால் கல்விமுறையிலுள்ள பிரதான சுயமாகத் திணிக்கப்பட்ட தடங்கல் நீக்கப்படுவதுடன் இலங்கையானது ஏனைய நாடுகளுடன் மிகக்கூடுதலான அளவிலும் போட்டியிடமுடியும்.

### ஆட்சேர்வுக் கோலங்களும் செல்நெறிகளும்

கட்டாயக் கல்வி வட்டம் (தரம் 1 - 9)

5. முதலாம் தரத்தில் தேறிய சேர்வுவீதம் ஆண்களும் பெண்களும் ஏறக்குறைய 97% ஆகும். அத்துடன் ஏறக்குறைய எல்லாப் பிள்ளைகளும் தரம் 5 இணைப் பூர்த்தி செய்கின்றனர். கட்டாயக் கல்வி வட்டத்தின் முடிவில், தரம் 9 இல், பூர்த்தி செய்யும் வீதமானது ஆண்களில் 81% மாகவும் பெண்களில் 84% மாகவும் உள்ளது. உயர்ஆரம்பக் கல்வி (தரம் 1-5) இடைநிலைக்கல்வி (தரம் 6-9) சேர்வுவீதமானது பல கூட்டு மற்றும் பரஸ்பர மீளவலியுறுத்தல் கொள்கைகளான பின்தங்கிய மாணவர்களுக்கான விஷேட கல்வி நிகழ்ச்சித் திட்டங்கள், இலவச பாடநூல்கள், இலவச சீருடை மற்றும் மானிய அடிப்படையிலான போக்குவரத்து, கல்விக்குரிய வலுவான வீட்டுத்தேவை என்பனவற்றின் விளைவாகும். இலங்கையானது எல்லோருக்கும் கட்டாயக் கல்வி என்ற இலக்கினை அடையவில்லை என்பதனைச் சான்றுகள் எடுத்துக்காட்டுகின்றன. 18% மான பிள்ளைகள் தரம் 9 இணை நிறைவுசெய்வதில் தவறிவிடுகின்றனர். இதனால், 6-14 வயதிற்கு இடைப்பட்ட சகல பிள்ளைகளுக்கும் 9 வருடக் கல்வியை வழங்கும் இலக்கினை அடைவதில் கணிசமான சவால் இன்னும் நிலவுகிறது. மேலும் இன்னுமொரு முக்கியமான நியாயத்தன்மைப் பிரச்சனை உள்ளது. வறிய குடும்பங்கள், பின்தங்கிய கிராமியப்புறங்கள், பிணக்குகளால் பாதிக்கப்பட்ட பகுதிகள் மற்றும் பெருந்தோட்டத்துறை போன்ற பின்தங்கிய புவியியற் பிரதேசங்கள் அல்லது ஆற்றல் குறைந்த மற்றும் குறைபாடுடைய பிள்ளைகள் 18% தினர் 9 ஆம் தரத்தினைப் பூர்த்தி செய்யத் தவறிவிடுகின்றனர். இத்தகைய விடுபட்ட சமூக -

பொருளாதாரக் குழுக்களின் பூரண சேர்வு மற்றும் கட்டாயக் கல்வி வட்டத்தைப் பூரணப்படுத்தல் என்ற இலக்கினையும் அடைவதற்கு வலுவான கொள்கைச் செயற்பாடுகள் அவசியமாகின்றன.

சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலைக் கல்வி, க.பொ.த சாதாரண தரம் மற்றும் க.பொ.த உயர்தர வட்டங்கள்

6. சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலை வட்டத்தில் பாடசாலைப் பூர்த்தி வீதமானது, குறைந்த திருப்தியையே தருகிறது. க.பொ.த சாதாரண தர (தரம் 11) க.பொ.த உயர்தரப் (தரம் 13)பரீட்சைகளிலான சித்தி வீதமும் ஒப்பீட்டளவில் குறைவாக உள்ளது. க.பொ.த சாதாரண தரப் பரீட்சையில் சராசரிச் சித்தி வீதம் 37 ஆகும். ஒவ்வொரு 3 பரீட்சாத்திக்கும் ஏறக்குறைய ஒருவரே க.பொ.த சாதாரண தரப் பரீட்சையை வெற்றிகரமாகப் பூர்த்தி செய்கின்றார். நாட்டின் மிக வறிய மற்றும் மிகப்பின்தங்கிய பிரதேசங்களான வடகிழக்கு, வடமத்திய, ஊவா மற்றும் மத்திய மாகாணங்களின் சித்திவீதம் 31% - 32% ற்கும் இடையிலுள்ளது. மிகவளமான, முன்னேறிய மேல் மாகாணமானது ஏனைய புவியியல் பிரதேசங்களின் மத்தியில் க.பொ.த சாதாரண தரத்தில் 48% த்தினை பெற்றுள்ளது. இங்கு ஒவ்வொரு இரண்டு பரீட்சாத்திக்கும் ஒருவர் பரீட்சையை வெற்றிகரமாகப் பூர்த்தி செய்கின்றார். க.பொ.த உயர்தரப் பரீட்சையில் சராசரிச் சித்தி வீதம் 56% ஆகும். இப்பரீட்சையிலும் இரண்டு மாணவர்களுக்கு ஒருவர் சித்தியடைகின்றார். இது குறைந்த பக்கத்தில் உள்ளது என்கையில், க.பொ.த உயர்தர வட்டத்தினூடாக சிறந்த மாணவர்களை தப்பித்துக்கொள்கின்றார்கள். மாகாணரீதியாகப் பார்க்கும்போது சித்திவீதம் ஓரளவிற்கு ஒத்தத் தன்மையானதாக இருப்பதுடன் ஊவா மாகாணத்தில் 52% தொடக்கம் வடமேற்கு மற்றும் வடகிழக்கு மாகாணங்களில் 58% வரை வேறுபடுகின்றது. ஒப்பீட்டளவில் க.பொ.த உயர்தரப் பரீட்சைச் சித்திவீதம் நாடாளாவிய ரீதியில் ஒத்ததன்மையாகக் காணப்படுவதற்கு இரண்டு முக்கியமான காரணிகள் பங்களிப்புச் செய்துள்ளன. (1) சகல மாகாணங்களிலும் தரமான இடைநிலைக் கல்வி வலைப்பின்னலமைப்பை உறுதிசெய்யும் கொள்கை ஆக்கங்கள். (2) தெரிவிற்குரிய விளைவுகள்: க.பொ.த உயர்தர வட்டத்தில் உள்ள மாணவர்கள், அவரது வயதுப்பிரிவினருள் மிகவும் ஆற்றல் வாய்ந்தவர்களாக உள்ளனர்.

7. க.பொ.த சாதாரண தரம் மற்றும் க.பொ.த உயர்தரச் சித்திவீதங்களின் காலச் செல்நெறியானது, கடந்த 10 ஆண்டுகாலத்தில்,

க.பொ.த சாதாரணதர சித்திவீதத்தில் முன்னேற்றங்கள் உள்ளன என்பதனையும், ஆனால் க.பொ.த உயர்தரத்தின் சித்தி வீதம் பெரும்பாலும் மாறாமல் இருப்பதனையும் எடுத்துக் காட்டுகின்றன. க.பொ.த சாதாரண தரச் சித்திவீதங்கள் 1993 இல் 22% இருந்து 2002 இல் 37% மாக உயர்ந்துள்ளன. இவற்றுள் அநேகமான முன்னேற்றங்கள் 1990 களின் நடுக்கூற்றின் பிற்பகுதியில் நிகழ்ந்துள்ளன. க.பொ.த உயர்தர வட்டத்தில் சித்திவீதங்கள் 1994 க்கும் 2002 ற்கும் இடைப்பட்ட காலத்தில் மிக உயர்ந்த வருடமான 1995 இனையும் மிகக் குறைந்த வருடமான 1999 ஐயும் தவிர ஏறக்குறைய ஒருசீராக இருந்துள்ளன. இலங்கையின் கொள்கை உருவாக்குவோர், நாடானது கல்வித்தரத்தினை அதிகரிப்பதற்கான சவாலை எதிர்நோக்குகின்றது என்பதனை அங்கீகரிப்பதுடன், க.பொ.த சாதாரணதரம் மற்றும் க.பொ.த உயர்தரப் பரீட்சாத்திகளுக்கான தராதரங்களை அடைவதற்கும் மாணவர்களை ஆயத்தம் செய்தல் வேண்டும்.

மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்வியில் சேர்வு

8. தகுதி பெற்ற சனத்தொகையில் ஏறக்குறைய 11% மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்வியில் உள்ள சேர்வுவீதமாகும். இது தென்னாசியாவின் சராசரியிலும் (10%) பார்க்கச் சற்றுக் கூடுதலானது. இந்தியா, மொறக்கோ, வியட்நாம், மொறிலியஸ் போன்ற நாடுகளுக்கு ஏறக்குறைய இணையாகவுமுள்ளது. தென்கொரியா, சிங்கப்பூர், ஹொங்கொங், மலேசியா மற்றும் தாய்லாந்து போன்ற நாடுகள் இலங்கையின் தற்போதைய பொருளாதார அபிவிருத்தி நிலைக்குச் சமனாக இருந்த காலத்தில் அந்நாடுகளுக்கு இணையாகவும் இருந்தது. மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்விச் சேர்வுவீதத்தின் பிரதான விகிதம் உள்நாட்டுப் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களுக்கு வெளியிலுள்ள கற்கை நெறிகளிலும் முறைசார் தொழிநுட்பக் கல்லூரிகளிலும் ஏறக்குறைய 6% மாகும். இவ்வாறான மாணவர்கள் தகவல் தொழிநுட்பம் (IT), முகாமைத்துவம், கணக்கியல், சந்தைப்படுத்தல், சட்டம், வர்த்தகமும் நிதியும் போன்ற தனியார் துறையிலுள்ள பல்வகைப்பட்ட தொழின்மைக் கற்கைநெறிகளில் அல்லது மேலைநாட்டுப் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களில் சேர்ந்து கொள்கின்றனர். பல்கலைக்கழகச் சேர்வுவீதம் ஏறக்குறைய 3%; உயர்தர தொழிநுட்பக்கல்வி சேர்வுவீதம் ஏறக்குறைய 2% ஏறக்குறைய 70% மான மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்வி சேர்வுவீதம் தனியார் துறையில் உள்ளதுடன் மிகுதி

பொதுத்துறையிலும் உள்ளது. மூன்றாம்நிலையில் தனியார் துறையிலான சேர்வுவீதம் உயர் நிலையில் இருப்பது, ஆரம்ப மற்றும் இடைநிலையிலிருந்து வேறுபட்டிருத்தலுடன், மூன்றாம்நிலையில் தனியார் முதலீடானது சட்டரீதியாகத் தடைசெய்யப்படவில்லை என்ற கொள்கைச் சட்டகமொன்றிற்குக் கற்பிதம் கூறுவதாகவுள்ளது. அண்மைய காலங்களில் மூன்றாம்நிலைக் கல்வியில் உள்ள சேர்வில் காலச்செல்நெறி எடுத்துக்காட்டுவது யாதெனில் சேர்வுவீதமானது 1997 இல் 8% இலிருந்து 2002 இல் 11% மாக உயர்ந்துள்ளது என்பதாகும். 1997 - 2002 இடைப்பட்ட காலத்தில் மூன்றாம்நிலைக் கல்விச் சேர்வுவீதம் ஏறக்குறைய 38% மாக விரிவடைந்தது. இவ்வளர்ச்சிவீதமானது மிக அண்மைக்காலத்தில் தனியார் துறை மூன்றாம்நிலைக் கல்விநிலையங்களில் துரிதமாகவுள்ளது.

### கல்வியில் முதலீடு செய்வதனால் உண்டாகும் பொருளாதார மற்றும் சமூகநன்மைகள்.

புறநிலை விளைதிறனும் கல்விக்குரிய விளைவு வீதமும்

9. கல்வியில் முதலீடு செய்தல் இலங்கையில் உயர் மனித முதலீடு, ஊதியம், முன்னேற்றமான தொழில்சார் அடைவுகளும் சமூக நகர்வும், அதிகரித்த பெண்கள் வேலைப்படைப் பங்கேற்பு, உயர்ந்த குடும்ப சுகாதார நிலை, மற்றும் குழந்தைப் போஷாக்கு விளைவுகள் உள்ளிட்ட வரிசையான பொருளாதார, சமூக நன்மைகளை உருவாக்குகிறது. கல்விக்கான சமூக விளைவுவீதம் உயர்வானது. குறிப்பாக கட்டாய அடிப்படை மற்றும் சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலைக்கல்வி நிலைகளில் உயர்வாகவுள்ளது. ஆண்கள் மத்தியில், சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலைக்கல்வி நிலையில் கல்விக்கான சமூக விளைவுவீதம் 20% ஆகும். அத்துடன் இது கட்டாய ஆரம்பக்கல்வியில் 15% ஆகும். பெண்கள் மத்தியில், கல்விக்கான சமூக விளைவுவீதம் கட்டாயக் கல்வி நிலையில் 20% மாகவும் சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலையில் 18% மாகவும் காணப்படுகின்றது. கட்டாய அடிப்படைநிலையிலும் சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலையிலும் காணப்படும் உயர்விளைவுகளானது இலங்கை இந்த நிலைகளில் குறைவாக முதலீடு செய்கிறது என்பதனை எடுத்துக்காட்டுகிறது. புறவயமான விளைவுகளான சுகாதாரம் மற்றும் போஷாக்கு நன்மைகள் ஆரம்ப மற்றும் இடைநிலைக்கல்வி

கற்ற தாய்மாரிடையில் வலுவாகவுள்ளது. மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்வியானது, தனியாருக்குரிய உயர் தனியார் விளைவுகளைப் பிறப்பிக்கின்றது. இது ஆண்களில் 26% மாகவும் பெண்களில் 24% மாகவும் உள்ளது. ஆயினும் மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்விக்கான சமூக விளைவுகள் ஆண்களில் 11% மாகவும் பெண்களில் 10% மாகவும் காணப்படுதல் தனியார் விளைவுகளும் கணிசமான அளவில் குறைவாக இருப்பதுடன் கட்டாய மற்றும் சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலைக் கல்வியிலும் பார்க்க குறைவாகவும் உள்ளது.

கல்வி, நியாயத்தன்மை மற்றும் வறுமைக்குறைப்பு

10. கல்வியானது வறுமைக்குறைப்பிலும் வறியோரின் பொருளாதார நலன்களிலும் சக்திவாய்ந்த பாதிப்பை உண்டுபண்ணுகின்றது. குடும்பத்தலைவரின் அல்லது பிரதான வருமானம் ஈட்டுபவரின் கல்விநிலை உயரும்போது குடும்பத்தின் வறுமைவீதம் வெகுவாக வீழ்ச்சியடைகிறது. வறுமைவீதத்தில் காணப்படும் ஏற்றமானது, குடும்பத்தலைவரின் அல்லது பிரதான வருமானம் ஈட்டுபவரின் ஆரம்பக்கல்வி, க.பொ.த சாதாரணதரம் மற்றும் க.பொ.த உயர்தர வட்டத்தைப் பூர்த்திசெய்யும்பொழுது துரிதப் படுத்தப்படுகிறது. மாகாண வாரியாக அரசு கல்வி முதலீடுகளில் உயர்மட்டத்திலான நியாயத்தன்மை நிலவுகிறது. கல்விரீதியாகப் பின்தங்கிய பிராந்தியங்களில் மாணவன் ஒருவனுக்கான ஒதுக்கீடுகள் உயர்வாக காணப்படுகின்றன. பாடசாலைச் சேர்வு, வரவு மற்றும் பாடசாலையைப் பூர்த்திசெய்தல் விஷேடமாக ஆரம்ப மற்றும் கட்டாய அடிப்படைக்கல்வி நிலைகளில் காணப்படும் பரவலான கொள்கை நடவடிக்கைகள் பரந்தளவிலான வெற்றியை அனுபவித்தன. அத்துடன் வெகுசன மற்றும் வெற்றிகரமான கொள்கையான நியமஅடிப்படை அலகுச் செலவு ஒதுக்கீட்டுப் பொறிமுறையானது பாடசாலைகளுக்குரிய வளங்களைப் பகிர்தலில், பெருமளவில் நியாயத் தன்மையை உறுதிப்படுத்தியது. பொருளாதாரக் குழுக்களிடையே பொதுக்கல்விச் செலவுகளுக்கான ஒதுக்கீடு ஆரம்ப, அடிப்படை மற்றும் இடைநிலைக்கல்வி நிலைகளில் சில நன்மைகளுடன் சார்பளவில் சகல பொருளாதாரக் குழுக்களிடையேயும் பகிரப்பட்டிருந்தது. ஆயினும் மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்வியில் பொதுக்கல்விச் செலவுகளின் கோலம் பின்னோக்கியதாக இருந்ததுடன் உயர் பொருளாதார வகுப்பினர் விகிதசமனற்ற முறையில் நன்மைகளையும் அனுபவித்தனர்.

கற்ற இளைஞர் வேலையின்மை

11. அரசு கொள்கை ஆக்குவோர் எதிர்கொள்ளும் பிரதான பிரச்சினை வேலையற்ற கற்ற தனியாட்கள், குறிப்பாக பெண்களாக இருத்தலாகும். வேலையின்மை வீதமானது, பல்கலைக்கழகப் பட்டதாரிகள் மத்தியிலும் க.பொ.த சாதாரணதரம், க.பொ.த உயர்தரத்தைப் பூர்த்திசெய்தோர் மத்தியிலும் உயர்வாகவுள்ளது. கற்ற வேலைப்படையில் பங்கேற்பவர்களின் உயர் வேலையின்மை வீதமானது தொழிற்சந்தையில் புதிதாக நுழைவோரின் தொழில்தேடும் கால நீட்சியினால் உண்டானது. இத்தகைய தொழில்தேடும் காலநீட்சி குறிப்பாகப் பல்கலைக்கழகப் பட்டதாரிகள் மத்தியில் கடந்தகாலங்களில் கணிசமான அளவில் சமூக அமைதியின்மையைத் தோற்றுவித்துள்ளது. கற்ற இளைஞரிடையே உயர்வேலையின்மைக்கும் நீண்டகால வேலைதேடலுக்குமான முக்கிய காரணியாக, பொருளாதாரத்தின் மெதுவான வளர்ச்சிவீதம் இருந்ததுடன், அது விரைவாக அதிகரிக்கும் கற்ற உழைப்பிற்கான கேள்வியையும் தடைசெய்தது. தொழிற்சந்தையில் நுழையும் கற்ற இளைஞரின் அதிகரித்துவரும் நிரம்பலை உள்வாங்குவதனையும் இது தடைசெய்தது. கற்ற இளைஞர் வேலையின்மைக்கான இரண்டாவது காரணியாக பாடசாலையைப் பூர்த்தி செய்வோரின் பெருக்கத்தையும் தொழிற் சந்தையில் கேள்வியுள்ள திறன்களான ஆங்கிலமொழியை சரளமாகப் பேசுதல், மற்றும் தகவல் தொழிநுட்பத்திறன்களைக் குறைவாகக் கொண்ட பட்டதாரிகளையும் குறிப்பிடலாம். சில பல்கலைக்கழகங்களில் உள்ள பட்டப்படிப்பு நிகழ்ச்சித் திட்டங்களின் மிதமான தராதரங்கள், வேலையுலகுக்குத் திசைமுகப்படுத்துவதில் கல்வியின் போதாமை, குறிப்பாகும் சில அபிவிருத்தித் திறன்களாக கட்டுப்பாடுடைய வேலை ஒழுக்கங்கள், சிறந்த குழுப்பணி, ஆக்கத்திறன், நெகிழ்ச்சித்தன்மையும் இணங்கிச் செல்லலும், வினைத்திறன்மிக்க தொடர்பாடல், பிரச்சினை தீர்த்தல் என்பவற்றையும் குறிப்பிடலாம்.

**கல்வியில் அரசு மற்றும் தனியார் முதலீடுகள்**

12. இலங்கையில் அரசு கல்விச் செலவுகள் தற்பொழுது வருடாந்தம் ஏறக்குறை 40,000

மில்லியன் (415 மில்லியன் ஐக்கிய அமெரிக்க டொலர்) இலங்கை ரூபாவாகும். அண்மைய வருடங்களில், கல்விக்கான பாதிப்பு தேசிய வருமானத்தில் ஏறக்குறை 3 சதவீதமாகவும் அரசு செலவில் 7% - 9% ஆகும். ஒப்பீட்டளவில், இது அபிவிருத்தியடைந்துவரும் நாடுகளின் தராதரங்களின்படி, பொதுக்கல்வி முதலீட்டில் மிதமான நிலையை எடுத்துக்காட்டுகிறது. இலங்கையில் பொதுக்கல்வி முதலீட்டின் மிதமான அளவிற்கு நான்கு முக்கிய காரணிகளைக் குறிப்பிடலாம். (1) எல்லோருக்கும் இலவச சுகாதாரப் பராமரிப்புப் போன்ற பரந்தளவிலான பொதுச் சேவைகள், சமுர்த்தி நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டம் போன்ற வறுமைசார்ந்த பாதுகாப்பிற்கான பரந்த வாய்ப்புக்கள் போன்றவை ஏனைய பல அபிவிருத்தியடைந்துவரும் நாடுகளில் பொதுவாகக் கிடைப்பதில்லை. (2) உயர் பாதுகாப்புச் செலவினங்கள்: இவை மொத்த உள்நாட்டு உற்பத்தியில் 5 வீதத்தினை உட்கொள்வதுடன் ஏனைய முதலீடுகளையும் கவர்ந்துவிடுகின்றன. (3) குறைவான பொது வருமானம்: இது பாரிய பாதிப்புப் பற்றாக்குறைக்குக் காரணமாக இருப்பதுடன், அரசு செலவினங்களையும் கட்டுப்படுத்துகின்றது. (4) ஒப்பீட்டளவில் குறைவான ஆசிரியர் சம்பளம்: இலங்கையிலுள்ள ஆசிரியர்கள் இந்தியா, வங்காளதேசம், மலேசியா, தாய்லாந்து மற்றும் தென்கொரியா போன்ற நாடுகளிலுள்ள ஆசிரியர் பெறும் சம்பளத்திலும் பார்க்க அரைவாசி அல்லது அதனிலும் குறைந்த சம்பளத்தையே பெறுகின்றனர்.

**மூலதனச் செலவுகள்: தற்பொழுதுள்ள செலவுகளும் எதிர்கால முன்னுரிமைகளும்**

13. அண்மைக்காலங்களிலுள்ள இறுக்கமான பாதிப்புத் தடைகள், மூலதனச் செலவினை பாரதூரமாகப் பாதித்துள்ளன. கல்விக்கான மூலதனப் பாதிப்புகள் அரசு மூலதனச் செலவினங்களில் 1999 இல் 5% த்திலிருந்து 2002 இல் 2.5% மாக வெகுவாக வீழ்சியடைந்தது. கல்விப்பாதிட்டின் பங்குகள் என்ற அடிப்படையில் மூலதனப் பாதிப்புகள் 1998 -2000 இல் 20% மாக இருந்து, 2001 - 2002 இல் 16% மாகக் குறைந்துள்ளது. மூலதன முதலீட்டிலான இத்தகைய வீழ்ச்சியானது, கல்விமுறையின் விரிவாக்கத்தினையும் அபிவிருத்தியையும் தடைசெய்தன. செலவினங்களின் தொகுப்புத் தொடர்பாக பாடசாலைகளில் அல்லது பல்கலைக்கழக முறையிலான மூலதனத்தின் பிரதான பங்குகள் அல்லது முதலீட்டுச்

செலவினங்கள் மூலதனக் கல்வி முதலீட்டில் 80% நிருமாணப்பணிகளுக்காக பிரதானமாக பாடசாலை வகுப்பறைக்கட்டிடங்கள் விரிவுரை மண்டபங்கள், நிருவாகத் தொகுதிகள், பல்கலைக்கழகங்களில் வதிவிடவசதிகளைக் அதிகரித்தல் போன்றவற்றின்மீது உள்ளன. ஒப்பீட்டளவில் சிறிய விகிதத்திலான மூலவளங்கள் மட்டுமே தராதர உள்ளீடுகைகளான சாதனங்கள், தொழில்நுட்பம், தளபாடங்ககள் மற்றும் கருவிகளுக்கும் செலவு செய்யப்பட்டுள்ளன. இது 20% த்திலும் குறைவாகும். பாடசாலை முறையில் உள்ள வகுப்பறை நிருமாண செயற்பாடுகளும் சந்தர்ப்பத்திற்குரிய பணியாக உள்ளனவேதவிர, சேர்வுத் தேவைகளை அடிப்படையாகக் கொண்ட திட்டங்கள் இன்றியே நடைபெறுகின்றன. இதன் விளைவாக, பல கிராமப்புறப் பாடசாலைகள் வெறுமையான வகுப்பறைகளை மேலதிகமாகக் கொண்டுள்ளன. அதேவேளையில் நகர்ப்புறப் பாடசாலைகள் மிகநெருக்கமாக உள்ளன. பல்கலைக்கழகங்களிலுள்ள நிருமாணச் செயற்பாடுகளும் இயைபுபடுத்தப்படாமல் இருக்கின்றன. பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள் முழுவதிலும் தேவைகளை அடிப்படையாகக் கொண்ட தெளிவான திட்டங்கள் எவையுமின்றிக் கட்டிடங்களுக்காகப் பெரும்செலவுகள் செய்யப்படுகின்றன. சாதனங்கள் மற்றும் தொழில்நுட்பம் போன்ற தராதர முதலீடுகள் குறைந்த அளவிலான முதலீடு காரணமாக, இலக்கமுறை வேறுபாடுகள் (Digital Devide) பற்றிய தவறான பக்கத்தில் நாடு இருப்பதுடன் அறிவு, திறன், தேர்ச்சிகள் போன்ற தற்கால உலகளாவிய அறிவுப் பொருளாதாரத்திற்குத் தேவையானவற்றை எதிர்காலச் சந்ததியினருக்கு வழங்குவதில் பெரிதும் சிரமங்களைக் கொண்டுள்ளன.

14. கல்வி மூலதனப் பாதிடு எதிர்கொள்ளும் பிரதான சவால்கள்

- ((அ) பாடசாலை முறையிலும் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களிலும் நிருமாணச்செயற்பாடுகளை நியாயப்படுத்தல்.
- (ஆ) விரிவாக்கம் பெறும் மற்றும் அதிகரித்துவரும் நகர்ப்புற பாடசாலைகளுக்குரிய வளங்களைப் பெருமளவில் ஒதுக்குதல்.
- (இ) பாடசாலைகளிலும் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களிலும் தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப நிலையங்கள், விஞ்ஞான ஆய்வுகூடங்கள், நூலகங்கள், பயிற்சிப் பட்டறைகள், செயற்பாட்டு அறைகள்,

பலநோக்கு அறைகள், கணினிகள், நூல்கள், சஞ்சிகைகள், செவிப்புல கட்டில் சாதனங்கள், கல்விசார் மென்பொருட்கள், சாதனங்களும் கருவிகளும் போன்ற உயர்மட்ட தர உள்ளீடுகளுக்குரிய வளஒதுக்கீடுகளை உறுதிசெய்தல்.

(ஈ) அடிப்படை வசதிகளான நீர் வழங்கல், சுத்தம் பேணல், மின்சாரம் போன்றவற்றை கிராமிய மற்றும் பெருந்தோட்டப் பாடசாலைகளில் மேம்படுத்துதல்.

மீண்டெழும் செலவினங்கள்: நடைமுறைச் செலவுகளும் எதிர்கால முன்னுரிமைகளும்

15. கடந்த காலத்தில், பொதுக்கல்விச் செலவினத்தில் ஏறக்குறைய 79% - 84% மீண்டெழும் கல்விப் பாதிட்டுக்கென ஒதுக்கப்பட்டிருந்தது. மீண்டெழும் கல்விச் செலவினங்களின் முக்கிய கூறானது மத்திய மற்றும் மாகாண மீண்டெழும் பாதிடுகளில் ஏறக்குறை 85% - 90% சம்பளம் மற்றும் வேதனமாகக் இருந்தன. சம்பளத்தின் பிரதான பங்கு, ஆசிரியர்கள் மற்றும் பல்கலைக்கழக உத்தியோகத்தினரின் சம்பளமாகவும் அதனைத் தொடர்ந்து அதிபர்கள், கல்வி நிருவாகிகள் மற்றும் ஏனைய தரங்களிலுள்ள உத்தியோகத்தர்களின் சம்பளமாகவும் இருந்தன. மீண்டெழும் கல்விப்பாதிட்டில் சம்பளங்களை அடுத்து உயர்ந்த செலவானது பாடநூல்களுக்குரியதாகும். மொத்த மீண்டெழும் பாதிட்டில் இது 3% மாகும். பாடசாலைச் சீருடைக்கு 2% செலவாகிறது. மிகுதிப்பணம் முக்கியமாக நிர்வாக மற்றும் நடைமுறைச் செலவினங்களான மின்சாரம், தொடர்பாடல், நீர், தபாற்கட்டணங்கள் மற்றும் உத்தியோகப் பயணங்களுக்கும் செலவாகின்றன.

16. மீண்டெழும் கல்விப் பாதிடு எதிர்நோக்கும் முக்கிய சவால்கள்

- (அ) சம்பளங்களும் நிருவாகச் செலவுகளும் பூர்த்திசெய்யப்பட்ட பின்னர் ஆசிரியர்கள், அதிபர்களின் தொழின்மை அபிவிருத்தி, கல்வி நிறுவனங்களுக்குரிய கல்விசாரா மற்றும் நிர்வாக உதவிகளை வழங்குதல்.
- (ஆ) பாடசாலைகளிலும் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களிலும் மூலதனக் கல்வி முதலீட்டு நடைமுறைச் செலவுகளை நிறைவு செய்வதற்கும் போதிய நிதியை ஒதுக்கீடு செய்தல்.

17. சர்வதேசத் தராதரங்களின்படி, இலங்கையில் ஒரு மாணவனுக்குரிய சராசரி மீண்டெழும் கல்விச்

செலவினங்கள் ஆரம்ப மற்றும் இடைநிலைகளில் சாதாரணமாகவுள்ளன. ஆனால், மூன்றாம் நிலையில் உயர்வாக உள்ளன. ஆரம்ப மற்றும் இடைநிலைக் கல்வி மீதான ஒரு மாணவனுக்குரிய சராசரி மீண்டெழும் கல்விச் செலவு தலா தேசியவருமானத்தின் பங்கு என்ற வகையில் ஏறக்குறைய 9% மாகவும் 11% மாகவும் உள்ளதுடன் இவை தென்னாசியா மற்றும் கிழக்காசியா நாடுகள் மத்தியில் மிகக்குறைந்த அளவினதாகும். இதற்கு முரணாக ஒரு மாணவனுக்குரிய சராசரி மூன்றாம் நிலைக் கல்விச் செலவு, தலா தேசியவருமானத்தில் 100% மாக இருப்பதுடன், இந்தியாவிலும் பார்க்கச் சற்று உயர்வாகவும் தென்கொரியா, சிங்கப்பூர், மலேசியா, தாய்லாந்து, இந்தோனேசியா, பிலிப்பைன்ஸ் ஆகிய கிழக்காசிய நாடுகளிலும் பார்க்க மிகக்கூடுதலாகவும் காணப்படுகிறது. மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்வியில் பொது மீண்டெழும் செலவின் பங்கு உயர்வாகக் காணப்படுவதற்குரிய முக்கியமான காரணம் அரசாங்கப் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களின் பாரிய அலகுச் செலவாகும். ஒட்டுமொத்தமாகப் பார்க்கும்போது, கல்விநிலைகள் முழுவதற்குமான சராசரி மீண்டெழும் செலவினங்களின் கோலமானது, உயர் பெறுபேறுகளைக் கொண்ட கிழக்காசிய நாடுகளிலிருந்து வேறுபட்டு இலங்கையின் பொது வளச்சமநிலையானது ஆரம்ப மற்றும் இடைநிலைகளின் செலவுகளுக்குப் பொருந்தாத வகையில் மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்விக்குச் சார்பாக இருக்கின்றது.

*அலகுச் செலவும் உள்ளக வினைத்திறனும்.*

18. ஆரம்பப் பாடசாலை செல்லல் (தரம் 1 - 5) கனிஷ்ட இடைநிலைப்பாடசாலை செல்லல் (தரம் 6 - 9) உட்பாய்ச்சல் வீதங்களின் அடிப்படையில் அளவிடப்படுவதுடன் அவை உயர்வாகவும் உள்ளன. மீண்டும் கற்கும் வீதங்களும் இடைவிலகல் வீதங்களும் 2% - 7% வரையில் வேறுபடுவதுடன், பெண்களிலும் பார்க்க ஆண்கள் மத்தியில் இவை சிறிதளவு கூடுதலாகவும் உள்ளன. மாணவர் உட்பாய்ச்சலின் உயர்வீதத்திற்குப் பல கொள்கைசார் நடவடிக்கைகள் பங்களிப்புச் செய்துள்ளன. (1) ஆரம்ப மற்றும் இடைநிலைப்பாடசாலைகளில் நடாளாவிய வலைப்பின்னலமைப்பின் மூலம் மாணவர் மற்றும் பெற்றோரின் கல்வித்தேவைகளைப் பூர்த்தி செய்யும் வகையில் பாடசாலைகளுக்கு போதுமான வளங்களை வழங்குதல். (2) ஊக்குவிப்புத்திட்டங்கள், இலவச பாடநூல்கள், பாடசாலைச் சீருடைகள், மானிய அடிப்படையிலான போக்குவரத்து போன்றவை

பாடசாலை முறையில் சேர்தல் மற்றும் தொடர்தல் ஆகியவற்றுக்காக வழங்கப்படுகின்றன. (3) 1 ஆம் தரத்திலிருந்து 11 ஆம் தரம் வரை தன்னிச்சையான வகுப்பேற்றம். மாணவர்கள் தாமாக வகுப்புகளில் கற்கவிரும்பினாலன்றி, அவர்களின் சித்தியை தடைசெய்வதற்கு முறைசார் பொறிமுறைகள் எவையுமில்லை. இடைநிலை வட்டத்தில் காணப்படும் பிரதான சோதனைக்குரிய தரங்களில் (தரம் 11 மற்றும் 13) மீளக்கற்போர் வீதம் அதிகமாகும். 11 ஆம் தரத்தில் ஏறக்குறைய 27% மாணவர் மீளக்கற்போராவர். மீளக்கற்போர் விகிதம் ஆண்கள் மற்றும் பெண்களிடையே கிட்டிய அளவில் காணப்படுகிறது. இது மிக உயர்வாக இருப்பதுடன் 11 ஆம் தரத்தில் ஒவ்வொரு நான்கு மாணவருக்கும் ஒருவர் அவ்வகுப்பில் இரண்டாம் முறை கற்கிறார். 13 ஆம் தரத்தில், மீளக்கற்கும் மாணவர் தொகை இன்னும் அதிகரிக்கிறது. க.பொ.த உயர்தர விஞ்ஞான மாணவரிடையே 35% மாணவர் மீளக்கற்போர் ஆவர். க.பொ.த உயர்தரக்கலை மாணவர் மத்தியில் 37% மாணவர்கள் இரண்டாம்முறை கற்கின்றனர். க.பொ.த உயர்தர வணிக மாணவரில் 35% மாணவர் இரண்டாம்முறை கற்கின்றனர். இரண்டாம்முறை கற்கும் ஆண்களுக்கும் பெண்களுக்கும் வீதம் 11 ஆம் 13 ஆம் தரங்களில் ஒத்தவையாக உள்ளது. பாடங்களிடையேயும் அவ்வாறே க.பொ.த உயர்தர மீளக்கற்போர் வீதப்படி ஒவ்வொரு மூன்று மாணவருக்கும் ஒருவர் இரண்டாம்முறை வகுப்பில் கற்கிறார். 11 ஆம் 13 ஆம் தரங்களிலான உயர் மீளக்கற்றல் வீதமானது, கல்விமுறையில் இத்தகைய நிலைகளில் கணிசமான அளவில் காணப்படுவது செலவுப்பயன் குறைபாட்டினை எடுத்துக்காட்டுகின்றது. 11 ஆம் 13 ஆம் தரங்களில் மீளக்கற்போர் வீதம் உயர்வாகக் காணப்படுவதற்குரிய பிரதான காரணம் ஆரம்ப மற்றும் 11 ஆம் தரம் வரையிலான இடைநிலை வட்டம் வரையில் மாணவரின் கற்கும் நிலை குறைவாக இருப்பதுடன், இவை பரீட்சைகளிலும் வெளிப்படுத்தப்பட்டுள்ளன.

*பாடசாலைகளின் பருமனும் பரம்பலும்*

19. இலங்கையானது பாரிய மற்றும் புவியியல் ரீதியாக மிகப்பரந்த வலைப்பின்னலமைப்பைக் கொண்ட அரசாங்கப் பாடசாலைகளைக் கொண்டுள்ளது. இவை கிராமப் புறங்களில் வசிப்போருக்குச் சேவையாற்றுவென கடந்த பல ஆண்டுகளாக ஆரம்பிக்கப்பட்டன. ஆயினும், பொருளாதார அபிவிருத்தி மற்றும் சேவை, கைத்தொழில் துறைகளில் ஏற்பட்ட விரிவாக்கம்

காரணமாக பெருநகரங்களிலும் நகரங்களிலும் வசிக்கும் மக்களின் விகிதாசாரம் அண்மைக்காலங்களில் அதிகரித்து வந்துள்ளது. மேலும், சிறந்த போக்குவரத்து மற்றும் தொடர்பாடல் வலைப்பின்னலானது நகர மையங்களில் உள்ள பாடசாலைகளுடன் கிராமங்களையும் இணைத்துள்ளது. இதன் விளைவாக, நகரங்களிலுள்ள மிகப்பிரபல்யமான பாடசாலைகளுக்கான கேள்வி வெகுவாக அதிகரிக்கின்ற வேளையில், கிராம மற்றும் உபநகர்ப்புறங்களிலுள்ள பிரபல்யமற்ற பாடசாலைகளுக்குரிய கேள்வி குறைந்தும் செல்கிறது. கேள்வியில் ஏற்பட்டுள்ள இத்தகைய மாற்றம் மிகச்சிறிய பாடசாலைகளின் தொகை அதிகரிக்கக் காரணமாயிற்று. ஏறக்குறைய 5,900 பாடசாலைகள் (60% பாடசாலைகள்) 300 மாணவரிலும் குறைந்த தொகையைக் கொண்டுள்ளன. மேலும் ஏறக்குறைய 2,700 பாடசாலைகள் (27% பாடசாலைகள்) 100 பேரிலும் குறைவாகவும் 1,360 பாடசாலைகள் (14% பாடசாலைகள்) 50 இலும் குறைவான மாணவரையும் கொண்டிருக்கின்றன. இவ்வாறான சிறிய பாடசாலைகளைப் பராமரிப்பதும் நடத்துவதும் செலவுக்குரியது. குறிப்பாக, சிறிய பாடசாலைகளில் ஆசிரியர் மாணவர் விகிதம் குறைவாக இருப்பதுடன், அலகுக்கான மீண்டெழும் செலவும் கூடுதலாகவுள்ளது. ஏறக்குறைய 1,000 (10% பாடசாலைகள்) பாடசாலைகளின் ஆசிரியர் மாணவர் விகிதம் 1:7 அல்லது அதனிலும் குறைவாகவுள்ளது. ஏறக்குறைய 1,700 பாடசாலைகளில் (17% பாடசாலைகள்) ஆசிரியர் மாணவர் விகிதம் 1:10 ஆக உள்ளது. 6,000 பாடசாலைகளில் (60% பாடசாலைகள்) ஆசிரியர் மாணவர் விகிதம் 1:15 அல்லது அதனிலும் குறைவாகக் காணப்படுகிறது. ஆசிரியர் மாணவர் விகிதம் குறைவாக உள்ள பாடசாலைகளை நடாத்துதல் மிகவும் செலவுக்குரியதாகும். மாணவர் ஆசிரியர் வீதம் ஏறக்குறைய 25:1 ஆகவுள்ள பாடசாலைகளின் அலகுக்குரிய மீண்டெழும் செலவிலும் பார்க்க சிறிய பாடசாலைகளில் செலவு 100% கூடுதலானதாகும்.

20. இலங்கையில் பொதுப் பல்கலைக்கழகக் கல்வியும் செலவுக்குரியதாகும். ஏனைய அபிவிருத்தியடைந்துவரும் நாடுகளுடன் ஒப்பிடும்பொழுது அலகுக்குரிய நடைமுறைச் செலவு உயர்வானது. மேலும் அரசாங்கப் பாடசாலைகளின் அலகுச் செலவினங்களிலும் வேறுபாடுகள் நிலவுகின்றன. இவ்வேறுபாடு ஒரு மாணவனுக்கு ஒரு வருடத்தில் ஏறக்குறை 40,000

- 120,000 ரூபா வரையில் உள்ளது. பொதுவாக அலகுச் செலவானது, மாணவர் சேர்வுத் தொகையுடன் தொடர்புடையது. சிறிய பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள் பெருஞ்செலவுகளை அனுபவிக்கின்றபோது பெரிய பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள் பொருளாதார நன்மைகளை அனுபவிப்பதுடன் குறைந்த அலகுச் செலவினையும் கொண்டுள்ளன. மிகக்கூடிய செலவுக்குரிய பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள் மிகக்குறைவாக உள்ளன. புதிய நிறுவனங்களான வயம்ப, கிழக்கு மற்றும் தென் கிழக்குப் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களை இங்கு குறிப்பிடலாம். களனி, ஸ்ரீ ஜெவர்த்தனபுர, கொழும்பு மற்றும் யாழ்ப்பாணம் போன்ற பழைய பல்கலைக்கழகங்களின் அலகுச் செலவுகள் மிகக்குறைந்தவை. விஜேடமாகத் திறந்த பல்கலைக்கழகத்தை பொறுத்தவகையில், இது தொலைக்கல்வியை வழங்குவதால், உயர் சேர்வுவீதத்தினையும் மிகக்குறைந்த அலகுச் செலவினையும் கொண்டிருக்கிறது. இவற்றுக்குப் புறம்பாக பேராதனைப் பல்கலைக்கழகத்தில் அலகுச் செலவுக்கும் சேர்வுவீதத்திற்குமிடையில் எதிர்மறையான தொடர்பு காணப்படுவதுடன், இதன் அலகுச் செலவுகள் சிறிய தென்கிழக்குப் பல்கலைக்கழகத்துடன் ஒப்பிடக்கூடியவகையில் உள்ளன. பேராதனைப் பல்கலைக்கழகம் மாணவர் சேர்வுத்தொகையில் இரண்டாவது பெரிய பல்கலைக்கழகம் ஆகும். அலகுக்கான மீண்டெழும் செலவினைத் தீர்மானிக்கும் இன்னொரு முக்கியமான காரணி, மாணவர்களுக்கும் கல்விசாரா ஊழியருக்குமுள்ள விகிதமாகும். பல்கலைக்கழகச் சம்பளத்திற்கான ஒதுக்கீடுகள் கல்விசாரா ஊழியர்களால் நன்கு பாதிக்கப்பட்டதுடன், அதனால் மீண்டெழும் செலவும் பாதிக்கப்படுகிறது. அரசாங்கப் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களில் மாணவர் கல்விசாரா ஊழியர் விகிதம் மிகமிகக்குறைவானது. இவ்விகிதம் வயம்ப, கிழக்கு, தென்கிழக்கு மற்றும் பேராதனைப் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களில் 3:1 இலிருந்து ஸ்ரீ ஜெவர்த்தனபுரத்தில் 8:1 வரை வேறுபடுகிறது. மாணவர் கல்விசாரா உத்தியோகத்தர் விகிதம் பட்டங்களை வழங்கும் 12 பல்கலைக்கழகங்களிலும் 4:1 ஆகும். கல்விசாரா - கல்விசாரா உத்தியோகத்தரைப் பொறுத்தமட்டில் இவ்விகிதம் 1:4 ஆகும். பெருமளவான வளங்கள் கல்விசாரா உத்தியோகத்தரின் சம்பளத்திற்காக பொருத்தமற்றவகையில் ஒதுக்கப்படுவதுடன், இவை செலவு வினைத்திறன் குன்றிய அமைப்பு என்பதனையும் எடுத்துக்காட்டுகின்றன.

தனியார் கல்விச் செலவினங்கள்

21. கல்வியின்மீது கணிசமான வளங்களைக் குடும்பங்களும் முதலீடு செய்கின்றன. குடும்பக் கல்விச் செலவினம் என்ற வகையில் தற்போது கிடைக்கின்ற மிக அண்மைக் காலமான 1995/96 ஆம் ஆண்டுகளின் தகவலின் படி, 7 மாகாணங்களின் தனியார் செலவினம் ஏறக்குறைய 4,688 ரூபாவாகும். 1995/96 இல் பொதுக்கல்வி முதலீட்டு நிலை, அரசாங்கக் கல்வி செலவின் ஏறக்குறைய 23% குச் சமனாக இருந்தது. பொது மூலதனக் கல்விச் செலவுகளிலும் பார்க்க 13% த்திற்குக் கூடுதலாகவும் காணப்பட்டது. கல்விக்கான கேள்வியின் வருமான நெகிழ்ச்சியைக் கருத்திற்கொண்ட சில எடுகோள்களின் அடிப்படையில், 2002 ஆம் ஆண்டிலான தனியார் குடும்பக் கல்விச் செலவினம் 2002 ஆம் ஆண்டு விலையில் ஏறக்குறைய 10,600 மில்லியன் என மதிப்பிடப்பட்டுள்ளது. மொத்த பொதுக்கல்விச் செலவினத்தில் இது 26% த்திற்குச் சமமானது என்பதுடன் பொது மூலதனக் கல்விப் பாதிட்டில் 62% த்திற்கு மேற்பட்டதுமாகும். இத்தகைய பெருந்தொகையான குடும்பச் செலவினங்கள் சட்டரீதியான மற்றும் அரசியல் பொருளாதாரச் சூழலில் கல்வியின்மீதான தனியார் முதலீடுகளுக்குச் சாதகமற்றவையாகும். தேசிய கல்வி ஆணைக்குழுவின் (2003) ஆலோசனைகள் நடைமுறைப்படுத்தப்பட்டாலும் தனியார் பாடசாலைகள் மீதான சட்டரீதியான தடைகள் நீக்கப்பட்டாலும் தனியார் முதலீடுகளின் மட்டம் பெருமளவில் அதிகரிக்கக்கூடும்.

### சேவை விநியோகத்தின் தராதரமும் விளைதிறனும்

22. கல்வியின் மீதான பொதுச்செலவின் அளவும் கோலமும் ஒரு நாட்டின் கல்வியடைவுகளையும் கற்றலையும் தீர்மானிக்கும் முக்கியமான விடயங்களில் ஒன்றாகும் ஆயினும், தராதரமும் சேவை விநியோகத்தின் தராதரமும் விளைதிறனும் சம அளவான முக்கியத்துவமுடையவை. இவ்விடயத்தில் இலங்கை சாதகமான அம்சங்களைக் கொண்டுள்ளது. கொள்கை உருவாக்கத்திற்கென ஏற்கனவேயுள்ள கல்வி நிறுவனங்களின் வலைப் பின்னலமைப்பானது, பல்கலைக்கழகமுறை மற்றும் பாடசாலை உத்தியோகத்தரும், திட்டமும்

நிருவகித்தலும், பாடசாலைக்குரிய கலைத்திட்டமும் பாடத்திட்ட விருத்தியும், பல்கலைக்கழகப் பட்டப்படிப்புக்கான நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களும், பாடசாலை அதிபர்கள், பகுதித் தலைவர்கள் மற்றும் ஆசிரியர்கள், பல்கலைக்கழகக் கல்விசார்ந்தவர்களின் தொழின்மை அபிவிருத்திக்கான வாய்ப்புக்களை வழங்குதல், சோதனைகளை நடத்துதலும் பொதுமக்களின் நம்பிக்கைக்குரிய சான்றிதழ்களை வழங்குதலும், ஆசிரியர் சேவை, ஆசிரியர் கல்வியியலாளர் சேவை, கல்வி நிருவாகச் சேவை போன்ற முக்கியமான சேவைகளுக்குரிய தொழிற்படையை சட்டரீதியாக வரையறை செய்தலும் வேண்டும். அரசாங்கமும் நியாயமான நிதிமுகாமை ஒழுங்கு விதிகளைக் கொண்டிருப்பதுடன் இரட்டைப் பதிவுமுறைகளுடன் கூடிய காசக் கணக்கினையும் பேணுதல் வேண்டும். மேலும் மீயுயர் கணக்காய்வு நிறுவனம், கணக்காய்வாளர் நாயகம் திணைக்களமும் உள்ளகக் கணக்காய்வு என்பனவும் கல்விமுறையில் இருத்தல் வேண்டும். இருப்பினும் கல்விமுறையின் சேவைவிநியோக வலைப்பின்னலானது உறுதியானதொரு அத்திவாரத்தைக் கட்டியெழுப்புதலும் வேண்டும்.

23. ஆயினும், சேவை விநியோக வலைப்பின்னலும் பிரதான அமைப்புச் சார்ந்த சவால்களை, குறிப்பாக உயர் தராதரத்தைக் கொண்ட கல்விமுறைக்கான கொள்கை முயற்சிகளுக்கு ஆதரவு வழங்குதலை எதிர்கொள்ளவேண்டியுள்ளது. இத்தகைய சவால்கள் பின்வருவனவற்றை உள்ளடக்கும். (1) மலினமான ஆசிரியர் அமர்த்துகை: பிரபல்யமான நகர்ப்புற பாடசாலைகளில் ஆசிரியர் மிகையும், பின்தங்கிய கிராமப்புறப் பாடசாலைகளில் ஆசிரியர் பற்றாக்குறையும் நிலவுதல் (2) உயர் ஆசிரியர் வரவின்மை: சராசரியாக ஒரு பாடசாலை நாளில் ஐந்தில் ஒரு பங்கினர் வருவதில்லை. (3) குறைந்த ஆசிரியர் சம்பளமும் குறைந்த ஆசிரியர் ஊக்குவிப்பும், 1978 இல் இருந்த சம்பளத்தில் ஏறக்குறை 85% மட்டுமே ஈட்டுகின்றனர். (4) பாடசாலைகள் தேசிய கல்விக் கல்லூரிகள் (NCOEs) மற்றும் ஆசிரியர் மத்திய நிலையங்கள் (TCs) போன்ற முதல்நிலைக் கல்விச் சேவை விநியோக நிலையங்களில் முகாமைத்துவம்சார் மற்றும் கல்விசார் வலுவூட்டல் போதாமை (5) நிருவாகக் குறைபாடுகள், தானியங்கக்கூடிய, கணினிமயமான முறைகளுக்குப் பதிலாக

உடலுழைப்பில் அதிகளவில் தங்கியிருப்பதால் ஏற்படும் தொழில்நுட்ப மற்றும் நடத்தைக்குரிய தடைகளும், அடிப்படை உள்ளகப் பொறிமுறைகள் இல்லாமையும் (6) நிருவாகத்தில் வெளிவாரியான தலையீடு இவை தீர்மானம் மேற்கொள்ளல் சம்மதவிதி, சிவில்சேவை மனவுறுதி என்பவற்றைத் தடைசெய்கிறது. (7) கொள்வனவுக் குறைபாடுகள், தொழில்நுட்ப விபரங்களை வழங்கல், ஒப்பந்தத்தை ஆயத்தம் செய்தல், ஆவணங்களை ஏலம் விடுதல், தொழிநுட்ப மதிப்பீடுகளை மெதுவாக நிறைவேற்றுதல், தெளிவானதும் மிகச்சரியானதுமான மதிப்பீடுகளைச் செய்வதிலும் ஒப்பந்தச் சபை அறிக்கை மற்றும் குறிப்புகளிலுமுள்ள குறைபாடுகள் (8) கல்விசார் ஊழியரின் குறைந்த சம்பளங்கள், பல்கலைக்கழகங்களில் ஆட்களை அமர்த்தும் பிரச்சனைகளுக்கு இட்டுச் செல்கின்றன. குறிப்பாக கொடும்பு மற்றும் கண்டிக்கு வெளியே உள்ளவர்கள் (9) பல்கலைக்கழக நிருவாக மற்றும் முகாமைத்துவ அமைப்புகள் பட்டப்படிப்பு கற்பித்தலுக்கு மிகக்கூடிய முக்கியத்துவம் கொடுப்பதுடன் முழுமையான பல்கலைக்கழக வெளியீடுகள் என்றவகையில் அடங்கும் ஆராய்ச்சி, பட்டப்படிப்பு நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டம், ஆலோசனை கலத்தல் மற்றும் சமுதாய சேவைகள் போன்றவற்றின் ஆதரவு போதியளவில் திசைமுகப்படுத்தப்படவில்லை (10) பல்கலைக்கழகங்களில் மாணவர் அமைதியீனமானது, கல்விசார் நிகழ்ச்சித் திட்டங்களுக்குத் தடையாக விளங்குவதுடன், கற்கைநெறியை நிறைவுசெய்தலையும் தடைசெய்கின்றது.

### கல்வித் தராதரமும் கற்றல் விளைவுகளும்

24. இலங்கையின் கல்விமுறை உன்னதமானது. சிறந்த பாடசாலைகளிலும் பல்கலைக்கழக நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களிலும் இருந்துவரும் மாணவர்கள் உலகின் முதற்தரமான சிறந்த பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள் தனியார் கூட்டுத்தாபனங்களின், சர்வதேச அமைப்புகளின் உயர் கேள்வியைப் பயன்படுத்துகின்றனர். ஆயினும் கொள்கை உருவாக்குவோர் கல்வியின் சராசரி நிலையும் கற்றல் விளைவுகளும் திருப்தியற்றன என்றே கருதுகின்றனர். [பார்க்க NEC (1991), (2000)] ஆரம்பப் பாடசாலைகள் மத்தியிலான அறிகைசார் அடைவுச்சோதனைகள் அடிப்படைமொழி, எண்சார்திறன்கள்

போன்றவற்றில் ஆரம்பவட்டத்தின் முடிவிலே தேர்ச்சியில் வீழ்ச்சியினை எடுத்துக்காட்டுகின்றன. முதன்மொழியில் (சிங்களமும் தமிழும்) சராசரிப் பாண்டித்ய நிலை 37% மாகும். எழுதுதல் இலக்கணம் (30%) என்பன மிகக்குறைவான தாய்மொழித்திறன்களாகும். கிரகித்தல் (45%) திறனும் மிகக்குறைவு. சொற்களஞ்சியத் திறன்கள் (70%) நன்று. ஆங்கில மொழித்திறன்கள் மிகக்குறைவு. 10% மான ஆரம்பநிலைப் பிள்ளைகள் மட்டுமே பாண்டித்திய நிலைக்குரிய இலக்குமட்டத்தை அடைகின்றனர். ஆங்கில மொழி எழுதும் திறன் இல்லவேயில்லை. 1% மான பிள்ளைகள் மட்டுமே தேவையான திறன்களை வெளிப்படுத்துகின்றனர். ஆங்கில மொழிக்கிரகித்தல் (16%) இலக்கணம் (20%) என்பனவும் குறைவாகவுள்ளன. ஆங்கில சொற்களஞ்சியத் திறன்கள் (35%) உயர்வாகவுள்ளன. மூன்று பேரில் ஒருவர் இத்தகைய திறன்களிலும் பின்தங்கியுள்ளனர்.

25. கணிதத்திலும் பாண்டித்தியநிலை 38% மட்டுமே. கணித எண்ணக்கருவிலான பாண்டித்தியம் 45%, ஒழுங்கு முறைகள் 51% பிரச்சனை தீர்த்தல் 34% ஆரம்பநிலை மாணவரின் அறிகைசார் அடைவுகளில் காணப்படும் கீழ்நிலை கவலைதருவதாக இருக்கிறது. கொள்கைசார் நோக்கில் ஆரம்பக் கல்வி, இடைநிலைக்கல்வி மற்றும் மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்விக்குரிய அடிப்படைகளும் பல்வேறு வகையான திறன்பயிற்சியும் கட்டியெழுப்பப்படுகின்றன. இருப்பினும் முழுக்கல்வியினதும் தராதரமும் பெறுபேறுகளும் ஆரம்பத்தரங்களில் காணப்படும் குறைந்த அடைவுமட்டங்களால் தடைப்படுகின்றன.

26. இத்தகைய கீழ்நிலை அடைவு மட்டத்திற்கு மேலாக, கிராம மற்றும் நகர்ப்பிரதேசப் பாடசாலைகளுக்கிடையே அடைவுமட்டத்தில் முக்கியமான வேறுபாடுகளும் நிலவுகின்றன. முதல் மொழியிலான (சிங்களம் மற்றும் தமிழ்) பாண்டித்தியமானது நகர்ப்புறப் பாடசாலைகளில் 51% மாகவும் கிராமப்பிரதேசங்களில் 34% மாகவும் உள்ளது. ஆங்கில மொழித்திறன்களில் நகர்ப்புற பிள்ளைகள் பாண்டித்திய நிலையை அடையும்போது கிராமப்பிரதேசங்களில் 7% மானோர் மட்டுமே இதனை அடைகின்றனர். கணிதத்தில் 52% மான நகர்ப்பிரதேச மாணவர்கள் பாண்டித்தியநிலையை அடையும்போது, 35% மான கிராமியப் பிள்ளைகளே தேவையான தேர்ச்சிமட்டத்தை அடைகின்றனர். ஆரம்பக் கல்விவட்டத்தின் சராசரிக் கற்றல் அடைவுகளும் பிராந்தியரீதியான வேறுபாடுகளைக் கொண்டுள்ளன. முதல் மொழியில்

பாண்டித்தியத்தை அடையும் ஆரம்பநிலை மாணவர்களின் விகிதம் (சிங்களம் மற்றும் தமிழ்) வடக்கு கிழக்கு மாகாணத்தில் 28% வீதத்திலிருந்து மேல் மகாணத்தில் 52% வரை வேறுபடுவதுடன் ஆங்கில மொழித்தேர்ச்சியில் பாண்டித்தியமானது வடக்கு கிழக்கு மகாணத்தில் 5 வீதத்திலிருந்து மேல் மகாணத்தில் 20% வரை வேறுபடுகின்றது. மத்திய, ஊவா மற்றும் வட மத்திய மகாணங்கள்கூட மொழி, கணிதப் புள்ளிகளை குறைந்தளவிலே பெறுகின்றன. இத்தகைய பிராந்திய ரீதியான மற்றும் நகர கிராம வேறுபாடுகளுக்கு பின்தங்கிய மாவட்டங்களிலும் கிராமப் புறங்களிலுமுள்ள குறைந்த தராதரமுடைய கல்விச்சேவைகள் மலினமான பெற்றோர் ஆற்றலும் உதவிகளும் கற்றலை மேம்படுத்தும் பிள்ளைகளின் செயற்பாடுகளுக்கான வறிதான சந்தர்பங்களும் போன்ற காரணிகள் கூட்டாக பங்களிப்புச் செய்துள்ளன.

27. இடைநிலைக் கல்வியிலும் கல்வித் தராதரம் திருப்திகரமாக இல்லை என்பதற்கான சான்றுகளும் உள்ளன. க.பொ.த சாதாரணதரத்தில் சித்தியடையும் மாணவர் வீதமும் குறைவாகவுள்ளது. இது 37% மட்டுமே. பரீட்சைக்கு தோற்றும் மூன்று மாணவர்களுக்கு இருவர் சித்தியடைவதில்லை என்பதினை இது எடுத்துக்காட்டுகிறது. மேலும் இத்தகைய குறைந்த சித்திவீதமானது 1998 - 2002 காலப்பகுதியில் நிலையாகக் காணப்பட்டது. மாணவருள் பெருந்தோகையானோர் கணிதம், ஆங்கில மொழி, விஞ்ஞானம் மற்றும் சமூகக் கல்வி ஆகிய பாடங்களில் சிரமப்படுகின்றனர். க.பொ.த உயர்தரத்தில் ஏறக்குறை 50% - 55% வீதமானவர்களே 1998 - 2002 காலப்பகுதியில் சித்தியடைந்துள்ளனர். ஒவ்வொரு இரண்டு மாணவருக்கும் ஒருவரே இப்பரீட்சையில் சித்தியடைந்துள்ளார் என எடுத்துக்காட்டுகின்றது. க.பொ.த சாதாரணதரம், க.பொ.த உயர்தரத்தில் நிலவும் குறைந்த சித்திவீதமானது, குறிப்பாக இத்தகைய பரீட்சைகளை வெற்றிகரமாகப் பூர்த்தி செய்தலானது பல்வேறு திறன்களில் பயிற்சி பெறும் கற்கை நெறிகளுக்கும் அல்லது மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்வி நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களின் வாய்ப்புக்களை பெறுவதற்கும் அல்லது தொழிற்சந்தையில் பல தொழில்களைப் பெறவதற்கும் அவசியமானது.

28. குறைந்த கற்றல் அடைவுப் புள்ளிகள் மூலம் அளவிடப்பட்டது போன்ற குறைந்த கல்வித் தராதரப் பிரச்சினை அல்லது உயர் பரீட்சைச் சித்தியின்மை வீதம் என்பவற்றிற்கு மேலாக ஏனைய கல்வித் தராதரத்தின்

அறிகைசாராப் பரிமாணங்களும் திருப்திகரமற்றவையாக இருப்பதோடு அவை உடனடியாக மேம்படுத்தப்பட வேண்டுமென கொள்கையாக்குவோரும், தொழில் வழங்குநரும் விவாதித்துள்ளனர் [பார்க்க NEC (1997), (2003)]. கல்விக்கொள்கை ஆக்குவோர் கட்டுப்பாடுடைய வேலை ஒழுக்கம் சிறந்த குழுப்பணி, ஆக்கத்திறன் மற்றும் தொடங்குதிறன், பிரச்சினை தீர்த்தல் அணுகுமுறை, வினைத்திறன்மிக்க சிறந்த தொடர்பாடல், நெகிழ்ச்சித்தன்மை, இணங்கிச் செல்லல், உந்துகை மற்றும் குடிசார் உணர்வுகள் போன்ற பண்புகளை கல்விமுறையின் மூலம் உருவாக்கவேண்டும் என்பதை வலியுறுத்தி உள்ளனர். [பார்க்க NEC (2003)]

### திறன் அபிவிருத்தி

29. தொழில்நுட்பக்கல்வி மற்றும் தொழிற்பயிற்சியினூடாக திறன்களை அபிவிருத்தி செய்தல் (TEVT) தேசிய கொள்கையின் முக்கியமானதொரு பரிமாணமாகும். கல்வியும் பயிற்சியும் இலங்கையின் தொழிற்சந்தையில் பிரதியீடுகள் என்பதிலும் பார்க்க குறைநிரப்பிகளாக உள்ளன என பொருளாதாரப் பகுப்பாய்வுகள் மூலம் எடுத்துக்காட்டுதல் வேலை உலகிற்கான சிறந்த அடித்தளமாக அமைவது உயர்தராதரமுடைய பொதுக்கல்வியே என்னும் கல்விக் கொள்கை உருவாக்குவோரின் நிலைப்பாட்டினை உறுதி செய்வதாக அமைந்துள்ளது [பார்க்க NEC (2003)]. பெருமளவு கல்வி கற்ற தனியாட்கள் அதிகளவில் பயிற்சியைப் பெறுவதோடு திறன் அபிவிருத்தியின் மூலம் அதிக நன்மைகளையும் பெறலாம். குறிப்பாக கல்வியும் பயிற்சியும் சாதகமான முறையில் ஊடாடுவதனால் வேலைதேடுதல் குறைக்கப்படுவதுடன் சம்பாத்தியத்தையும் அதிகரிக்கிறது. முறைசார் பயிற்சியானது தனியார் துறையில் பாரிய வருமானத்தை தருகிறது. ஆனால் முறைசார் மற்றும் முறைசாரா பயிற்சிகள் மீதான விளைவுகள் தனியார் துறையில் ஏறக்குறைய சமனாக உள்ளன.

30. திறன்கள் அபிவிருத்தித் துறையானது பல முக்கியமான சவால்களை எதிர்கொள்கிறது. இவை பின்வருவனவற்றை உள்ளடக்கும். (அ) பெருமளவில் பிராந்திய ரீதியாக வழங்குவதற்கான சேவை ஏற்பாடுகளை விரிவுபடுத்தல் (ஆ) சேவை விநியோகத்தில் தனியார் முதலீடுகளையும் வெளிநாட்டுத்

தனியார் - பொது பங்குதாரர்களையும் ஊக்குவித்தல் (இ) TEVT கற்கைநெறிகளுடன் பயிற்சிகள் பொருந்தாதிருத்தல் இவற்றிற்கான கேள்வி போதியளவில் இல்லை என்பதுடன் குறைந்த அளவிலான TEVT கற்கைநெறிகள் வலுவான கேள்வியை அனுபவிக்கின்றன. (ஈ) இத்துறையில் காணப்படும் கற்கை நெறிகள் இருமடியாக உள்ளதுடன் உள்ளக விளைதிறன் இன்றியும் காணப்படுகின்றன. சாதனங்களும் கலைத்திட்டங்களும் வழக்கொழிந்தவை, சிறந்த பயிற்சியாளருக்கான பற்றாக்குறையும் உயர் இடைவிலகல் வீதமும் (உ) தற்பொழுதுள்ள பொதுத்துறை வேலைத்தளங்களினதும் ஆய்வு கூடங்களினது உப உத்தம பயன்பாடும் கல்வி மற்றும் பயிற்சித் துறைகளிடையே உள்ள இணைப்புகளும் போதாது இருத்தல்.

### ஆரம்ப பிள்ளைப்பருவ விருத்தி

31. ஆரம்ப பிள்ளைப்பருவ விருத்தியானது கொள்கையின்பால் கவனத்தை ஈர்க்கத்தொடங்கியுள்ளது குறிப்பாக இளம் பிள்ளைகள் மத்தியில் கற்றல் விளைவுகளை மேம்படுத்தல், முனைவிருத்தி குறித்து ஆரம்ப முன்பள்ளி வயதுகளில் முக்கியத்துவம் மற்றும் அறிகைசார் ஆற்றல் மீதான விழிப்புணர்வு பற்றியும் இங்கு வலியுறுத்தப்படுகின்றன. அண்மைய வருடங்களிலே முன்பள்ளிலும் மற்றும் பாலர்பாடசாலைகளிலும் துரிதமான வளர்ச்சி ஏற்பட்டுள்ளது. 1970 களில் 2000 முன்பள்ளிகளும் பாலர்பாடசாலைகளும் இருந்தன என மதிப்பிடப்பட்டுள்ளது. 2003 ஆம் ஆண்டில் இத்தொகையானது 11,000 - 12,500 அளவில் அதிகரித்ததோடு நாட்டிலுள்ள பாடசாலைகளின் தொகையையும் மிஞ்சியுள்ளது. 80% ற்கும் மேற்பட்ட முன்பள்ளிகள் தனியார் துறையில் உள்ளன. முன்பள்ளிகளில் பங்குபற்றும் 3 - 5 வயதுப்பிள்ளைகளின் தொகை 1980 களில் 20%இல் இருந்து 1994 இல் 40% ஆகவும் 2001 இல் 60% ஆகவும் உயர்ந்துள்ளது.

எல்லோருக்கும் கல்விக்கான (EFA) இலங்கையின் செயல்நிலை வரைவுத்திட்டமானது 2004 தொடக்கம் 2008 வரையுள்ள காலத்தில் 80% மாணவர்களை உள்ளடக்கும் இலக்கினை உருவாக்குவதுடன் மிகுதி 20% வீட்டினை அடிப்படையாகவும் கொண்டுள்ளது.

32. முன்பள்ளி முறையானது பல கொள்கைசார்ந்த அபிவிருத்திசார்ந்த, சவால்களை எதிர்நோக்குகிறது. இவை பின்வருவனவற்றை உள்ளடக்கும்.

- (அ) சேவை ஏற்பாடுகளை விரிவாக்குதல்
- (ஆ) எல்லோருக்கும் கல்வி என்னும் இலக்கினை அடையும் வகையில் பங்கேற்பினை அதிகரித்தல்
- (இ) தர மேம்பாட்டிற்கான தராதரங்களையும் நியமங்களையும் உருவாக்குதல்
- (ஈ) முன்பள்ளிப் பிள்ளைகளுக்குப் பொருத்தமான கலைத்திட்ட மற்றும் கற்பித்தல் பற்றிய விழிப்புணர்வை உருவாக்குதல்
- (உ) முன்பள்ளி ஆசிரியருக்கான ஆசிரியர் கல்வி மற்றும் பயிற்சி முறைகளை விருத்திசெய்தல்
- (ஊ) முன்பள்ளிச் செயற்பாடுகளையும் ஆரம்பக்கல்விக் கலைத்திட்டங்களையும் இணைத்தல்.
- (எ) பொருத்தமான நிர்வாக அமைப்பினை உருவாக்குதல் குறிப்பாக மாகாணசபைகளில் முன்பள்ளிகளை ஊக்குவித்தலும் அபிவிருத்தி செய்தலும்.

இத்தகைய சவால்களுக்கு முகங் கொடுப்பதற்கான கொள்கைசார் கவனங்களும் அவசியம் தேவைப்படுகின்றன. எதிர்காலக் கொள்கை அபிவிருத்தியில் முன்பள்ளி முறையில் தனியார் துறையினரால் இடப்பட்ட பரந்த அடித்தளத்தை அரசாங்கமும் கட்டியெழுப்பவேண்டியது அவசியமாகும்.

## முன்னோக்கிப் பாயும் காலவெள்ளம்: எதிர்காலத்திற்கான தெரிவுகள்

### சமவாய்ப்பில் நியாயத்தன்மையை உறுதிசெய்தல்

கட்டாய ஆரம்பக் கல்வியில் எல்லோரும் சேர்வதனை அடைதலும் கட்டாய ஆரம்பக்கல்வியைப் பூர்த்திசெய்தலும் (தரம் 1-9)

33. இலங்கையானது கல்வி அபிவிருத்தியின் முதலாவது கட்டத்தினை ஏறக்குறைய நிறைவுசெய்துள்ளது. ஆரம்ப மற்றும் அடிப்படைக் கல்வி வாய்ப்புக்களை எல்லோருக்கும் வழங்குதல், ஆரம்பக்கல்வியைப் பூர்த்திசெய்வோர் 97%. அடிப்படைக்கல்வி (தரம் 1-9) பூர்த்திசெய்வோர் 83% என்ற அடிப்படையில் நிறைவுசெய்துள்ளது எனலாம். கடைசி 17% மான மாணவர்கள் இறுதியானதும் முதலாவது சந்ததியினரின் சவாலாகவும் விடப்பட்டுள்ளனர். இவர்கள் இப்பொழுது 9ஆம் தரத்தினைப் பூர்த்திசெய்வதற்குமுன் முறைசார் கல்வியமைப்பில் அல்லது முறைசாராக் கல்வி நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டத்திலிருந்து இடையில் விலகிவிடாமல் அடிப்படைக் கல்வி வட்டத்தினைப் பூர்த்திசெய்யும் வரை அவர்களைக் கவர்ந்து தொடர்ந்து வைத்திருத்தல் வேண்டும். இவ்வாறான மாணவர்கள் நாட்டிலுள்ள மிக வறிய மற்றும் பின்தங்கிய குடும்பங்களைச் சார்ந்தோராவார். இதனுள் பின்தங்கிய கிராமங்களிலுள்ள சிறுவர்கள், நகரங்களிலுள்ள தெருவோரச் சிறுவர்கள், தனிமையான பெருந்தோட்டச் சமூகங்களைச் சேர்ந்த பிள்ளைகள், பிணக்குகளால் பாதிக்கப்பட்ட பிரதேசங்களிலுள்ள பிள்ளைகள் அடங்குவர். அரசாங்கமானது இத்தகைய பிள்ளைகளை பாடசாலைகளில் கவர்ந்து, தொடர்ந்து வைத்திருப்பதுடன் பூரண சேர்வினை எய்துவதற்கும் எல்லோரும் ஆரம்பக்கல்வி வட்டத்தை (தரம் 1-9) நிறைவுகொள்ளச் செய்வதற்கும் பரவலான முயற்சிகளை மேற்கொண்டுள்ளன. இவை பின்வருவனவற்றையும் உள்ளடக்கும்.

- (அ) பாடசாலைப் பிள்ளைகள் தெரிவுசெய்த இலவச பாடநூல்களை வழங்குதல்.
- (ஆ) இலவச சீருடைகளை வழங்குதல்
- (இ) பாடசாலைகளுக்குச் செல்ல போக்குவரத்து மானியங்களைக் கொடுத்தல்
- (ஈ) பிணக்குகளால் பாதிக்கப்பட்ட பிரதேசங்களில் பாதிக்கப்பட்ட பாடசாலைகளைப் புனரமைத்தல்.

(உ) முறைசார் பாடசாலை முறைக்கு அப்பால், மாற்று வழிமுறையாக, விஷேட கல்வி, முறைசாராக் கல்வி மற்றும் விடுபட்ட கல்வியை பெறும் (Catch Up) கல்வி நிகழ்ச்சிகளை வழங்குதல்.

இவ்வாறான முயற்சிகள் குறிப்பாக விஷேட கல்வி, முறைசாராக் கல்வி மற்றும் விடுபட்ட கல்வியை பெறும் (Catch Up) கல்வி நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களைப் பலப்படுத்தவும் அவற்றை வினைத்திறன்மிக்கனவாக நடைமுறைப்படுத்தவும் வேண்டும். மேலும், புதிய கேள்விப் பக்கமுள்ள முயற்சிகளான பொருளாதார ஊக்குவிப்புக்களின் பயன்பாடு, உள்ளூர்ச் சமுதாய நிறுவனங்களால் மேற்கொள்ளப்படும் சமூக அசைவுச் செயற்பாடுகள் போன்றவற்றை மிகவும் பின்தங்கிய சமூகங்களிடையே பயன்படுத்திப் பார்க்கலாம். இத்தகைய கேள்விசார் முயற்சிகள் ஏனைய பல நாடுகளான இந்தியா, பாகிஸ்தான், வங்காளதேசம் போன்ற தென்னாசிய அயல் நாடுகளிலும் வெற்றிகண்டுள்ளன.

34. மிகவும் பின்தங்கிய சமுதாயங்களிலிருந்து பாடசாலைகளுக்குப் பிள்ளைகளை ஈர்ப்பதற்கான கேள்விப்பக்கச் செயற்பாடுகளும் ஏனைய நாடுகளிலிருந்து பெற்றுக்கொண்ட வெற்றிகரமான சர்வதேச அனுபவங்களின் அடிப்படையில் அமைந்தவையும் இங்கு தரப்பட்டுள்ளன.

- (அ) பாடசாலைச் சேர்வினையும் வரவினையும் ஊக்குவிக்கும் வகையில் உள்ளூர்ச் சமூகங்களை அசையச் செய்தல்.
- (ஆ) மாணவர் நேயச் சூழலை உருவாக்குதல். இவை கவர்ச்சிகரமான பாடசாலைக் கட்டங்களை உருவாக்குதல், சௌகரியமான வகுப்பறை, விளையாட்டு இடங்கள் என்பனவற்றை உள்ளடக்கும்.
- (இ) வறிய குடும்பங்களிலுள்ள வேலை செய்யும் பிள்ளைகள் மத்தியில் பாடசாலை செல்வதற்கான சந்தர்ப்பச் செலவினைக் குறைத்தல், வருமானத்தின் ஒரு பகுதியை பாடசாலை வரவுக்கு அல்லது மாற்றுக் கல்வி நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களில் பொருத்தமான வயதுப்பிரிவினர் பங்கேற்பதற்காக அரசாங்க வறுமைக் குறைப்பு நிகழ்ச்சித் திட்டங்களினூடாக இணைத்தல் மூலம் இதனைச் செய்யலாம்.
- (ஈ) விஷேட கல்வி, முறைசாராக் கல்வி மற்றும் விடுபட்ட கல்வியை பெறும் (Catch Up)

கல்வி நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களை வலுப்படுத்துதல்.

35. மேலும் அரசாங்கமானது முறைசார் பாடசாலை முறைக்கு மாற்றாக விஷேட கல்வி, முறைசாராக கல்வி மற்றும் கல்வி நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களின் வகிபங்கினைப் பலப்படுத்துதல் பற்றிக் கவனத்தில் கொள்ளலாம். இத்துறையிலான முன்னுரிமைக்குரிய அபிவிருத்தி நடவடிக்கைகள் பின்வருவனவற்றை உள்ளடக்கும்.

- (அ) முறைசார் கல்வி மற்றும் வேலைக்காலப் பயிற்சிகளில் இவ்வாறான வகிபங்கினைத் தெளிவுபடுத்துதல்.
- (ஆ) கலைத்திட்டத்தைக் குறிப்பிடுதல் பல்வேறு நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களின் விளைவுகள் மற்றும் இலக்குச் சனத்தொகையைக் குறிப்பிடுதல். கொள்கையாக்குவோருக்குப் பின்னூட்டலை வழங்குவதற்கு கண்காணிப்பு மற்றும் மதிப்பீட்டு முறையினை நிறுவுதல்.
- (இ) தொழிற்சந்தையுடனான தொடர்புகளை மேம்படுத்துதல் குறிப்பாக, நீடித்து நிலைக்கக் கூடிய உயிரோட்டமுள்ள வாழ்க்கை மற்றும் வருமானம் தருகின்ற செயற்பாடுகளை மேம்படுத்துதல்.
- (ஈ) இத்தகைய நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களை முகாமைத்துவம் செய்வதற்கு, மாகாணக் கல்வித்திணைக்களங்கள் வலயக் கல்வி அலுவலகங்களின் நிறுவன ஆற்றலை அதிகரித்தல்.
- (உ) இவ்வாறான நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களை வழங்குவதில் ஈடுபட்டுள்ள கல்வி அலுவலரின் தொழில்நுட்ப ஆற்றலை விருத்தி செய்தல்.

### கல்வித் தராதரத்தில் உன்னத்ததைப் பேணுதல்

அடிப்படைக்கல்வி, சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலைக்கல்வியின் தராதரத்தை அபிவிருத்தி செய்தல்

36. இலங்கையின் கல்விக் கொள்கையாக்குவோர் எதிர்கொள்ளும் அடிப்படையான சவால் உயர்தரமான கல்விமுறையை விருத்திசெய்தலும் பேணுதலும் ஆகும். தற்பொழுது பாடசாலை முறையின் தரமேம்பாட்டிற்கான பரந்தளவிலான அபிவிருத்தி முயற்சிகளை அரசாங்கம் மேற்கொண்டுள்ளது. பின்வருவன அவற்றுள் அடங்கும்,

- (அ) பாடசாலைக் கலைத்திட்டத்தை நவீனமயப்படுத்துதல்
- (ஆ) பிள்ளைநேயக் கற்பித்தல் முறைகளை மேம்படுத்துதல்
- (இ) ஆசிரியரின் தொழின்மை ஆற்றல்கள் மற்றும் திறன்களை முன்னேற்றுதல்
- (ஈ) வினைத்திறன்மிக்க பாடசாலைத் தலைமைத்துவம் மற்றும் முகாமைத்துவத்தினை மேம்படுத்துதல்.
- (உ) பரீட்சை முறைகளை நெகிழ்ச்சியானதாகவும் மாணவர் வினையாற்றல் பற்றிய தொடர் கணிப்பீடுகளையும் சீர்திருத்துதல்.

இவ்வாறான நடவடிக்கைகள் மூலம் நல்ல எதிர்காலத்திற்கான அடிப்படையை வழங்குவதோடு இலங்கையில் உயர்தராதரமுடைய கல்விமுறையையும் கட்டியெழுப்பலாம். கல்வி அபிவிருத்தி பற்றிய நூல்கள், ஏனைய நாடுகளின் கல்விச் சீர்திருத்தம் பற்றிய அனுபவங்கள், இலங்கையின் கல்விசார் அனுபவங்கள் அபிவிருத்திற்கான முயற்சிகள் பலவற்றை விதந்துரைக்கின்றன. அவை கல்வித் தராதரத்தை மேம்படுத்தவும் நாட்டில் உயர் வினையாற்றல் கொண்ட பாடசாலைகள், பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள் மற்றும் தொழில்நுட்பக்கல்வி நிறுவனங்களை உருவாக்கவும் மிகவும் அவசியமானவை.

ஆரம்பக் கல்விக் கலைத்திட்டத்தில் அடையவேண்டிய தேர்ச்சிகளை விளங்கிக்கொள்வதைப் பாடசாலை மட்டத்தில் மேம்படுத்துதல்

37. தற்பொழுது ஆரம்பப் பாடசாலைக் கலைத்திட்டத்தின் தேர்ச்சிகள் திறன்கள் மற்றும் எதிர்பார்த்த கற்றல் விளைவுகள் தெளிவாகக் குறிப்பிடப்பட்டுள்ளன. ஆயினும் அதிபர்கள் ஆசிரியர்கள் மத்தியில் இத்தகைய அடைவுமட்டங்களை புரிந்து கொள்ளுதல் மட்டுப்படுத்தப் பட்டுள்ளது. மேலும் இத்தகைய ஆரம்பப் பாடசாலை அடைவுமட்டங்களை மாற்றுதலுக்குரிய ஆற்றல்கள் அதிபர்களிடமும் ஆசிரியர்களிடமும் குறைவாக உள்ளன இப்பிரச்சினையை எதிர்த்துப் போராடுவதற்கு அரசாங்கம் இரண்டு முக்கிய முயற்சிகளை கவனத்தில் கொள்ளமுடியும்.

- (அ) ஆரம்ப பாடசாலைக் கலைத்திட்டத்தின் தேர்ச்சிகளையும் திறன்களையும் எதிர்பார்க்கப்படும் கற்றல் விளைவுகளையும் அதிபர்கள் மற்றும் ஆசிரியர்கள் மத்தியில் பரவச்செய்தலுடன் அவற்றை விளங்கிக்

கொள்வதையும் உறுதிசெய்தல். இவ் விடயமானது அடைவுமட்டங்களின் அச்சுப்பிரதிகள் பாடசாலைக்கு கிடைப்பதையும் உள்ளடக்கும்.

(ஆ) கலைத்திட்டத்தில் குறிப்பிடப்பட்டுள்ள அடைவுமட்டங்களை மாணவர்கள் அடைவதற்கு வேண்டிய ஆசிரியர்களின் ஆற்றல்களை வலுப்படுத்தும்.

இடைநிலைப்பாடசாலை கலைத்திட்டத்தினை தெளிவு படுத்தலும் விபரமாகக் கூறுதலும்.

38. ஆரம்ப பாடசாலைக் கலைத்திட்டம் போலன்றி இடைநிலைக் கலைத்திட்டத்தில் தேர்ச்சிகளும் திறன்களும் மற்றும் எதிர்பார்க்கப்படும் கற்றல் விளைவுகளும் தெளிவாகக் குறிப்பிடப்படவில்லை. இதன் விளைவாக இடைநிலை கலைத்திட்டமானது முறையாக ஒழுங்குபடுத்தப்படவில்லை. வகுப்பு நிலையிலும் வட்டத்திலும் தொடர்ச்சி குறைவாக உள்ளது. மேலும் பாடசாலைகள் ஒவ்வொரு தரத்திற்கும் உரிய இலக்குகளையும் நோக்கங்களையும் உருவாக்க முடியவில்லை அல்லது தெளிவாக இணைக்கப்பட்ட கலைத்திட்டத்திற்கு ஏற்ற தமது கற்பித்தல் முறைகளையும் கற்பித்தல் உபாயங்களையும் ஒழுங்குபடுத்த முடியவில்லை இருந்தாலும் இடைநிலைக்கல்வியை வலுப்படுத்துவதற்கு அரசாங்கமானது இரண்டு முக்கியமான அபிவிருத்தி முயற்சிகளை கவனத்தில் கொள்ளலாம். அவையாவன

(அ) இடைநிலைப்பாடசாலைக் கலைத்திட்டத்தை தெளிவுபடுத்தலும் ஒழுங்குபடுத்தலும்: இவை ஒவ்வொரு தரத்திற்கும் பாடத்திற்கும் உரிய தேர்ச்சிகள், திறன்களையும் எதிர்பார்த்த கற்றல் விளைவுகளையும் குறிப்பனவாக இருத்தல் வேண்டும்.

(ஆ) அதிபர்கள் மற்றும் ஆசிரியர்கள் மத்தியில் இத்தகைய அடைவு மட்டங்களைப் பரவச் செய்தல், புரிந்துணர்வை உறுதிசெய்தல். இவை பொருத்தமான அச்சுச் சாதனங்கள் பாடசாலைக்கு கிடைப்பதை உறுதிசெய்யும்.

ஆசிரியர்களின் தொழின்மைத் தேர்ச்சிகளையும் திறன்களையும் வலுப்படுத்தல்

39. கற்பித்தலில் ஈடுபடுவோரின் தராதரம் யாதாயினும் ஒரு கல்விமுறையில் மிகவும் முக்கியமானதொன்றாகும். கடந்த 5 ஆண்டுகாலப்பகுதியில் இலங்கையானது தேசிய

கல்வியியல் கல்லூரிகளை நிறுவுவதற்கும் உத்தியோகத்தர்களையும் பூரணமான வலைப்பின்னல் அமைப்பை உருவாக்குவதற்கும், முன்சேவை ஆசிரியர் கல்வியை வழங்குவதற்கும், தொடருறு ஆசிரியர் கல்வியை வழங்குவதற்கும் உரிய ஆசிரியர் மத்திய நிலையங்களை அமைப்பதற்கும் பெருமளவில் முதலீடு செய்துள்ளது. நடைமுறையில் சகல பாடசாலை ஆசிரியர்களும் இப்பொழுது பயிற்றப்பட்டுள்ளனர். தமது தொழில் வாழ்க்கையின் போது தொழின்மை விருத்திக்கான வாய்ப்புக்களை அனுபவிக்கின்றனர். அரசாங்கமானது ஆசிரியர்களின் தொழின்மை ஆற்றல்களையும் திறன்களையும் அபிவிருத்தி செய்வதற்கு இத்தகைய நிறுவன அடிப்படைகளைக் கட்டியெழுப்பலாம். இத்தகைய நோக்கங்களை அடைவதற்குரிய பிரதான செயல் முறைகள் பின்வருமாறு,

(அ) தொழிலிடப் பயிற்சியினூடாக முழுப்பாடசாலைகளையும் மற்றியமைத்தல் மற்றும் அபிவிருத்தி செய்தலை இலக்காகக் கொண்டு தொடருறு ஆசிரியர் பயிற்சி நிகழ்ச்சித் திட்டங்களை அறிமுகம் செய்தல், தனிப்பட்ட ஆசிரியர்கள் தமது தர உயர்வை உறுதிசெய்வதற்கு ஆசிரியர் நிலையங்களினூடாக தற்பொழுது வழங்கப்படும் தொழிலிடத்திற்கு வெளியே யுள்ள பயிற்சிச் செயற்பாடுகளைத் துணையாகக் கொள்ளுதலும்.

(ஆ) கற்கை நெறியை திட்டமிடலும் ஒழுங்கமைத்தலும், வகுப்பறை நடைமுறைகள், மாணவர் ஒப்படைகளும் வீட்டுவேலைகளும் மாணவர் அறிவையும் திறன்களையும் கணிப்பிடுதல் போன்ற கற்பித்தல் செயற்பாடுகளையும் சாதனங்களையும் தொழில் நுட்பங்களையும் பயன்படுத்துவதற்கு ஆசிரியர்களை ஆயத்தம் செய்வதற்கான முன்சேவை மற்றும் தொடருறு ஆசிரியர் பயிற்சி நிகழ்ச்சித் திட்டங்களையும் போதனை நடைமுறைகளையும் நவீனமயப்படுத்தல்.

(இ) ஆரம்ப மற்றும் இடைநிலை வகுப்பு வட்டத்தில் மாணவர்மையச் செயற்பாட்டினை அடிப்படையாகக் கொண்ட கற்பித்தல் கற்றல் அணுகுமுறைகளை மேம்படுத்துவதற்கு தேவையான கற்பித்தலியல் திறன்களுடன் கூடியவர்களாக ஆசிரியர்களை ஆயத்தம் செய்வதற்கு உரிய முன்சேவை மற்றும் தொடருறு ஆசிரியர் கல்வி நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்ட கலைத்திட்டத்தையும் போதனை

- நடைமுறைகளையும் அபிவிருத்தி செய்தல்.
- (ஈ) பாடசாலைகளின் தராதரத்தினை மேம்படுத்துவதற்கு உள்நூர் சமுதாயங்களுடன் பங்கேற்பதற்கான திறன்களுடன் கூடியவர்களாக ஆசிரியர்களை உருவாக்குதல்.
- (உ) அதிபர்களின் தலைமைத்துவத்தின் கீழ் ஆசிரியர்கள் பொறுப்புக்களை ஏற்பதற்கு வாய்ப்புகள் கொடுத்தலுடன் உயர்தரமான பாடசாலை பெறுபேற்றுத் தராதரங்களை அடைதலும்.
- (ஊ) பாடவிடயங்களிலும் கற்பித்தலியல் திறன்களிலும் ஆசிரியர்களின் தொழின்மை அறிவு மற்றும் புரிந்துணர்வை ஒழுங்காக்கவும் வட்ட அடிப்படையிலும் ஆசிரியர் தொழிலிலுள்ள காலம் வரை வலுவூட்டுதல்.

அதிபர்கள், தலைமை ஆசிரியர்கள், தலைமை ஆசிரியைகளின் தலைமைத்துவ மற்றும் முகாமைத்துவ ஆற்றலை வலுப்படுத்தல்

40. உயர்தரத்திலான பாடசாலைத் தலைமைத்துவத்தின் முக்கியத்துவம் இலங்கையின் கல்விக்கொள்கை ஆக்குவோரால் பெரிதும் மதிக்கப்படுகிறது. அதிபர்கள், பாடசாலைப் பிரிவுத் தலைவர்களான தலைமை ஆசிரியர்கள், தலைமை ஆசிரியைகளுக்கான தலைமைத்துவ மற்றும் முகாமைத்துவ பயிற்சிகளை வழங்குவதற்கான அதிபர்கள் பயிற்சி மத்திய நிலையமொன்று உருவாக்கப்படுகிறது. மேலும் அதிபர்களுக்கு வலுவூட்டுவதற்கும் பாடசாலைகளுக்குக் கணிசமான அளவில் முகாமைத்துவ அதிகாரங்களை பரவலாக்குதலுக்கும் பாடசாலை அதிபர்கள், தலைமை ஆசிரியர்கள், தலைமை ஆசிரியைகளின் தலைமைத்துவத் திறன்களையும் முகாமைத்துவத் தேர்ச்சிகளையும் வலுப்படுத்துதல் அபிவிருத்தியின் முக்கிய அம்சமாகும். எதிர்காலத்தில் தேவைப்படும் முக்கியமான தலைமைத்துவ, முகாமைத்துவத் திறன்கள் பின்வரும் ஆற்றல்களை உள்ளடக்கும்.

- (அ) பாடசாலைகளின் தொலைநோக்கினையும் இலக்குகளையும் தெளிவாக இணைத்தல்.
- (ஆ) கலைத்திட்டத்தை நடைமுறைப்படுத்துவதற்கு பாடசாலையை சிறந்தமுறையில் ஒழுங்கமைத்தல்.
- (இ) வகுப்பறை மற்றும் பாடசாலையின் இணைந்த கலைத்திட்டத் தேவைகளுடன் ஆசிரியர்களின் கற்பித்தலியல் தேர்ச்சிகளை இணைத்தல்.

- (ஈ) உத்தியோகத்தர்களை, குறிப்பாக ஆசிரியர்களை மதிப்பிடுவதுடன் அவர்களுடைய தேர்ச்சிகளையும் திறன்களையும் முன்னேற்றுதல்.
- (உ) உயர் பெறுபேறுகளை நோக்கி உத்தியோகத்தரையும் மாணவர்களையும் ஊக்குவித்தல்.
- (ஊ) பாடசாலையின் இலக்குகளை மேம்படுத்துவதற்கு பௌதீக வளங்களைப் பகிர்தலும் பயன்படுத்தலும்.
- (எ) பெற்றோர் ஆசிரிய சங்கங்கள், பழைய மாணவர் சங்கங்கள் உள்ளிட்ட சமுதாய அமைப்புகளுடன் நெருங்கிய உறவுகளை விருத்தி செய்தல்.
- (ஏ) மாணவர்கள், ஆசிரியர்கள், பெற்றோர்கள் மற்றும் ஏனைய சமுதாய உறுப்பினர்களின் உயர்ந்த நோக்கினை ஏற்றுக்கொள்ளக்கூடிய தன்மையைப் பேணுதல்.

பாடசாலைக்கான கல்விசார் மற்றும் நிருவாக உதவிகளை அபிவிருத்தி செய்தல்

41. இலங்கையில் பாடசாலைகளுக்கான கல்விசார்ந்த மற்றும் நிர்வாகம் சார்ந்த வழிகாட்டலை வழங்கும் உதவி வலைப்பின்னல் அமைப்பானது அடிநிலையிலேயே உள்ளது. பாடசாலைகளுக்கு உதவி வழங்கும் தற்போதுள்ள சேவைக்கால ஆலோசகர் முறை குறைந்தளவிலேயே அபிவித்தியடைந்துள்ளது. இந்த முறைமையை வலுவூட்டுதல் என்பது எதிர்காலக் கல்வி அபிவிருத்திக்கான முன்னுரிமைசார்ந்த விடயங்கள் பின்வருவனவற்றை உள்ளடக்கும்.

- (அ) சேவைக்கால ஆலோசகர்களின் வகிபங்கினையும் பொறுப்புக்களையும் தெளிவாக எடுத்துக்காட்டுதல்.
- (ஆ) சேவைக்கால ஆலோசகர்களை தெரிவு செய்தலும் பணிக்கமர்த்தலும் தொழின்மைத் தேர்ச்சியின் அடிப்படையில் இருத்தல் வேண்டும்.
- (இ) குறிப்பிட்ட சேவைக்கு சேவைக்கால ஆலோசகர்களை அமர்த்துதல். இது சிறந்த போதனை நடைமுறைகள் தொடர்பான தகவல் மற்றும் பயிற்சிப் பெறுபேறுகளை உயர்த்துதலையும் உள்ளடக்கும்.
- (ஈ) சேவைக்கால ஆலோசகர்களை வினைத்திறன் மிகுந்தவாறு பாடசாலை அதிபர்கள் மற்றும் ஆசிரியர்களின் கல்விசார் பெறுபேறுகளை மதிப்பிடவும்

ஆக்கபூர்வமான பின்னூட்டல்களை வழங்குவதற்கும் பயன்படுத்தல்.

(உ) பாடசாலைக்குரிய தொழிலிட உதவிகளை, மாகாணக் கல்வி அதிகாரங்கள், வலயக் கல்வி அலுவலகங்களின் வழமையான அபிவிருத்திச் செயற்பாடுகளுடன் இணைத்தல்.

42. இலங்கையானது கல்வி அபிவிருத்தியில் இரண்டாவது கட்டத்தின் ஆரம்ப நிலையில் இருக்கின்றபொழுது பாடசாலை முறையானது வெண்கட்டியும் பேச்சும் (Chalk and Talk) என்பதில் பெருமளவில் தங்கியிருக்கிறது. இது குறைந்தபட்ச தொழில்நுட்பச்சூழலிருந்து தொழில்நுட்பச் செறிவான கல்விமுறைக்கு முன்னேறுதல் வேண்டும். தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப நிலையங்களும் சாதனங்களும் விஞ்ஞான ஆய்வு கூடங்கள் நூலகங்கள் செயற்பாட்டு அறைகள் உபகரணங்களுக்கும் கருவிகளுக்குமான கல்வி மூலதன இருப்பு கட்டடங்களாக அதிகரிக்கப்படுதல் வேண்டும். கற்பித்தல் முறைகள், கற்றல் அனுகுமுறைகள் மற்றும் பரீட்சைகளில் சாதனங்களுக்கும் தொழில்நுட்பத்திற்கும் முதன்மையான வகிபங்கு வழங்கப்படுதல் வேண்டும். உதாரணமாக விஞ்ஞானம் போதிக்கும் காலத்தில் அதிகமான பங்கினை ஆய்வுகூட வேலைகளுக்கு வழங்குவதுடன் ஆய்வுகூடத்தை அடிப்படையாகக் கொண்ட ஒப்படைகளைக் கணிப்பீட்டுப் பொறிமுறையின் ஒரு பகுதியாகவும் பயன்படுத்தலாம். அவ்வாறே கணிதம், பௌதீகம் போன்ற பாடங்களைக் கற்பிக்கும் முறைகளில் கல்விசார் மென்பொருட்களைப் பயன்படுத்துவதன் மூலம் பிள்ளைகளின் சுயகற்றலுக்கு உதவலாம். மொழி கற்பித்தலில் குறிப்பாக ஆங்கிலம் கற்பித்தலில் சொற்களஞ்சியம், உச்சரிப்பு, சரளமான வாய்மொழி ஆகியவற்றை விருத்திசெய்வதற்கு கேட்டல் சாதனங்களைப் பயன்படுத்தலாம். நூலகங்களையும் வாசிப்புச் சாதனங்களையும் அதிகளவில் பயன்படுத்துதல் கற்றல் விளைவுகளை உறுதி செய்யும் வினைத்திறன் மிக்க முறையாகவும் விளங்கும்.

பாடநூல்களின் தராதரத்தினை மேம்படுத்துதல்

43. பாடநூல்கள் கல்வி முறையில் முக்கியமான கற்றல் வளமாகும். மேலும் இலங்கை போன்ற ஒரு அபிவிருத்தி அடைந்துவரும் நாட்டிற்கு எதிர்காலத்தில் பல வருடங்களுக்கான முக்கியமான தராதர உள்ளிடுகை போன்றதுமாகும் அதனால் உயர்தரமான பாடநூல்களை உறுதிசெய்தல் மிக

முக்கியமானது. அண்மைக்காலங்களிலே பாடநூல்களின் தராதரத்தை அதிகரிப்பதற்கான முக்கியமான கொள்கைசார் முயற்சிகளை அரசாங்கம் நடைமுறைப்படுத்தியுள்ளதுடன் பாடசாலைகளுக்கு கிடைக்கவேண்டிய பாடநூல்களின் தெரிவையும் ஏகபோக உரிமையில் இருந்து விலக்கியதுடன் போட்டி அடிப்படையிலான தனியார் நிறுவனங்களிடம் பாடநூல் பிரசுரத்தினை ஒப்படைத்துள்ளது. தனியார் துறைப் பாடநூல் பிரசுரத்தின் எதிர்கால அபிவிருத்தியானது பின்வரும் முக்கியமான நடவடிக்கைகளை உள்ளடக்கும்.

- (அ) நாட்டிலுள்ள பாடநூல் எழுத்தாளர்கள், படங்கள் வரைவோர் மற்றும் பதிப்பாளர்களின் தொழில்நுட்ப ஆற்றலை உறுதிசெய்தல்.
- (ஆ) கையெழுத்துப் பிரதி மற்றும் வரைபுகளின் தரக்கட்டுப்பாடுகளை வலுப்படுத்தல். இவை விடயங்களின் உண்மைத் தன்மையைச் சரிபார்த்தல், பல்வேறு சமய மற்றும் இனக்குழுக்களை புண்படுத்தும் விடயங்களை விலக்குதலைக் கருதும்.
- (இ) ஒப்பந்தப் பணிகளை விரைவுபடுத்தலும் கல்வியாண்டு நிகழ்வதற்கு முன்னர் புத்தகங்களைக் காலநேரத்துடன் பகிர்ந்தளித்தலை உறுதிசெய்தலும்.
- (ஈ) துணை வாசிப்பு நூல்கள், செயல்நூல்கள் மற்றும் பாடநூல் வழிகாட்டிகள் ஆகியவற்றை எழுதுவோரிடையே தொழில்நுட்ப ஆற்றலை அபிவிருத்தி செய்தல்.

பிள்ளைகளின் சுகாதாரம் மற்றும் போசாக்கு நிலைமைகளை உறுதிப்படுத்தல்.

44. அறிகைசார் புள்ளிகளுக்கும் பாடசாலைக்கும், வீட்டிற்கும் சுகாதார மாறிகளுக்கும் இடையேயுள்ள தொடர்புகள் பற்றிய பகுப்பாய்வாளர்கள் சுகாதாரக் குறைவும் போஷாக்கு குறைவும் கொண்ட பிள்ளைகள் கற்றல் விளைவுகளுடன் எதிர்மறையான தொடர்புகளைக் கொண்டிருக்கின்றார்கள் என்பதை எடுத்துக்காட்டுகின்றார்கள். இதன் விளைவாக கல்வியின் தராதரத்தையும் கற்றல் மட்டத்தையும் மேம்படுத்தும் முயற்சிகள் வறிய பிள்ளைகளின் சுகாதாரத்தையும் போஷாக்கு நிலைமைகளையும் மேம்படுத்த எடுக்கப்படும் நடவடிக்கைகளிலும் நன்மை பெறமுடியும். ஒரு வினைத்திறன் மிக்கபாடசாலையின் சுகாதாரம் மற்றும் போஷாக்கு நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டத்தின் அடிப்படைச் சட்டமானது பின்வரும் முக்கியமான

கூறுகளைக் கொண்டிருத்தல் வேண்டும்.

- (அ) பாதுகாப்பானதும் உறுதியானதுமான பெளதீகச் சூழலை வழங்கும் சுகாதாரம் தொடர்பான பாடசாலைக் கொள்கை, சாதகமான மற்றும் உடன்பாடான உள்சூழலையும் மாணவர் துஷ்பிரயோகம், பாலியல் துன்புறுத்தல்கள் பாடசாலை வன்முறைகள் கொடுமைப் படுத்தல் போன்ற பிரச்சனைகளுக்கு முகம் கொடுத்தலையும் உருவாக்குதல்.
- (ஆ) சிறந்த நிர்மாணப்பணிகளும் பராமரிப்பு நடைமுறைகளும்: இதனால் பாதுகாப்பானதும் போதியளவிலானதுமான குடிநீர், சுத்தமான சுகாதார வசதிகளை உறுதிசெய்தல்.
- (இ) அறிவு, மனப்பாங்கு விழுமியங்கள் மற்றும் வாழ்க்கைத் திறன்கள் என்பனவற்றை விருத்திசெய்தல் சுகாதாரத்தை அடிப்படையாகக் கொண்ட திறன்களை வழங்கி மிகப்பொருத்தமானதும் சுகாதாரம் தொடர்பான சாதகமான தீர்மானங்களை மாணவர்கள் மேற்கொள்ளவும் அதன்படி ஒழுக்கவும் உதவுதல்.
- (ஈ) நுண்பாகப் போஷாக்கு குறைபாடுகள், புறத்தொற்று, பசி, பல்சார்ந்த குறைபாடுகள், குறும்பார்வை நோயாளர், கேட்டல் குறைபாடு போன்ற பிரச்சனைகளைத் தீர்க்கும் பாடசாலைமட்டச் சுகாதார மற்றும் போஷாக்கு சேவைகள்.

கல்வியின் மூலம் சமூக ஒட்டுறவை மேம்படுத்துதல்

45. மாணவர் மத்தியில் குடிசார் அறிவையும் புரிந்துணர்வையும் வளர்த்தல்: நாட்டில் 20 வருடகால நீண்ட யுத்தத்தின் விளைவாக ஜனநாயக ஆளுகை மற்றும் குடிசார் சுதந்திரம் என்பவற்றின் பல்வகைமையை மேம்படுத்தும் முக்கியமானதொரு நடவடிக்கையாகவும் சமூக ஒட்டுறவை கல்வியின் மூலம் மேம்படுத்துவதற்கும் உரிய மேலதிக நடவடிக்கையாக பல்வேறு குழுக்களின் கலாசாரத்தை மதிக்கும் பாடநூல்களை உருவாக்குதல் பல்வகைமையை மதிக்கும் கலைத்திட்டத்தையும் இணைக்கலைத்திட்டச் செயற்பாடுகளையும் பயன்படுத்தல், பல்வேறு இனக்குழுக்களைச் சேர்ந்த பிள்ளைகள் ஒன்று சேர்ந்து படிக்கும் பாடசாலைகளை அறிமுகம் செய்தல், ஆங்கிலத்தை இணைப்பு மொழியாக பயன்படுத்துவதனை ஊக்குவித்தலையும் மேம்படுத்துதல் வேண்டும் இத்தகைய

நடவடிக்கைகள் பயனுடையவையாக இருந்தாலும், அவற்றின் பாதிப்புக்கள் பல்வேறு சமூகக் குழுக்களின் ஒத்துழைப்பிலேயே தங்கியிருக்கும். குறிப்பாக பிணக்குகளால் பாதிக்கப்பட்ட பிரதேசங்களில் உள்ள முக்கிய குழுக்களின் ஒத்துழைப்பு இந்நடவடிக்கைகளை மேம்படுத்துவற்கு அவசியமாகும்.

பிணக்குகளால் பாதிக்கப்பட்ட பிரதேசங்களில் சிதைந்துபோன கல்வி நிறுவனங்களை புணர்நிர்மாணித்தல்

46. சேர்வு மற்றும் கற்றல் மட்டங்கள் என்பன பிணக்குகளால் பாதிக்கப்பட்ட பிரதேசங்களில் மிகக்குறைவாகும். இவை கல்வி நிறுவனங்கள் அழிந்தமையால் ஏற்பட்ட விஷேட சவால்களை உருவாக்கியுள்ளன. பிணக்குகளால் பாதிக்கப்பட்ட பிரதேசங்களில் உள்ள அரசாங்கக் கல்வி நிறுவனங்கள் குறிப்பாகப் பாடசாலைகள், பிணக்குக் காலங்களில் அழிவுக்குள்ளாயின. இப்பிரதேசங்களின் புணரமைப்பு, புணருத்தாரணம் மற்றும் அபிவிருத்தித் தேவைகள் பற்றிய மதிப்பீடுகள், இப்பிரதேசத்தின் மூலதன இருப்புக் கணக்கினை 140 ஐக்கிய அமெரிக்க டொலர்களாக மதிப்பிடப்பட்டுள்ளது. [பார்க்க UNICEF-WORLD BANK (2003)]. ஆயினும் பிணக்கினால் பாதிக்கப்பட்ட பிரதேசங்களின் கல்விப்புணர்நிர்மாண, புணரமைப்புப் பணிகளை நடைமுறைப்படுத்துதல் ஒரு பெருஞ்சவாலாக அமைந்துள்ளது. குறிப்பாகப் பொருட்களுக்கும் தேர்ச்சிபெற்ற தொழிலாளருக்கும் பெருந்தட்டுப்பாடுகள் நிலவுகின்றன. இப்பிரதேசங்களில் புணரமைப்புப் பணிகளுக்கான நிதி கிடைக்கிறது. பொருட்களின் விலைகளும் கூலிகளும் உயர்ந்துள்ளன. பிணக்குனால் பாதிக்கப்பட்ட பிரதேசங்களில் கல்விமுறையைப் பேணிப்பாதுகாக்கவும் நீண்டகால ஆற்றலை கணிசமானளவில் கட்டியெழுப்புவதற்கும் பல செயற்பாடுகளை வேண்டிநிற்கின்றன.

பல்கலைக்கழகக் கல்வியின் தராதரத்தினை மேம்படுத்துதல்

47. பல்கலைக்கழக முறைமையானது, பாடசாலைமுறைமை போல ஆலோசனைக் கொள்கை அபிவிருத்திச் செயல்முறைகளைச் செறிவான முறையில் அனுபவிக்கவில்லை. ஆயினும் பல்கலைக்கழக மானிய ஆணைக்குழுவும் தனிப்பட்ட பல்கலைக்கழகங்களும், தராதரத்தினை உறுதிப்படுத்தும் பல முயற்சிகளை அபிவிருத்தி செய்துள்ளன. இவை கலைத்திட்டச் சீர்திருத்தம், பரீட்சை முறைகள், குறிப்பாக கற்கை முறை

சார்ந்துள்ள பட்டப்படிப்பு நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களை ஒழுங்கமைத்தல், தொடர் மதிப்பீட்டு முறையை அறிமுகஞ்செய்தல், பல்கலைக்கழகங்களுக்கான ஒத்துழைப்புத் திட்டங்களை அபிவிருத்திசெய்தல், உத்தியோகத்தர்களுக்கான பெறுபேற்று மதிப்பீட்டினை அறிமுகப்படுத்தல், சுதந்திரமான சபையின்கீழ் சான்றிதழ் வழங்கும் செயல்முறைகளை உருவாக்குதல். பெறுபேற்று அடிப்படையில் நிதி வழங்கும் மூலகங்களை அறிமுகப்படுத்துதல் என்பனவற்றை உள்ளடக்கும். இந்த முயற்சிகள் பரீட்சிக்கப்பட வேண்டும்; நன்கு மதிப்பிடப்படவேண்டும்; விஷேடமாக, பழைய முயற்சிகளான கற்கை அலகு முறைமைகளையும் தொடர்மதிப்பீட்டுப் பொறிமுறைகளையும் அறிமுகப்படுத்தல் போன்றவை கொள்கை வகுப்போருக்கும் கல்விசார்ந்தோருக்கும் உதவியாக இருக்கும்.

### கல்வி முறைமையை வேலையுலகுக்குத் திசைமுகப்படுத்தல்

48. இலங்கையின் கல்விக் கொள்கைச் சட்டகமானது கல்வி முறைமையை வேலையுலகிற்குத் திசைமுகப்படுத்துவதன் முக்கியத்துவத்தினை வலியுறுத்துகின்றது [பார்க்க NEC (2003)] வேலை உலகுக்கான சிறந்த அத்திவாரமாக உயர் தரத்திலான பாடசாலை முறைமையானது பயிற்றப்படக்கூடிய தனிநபர்களை தொழிற்சந்தைக்கு வழங்குமென்றும் தொழில்நுட்ப, தொழின்மை மற்றும் பல்கலைக்கழக கல்விக்கான தொழிற்சந்தையை வழங்குமென்றும் கொள்கையாக்குவோர் அறிவர். பாடசாலை முறைமையானது அணியாகப் பணியில் ஈடுபடல், தீர்மானம் மேற்கொள்ளல், தொடக்கிவைத்தல், பிரச்சனை தீர்த்தல், பொறுப்பேற்றல், தலைமைத்துவம், தொடர்பாடல் போன்ற திறன்களையும் அறிவையும் உருவாக்குவதிலும் முக்கியமான வகிபங்கினை ஏற்கின்றன. இவை வேலையுலகிற்கு மிகவும் முக்கியத்துவம் வாய்ந்தவை. பாடசாலை முறைமைகூட அறிவு மற்றும் தொழிற் சந்தைக்குத் தேவையான குறிப்பான ஆற்றல்களுக்கான சட்டதிட்டத்தினையும் உள்ளடக்கும். இலங்கையின் வேலை உலகிற்கான கல்விமுறையின் திசைமுகப்படுத்தல்களை மேம்படுத்தும் திட்டங்கள், கலைத்திட்டத்தில் அதன் அபிவிருத்திக்காக முன்னுரிமை, கல்வியில் தொழிநுட்பப் பயன்பாடு, மொழித்திறன்களும் சரளமாக மொழியைப் பயன்படுத்துதலும், தொழில் வழிகாட்டலும் ஆலோசனையும் என்பனவற்றிற்கு முன்னுரிமையளித்தல் வேண்டும்.

செயற்பாட்டு அடிப்படைக் கலைத்திட்டத்தை அபிவிருத்தி செய்தலும் நடைமுறைப்படுத்தலும்

49. இடைநிலைக்கல்விக்கான இலங்கையின் கல்விக் கொள்கை ஆக்குவோரால் மேற்கொள்ளப்பட்ட செயற்பாட்டு அடிப்படைக் கலைத்திட்ட அணுகுமுறையானது பாடசாலைப்பிள்ளைகள் மத்தியில் சிறந்த வேலை ஒழுக்கத்தை அபிவிருத்தி செய்வதற்காக வடிவமைக்கப்பட்டுள்ளது [பார்க்க NEC (2003)]. இது கல்விமுறையை வேலை உலகிற்கு திசைமுகப்படுத்துவதில் முக்கிய பங்கினை வகிக்க முடியும். செயற்பாட்டு அடிப்படைக் கலைத்திட்ட அணுகுமுறையின் எதிர்கால அபிவிருத்தியும் நடைமுறைப்படுத்தலும் பின்வரும் முக்கிய முயற்சிகளில் தங்கியிருக்கிறது,

- (அ) செயற்பாட்டு அடிப்படைக் கற்பித்தலும் ஆசிரியரைப் பயிற்றுவித்தலும்
- (ஆ) பாடசாலையை அடிப்படையாகக் கொண்ட கலைத்திட்டத்திற்காக பாடசாலைகளை ஒழுங்குபடுத்துவதற்கு அதிபர்களைப் பயிற்றுவித்தல்
- (இ) செயற்பாட்டு அடிப்படைக் கற்றலுக்குப் போதியளவு வகுப்பறை இடவசதியையும் செயற்பாட்டு அறைகளையும் வழங்குதல்.
- (ஈ) செயற்பாட்டு அடிப்படைக்கற்பித்தல் மற்றும் கற்றலுக்கு உதவ பாடசாலைகளில் தேவையான சாதனங்கள் தொழில்நுட்பம் மற்றும் வாசிப்பு நூல்கள் கிடைக்கச் செய்தல்.

தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப படிப்பறிவின்மையும் திறனையும் அதிகரித்தல் மற்றும் தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப அடிப்படையிலான கற்பித்தலையும் கற்றலையும் அறிமுகப்படுத்தல்.

50. தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப படிப்பறிவும் திறன்களும் நவீன உலகிற்கு அடிப்படையானவை. அத்துடன் பாடசாலையைப் பூர்த்தி செய்வோருக்கும் பல்கலைக்கழகப் பட்டதாரிகளுக்குமான தேசிய மற்றும் உலகளாவிய தொழிற்சந்தை வாய்ப்புகள் பெருமளவில் அதிகரிக்கின்றன. கல்விக் கொள்கையாக்குவோர் தகவல் தொழில்நுட்பத்தின் முக்கியத்துவத்தினை நன்கு அறிந்திருப்பதுடன் கல்விமுறையிலே தகவல் தொழில்நுட்பத்தின் பயன்பாட்டினை விரிவுபடுத்தியும் ஆழப்படுத்தியும் வருகின்றனர். இது முக்கியமானதும் உயர் முன்னுரிமை வழங்கப்படவேண்டியதுமான கொள்கை நடவடிக்கை ஆகும். பாடசாலை

முறைமையில் தகவல் தொழில்நுட்பப் பயன்பாட்டினை அபிவிருத்தி செய்வதற்கான முக்கிய ஆரம்பிப்புக்களும் தகவல் தொழில்நுட்பத்தினை அடிப்படையாகக் கொண்ட கற்பித்தல் மற்றும் கற்றலை நடைமுறைப்படுத்துதலும் பின்வருவனவற்றை உள்ளடக்கும்

- (அ) தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப வசதிகள் மற்றும் கட்டங்கட்டமான இணைப்பு ஆகியவற்றை பாடசாலைகள் கொண்டிருத்தல்.
- (ஆ) தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப அடிப்படையிலான கல்விச் சாதனங்களுக்கு உரிய வாய்ப்புக்களை அதிகப்படுத்தும் தேசிய கல்வி வலைப்பின்னல் அமைப்பை உருவாக்குதல்.
- (இ) ஆசிரியர்களை தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப சாதனங்கள், கல்விசார் மென்பொருட்கள் மற்றும் On line கல்வி ஆகியவற்றிற்குப் பயிற்றுவித்தல்.
- (ஈ) பாடசாலை அதிபர்கள் மத்தியில் தகவல் தொழில்நுட்பத்தினை கல்வியில் பயன்படுத்தும் விழிப்புணர்வை உருவாக்குதல்.
- (உ) பாடசாலைகளின் தரஉள்ளீடுகளுக்கான ஒதுக்கீடுகளில் தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப சாதனங்களையும் தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப அடிப்படைக் கல்விசார் வளங்களையும் வழங்க ஏற்பாடு செய்தல்.

ஆங்கில மொழித்திறன்களை மேம்படுத்தல்

51. ஆங்கில மொழித்திறன்களும் அதன் சரளமும் தேசிய தொழிற்சந்தையில் வலுவான கேள்வியைக் கொண்டிருக்கின்றன. மேலும் ஆங்கில மொழித் தேர்ச்சியானது உலகளாவிய பொருளாதாரத்தில் தொழில் வாய்ப்புக்களைத் திறந்துவிடுகிறது. இதன் விளைவாக ஆங்கில மொழித்திறன்களை விருத்தி செய்தல் பாடசாலை முறைமையில் தொழிற்சந்தையின் திசைமுகப்படுத்தலை மேம்படுத்துவதற்குரிய கல்விசார் கொள்கைச் சட்டத்துக்கான பிரதான மூலகமாக விளங்குகிறது. எதிர்காலத்திற்கான முக்கியமான அபிவிருத்தி முயற்சிகள் பின்வருமாறு,

- (அ) போதனாமொழியாக ஆங்கிலத்தை மாணவர்கள் தெரிவுசெய்வதற்கு தனியார் பாடசாலைகளை அனுமதித்தல். இதனை சிங்கள மற்றும் தமிழ் மொழியோடு முதலாம் வகுப்பிலிருந்தே ஆரம்பித்தல்.
- (ஆ) ஆங்கிலத்தை போதனாமொழியாக

அரசாங்கப் பாடசாலைகளில் கட்டங்கட்டமாக போதியளவில் ஆசிரியர் கிடைப்பாராயின் அறிமுகஞ் செய்தல்.

- (இ) கல்விமுறைமையில் உள்ள ஆசிரியர்களுக்கும், மேலதிக ஆசிரியர்களுக்கும் மீள் பயிற்சி வழங்குதல் உட்பட ஆங்கிலத்தை ஒரு பாடமாக கற்பிக்க பயிற்சியளித்தல்.
- (ஈ) ஆங்கிலத்தைப் போதனா மொழியாகக் கொண்டு கற்பிப்பதற்கு ஆசிரியர்களைப் பயிற்றுவித்தல் “மேலதிக ஆசிரியர்களுக்கான” மீள் பயிற்சியும் இதில் அடங்கும்.
- (உ) ஆங்கிலமொழி கற்பித்தல், கற்றலுக்காக கட்டில் செவிப்புல சாதனங்களையும் கல்வி வளங்களையும் தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப அடிப்படைக் கல்விச் சாதனங்களையும் பரவலாகப் பயன்படுத்துதல்.

திறன் அபிவிருத்தியையும் பயிற்சியையும் வலுப்படுத்தல்

52. திறன் அபிவிருத்தியானது அரசாங்கம் வேலை வாய்ப்புக்களை ஊக்குவிப்பதற்கான பிரதான தொழிற்சந்தை உபாயங்களையும் பாடசாலையைவிட்டு விலகுவோரின் வேலைப்படை உற்பத்தித்திறனையும் கொண்டிருக்கிறது. கொள்கையாக்குவோரால் பல அபிவிருத்தி முயற்சிகளும் கொள்கைசார் நடவடிக்கைகளும் முன்வைக்கப்பட்டுள்ளன. அவை பின்வருமாறு,

- (அ) TEVT க்கான தலைமை அமைப்பான தொழில்நுட்ப மற்றும் தொழிற்கல்வி ஆணைக்குழுவினை (TVEC) வலுப்படுத்தல்.
- (ஆ) அரசாங்கம் ஒரு வழிகாட்டியாக, தராதரங்களை உருவாக்குவோராக, பயிற்சிகளை ஒழுங்கு படுத்துவோராகத் தொழிற்படுவதற்கு அதன் வகிபாகத்தினை விருத்தி செய்தல்.
- (இ) பயிற்சிகளில் தனியார் துறையின் பங்கேற்பினைப் பேணுதல்.
- (ஈ) திறன் அபிவிருத்தியில் அரசாங்கக் கைத்தொழில்களைப் பங்குதாரராக ஊக்குவித்தல்.
- (உ) அரச மற்றும் தனியார் பயிற்சி நிறுவனங்களின் தராதரத்தினை உறுதிப்படுத்துதலும் ஊக்குவித்தலும்.
- (ஊ) பொதுத்துறையில் TEVT முறைமையை நியாயப்படுத்தல்.

- (எ) TEVT முறைமையின் தொடர்புகளை பாடசாலை மற்றும் பல்கலைக்கழக முறைமையுடன் மேம்படுத்துதல். பாடசாலைகளிலும் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களிலும் தொழில் வழிகாட்டல் மற்றும் ஆலோசனையை உருவாக்குதல்.
- (ஏ) முறையில் துறைகளிலும் தொழிற்பயிற்சியை ஊக்குவித்தல்
- (ஐ) பொதுத்துறையை இலக்காகக் கொண்ட பயிற்சிகளுக்கு நிதிசார் ஊக்குவிப்புக்களை வழங்குதல்.

இவையாவும் நியாயமான மற்றும் உள்ளார்ந்த உற்பத்திசார் சிந்தனைகளாகும். இவை சர்வதேச சிந்தனைகளையும் நடவடிக்கைகளையும் பிரதிபலிக்கின்றன. இத்தகைய பல்வேறு கொள்கைசார் முயற்சிகளின் அபிவிருத்தியின் உண்மையான நிலை மிதமானது. இவை இன்னும் பல சிந்தனைகளுடன் கூடியவையாகப் பூர்வாங்க நிலையிலேயே உள்ளன இத்தகைய கொள்கைசார் சிந்தனைகளை அபிவிருத்தி உபாயங்களாக மாற்றுவதும் அவற்றை நடைமுறைப்படுத்துதலும் TEVT எதிர்கொள்ளும் இன்னொரு முக்கிய சவாலாகும்.

தொழில் வழிகாட்டலையும் ஆலோசனையும் விருத்தி செய்தல்

53. கல்வியை வேலை உலகுடன் இணைக்கும் முக்கியமான அரசாங்க பரிந்துரையாக வினைத்திறன்மிக்க தொழில் வழிகாட்டல் மற்றும் ஆலோசனை அபிவிருத்தியைக் குறிப்பிடலாம். பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள் தொழிலுக்கு வழிகாட்டல் மற்றும் ஆலோசனைச் செயற்பாடுகளைத் தொடங்கியுள்ளன. ஆயினும் பாடசாலை முறைமையில் தொழில் வழிகாட்டல் மற்றும் ஆலோசனை ஒழுங்காக இடம்பெறவில்லை. பாடசாலைகளில் தொழில் வழிகாட்டலும் ஆலோசனை அபிவிருத்தியும் எதிர்கால நடைமுறைப்படுத்தலுக்கான ஒரு முக்கியமான முயற்சி ஆகும். இந்த முயற்சியை ஊக்குவிக்கும் பிரதான செயற்பாடுகள் பின்வருவனவற்றை உள்ளடக்கும்.

- (அ) பாடசாலையின் முக்கிய பதவியணியினரை தொழில் வழிகாட்டல் மற்றும் ஆலோசனைக்கு பயிற்றுவித்தல்.
- (ஆ) பின்தங்கிய பிரதேசங்களில் உள்ள பாடசாலைகளில் வழிகாட்டல் மற்றும்

ஆலோசனை அபிவிருத்திக்கு முன்னுரிமை கொடுத்தல். ஏனெனில் இத்தகைய பிரதேசங்களில் உள்ள மாணவர்கள் தொழிற்சந்தை தொடர்பான தகவல்களைப் பெறக்கூடிய வாய்ப்பு குறைவாகவுள்ளது.

- (இ) தொழிற்பயிற்சி மற்றும் தொழில்நுட்பக்கல்வி நிறுவனங்களுக்கும் பாடசாலைகளில் உள்ள வழிகாட்டல் ஆலோசகருக்கும் இடையே தகவல் வலைப்பின்னல் அமைப்பினை அபிவிருத்தி செய்தல்.

### கல்வி வள ஒதுக்கீடும் பகிர்நதளிப்பும்

54. அரசாங்கமானது அடிப்படைக்கல்வி வட்டத்தை எல்லோரும் பூர்த்திசெய்தலை உறுதிசெய்தல், (தரம் 1 - 9), கல்வியின் தராதரத்தினை உறுதிசெய்தல், கல்விமுறைமையை வேலையுலகிற்குக் திசைமுகப்படுத்தல், பொதுச்செலவுகளில் நியாயத்தன்மையை மேம்படுத்தல், சேவை விநியோகத்தினை முறைமைக்குள் வலுப்படுத்தல், கல்வி மற்றும் பயிற்சி முறைமையின் பொருளாதார, சமூகப்பொருத்தப்பாட்டினை விருத்திசெய்தல் போன்ற பல முக்கிய சவால்களை எதிர்கொள்ளவேண்டியுள்ளது. கல்வியில் பொது முதலீடானது அபிவிருத்தியடைந்துவரும் நாடுகள்போல மிதமாகவும் உண்மை வருமானத்தில் அரசாங்க கல்விச் செலவுகள் வீழ்ச்சியடைந்து செல்லல் மற்றும் பாரியதொரு பணப்பற்றாக்குறையுடனான அரசு செலவினங்களும் இருந்த வேளையில் இத்தகைய சவால்கள் தோன்றியுள்ளன. இவை மாற்றமுறாத பாதீட்டுக் கொள்கையை வலிந்து நிறைவேற்றுகின்றது. இச்சந்தர்ப்பத்தில் கல்விமுறையானது வரையறுக்கப்பட்ட பொது வளங்களை நியாயமாகவும் வினைத்திறனுடனும் பயன்படுத்துதல் இன்றியமையாதது.

நியம அடிப்படையிலான எதிர்கால அபிவிருத்தி, அலகுச் செலவு வள ஒதுக்கீட்டுப் பொறிமுறை என்பனவற்றினுடாக நியாயத்தன்மையும் தராதரத்தையும் மேம்படுத்தல்.

55. அரசாங்கம் கடந்த 4 - 5 ஆண்டுகளாகப் பொது வளங்களை ஒதுக்கீடு செய்வதற்குப் பயன்படுத்திய நியம அடிப்படை மற்றும் ஒதுக்கீட்டுப் பொறிமுறையானது கல்வி முறைமையில் வளஒதுக்கீட்டில் நியாயத்தன்மையும் பகிர்நதளிப்பையும் கணிசமானளவில் அதிகரிக்கச் செய்தது. இந்தச் சமன்பாட்டின் அடிப்படையில் முதலாம் கட்ட நடைமுறைப்படுத்தல்கள் சகல பாடசாலைகளையும் ஒரேவிதமாகக் கருதின.

பொருளாதாரச் சிக்கன அளவுத்திட்டத்திற்கு இடமளிக்கும் வகையில் பாடசாலையின் பருமனைப் பொறுத்துச் சில சீராக்கங்களையும் மேற்கொள்ளுதல், மிகப் பின்தங்கியபாடசாலைகளின் வறுமை மட்டங்கள், கற்பிக்கப்படும் பாடங்களிலுள்ள வேறுபாடுகள் மற்றும் அவை கொண்டிருக்கும் தராதர வட்டங்கள் என்பனவும் கவனத்தில் கொள்ளப்பட்டன. தற்பொழுது நாடு இரண்டாவது கட்டமான நியம அடிப்படை அலகுச் செலவு வள ஒதுக்கீட்டுப் பொறிமுறைக்கு நகர்கின்றது. இவை பின்வருவனவற்றை உள்ளடக்கும்.

- (அ) கல்வித் தேவைகளின் மாகாண மற்றும் சமூக பொருளாதார அபிவிருத்தியையும் உள்ளடக்கும் நிதிப்படுத்தலில் வேறுபாடுகளுக்கு இடமளித்தல்.
- (ஆ) தெரிவுசெய்யப்பட்ட பாடசாலைகளில் கலைத்திட்டத்தை மேலும் பயன்படுத்துவதற்குரிய வளஒதுக்கீட்டு முறைகளைத் தெளிவாக்குதல்.
- (இ) மத்திய மற்றும் மாகாணக் கல்வி, தொழில்நுட்பம், நிறுவன ஆற்றலையும் நிதி அதிகார சபைகளையும் மிகவும் முன்னேற்றகரமான மாதிரிகளான நியம அடிப்படை, அலகுச் செலவு வளஒதுக்கீட்டுப் பொறிமுறையின்படி வள ஒதுக்கீட்டு மற்றும் பகிர்நதளிப்பை வலுப்படுத்தல்.

கல்விவட்டங்கள் முழுவதிலுமுள்ள பொதுக்கல்விச் செலவுகளின் விளைதிறனையும் நியாயத்தன்மையையும் உறுதிப்படுத்துதல்

56. கல்வியின் சமூக நன்மைகள் கட்டாய அடிப்படைக் கல்வியிலும் சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலைக் கல்வி வட்டத்திலும் மிக அதிகமாக உள்ளன. கல்வி முதலீட்டுக்கான சிறந்த விளைவுகள் அடிப்படைக்கல்வியிலும் சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலைக் கல்விநிலைகளிலும் உள்ளன என்பதனை எடுத்துக் காட்டுகிறது. பிரதான தரச் சுற்றுக்களில் மாணவர் சேர்வின் கோலங்களும் தரமட்டத்திலான கல்வியின் அலகுச் செலவுகளும் அடிப்படை மற்றும் சிரேஷ்ட இடைநிலைக் கல்வியிலான முதலீடுகளும் சார்பளவில் முன்னேற்றகரமாகவுள்ளன என்பதுடன் இதன்மூலம் குறைந்த, இடைத்தர வருமானங்களைக் கொண்ட குடும்பங்களிலிருந்து வரும் மாணவர்கள் குறிப்பிடத்தக்களவில் நன்மையடையும் போது மூன்றாம்நிலைக் கல்வியிலான முதலீடுகள் உயர் வருமானக் குடும்பங்களிலிருந்து வரும் பிள்ளைகளுக்கு நன்மைதருவனவாக உள்ளன. அதேவேளையில்

பொதுப் பல்கலைக்கழக முறைமையின் விரிவாக்கம் கவனமாகக் கட்டுப்படுத்தப்படுவதுடன் தனியார்துறையிலுள்ள மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்வியில் சேர்வுவீதத்தினை விரிவுபடுத்துகின்றது. வறிய மாணவர்களின் மூன்றாம் நிலைக்கல்விக்கான வாய்ப்புக்களை மாணவர் உறுதிப்பத்திரங்கள், மாணவர் கடன்கள் என்பனவற்றின் மூலம் விரிவுபடுத்தலாம்.

கல்வித்தராதரத்தை உறுதிப்படுத்தும் வள ஒதுக்கீட்டில் பாதிடுகளுக்குள் காணப்படும் பெயர்வுகள்

57. கல்வித்தராதரத்தை மேம்படுத்தும் அபிவிருத்திசார் முயற்சிகளையும் கல்விமுறையை வேலையுலகிற்கு திசைமுகப்படுத்தும் கலைத்திட்டச் சாதனம், மற்றும் தொழில்நுட்பச் செறிவையும் அதிகரித்தல், தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப படிப்பறிவு, தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப அடிப்படையிலான கல்வி, ஆங்கில மொழி விரிவாக்கம், சரளமாகப் பேசுதல், திறன்கள் போன்றவை மூலதன இருப்பில் அதிகளவிலான முதலீடுகளை எதிர்பார்க்கின்றன. இருந்தாலும் காலப்போக்கில் கல்விப் பாதிட்டில் உள்ள முதலீட்டு மற்றும் மீண்டெழும் செலவுகளின் மீதி மூலதனச் செலவினங்களில் பெரும்பங்கினை எதிர்பார்க்கின்றது. தகவல் தொழில்நுட்ப மத்திய நிலையங்கள் விஞ்ஞான ஆய்வுகூடங்கள், நூல் நிலையங்கள், செயற்பாட்டு அறைகள், பலநோக்கு அறைகள், நூல்கள், சஞ்சிகைகள், கணினிகள், கல்விசார் மென்பொருட்கள் என்பன மூலதனப்பாதிட்டில் கூடுதலான பங்கினை உட்கொள்கின்றன. இவை நியாயமான முறையில் இடம்பெறுதல் வேண்டும் என்பதுடன் நகரப் பாடசாலை முறைமைக்கு முன்னுரிமை கொடுத்தலும் வேண்டும் இதனால் அவை அதிகரித்துவரும் தேவையை அனுபவிக்கின்றன. மீண்டெழும் பாதிட்டில் உள்ள சம்பளம், நிருவாகச் செலவுகளில் இருந்து தராதரச் செயற்பாடுகளுக்கு மீள் ஒதுக்கீடு செய்யப்படுதல் வேண்டும். இவை ஆசிரியர் கல்வியும், முகாமைத்துவம், பாடசாலை அதிபர்களின் கல்விசார் பயிற்சி, கற்பித்தல் சாதனங்களையும் கற்றல் வளங்களையும் கொள்வனவு செய்தல், உயர் மூலதன முதலீட்டின் நடைமுறைச் செலவுகளை நிறைவேற்றுதல் என்பவற்றையும் குறிக்கும்.

கல்வில் தனியார்துறை முதலீட்டினையும் பங்கேற்பினையும் அதிகரித்தல்

58. நாடானது உயர் மட்டத்திலான கல்வித்தரத்தை நோக்கி முன்னேறுவதனால் கல்விமுறைமைக்காக அரசாங்கப் பாதிட்டிற்கு

வருமானத்தின் மாற்று வளங்களை அதிகரிப்பதன் மூலம் மிகைநிரப்பி ஒன்று தேவைப்படுகிறது. இது மிக முக்கியமானது அவசரமானதுமான சாதகமற்ற பேரினப் பொருளாதாரச் சூழலில் காணப்படும் பாரிய மற்றும் உறுதியான பாதீட்டுப் பற்றாக்குறையாகும். தனியார் பாடசாலைகளை உருவாக்கும். தடைச்சட்டங்களை தளர்த்தலுடன், கல்வியில் தனியார் துறையின் பங்கேற்பிற்குள்ள எதிர்மறை அரசியல் பொருளாதாரச் சூழலுக்கு எதிராக உபாயத்துடன் கூடிய முயற்சிகளை அறிமுகப்படுத்தல் பல நன்மைகளை உருவாக்கும்.

- (அ) கல்வித்துறையில் முதலீடு செய்யப்பட்ட பெருந்தொகையான வளங்களை இது அதிகரிக்கும்
- (ஆ) மாணவர்கள் தனியார் பாடசாலைகளுக்குச் செல்வதன் காரணமாகவும் உயர் வருமானமுள்ள குடும்பங்களிலிருந்து ஈர்ப்பதன் காரணமாகவும் பொதுவளங்களை ஒரு மாணவருக்குரிய அடிப்படையில் வறிய குடும்பங்களிலிருந்து வரும் மாணவனுக்குக் கூடுதலாக வழங்கும்.
- (இ) முதலீடுகள் செயற்கையாகக் கட்டுப்படுத்தப்படுவதுடன் உயர் வளர்ச்சிக்குப் பங்களிப்புச் செய்யும் ஒரு துறையில் பொருளாதாரச் செயற்பாட்டினைத் தூண்டும்.
- (ஈ) தனியார் கல்வி நிறுவனங்களான தனியார் பாடசாலைகளும் நிறுவனங்களும் கணிசமான அதிகாரங்களும் பொறுப்புக்களும் கொண்ட சேவை விநியோகத்திற்குரிய மாற்று மாதிரிகளை இது வழங்கும். இத்தகைய தனியார் கல்வி நிறுவனங்கள் ஒரு பொருளாதார நிலைமையில் சுதந்தரமான பொதுக்கல்வி நிறுவனங்களுடன் போட்டியிட்டிக்கொண்டு உயர்தரமான சேவைகளைத் தொடர்ந்தும் வழங்க கட்டாயப் படுத்தப்படுதல் வேண்டும்.

59. தனியார் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களை உருவாக்குதல் தொடர்ந்தும் நிலவிவருகின்ற ஒரு பிரச்சினையாகும். கடந்தகால முயற்சிகள் பல மாணவர் கிளர்ச்சிகளையும் சமூக அமைதியின்ங்களையும் தோற்றுவித்துள்ளன. இருந்தாலும் இடைக்காலத்திற்கூட இலங்கையில் தனியார் பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள் உருவாக்கப்படுதல் இயலாததொன்றாகும். அரசாங்கமானது சர்ச்சரவுகள் அற்ற பிரதேசங்களில் பங்குபற்றுவதற்குத் தனியார் துறையை

ஊக்குவிப்பதன் மூலம் தனியார் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களுக்கான தனது எதிர்ப்பை வெளிப்படுத்தியுள்ளது. இவை தனியார் பட்டங்களை வழங்கும் நிறுவனங்களாக உருவானவை, வழக்கமாக வெளிநாட்டுப் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களுடன் தொடர்புடையனவானவும் உயர்தொழில்சார் கற்கைநெறிகள் மற்றும் தொழில்நுட்பத்துறைகள் போன்ற முன்றாம் நிலை நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களில் முதலீடு செய்வனவாகவும் உள்ளன. அரசாங்கமானது, முன்றாம்நிலைப் பல்கலைக்கழகம்சாராக கல்வியில் தனியார் பங்கேற்பினை விரிவாக்கம் செய்வதற்கான, குறிப்பாக நாட்டின் உள்ளேயும் வெளியேயும் உழைப்பிற்கான கேள்வியுள்ள உயர்தொழில்நுட்பத் துறைகளில் தேடியறிய வேண்டியுள்ளமை பலமாகவுள்ளது.

பொதுப் பல்கலைக்கழகக் கல்வியில் செலவுப் பகிர்வினை ஊக்குவித்தல்

60. அரசு பல்கலைக்கழக பட்டப்படிப்புக் கல்வியின் பயன்கள் உயர் தனியார் விளைவுகளையும், அபரிமித சமூக விளைவுகளையும், விகித சமனற்ற முறையில் செல்வந்தக் குடும்பங்களுக்கு நன்மையையும் தருவதாகப் பகுப்பாய்வு தெளிவாக எடுத்துக்காட்டுகின்றது. பல்கலைக்கழக வருமானத்தின் பங்கும் அதிகரித்து வருதல் வலுவான விடயமாக உள்ளது. இவை தனிப்பட்ட குடும்பங்களிலிருந்து பெறப்படுகின்றன. இலங்கையின் அரசியற் பொருளாதார நிலைமைகளைக் கவனத்தில் எடுத்தலும் இங்கு முக்கியமானது. அலகுக் கட்டமைப்பு, பொதுப் பல்கலைக்கழகக் கல்வி பல தசாப்தங்களாக நியமமாக இருந்தன, நாடுகளின் சர்வதேச அனுபவங்கள் இலவச பொதுப்பல்கலைக்கழக முறையில் செலவுப் பகிர்வினை அறிமுகஞ்செய்தலை, குறிப்பாக மாணவர் குழுக்களிடையே இவை பல எதிர்ப்பை தோற்றுவித்தமையையும் அவதானிக்கலாம். இருந்தாலும் இலங்கையானது செலவுப் பகிர்வினை எதிர்காலத்தில் எந்நேரத்திலும் அறிமுகஞ் செய்யும் நிலையில் இல்லை. ஆயினும் நீண்டகாலமாக, குறிப்பாகப் பொருளாதாரம் வளர்வதாலும் குடும்பங்களின் செல்வம் அதிகரிப்பதாலும் செலவுப் பகிர்வானது, ஒரு ஆயுட்காப்புத் தெரிவாக வரவேண்டிய தேவையுள்ளது. இச்சந்தர்ப்பத்தில், மாறுநிலைப்

பொருளாதாரத்தில் கணிசமான ஆர்வத்தைக் காட்டியுள்ள துறையாக, வருமான நிலைக்கேற்ற மாணவர் கடன்களைக் குறிப்பிடலாம். அரசாங்கமும் இந்தவகையான சில மாணவர் கடன்களின் முன்னோடிப் பரீட்சிப்புக்களைக் கவனத்தில் கொள்ளமுடியும். இவை முதற்தரத்திலேயே தனியார் மூன்றாம்நிலை நிறுவனங்களில் பயன்படுத்தப் படுதல் வேண்டும். அதேவேளையில், பொதுப் பல்கலைக்கழகக் கல்வியில் சாத்தியமாக்கூடிய செலவுப்பகிர்வு பட்டப்படிப்பு மட்டங்களிலும் நிகழலாம். பல்கலைக்கழகங்களிலுள்ள பெரும்பாலான பட்டப்படிப்பு மாணவர்கள் வேலைகளிலும் பகுதிநேர கட்டணம் அறவிடும் கற்கைநெறிகளிலும் ஈடுபட்டுள்ளனர். பல்கலைக்கழக வருமானத்தை மேலும் விரிவுபடுத்தக்கூடிய கணிசமான ஆற்றல்வாய்ந்த துறையாகவும் இது விளங்குவதுடன் இதன்மூலம் நாட்டில் நன்குகற்ற மனிதவளங்களின் நிரம்பலையும் மேம்படுத்தலாம்.

### கல்விச்சேவை தராதரத்தையும் மேம்படுத்தல்

### விநியோகத்தின் விளைத்திறனையும்

61. வறிய மற்றும் மிகப்பின்தங்கிய பொருளாதாரக் குழுக்களின் கல்வி வாய்ப்புக்களை விரிவுபடுத்துவதற்கான அபிவிருத்தி முயற்சிகளும் உபாயங்களும் கல்வித்தர மேம்பாடும் கற்றல் விளைவுகளும், வேலையுலகிற்குக் கல்வியை திசைமுகப் படுத்தலும் என்பன கல்விமுறையில் சேவை விநியோகத்தின் விளைத்திறனையும் தராதரத்தையும் வலுப்படுத்தலை வேண்டிநிற்கின்றன. சேவைவிநியோகத்தினை மேம்படுத்தும் அரசாங்க உபாயம் பல நம்பிக்கையூட்டும் மூலகங்களைக் கொண்டிருக்கின்றன.

பாடசாலை மற்றும் பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள் போன்ற முதல்நிலைச் சேவைவிநியோக நிறுவனங்களை வலுவூட்டல்.

62. கவனத்திற்குள்ளான முக்கிய அரசாங்கக் கொள்கை முயற்சிகள் முதல்நிலைச் சேவை விநியோக நிறுவனங்களான பாடசாலைகளிலும் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களினதும் முகாமைத்துவ சக்தியைப் பரவலாக்கம் செய்வதாகும். பாடசாலை முறைமையில் முகாமைத்துவ அதிகாரத்தை விருத்திசெய்வதன் இலக்காக அதிபர்கள், தலைமையாசிரியர்கள், தலைமையாசிரியைகள்,

ஆசிரியைகளின் வலுவூட்டலானது வளஅசைவினையும் பொது வகைசொல்லலையும் மேம்படுத்துவதற்கு உள்ளூர்ச் சமுதாயங்களுடன் பாடசாலைகள் தொடர்புகளைப் பேணுவதை உறுதிசெய்தல்; குறைந்து செல்லும் நிருவாக அடுக்குகளில், தீர்மானம் மேற்கொள்ளும் உணர்வினையும் அதன் வேகத்தையும் மேம்படுத்துதல் என்பன அமைந்துள்ளன. பாடசாலைகளுக்கான அபிவிருத்தியடையும் முகாமைத்துவத் தன்னாதிக்கம் பல்வேறு பாடசாலைகளின் அபிவிருத்திச் சபைகளின் மாதிரிகளை முன்னோடியாக கொண்டு பரீட்சிக்கப்பட வேண்டிய பாடசாலைகளின் ஆளுகை ஆற்றலானது இடவமைவு பருமன் மற்றும் வரலாற்றைப் பொறுத்து குறிப்பிடத்தக்களவில் வேறுபடுவதைக் காணலாம். உதாரணமாக, நகரங்களிலும் பெருநகரங்களிலும் உள்ள பொதுப் பாடசாலைகள், சிறிய பாடசாலைகளிலும் பார்க்கப் பெருமளவிலான பாரிய முகாமைத்துவ ஆற்றல்களையும் வசதியான சமுதாய விளைவுகளையும் கூடுதலாகக் கொண்டிருக்க வாய்ப்புண்டு.

63. பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள் கணிசமானளவு தன்னாதிக்கத்தை ஏலவே அனுபவிக்கின்றன. ஆனால் நிருவாக உத்தியோகத்தர்களை ஆட்சேர்ப்பதற்கான மேலதிக அதிகாரசபையும் தனிப்பட்ட உத்தியோகத்தருக்கான சம்பளத்தை கல்விசார் உத்தியோகத்தர் சம்பளத்துடன் இணைத்தல், மற்றும் மாணவர் அனுமதி என்பன பல்கலைக்கழக உத்தியோகத்தர்கள் மற்றும் அதிகாரிகளின் ஊக்கலையும் பொறுப்பையும் வகைசொல்லலையும் அதிகரிக்கும் எனலாம். இத்தகைய நடவடிக்கைகள் அரசியல் பொருளாதார நோக்கில் முரன்பாட்டுக்குரியவையாக இருக்கலாம். எடுத்துக்காட்டாக, கல்விசார் உத்தியோகத்தரின் சம்பளங்களைத் தனிப்பட்ட உத்தியோகத்தர்களின் சம்பளத்துடன் இணைக்கும் சுதந்திரத்தைப் பல்கலைக்கழகங்களுக்கு வழங்குதலானது, கல்விசார்ந்தவர்கள் ஒருமைப்பாடுடைய சம்பள அளவுத்திட்டத்திற்கு பழக்கப்பட்டிருக்கும் சந்தர்ப்பத்தில் பெரிதும் முரன்பாடானதாக இருக்கலாம். அதுபோலவே, மாணவர் அனுமதியைத் தனிப்பட்ட பல்கலைக்கழகங்களுக்கு பரவலாக்கும் பொறுப்பினை பின்தங்கிய மாவட்டங்களின் மாணவர் பங்கீட்டிற்கு அமைய ஒதுக்கீடு செய்யும் கொள்கைகளுடன் உடன்பாடுடையதாக ஆக்குதல் வேண்டும்.

64. அரசாங்கமானது ஆளுகையைப் பரவலாக்கும் கோட்பாட்டினை ஏனைய கல்வி நிறுவனங்களான தேசிய கல்வியற் கல்லூரிகள் ஆசிரியர் மத்திய நிலையங்கள் (TCs) என்பனவற்றிற்கும் பிரயோகிப்பதிலும் கவனம் செலுத்தலாம். தற்பொழுது தேசிய கல்விக் கல்லூரிகள் சிறிதளவு முகாமைத்துவ பொறுப்பையும் தன்னாதிக்கத்தையும் கொண்டுள்ளன. தேசிய கல்விக் கல்லூரிகளால் வழங்கப்படும் ஆசிரியர் கல்விக் கற்கைநெறிகளை மதிப்பிடுதல் மற்றும் சான்றிதழ் வழங்குதல் என்பன தேசியகல்வி நிறுவனத்தால் பொறுப்பேற்கப்பட்டுள்ளன. மத்தியமயப்படுத்தப்பட்ட ஆசிரியர் கல்வியாளர் சேவைக்கும் அவர்களுக்கென ஒதுக்கப்பட்ட கல்விசார் உத்தியோகத்தரின் தெரிவில் உரிமை கொண்டுள்ளது. ஆசிரியர் மத்திய நிலையங்களின் நிருவாக அமைப்பு வினைத்திறன் கொண்டதல்ல. ஆசிரியர் மத்திய நிலையங்களால் வழங்கப்படும் தொடருறு ஆசிரியர்கல்வி நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டங்களுக்கான கலைத்திட்டங்களை தேசிய கல்வி நிறுவகம் வடிவமைக்கின்றது. தேசிய கல்விக் கல்லூரிகள் ஆசிரியர் மத்திய நிலையங்களுக்கான கல்விசார் ஆலோசகராகச் செயற்படுகின்றன. நிருவாக நோக்கில் நிதியுட்பட ஆசிரியர் மையங்கள் வலயக்கல்வி அலுவலகர்களின்கீழ் வருகின்றன. இத்தகைய சிக்கலான கல்வி மற்றும் நிருவாக அமைப்பு ஆசிரியர் மத்திய நிலையங்களின் அபிவிருத்தியை நன்கு பாதித்துள்ளன. தேசிய கல்விக் கல்லூரிகளுக்கும் ஆசிரியர் மத்திய நிலையங்களுக்கும் பெருமளவிலான முகாமைத்துவ தன்னாதிக்கத்தையும் தொழிற்படுத்தையும் பரவலாக்கம் செய்வது நிறுவனங்களின் நடைமுறைசார் வினைத்திறனை அதிகரிப்பதுடன் சேவை விநியோகத்தின் தராதரத்தினையும் உறுதிப்படுத்தும்.

பெறுபேறுகளை மதிப்பிடும் முறைகளை அபிவிருத்தி செய்தலும் பெறுபேறுகளுக்காக நிதிசார் ஊக்குவிப்புக்களை அறிமுகஞ் செய்தலும்

65. பெறுபேறுகளை மதிப்பிடும் முறைமையை வலுப்படுத்தலானது, உயர்தரமான சேவை விநியோகத்திற்கு நன்கு பங்களிப்புச் செய்யமுடியும். பல்கலைக்கழக முறைமையில் பேறுபேற்று மதிப்பீடுகள் குறிப்பாக கல்விசார் உத்தியோகத்தர்களுக்கும் இடம்பெற்றுள்ளன. ஆயினும் பாடசாலை முறைமையில் பேறுபேற்று மதிப்பீட்டு முறைமையை அறிமுகப்படுத்தும் நடவடிக்கைகள் முரண்பாடுடையவையாக இருந்ததுடன் அவை விருத்திசெய்யப்படவுமில்லை.

பின்வரும் மூன்று முக்கியமான முயற்சிகள் பெறுபேற்று மதிப்பீட்டினை வினைத்திறன் மிக்கவையாகப் பாடசாலை முறைமையில் அறிமுகஞ் செய்வதற்கு அரசாங்கத்திற்கு உதவலாம்.

(அ) பயன்பெறுவோர் முக்கியமாக கல்விசார் தொழிற்சங்கங்களுக்கு பெறுபேற்று மதிப்பீட்டு முறைமையின் பெறுமானத்தை, சேவைவிநியோகத்தினைப் பலப்படுத்தும் பின்னூட்டலாக வழங்குவதுடன், குறைந்த பெறுபேறுகளுக்கு தண்டனை வழங்கும் நடவடிக்கையாகயாகவன்றி நல்ல பேறுபேறுகளுக்கு வெகுமதி வழங்குவதற்குமென அறிமுகஞ் செய்தல்.

(ஆ) ஆசிரியர் சேவை, கல்வி நிருவாகிகள் சேவை, அதிபர்கள் சேவை மற்றும் ஆசிரியர் கல்வியாளர் சேவை போன்ற பல்தரப்பட்ட கல்விச் சேவைகளுக்கான பெறுபேற்று மதிப்பீட்டு முறைமைகளை தொடர்புடைய தொழிற்சங்கங்கள் உட்பட பயன்பெறுவோரின் நெருக்கமான ஆலோசனைகளுடன் வடிமைத்தல்.

(இ) பெறுபேற்று மதிப்பீட்டு முறைமையைப் முகாமை செய்யவும் பயன்படுத்தவும் கல்வி நிறுவனங்களினதும் கல்வி நிருவாகிகளினதும் தொழில்நுட்ப ஆற்றலை உறுதிசெய்தல்.

66. பெறுபேறுகளுக்கான நிதிசார் ஊக்குவிப்புக்களை குறிப்பாக முக்கியமான சேவைகளில் அறிமுகப்படுத்துதலானது, முக்கியமான முயற்சியாகவும் இருக்கும். உதாரணமாக கஷ்டப்பிரதேசங்களில் காணப்படும் குறைபாடுடைய ஆசிரியர் அமர்த்துகையும் கூடுதலாக ஆசிரியர் வரவின்மையும் கல்விமுறையில் வினைத்திறன்மிக்க சேவைவிநியோகத்திற்கான பிரதான தடையாகும். மேலும் மலினமான ஆசிரியர் அமர்த்துகை விகிதசமனற்ற முறையில் வறிய மாணவர்களுடைய பாதிக்கின்றது. அவை பிரபல்யமற்ற பிரதேசங்கள் என்ற காரணத்தால் அங்கு ஆசிரியர் வரவின்மை கூடுதலாக இருக்கின்றது. இவை உள்ளூர்ப் பிரதேசங்களையும் பொருளாதார ரீதியாகப் பின்தங்கிய கிராமங்களைச் சார்ந்தவையுமாகும். ஆசிரியர் அமர்த்துகையையும் வரவின்மையையும் கட்டுப்படுத்த அரசாங்கமானது தேசிய கல்வி ஆணைக்குழுவின் (2003) ஆலோசனையான, கஷ்டப்பிரதேசங்களிலுள்ள பாடசாலை ஆசிரியர் வரவின்மையைக் குறைப்பதற்கு அவர்களது

பயன்படுத்தப்படாத லீவுகளைப் பயன்படுத்த இடமளிக்க வேண்டும். பெறுபேற்றிற்கான பணரீதியான ஊக்குவிப்பினை அறிமுகப் படுத்துவதற்கு, இறுக்கமான பாதிட்டு நிலைமைகள் பிரதான தடையாகவுள்ளன. இவை புதிய கொள்கைசார் நடவடிக்கைகளை நடைமுறைக்கு ஒவ்வாதவையாக்குகின்றன. ஆயினும் கல்விமுறையில் செலவுச் சேமிப்புக்கள் தோற்றுவிக்கப்படுமானால், அதன் மூலம் பெறப்படும் சில வளங்களை அத்தகைய பெறுபேற்று ஊக்குவிப்பு நடவடிக்கைகளை அறிமுகஞ்செய்வதற்கு ஒதுக்கலாம்.

கல்விமுறையில் வகிபங்கினையும் வகைசொல்லலையும் ஒழுங்கமைத்தல்

67. கல்விச்சேவை விநியோகத்தை மேம்படுத்துவதற்கெனப் பரிந்துரைக்கப்பட்ட நடவடிக்கைகளைப் பல மத்திய அமைச்சு, மாகாணசபைகள் மற்றும் வலய அலுவலகங்களிலுள்ள அரசாங்க உத்தியோகத்தரைப் பொறுத்தவரையில் அவர்களுடைய தற்போதைய அதிகாரங்கள் இவற்றைப் பாடசாலைகள், தேசிய கல்விக் கல்லூரிகள் மற்றும் ஆசிரியர் மத்திய நிலையங்கள் போன்ற முதல்நிலைச் சேவை நிறுவனங்களுக்குப் பரவலாக்கும்பொழுது புதியதும் மேலதிகமுமான வகிபங்கினையும் பொறுப்புக்களையும் வேண்டிநிற்கின்றன. உள்ளூர் நிறுவனங்களது இத்தகைய பரவலாக்கல் செயல்முறையின்போதும் வலுவூட்டும்போதும் தற்போதுள்ள பொறுப்புக்களும் வகைசொல்லும் கோலங்கள் மற்றும் எதிர்கால மாதிரிகளும் மிகக்கவனமாகப் பகுப்பாய்வு செய்யப்படவேண்டும்.

மத்திய, மாகாண மற்றும் வலயக் கல்வி அதிகாரசபைகளின் மனிதவள அபிவிருத்தி

68. மத்திய, மாகாண மற்றும் வலயமட்டங்களிலுள்ள நிருவாகத்தில் பல்நிலை அடுக்குகளுடன் கூடிய கல்வி ஆளுகையின் சிக்கலான முறைமையினால் மிகப்பரந்த நிருவாக தொழில்நுட்பம் மற்றும் நடவடிக்கைத் திறன்களும் தேர்ச்சிகளும் ஒவ்வொரு அடுக்கிலும் பணியாற்றும் உத்தியோகத்தர்களுக்குத் தேவைப்படுகின்றன. கல்வி முறைமையிலுள்ள பல்வேறு அடுக்குகளில் எல்லாம் விருத்திசெய்யப்படும், நடைமுறைப்படுத்தப்படும் மனிதவள உபாயங்கள் யாவும் மத்திய, மாகாண மற்றும் வலயக் கல்வி உத்தியோகத்தர்களுக்கு அவசியமான நிருவாக தொழில்நுட்ப மற்றும் நடைமுறைத் திறன்களையும் தேர்ச்சிகளையும் வழங்கவேண்டும். மேலும் இந்த உபாயமானது வழமையானதும் தொடர்ந்து

இற்றைநிலைப்படுத்தும் திறன்களையும் தேர்ச்சிகளையும் தொழில்நுட்ப மற்றும் நடைமுறைத்திறன்கள் என்ற வகையில் வழங்கவேண்டிய தேவையுமுள்ளது.

மத்திய, மாகாண மற்றும் வலயக்கல்வி அதிகாரசபைகளின் நிறுவனரீதியான வலுப்படுத்தல்கள்

69. மத்திய மற்றும் மாகாண அதிகாரசபைகளின் நடைமுறை ஒழுங்குவிதிகள் ஆற்றல்கள் மற்றும் பெறுபேறுகளைப் வலுப்படுத்தலானது கல்வித்திட்டமில் நிருவாகம் மற்றும் எதிர்காலச் சேவை விநியோகம் ஆகியவற்றின் தராதரத்திற்கும் வினைத்திறனுக்கும் முக்கிய பங்களிப்பை வழங்க முடியும். அண்மைக்காலக் கொள்கை நடவடிக்கைகள் மற்றும் அபிவிருத்தி முயற்சிகளிலிருந்து பெற்ற படிப்பினைகள், உலக வங்கி, ஆசிய அபிவிருத்தி வங்கி போன்ற உதவிவழங்குவோரால் ஆதரவளிக்கப்பட்ட சீர்திருத்தங்கள் அடங்கலாக, நிறுவன ரீதியான வலுப்படுத்தல்களுக்கு அவசரமாகத் தேவைப்படும் சில முக்கிய பகுதிகளை எடுத்துக்காட்டப்பட்டுள்ளன.

நிறுவனரீதியாக நிர்ப்படுத்தல்கள்

70. மத்திய, மாகாண மற்றும் வலய அலுவலகங்களின் நிருவாகச் செயல்முறைகள் நீண்டவையாகவும் பெரும்பளுவானதாகவும் இருப்பதால், அவை நடைமுறைச் செயற்பாடுகளில் கணிசமான தாமதங்களை உண்டாக்குகின்றன. இத்தகைய தாமதங்களுக்கான ஒரு பிரதான காரணமாக வழக்கொழிந்த முறைகள் முக்கியமான நிருவாகப் பணிகளில் பயன்படுத்தப்படுதலைக் கூறலாம். இவை கடிதத் தொடர்புகள், கோவைப்படுத்தல், அறிக்கைகள் பேணுதல், பதிவேட்டுக் கட்டுப்பாடு என்பனவற்றையும் உள்ளடக்கும். வழமையான மற்றும் சாதாரண நிருவாகப் பணிகளுக்கு கணனி மயப்படுத்தப்பட்ட நடைமுறைகள் பெருமளவில் வினைத்திறனை அதிகரிக்கும் எனலாம்.

கொள்வனவுச் செயல்வல்லமையை வலுப்படுத்தல்

71. அரசாங்க உத்தியோகத்தரின் விலைக்கேள்வி ஆவணங்களை வரைதல், தொழில்நுட்ப விபரக்குறிப்புகளை ஆயத்தம் செய்தல், ஆலோசனைகளை பராட்டுதல், தொழில்நுட்ப மதிப்பீட்டு அறிக்கைகளையும் கேள்விச்சபைப் பரிந்துரைகளையும் சர்வதேச மட்டத்தில் பரிந்துரைத்தல் பற்றிய ஆற்றல்கள் மட்டுப்படுத்தப்பட்டுள்ளன. அரசாங்க உத்தியோகத்தரின் ஆற்றல்களைப் பலப்படுத்துதல்

எதிர்கால நிறுவன அபிவிருத்திக்கு மிகவும் முக்கியமான விடயமாகும்.

அரசியல் பொருளாதாரத் தடைகளுக்கு முகம்கொடுத்தல்

72. பயன்பெறுவோருக்கும்

நன்மைபெறுவோருக்கும் முரண்பாடான ஆனால் முக்கியமான கொள்கை நடவடிக்கைகளின் நியாயங்களை எடுத்துக்கூறுதல் சீர்திருத்தங்களில் பயன்பெறுவோரின் பங்கேற்பினைக் கட்டியெழுப்புதல் என்னும் முக்கியமான விடயங்களில் அரசாங்க ஆற்றல் இப்பொழுதும் மிதமாகவேயுள்ளது. எடுத்துக்காட்டாக, 1998-2002 காலப்பகுதியில் அரசாங்கம் நடைமுறைப்படுத்திய பாடசாலை அதிவாற்ற்த (rationalisation) நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டமானது அதன் இலக்கில் 75% மேல் எய்தியது. இது நன்கு வடிவமைக்கப்பட்ட மற்றும் வெற்றியளித்துள்ள (rationalisation) நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டமாகும். ஆயினும் இது பல செறிவான முரண்பாடுகளைத் தோற்றுவித்ததுடன், மத்திய மற்றும் மாகாண அதிகாரசபைகளால், அந்நிகழ்ச்சித்திட்டத்தின் நியாயங்களை உள்ளூர்ச் சமுதாயங்களுக்கு விளக்கமுடியாமல் போனமையால் 2003 இல் அதனைத் தற்காலிகமாக நிறுத்தவேண்டியேற்பட்டது. அவ்வாறே அரசாங்கம் பல பாடநூல் கொள்கைத் தெரிவு மற்றும் தராதர மேம்பாடு குறித்து மேற்கொண்டபொழுது அதுவும் பல முரண்பாடுகளைத் தோற்றுவித்ததுடன், அதனை நடைமுறைப்படுத்துவதனையும் பல ஆண்டுகளுக்குத் தாமதித்தது. மீண்டும் மத்திய மற்றும் மாகாண அதிகாரிகள் வினைத்திறனுடன் கொள்கைகளை எடுத்துக்கூறும் செயல்வல்லமையின்றிக் காணப்பட்டனர். சில பாடங்களில் பற்றாக்குறை நிலவுகின்றபோதிலும் குறிப்பாக ஆங்கிலம் மற்றும் தமிழ்மொழி மூலத்திலும் பற்றாக்குறை உள்ளபோதிலும் மொத்தத்தில் ஆசிரியர் தொகையை மிகையாகக் கொண்டுள்ளது. ஆயினும் இன்னும் ஆசிரியர்களை நியமிப்பதற்கான அழுத்தம் கூடுதலாக உள்ளது. அதேவேளையில் வேலையற்ற கற்றஇளைஞர்களின் அழுத்தங்களையும் குறைக்கவேண்டியுள்ளது. இருப்பினும் நிருவாக அடுக்கில் ஒவ்வொரு மாவட்டத்திலுமுள்ள அரசாங்கக் கல்வி முகவர்களினதும் செயல்வல்லமையை வலுப்படுத்தல் சக்திவாய்ந்த ஆனால் முரண்பாடுடைய கொள்கை நடவடிக்கைகளின் விளக்கத்தை எடுத்துக்கூறல், பயன்பெறுவோரின் ஆதரவைக் கட்டியெழுப்புதல் என்பன எதிர்கால நிறுவனரீதியான வலுப்படுத்தல்களுக்கு

மிகமுக்கியமான விடயங்களாகும்.

கல்வி ஆராய்ச்சிப் பகுப்பாய்வும் கொள்கையாக்கமும் திட்டமிடலும் மற்றும் பொறுப்பேற்கும் செயல் வல்லமையையும் விருத்திசெய்தல்

73. உயர்மட்டத்தில் வினையாற்றும் கல்விமுறையின் அபிவிருத்தியில் குறிப்பாக பகுப்பாய்வு கொள்கை உருவாக்கம் மற்றும் திட்டமிடல் ஆகிய நிலைகளில் பங்களிப்புச் செய்யக்கூடிய மூன்று முக்கிய முயற்சிகள் உள்ளன.

கல்வி ஆராய்ச்சி கண்காணிப்பு மற்றும் மதிப்பீட்டினை மேம்படுத்தல்

74. புள்ளிவிபரரீதியாகத் தகுதிபெற்ற ஒழுங்குவிதிகளையும் மற்றும் அளவிடக்கூடிய குறிகாட்டிகளையும் அடிப்படையாகக் கொண்ட சிறந்த ஆராய்ச்சி, கண்காணிப்பு மற்றும் மதிப்பீடு என்பன கொள்கையாக்குவோருக்கு பெறுமதியானவை. முன்னேறிய கல்விமுறைகளில் பகுப்பாய்வு ரீதியாக தீவிரமான கல்வி ஆராய்ச்சியும் மதிப்பீடும் கற்றல் பற்றிய தேசியக் கணிப்பீடுகள் உட்பட கொள்கையாக்கத்திற்கான அடிப்படைகளைக் கொண்டிருக்கின்றன. இலங்கையில் கல்விமுறைமையானது தற்பொழுது பல முக்கியமான முயற்சிகளான வருடாந்த பாடசாலை குடிமதிப்பு, தேசிய கல்வி ஆராய்ச்சி மதிப்பீட்டு நிலையத்தினால் (NEREC) மேற்கொள்ளப்பட்ட 4ஆம் தரத்திலான கற்றல் விளைவுகள் பற்றிய கணிப்பீடு, NEREC இன் கல்வி முகாமைத்துவ நடைமுறைகள் பற்றிய அளவறி ஆய்வு என்பன செழிப்பான மற்றும் தகவல் விளக்கமுள்ள கண்காணிப்பு மற்றும் மதிப்பீட்டுச் சட்டகத்திற்கான அடிப்படைகளை வழங்குகின்றன. கல்வி ஆராய்ச்சி, கண்காணிப்பு மற்றும் மதிப்பீட்டு முறைகளான கல்விசார் பெறுபேறுகளின் பகுப்பாய்வு, கொள்கை ஆக்கத்திற்கான காரணிகள் என்பனவற்றிற்கு விஷேட முக்கியத்தும் கொடுத்து அபிவிருத்தி செய்யப்படுதல் வேண்டும். கல்வி ஆராய்ச்சி கண்காணிப்பு மற்றும் மதிப்பீட்டு செயற்பாடுகள் அளவு மற்றும் பண்பு ரீதியான முறைகளைப் பயன்படுத்துவதற்கு ஊக்குவிக்கப்படுவதுடன் நவீன ஆராய்ச்சி நுட்பங்களான பரிசோதனைசார் வடிவமைப்பு எழுமாற்றாய் அமைந்த சோதனைமுறை மற்றும் நெடுங்கோட்டு அளவீடு என்பனவற்றையும் பயன்படுத்த ஊக்குவித்தல் வேண்டும்.

நடுத்தரக்கால பாதீடு தயாரித்தல் மற்றும் பல ஆண்டுகளுக்கான திட்டமிடல் எல்லைகள்.

75. கல்வித் திட்டமிடலையும் வள முகாமைத்துவத்தையும் மேம்படுத்தும் முக்கிய முயற்சியாக பல ஆண்டுத் திட்டமிடலை இலகுவடுத்தும் நடுத்தரப் பாதீட்டுச் சட்டகமொன்றினை குறிப்பிடலாம். நடுத்தரக்காலப் பாதீடானது மூன்று வருட காலத்தினைக் கொண்டிருப்பதுடன் புதிய தகவல்களையும் தேவைகளைக் கவனத்திற் கொண்ட வருடாந்த இற்றைநிலைப்படுத்தல்களுக்கான ஏற்பாடுகளையும் கொண்டதாகும். நடுத்தரக்காலப் பாதீடானது, கல்வி அபிவிருத்திக்கான நீண்டகால கூட்டுத் திட்டத்தினையும் சேர்த்துக் கொள்ளும். இது வளங்களின் எதிர்வுகூறலை மேம்படுத்துவதன் மூலம் முகாமைத்துவத்தையும் இலகுவடுத்தும். அத்துடன் தற்பொழுதுள்ள வருடாந்தப் பாதீட்டினால் இடமளிக்கப்பட்டதிலும் பார்க்க நீண்டகால அபிவிருத்தி அனுபவங்களை வழங்கவும் உதவும்.

பொதுச் செலவினத் தடம்பதித்தல்.

76. பொதுச்செலவினத் தடம்பதித்தல் முறைமையானது, கல்விக் கொள்கை ஆக்குவோருக்கும் நிதி அலுவலர்க்குமான முக்கியமான முகாமைத்துவக் கருவிகளைக் கொண்டிருப்பதுடன் நடுத்தரக்காலப் பாதீட்டு முறைக்கும் குறைநிரப்பியாக விளங்கும். இது மத்திய அரசாங்கத்துக்கும் மாகாணங்களுக்கும் கல்விமுறையின் மூலம் ஏற்படும் நிதிப்பாய்ச்சல், பாடசாலைகள், பல்கலைக்கழகங்கள், தேசிய கல்விக் கல்லூரிகள் மற்றும் ஆசிரியர் மத்திய நிலையங்கள் போன்ற பல சேவைநிதியோக நிலையங்களை அடையும் உண்மை வளநிலை பற்றிய தகவல்களையும் வழங்கமுடியும். இந்த முறைகளினூடான வளப்பாய்ச்சலின் வெளிப்படையான தன்மையையும் அதிகரிக்கிறது. கல்வி அபிவிருத்தியானது படிவளர்ச்சி பெறவேண்டியதாலும் மத்திய அரசாங்க மற்றும் மாகாணத் திட்டங்களைச் செப்பனிட வேண்டியதாலும் அத்தகைய தகவல்கள் கொள்கையாக்கத்திற்கும் வள ஒதுக்கீட்டுக்குமான பின்னூட்டலாக அமையும்.

# Chapter One

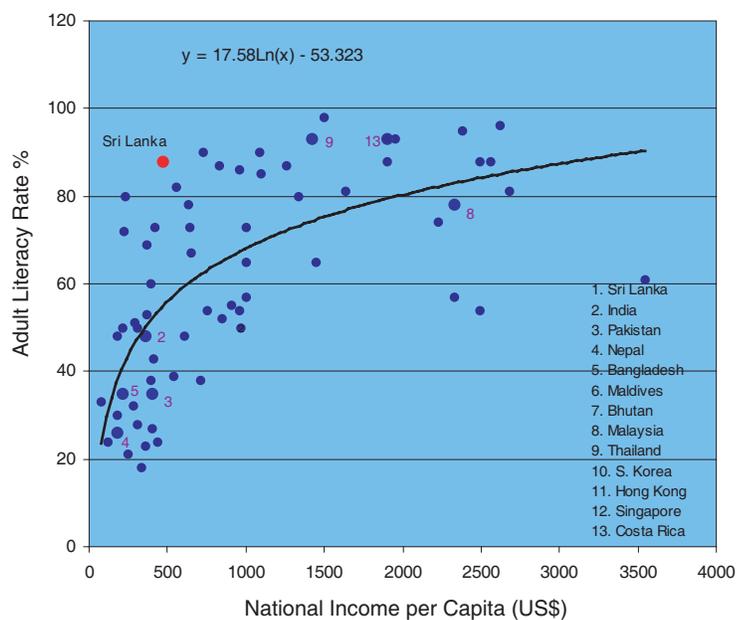
## THE EDUCATION SYSTEM: POLICIES, ENROLMENT AND ORGANIZATION

### 1.0 Introduction

1.1. The Sri Lankan education system has been celebrated in development policy circles and the economic literature for its success in providing widespread access to primary and secondary education and enabling the country to attain comparatively high human development levels for a low income economy. Up to the early 1990s Sri Lanka enjoyed the highest basic social development outcomes relative to per capita income among virtually all developing countries [see Kakwani (1993), UNDP (1998)]. This achievement was the result of strategic public policy decisions, over several successive generations, to invest resources in education, health and other social services.

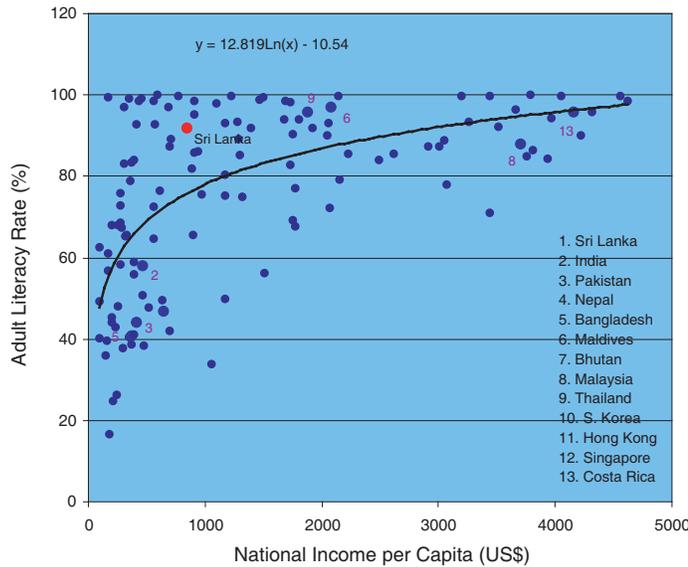
The Sri Lankan policy makers were far ahead of their time in who designed the basic viewing human capital as a framework of the education promising investment with the system, in the 1930s and 1940s, potential to produce a wide

**Figure 1.1. Adult Literacy Rates in Relation to National Income per Capita, 1987-1990**



Source: World Bank estimates, calculated from UNDP (2003).

**Figure 1.2. Adult Literacy Rates in Relation to National Income per Capita, 2001**



Source: World Bank estimates, calculated from UNDP (2003).

range of important economic and social benefits [see Sumathipala (1968) Jayasuriya (1969)].

1.2. The leading position among developing countries enjoyed by Sri Lanka in education, up to the early 1990s, is illustrated in Figure 1.1, which shows the adult literacy rates of developing economies against their per capita incomes. Actual literacy rates are plotted on the graph, and the predicted literacy rates based on per capita incomes are shown by the regression line. Among all developing countries, as recently as 1987-1990, Sri Lanka had the highest literacy level relative to per capita

income, with an actual literacy rate more than two standard deviations above the predicted rate given by the regression line. More recently, however, this advantage in education and literacy has been lost as other countries also invested heavily in basic education and attained high levels of literacy. The lost advantage is illustrated in Figure 1.2, which shows the adult literacy rates of developing economies against their per capita incomes in 2001. At this recent date, there are several countries with higher actual literacy rates relative to their predicted rates than Sri Lanka<sup>1</sup>. Sri Lankan policy makers are aware of the country's lost

education advantage, and are in the process of producing a set of wide-ranging policy initiatives to advance and develop the education system to an internationally prominent level again [see NEC (2003)].

## 1.1 The Policy Framework and Organization of the Education Sector

*Overarching policy objectives.*

1.3. The education sector has three cardinal policy objectives.

- a. Providing universal access to primary and secondary education, combined with full enrolment and completion of the compulsory basic education cycle (grades 1-9).
- b. Attaining high levels of education quality, measured in terms of cognitive achievement, subject content mastery, and broader outcomes such as good team work, a disciplined work ethic, a positive, solution oriented approach to problems, ability to take initiative and display dynamism, able leadership, effective communication, and respect for diversity in the context of a multi-ethnic, multi-religious society.

1. Some of the low income countries above Sri Lanka in Figure 1.2 are former planned economies whose per capita income levels fell from much higher levels during their transition to market economies during the 1990s. Hence, the number of countries which have actually overtaken Sri Lanka is overestimated in Figure 1.2. However, the leading position occupied by Sri Lanka up to the early 1990s has indeed been eroded, as other countries have caught up and surpassed Sri Lanka.

- c. Producing high quality human capital and human resources capable of making a powerful contribution to human development, economic growth and poverty reduction.

*Organization of the education and training system*

1.4. The education sector is organized into four major stages [see Figure 1.3]. The earliest stage, catering to children aged 3-5, is that of Early Childhood Development. This stage is mainly outside the formal government education system, with virtually all pre-schools, such as nurseries, kindergartens and Montessories being in the private sector. The second stage is that of formal schooling, with primary (grades 1-5), junior secondary (grades 6-9) and senior secondary (grades 10-13) education cycles. Compulsory basic education covers the primary and junior secondary education cycles, grades 1-9. The third stage is that of vocational training and technical education. Entry is open to the vocational and technical levels of the training sector from two points in the formal school system, at grade 9 upon completing basic education and at grade 11 upon passing the GCE O/L examination. The fourth stage is that of tertiary education and training, with entry open to students successfully completing the GCE A/L examination, the

*Education organization in relation to development policy models*

1.5. The Sri Lankan education system has followed the classical recipe of development policy in two important respects. First, it has emphasized the importance of public financing and provision of primary and basic education to the entire population. This visionary emphasis, commencing in the 1930s and 1940s, was generations ahead of its time. Second, Sri Lanka limited public resources devoted to tertiary education, awarding emphasis to the primary and basic cycles. The fruits of these policies have been reaped in subsequent generations, with basic education attainment, primary health outcomes and social development indicators close to levels observed in upper-middle income and developed countries.

1.6. Sri Lanka has also deviated from the classical recipe in one important respect. The establishment of private schools from grades 1-9 was legally banned in the early 1960s. This legal prohibition remains in force to date. This

has made Sri Lanka one of the few countries in the world to legally forbid the establishment of schools. Other low income countries and states famous for their high basic education attainment levels, such as Costa Rica and the state of Kerala in India, rely heavily on the private sector. In Kerala, for instance, more than half of school enrollment is in private schools. The political economy context of Sri Lanka also makes it impossible to invest in private universities, although there is no explicit legal barrier. However, from the 1990s onwards it has been possible to establish private degree awarding institutions, as long as they do not carry the title “university”. In preventing formal private universities the Sri Lankan education system deviated from the model adopted by some of the highest performing education systems in the world, such as South Korea, which concentrated public resources on primary and basic education, followed by secondary education, while leaving university education largely to the private sector. Recently, however, Sri Lankan education policy makers have recommended amending legislation to allow private schools and private universities to be established [see *NEC (2003)*].

Figure 1.3. Organizational Structure of the Sri Lankan Education and Training System

**Early Childhood Development**

Nursery

Kindergarten, Montessori

**Primary and Secondary Education**

Primary Education  
Grades 1-5

Junior Secondary Education  
Grades 6-9

Senior Secondary Education  
GCE O/L Cycle (Grades 10-11)

Senior Secondary Education  
GCE A/L Cycle (Grades 12-13)

**Tertiary Education**

University  
Undergraduate  
Education

Professional and  
Non-University  
Tertiary Education

**The Training System**

Vocational Training

Technical Education

Advanced  
Technical  
Education

Postgraduate Education

## 1.2 The Education System: Enrolment, Grade Cycle Transition and Completion

### *The school system*

1.7. The public sector dominates primary and secondary education, accounting for 93% of schools and 95% of student enrolment. Overall, approximately 4 million school children are enrolled in about 9,800 public schools, around 97,000 students are enrolled in about 80 private schools, and approximately 55,000 students are enrolled in around 600 state funded *pirivena* (temple) schools. These students follow the national school curriculum and sit national examinations. In addition, about 70,000 students are enrolled in around 150-200 international schools, which offer foreign curricula and prepare students to sit overseas examinations. The main reason for the dominance of the public sector in the school system is the

policy framework, with the establishment of new private schools forbidden by law since the early 1960s.

1.8 The network of government schools has been laid to provide universal access to primary and secondary education. This cardinal policy objective has largely been achieved, with a comparatively even distribution of schools and teachers, in relation to student enrolment, across the country [see Table 1.1]. The average student-teacher ratio for the country is low, 21:1, and ranges from 19:1 in the North-Western Province to 23:1 in the Western and North-Eastern Provinces. The average school size in Sri Lanka is about 410 students, with the relatively rural and sparsely populated Sabaragamuwa, North-Eastern and North-Central provinces containing just under 350 students per school, while the largely urban, densely populated

Western Province has 627 students per school.

### *The compulsory education cycle (grades 1-9)*

1.9. Net enrolment in grade 1 is about 97% for both boys and girls, and nearly all children complete grade 5 [see Figure 1.4]. At the end of the compulsory education cycle, grade 9, completion rates are 81% for boys and 84% for girls. The high primary education (grades 1-5) and junior secondary education (grades 6-9) enrolment rates are the outcome of several complementary and mutually reinforcing policies, such as tuition free schooling, special education programs for disadvantaged students, free textbooks, free uniforms and subsidized transport, and of strong household demand for education.

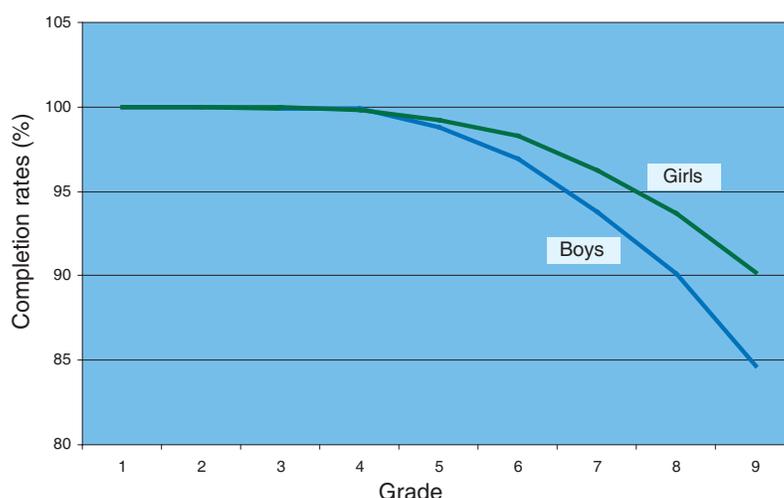
1.10 The evidence also shows that Sri Lanka has not yet

**Table 1.1. Government Schools, Student Enrolment and Teachers, by Province, 2002.**

Province	Number of Schools	Number of Students	Number of Teachers	Average School Size	Student Teacher Ratio
Western	1,393	873,434	38,187	627	23
Central	1,483	539,262	27,447	364	20
Southern	1,151	544,109	26,984	473	20
North-Eastern	1,802	628,195	27,361	349	23
North-Western	1,250	481,510	24,839	385	19
North-Central	783	269,380	13,010	344	21
Uva	829	299,897	14,464	362	21
Sabaragamuwa	1,135	391,288	19,520	345	20
Sri Lanka	9,826	4,027,075	191,812	410	21

Source: World Bank estimates, based on Ministry of Education, School Census, 2002.

**Figure 1.4. Net Compulsory Education Completion Rates, Grades 1-9, 2001**



Source: Ministry of Education, School Censuses, various years.

achieved universal compulsory education, with about 18% of children failing to complete grade 9. Hence, there still exists a considerable challenge to meet the target of providing all children between ages 6-14 with 9 years of schooling. Further, an important equity issue exists, as the 18% of children who fail to complete grade 9 are drawn from poorer homes, economically disadvantaged geographical regions such as the rural hinterland, conflict affected areas and the estate sector, or are disabled and handicapped children. Strong policy action is needed to reach these vulnerable socio-economic groups, and achieve the target of universal enrolment

and completion in the compulsory education cycle. In this context, the government's special education programs, non-formal education programs and programs for disabled children are likely to be particularly important.

*The senior secondary education, GCE O/L and GCE A/L cycles*

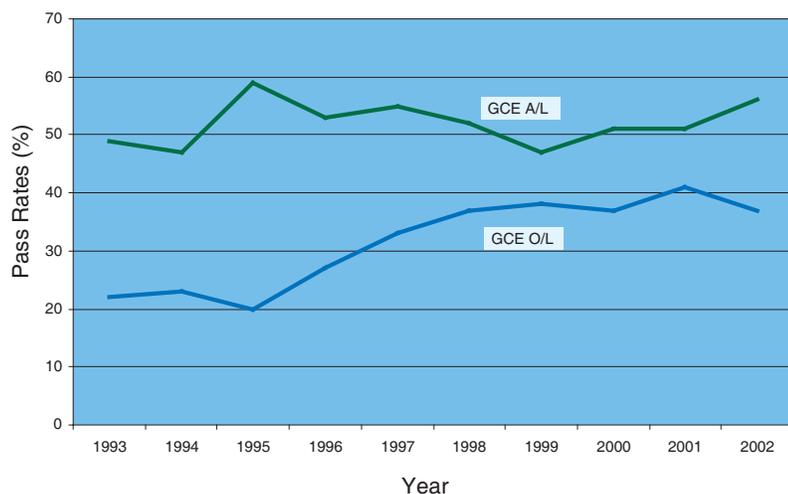
1.11 School completion rates are less satisfactory in the senior secondary cycle, with comparatively low examination pass rates at the GCE O/L (grade 11) and GCE A/L (grade 13) examinations [see Table 1.2]. The average pass rate at the GCE O/L examination for the country as a whole is 37%, implying that only about one out of every three candidates successfully completes the GCE O/L examination. Pass rates in the poorer and more disadvantaged areas of the country, such as the North-

**Table 1.2. GCE O/L and GCE A/L Examination Pass Rates, by Province, 2002**

Province	Number of Students Appearing for the GCE O/L Examination	Number of Students Completing the GCE O/L Examination and Qualifying for the GCE A/L Cycle	Proportion of Students Successfully Completing the GCE O/L Examination %	Number of Students Appearing for the GCE A/L Examination	Number of Students Completing the GCE A/L Examination	Proportion of Students Successfully Completing the GCE A/L Examination %
Western	78,832	37,674	48	49,051	26,543	54
Central	48,641	15,757	32	24,564	13,491	55
Southern	48,390	17,801	37	27,337	15,599	57
North-Eastern	41,659	13,088	32	28,088	16,254	58
North-Western	41,609	15,779	38	22,226	12,892	58
North-Central	22,180	6,769	31	10,305	5,413	53
Uva	26,262	8,104	31	11,684	6,120	52
Sabaragamuwa	34,743	11,842	34	18,681	10,597	57
Sri Lanka	342,316	126,814	37	191,936	106,909	56

Source: Ministry of Education, National Evaluation and Testing Service.

**Figure 1.5. Time Trend of GCE O/L and GCE A/L Pass Rates, 1993-2002**



Source: Ministry of Education, National Evaluation and Testing Service.

Eastern, North-Central, Uva and Central Provinces, range from 31%-32%. The prosperous and advanced Western Province alone stands out among the geographical regions, with GCE O/L pass rates of 48%, indicating that about one out of every two candidates in this area successfully completes the GCE O/L examination.

1.12. GCE A/L examination pass rates average about 56% for the country as a whole, suggesting that about one out of every two candidates is successful at this examination. This is on the low side, given that only the best students survive through to the GCE A/L cycle. The pass rates across the provinces are fairly similar,

ranging from 52% in the Uva Province to 58% in the North-Western and North-Eastern Provinces. The relatively even distribution of GCE A/L examination pass rates across the country can be attributed to two key factors: (i) policy initiatives to ensure a wide network of good quality secondary schools in all provinces; and (ii) selectivity effects, as students in the GCE A/L cycle are the most able pupils in their age cohorts.

1.13. The time trend of GCE O/L and GCE A/L pass rates shows that, over about the past ten years, there has been improvement in GCE O/L pass rates, but that GCE A/L pass rates have been relatively constant [see Figure 1.5]. GCE O/L pass rates have risen from about 22% in 1993 to 37% in 2002, with much of the improvement occurring in the mid-late 1990s. In the GCE A/L

**Table 1.3. Tertiary Education Enrolment Rates, 2002**

Province	Total Tertiary Enrolment %	University Enrolment %	Professional and Other Courses %	Technical Education %
Western	16	5	9	3
Central	8	3	3	2
Southern	10	3	6	2
North-Eastern	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
North-Western	7	2	4	1
North-Central	6	1	4	1
Uva	7	3	2	2
Sabaragamuva	9	3	4	2
Sri Lanka	11	3	6	2

Source: World Bank estimates, based on Department of Census and Statistics Labor Force Survey data. No estimates are presented for the North-Eastern Province as the survey did not cover this region. Note: Numbers may not add up due to rounding.

cycle, pass rates have remained fairly steady between 1994 and 2002, except for one unusually high year, 1995 and one poor year, 1999. Sri Lankan policy makers have recognized that the country faces an important challenge to increase the quality of education and enable students to achieve the standards set for the GCE O/L and GCE A/L examinations [see Wijesuriya (2003), Perera et al (2003), Karunaratne (2003) and Wijeratne et al (2003)].

#### Tertiary education enrolment

1.14. The overall tertiary education enrolment rate is about 11% of the eligible population [see Table 1.3]. This is slightly above the South Asia average (10%), and approximately equal to countries

such as India, Morocco, Vietnam and Mauritius. The major proportion of tertiary enrolment, about 6%, is in courses outside the university and formal technical education sector. These students are enrolled in the private sector in a variety of professional courses, such as IT, management, accounting, marketing, law, business and finance. University enrolment is approximately 3%, and advanced technical education enrolment about 2%.

1.15. The majority of university students, about four-fifths of enrolment, attend public universities, while the balance attend private degree awarding institutions. The exact distribution of advanced technical education between the

private and public sector is uncertain, but can be assumed to be about evenly shared.<sup>2</sup> On this assumption, about 70% of tertiary education enrolment is in the private sector, and the balance in the public sector. The high proportion of private sector enrolment at the tertiary level, in contrast to the primary and secondary levels, can be attributed to the policy framework, which does not legally prohibit private investment at the tertiary level.<sup>3</sup>

1.16. The regional distribution of overall tertiary education enrolment shows that the Western Province enjoys higher levels than other provinces. This can be attributed to the wealth of the Western Province, which contains a greater number of high income households who can afford to pay for private tertiary education. The Uva Province, which is one of the poorest regions of the country, has the lowest enrolment in professional and other courses, which are mainly supplied by private providers. This is plausible, as private investment is likely to be small in poor regions. The North-Central Province has the lowest enrolment in both university and technical education. This is consistent with other studies which show that the North-Central Province is one of the

#### Box 1.1. Early Childhood Development: a Special Case of Private Service Delivery

Early childhood development is not formally part of the Sri Lankan education system. However, policy makers have shown interest in integrating early childhood development into the education system and linking it with the primary school curriculum [see NEC (1997), (2003), Ministry of Social Welfare (2003)]. Further, there has been rapid growth of pre-schools and nurseries in the private sector. In the 1970s, there were an estimated 2,000 pre-schools and nurseries. By 2003, this number had increased to be between 11,000 and 12,500, exceeding in quantity the number of schools in the country [see Abhayadeva (2003), Wijetunge and Wickremaratne (2003)]. The participation of children aged 3-5 in pre-school education, estimated to be about 20% in the 1980s, rose to 40% in 1994 and to 60% in 2001. The NEC (2003) recommends connecting learning activities for children aged 3-5 with the more formal school system from age 6 upwards and establishing quality standards. This represents an important area for future analysis and policy development for Sri Lankan education policy makers.

2. There are over 900 registered private training institutions. While the majority of these institutions specialize in skills development activities for less educated individuals, some offer courses at tertiary level, too.
3. The political economy context has prevented private universities from being established, with violent opposition from some student groups and political forces. However, there is no such opposition to private non-university tertiary education programs.

most educationally disadvantaged regions of the country [see NEC (2003)].<sup>4</sup>

1.17. The time trend of tertiary education enrolment shows that, over the recent past, enrolment has risen from about 8% in 1997 to 11% in 2002 [see Figure 1.6]. The increase has come, over time, from all three components of tertiary education, universities and technical education. The initial increase, in 2000, came from the university system, mainly due to expansion of public universities and private degree awarding institutions. This was succeeded by an increase in private non-degree tertiary education courses in 2002. Overall, tertiary

education enrolment rates have expanded about 38% over the period 1997-2002.

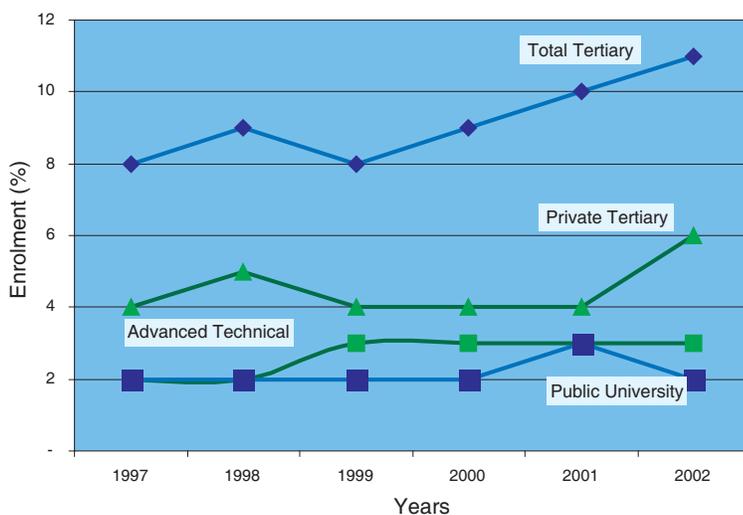
### 1.3 The Governance Framework of the Education System

1.18. The education sector has a complex governance framework, combining elements of deconcentration, delegation and devolution of functions and powers between the central government and the eight provincial councils. The central government is responsible for national education policy at all levels, covering pre-schools, primary and basic education, secondary education, university education, vocational training

and technical education. However, provincial councils play an important role in the flow of public education finances and in the administration of the school system [see Figure 1.7]. In fact, education is the most decentralized sector in the country, with education budgets typically accounting for over half of all provincial expenditures.

1.19. Education policy makers and legislators have sought to combine the advantages of centralized *academic systems*, which facilitate goals such as nation-building, increasing social cohesion and establishing quality standards, with the advantages of delegated *management systems*, such as increased proximity of administrative services to beneficiaries, especially students, parents and guardians. Current policy thinking is to further devolve education management down to the level of individual education institutions, especially schools, to empower front line service providers such as principals, section heads and teachers, and involve local communities closely, to increase school effectiveness and performance [See NEC (2003)].<sup>5</sup>

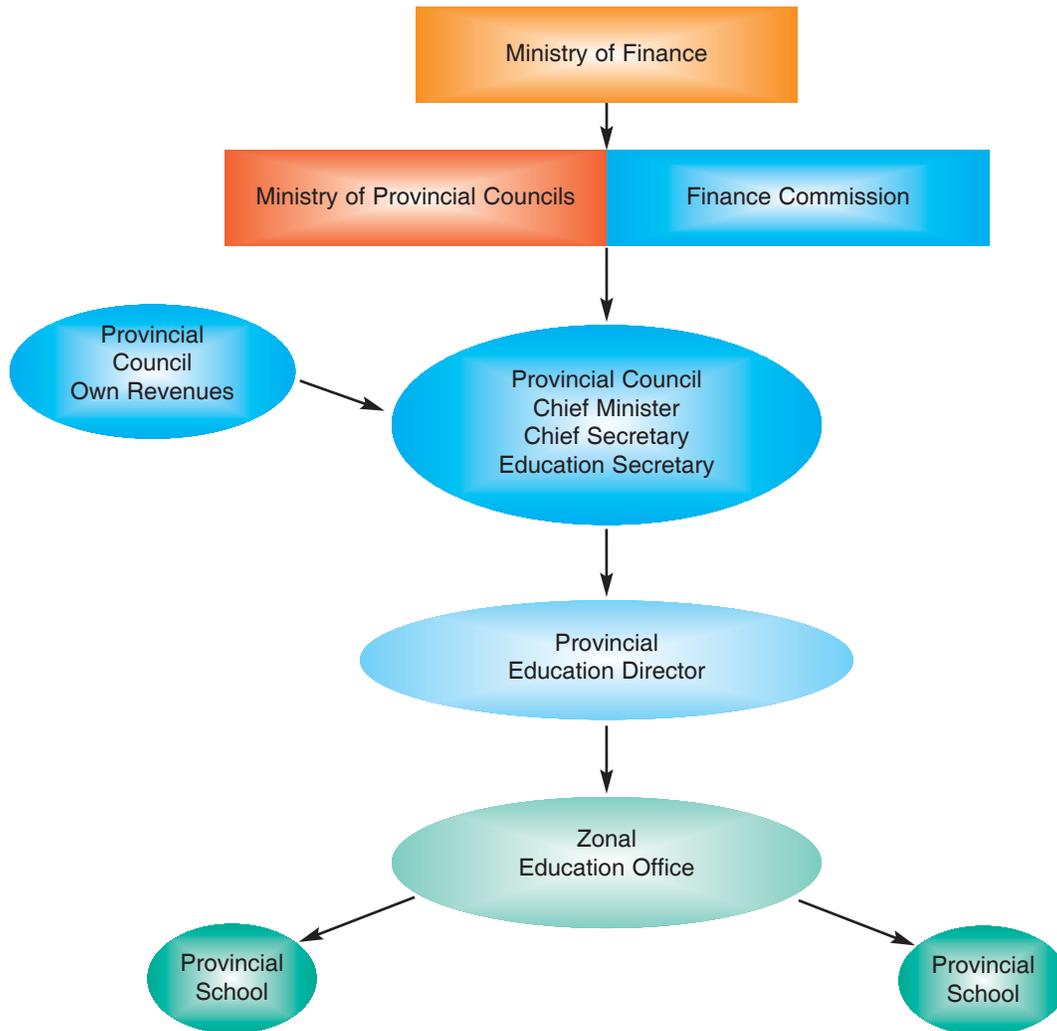
Figure 1.6. Tertiary Education Enrolment Trends, 1997-2002



Source: World Bank estimates, based on Department of Census and Statistics Labor Force Survey data, various years.

4. Tertiary enrolment in the North-Eastern Province can be assumed to be about the same rate or slightly less than the North-Central and Uva Provinces. This region, which has been damaged by over 20 years of secessionist conflict, is the most disadvantaged in the country.
5. Sri Lanka has a long history of school based management and administration, going at least as far back as the Town Schools Ordinance of 1902. Centralization away from schools to higher levels of government, however, took place during the 1950s and 1960s, especially as the public education system became formalized and expanded rapidly.

**Figure 1.7. Flow of Government Education Resources in the School System**



*Central government functions*

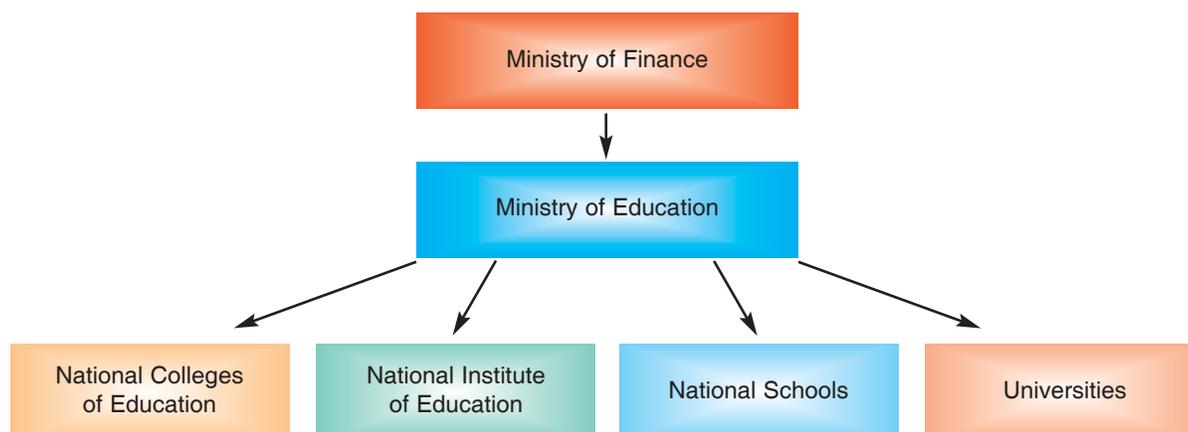
1.20. Within the school system, central government institutions are responsible for: (i) establishing the school curriculum; (ii) setting the curricula of teacher education institutions; (iii) accrediting textbooks published by private firms, publishing textbooks and supplementary readers, and distributing textbooks; (iv) providing incentives, such as school uniforms and transport

subsidies, to increase school attendance; (v) administer professional development programs and courses for principals, section heads and teachers; (vi) conduct examinations; (vii) administer about 360 national schools; and (viii) conduct a range of education development measures and initiatives, such as special education programs, non-formal education programs, adult education programs, and

library and reading habits development programs. The actual delivery of these services often combine central government education staff and provincial education staff, with the latter operating within a matrix management structure of central and provincial responsibility.

1.21. Within the university system, the central government is responsible for national policy, financing, allocation of

**Figure 1.8. Flow of Resources to Central Government Education Institutions**



staff cadre to universities, national level accreditation and standards setting, and placement of students among universities. Within these broad parameters, however, individual universities enjoy considerable autonomy. The universities select and employ academic staff within the approved cadre, produce curricula and design syllabi, accredit courses, deliver degree programs and other tertiary level courses, conduct examinations, certify graduates, and undertake research and consulting activities. In addition, funds raised by universities are used to employ staff, conduct research and engage in academic activities without needing sanction from external government authorities. Essentially, universities operate as highly autonomous agents within a deconcentrated governance system.

1.22. In the vocational training and technical education system the main institutions delivering

training services come under the central government. These operate chiefly as government departments, with responsibility for course and program development, curriculum design, standard setting, accreditation and certification under the central authorities. However, as in the case of universities, vocational training and technical education institutions enjoy considerable autonomy over academic activities within institutions, and chiefly operate as semi-autonomous agents within a deconcentrated framework. Provincial councils, too, operate skills development institutions, although these are typically small and less developed than central government institutions.

*Provincial council functions*

1.23. The provincial councils play an important role within the school system. About 9,500 schools (97% of public schools and 88% of all schools) are administered by eight provincial

councils and their intermediary education agencies, 94 zonal education offices and 365 divisional education offices. Provincial councils develop education plans and budgets, employ and deploy education administrators, principals and teachers at the provincial level. Zonal education authorities transfer and deploy principals and teachers within zones. Provincial councils also support small vocational training and technical education activities, especially for school completers at grade 9 and grade 11. However, the relationship between the central and provincial authorities in delivering vocational training services tends to be less organized and structured than in the school education system.

*Performance incentives within the public education system*

1.24. The incentives faced by key agents within this institutional framework, such as central education ministry

officials, provincial and zonal education staff, principals, school teachers, university academics and administrators, are critical factors affecting the performance of the education system. Within government organizations, explicit and implicit performance incentives exist through a reward system, such as appointments to positions of high status, promotions, greater responsibility, job security, more interesting and stimulating work, and decreased supervision. Such performance incentives exist, in principle, at all levels of the Sri Lankan education system. For instance, high performing teachers can become principals, teacher educators or curriculum developers; good school principals can assume responsible positions in zonal education offices or provincial education offices; and provincial and zonal officials can seek positions in the central ministries. University lecturers who acquire postgraduate research degrees can get tenure and promotion as senior lecturers; senior lecturers with good publication and teaching records can be promoted as associate professors and professors; and senior university academics who demonstrate good administration skills can become heads of departments, deans of faculties and vice-chancellors of universities. The actual operation of this incentive system, however, has been

weakened by two key factors. First, financial incentives for performance are low within the public service. The government wage and salary structure is highly compressed, with small annual increments. Hence, the opportunity cost of non-performance is low. Second, promotions are mainly seniority based, which further weakens performance incentives. These are system-wide problems within the public service as a whole, and not specific to the education sector.

*The institutional foundation for education service delivery*

1.25. The basic institutional foundation to deliver public education services exists, in principle, between the central government and provincial councils. Several characteristics of good first stage public service institutions, such as: (i) input-oriented line-item budgeting; (ii) legal cadres of public education officials, like principals, teachers, education administrators, teacher educators and university academics; (iii) opportunities for professional development and career progress of academic and administrative staff; and (iv) cash accounting systems, are already established. In addition, characteristics of good second stage public service institutions, such as institutionalized performance auditing within a supreme audit institution, the Auditor General's Department, and an internal audit within the

education system, also exist. The government is currently in the process of developing further important components of a good quality service delivery framework, such as: (i) a medium-term program budgeting framework with a multi-year planning horizon; and (ii) performance appraisal systems for principals, teachers, university academics and education administrative officials.

# Chapter Two

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## ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL BENEFITS OF INVESTMENT IN EDUCATION

### 2.0 Introduction

2.1 Investment in education has played a central role in Sri Lankan government policy for several generations. Key aims of public education policy have included: (i) enhancing economic equity; (ii) promoting inter-generational social mobility; (iii) increasing labor productivity and earnings through human capital accumulation; and (iv)

producing a healthy and prosperous society. The economic and development policy literature identifies two important streams of social benefits that flow from investment in education, efficiency gains and equity improvements. This chapter analyzes the performance of the Sri Lankan education system in terms of both these streams of benefits, efficiency and equity.

### 2.1 Economic Benefits of Investment in Education: External Efficiency

*Social and private rates of return to education*

2.2. The external efficiency of human capital investment is substantial. The three main education levels, compulsory schooling, senior secondary schooling and university education, yield generous

**Table 2.1. Social and Private Rates of Return to Education, 2002**

Education Level	Social Rates of Return to Education		Private Rates of Return to Education	
	Men %	Women %	Men %	Women %
Compulsory Education	15	20	19	25
Senior Secondary	20	18	25	22
University	11	10	26	24

Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Labor Force Survey 2002. Social and private rates of return to education have been computed by the elaborate method, where earnings streams are simulated for individuals at different levels of education. The public cost of education is included in the computation of social returns. Regression equations underlying the simulations are controlled for other factors affecting earnings, such as experience, technical training, labor supply, employment sector and economic sector. The life-cycle earnings streams for the various education levels were set to commence after the average job search duration for each level of education. Values in the table have been rounded to the nearest integer.

economic benefits [see Table 2.1]. Among men, social rates of return to education are highest at the senior secondary schooling level, 20%, followed by compulsory schooling, 15%, and university education, 11%. Among women, social rates of return to education are highest at the compulsory schooling level, 20%, followed by senior secondary schooling, 18%, and university education, 10%. Private rates of return to education are also considerable. Among men, the private rate of return is largest for university education, 26%, followed by senior secondary education, 25%, and compulsory schooling, 19%. Among women, the private rate of return is highest at the compulsory schooling level, 25%, followed by university education, 24% and senior secondary schooling, 22%. The difference between private and social rates of return to education at the compulsory schooling and senior secondary schooling levels is modest, mainly due to the low unit costs of education at these schooling levels. In contrast, the difference between private and social rates of return to education at the university level is considerable, chiefly due to the high unit cost of university education, which lowers the social return.

2.3. The estimated levels and pattern of social rates of return to education produce three important policy conclusions. First, education is clearly an economically profitable investment, with a high social rate of return.<sup>6</sup> In consequence, there is a strong case for increasing investment in education. Second, the social benefits of education are highest at the senior secondary and compulsory education levels. Hence, when extra public resources become available for education, these funds should be allocated to expand enrolment and completion, and increase the quality of education, at the compulsory basic schooling level and the senior secondary education level. Third, at the university level, as well-known in the economic literature, the major portion of benefits accrue as private gains to university graduates. Further, these private benefits to university education are substantial. In consequence, from a policy perspective, further expansion of university education should be left mainly to private investment.

#### *Education and earnings*

2.4. The relationship between education and earnings is statistically significant and strongly positive, for both men

and women, over a large range of the education system [see Table 2.2]. Among men, all levels of education are significantly and positively associated with earnings. In addition, the relationship between education and male earnings increases as the level of education rises, implying positive incremental private returns to education over all education grade cycles. Among women, too, all education levels are significantly and positively related to earnings, provided the individual has at least completed primary education. Further, the association between education and female earnings rises as the education level increases from primary schooling upwards, indicating favorable private marginal returns to education. Overall, the findings strongly support the notion that education is a profitable investment, for both men and women, in terms of increasing earnings. These findings are consistent with the idea that education enables individuals to accumulate human capital, increase labor productivity and improve earnings. The findings are also consistent with the notion that education enables individuals to signal innate abilities to potential employers during job search.

6. Research studies have shown that the returns to education, measured in terms of education *attainment*, also contains a return to education *achievement*, if education quality indicators are not explicitly incorporated into the regression equations [see *Glewwe (2002)*]. The Sri Lankan labor force data sets from which returns to education have been measured do not contain education quality measures. Hence, the estimated rates of return above combine returns to education *attainment* and education *achievement*. This implies that the country can benefit from both expanding education access and increasing education quality, especially at compulsory basic and senior secondary education levels, where the social returns are high.

**Table 2.2. Earnings Functions Corrected for Selection Effects, 2002.  
Two Stage Least Squares Estimates.**

Variable	Men		Women	
	Coefficient	'T' statistic	Coefficient	'T' statistic
Constant	8.576	63.47	8.517	40.94
Primary education incomplete	0.093	3.00	-0.008	-0.23
Primary education	0.225	7.28	0.128	3.48
Junior secondary education	0.354	11.00	0.379	9.54
GCE O/L	0.497	15.20	0.621	15.78
GCE A/L	0.739	21.36	0.765	18.70
Graduate	1.156	26.05	1.146	23.00
Postgraduate	1.287	17.86	1.158	16.28
Experience	0.027	14.46	0.021	9.33
Experience squared	-0.0001	-12.58	-0.0001	-8.21
Training	0.198	12.84	0.157	7.26
Log of weeks worked	0.460	13.76	0.428	8.16
Private sector employee	-0.123	-9.12	-0.164	-7.73
Urban sector employee	0.145	10.74	0.167	8.55
Estate sector employee	-0.271	-13.01	-0.016	-0.60
Selection effect	0.052	2.53	0.069	4.80
Adjusted R squared	0.409		0.523	
F	357.49 [15, 7,702]		254.87 [15, 3,454]	
Sample size	7,718		3,470	

Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Labor Force Survey 2002.

*Private marginal rates of return to various education levels*

2.5. The private marginal rates of return to various levels of education, derived from the earnings functions above, are shown in Figure 2.1. below. Among men, private returns are highest for university graduates, 13%, followed by GCE A/L qualified individuals, 12%.<sup>7</sup> Among women, private returns

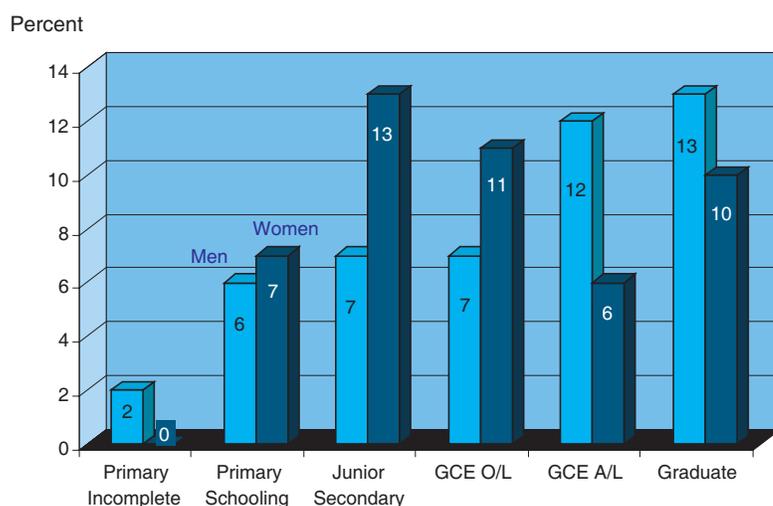
are largest for junior secondary educated women, 13%, followed by GCE O/L qualified women, 11%, and university graduates, 10%. The pattern of marginal returns across education levels suggests that men benefit more from the higher levels of the school system and university education, which provide access to lucrative professional and managerial careers.<sup>8</sup> Women, in

contrast, entered the labor market relatively recently, and benefit from junior secondary education and GCE O/L, which provide opportunities to work in technical jobs. Women also benefit from university education, which enables them to enter professional and managerial occupations.

7. The earnings function method normally produces lower estimates of private returns to education than the alternative elaborate method, mainly due to the larger number of educational levels defined, which increase the opportunity costs of schooling between successive education levels. This difference between the elaborate method and earnings function method is seen in the estimates for Sri Lanka, too.

8. One reason for lower private returns to female employees is that they tend to have interrupted careers, with a dip in female labor force participation in the age range 30-34 [see Appendix Table A1] when small children are being brought up. Labor market interruptions constrain promotions and career progress, and reduce private returns to education.

**Figure 2.1. Private Marginal Rates of Return to Education, Men and Women, 2002**



Source: World Bank estimates, derived from Selectivity Corrected Earnings Functions, Two-Stage Least Squares Estimates. The regression equations underlying the computations are controlled for other factors affecting earnings, such as experience, technical training, labor supply, employment sector and economic sector. Controls for innate ability were not available in the data. Hence, the estimated returns to education may be slightly upward biased, including ability components. Note: Values have been rounded to the nearest integer.

2.6. Overall, the private multiple causal channels, marginal rates of return to including human capital education show that both men production and accumulation, and women enjoy substantial the role of education as a economic benefits from signaling-screening mechanism investing in education. This is through which ability levels of likely to be the outcome of job seekers are communicated

and assessed in the labor market, and the certification effects of education.

### *Education and occupational attainment*

2.7. The impact of education on an individual's occupational attainment can be an important source of economic benefit, as it facilitates inter-generational social mobility. The impact of education on occupational attainment, controlling for family background factors such as parental earnings, education and occupational attainment, is shown in Table 2.3. Education clearly has a strong and positive effect on occupational attainment. Among men, the probability of working in a high level occupation, such as a managerial, senior administrative or professional position, is positively and significantly affected by senior secondary and tertiary education attainment. Among women, too,

**Table 2.3. The Impact of Education on the Occupational Attainment of Men and Women, 2002. Marginal Effects Derived from a Multinomial Logit Model, Maximum-Likelihood Estimates.**

Occupational group	Men			Women		
	Compulsory education	Senior secondary education	Tertiary education	Compulsory education	Senior secondary education	Tertiary education
Legislators, senior officials and managerial occupations	0.01	0.76*	0.91*	0.11	0.77*	0.89*
Professionals	0.01	0.79*	0.95*	0.07	0.82*	0.97*
Technicians, clerical, sales and service workers	0.34*	0.57*	0.01	0.31*	0.52*	0.12
Skilled workers, crafts persons and artisans	0.56*	0.24*	0.01	0.72*	0.21*	na

Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Labor Force Survey. The base occupation category, against which the log-odds ratios of the multinomial logit model have been calculated, is elementary occupations. Values have been rounded to the nearest second decimal. The marginal effects marked with an \* are statistically significant at the 5% level.

the likelihood of reaching a high level occupation is positively and significantly influenced by tertiary and senior secondary education. The probability of holding a middle-class occupation, such as a technical, clerical, sales or service job, and the likelihood of being in a working class-occupation, such as a skilled craft or artisan job, are also positively and significantly affected by compulsory basic education and senior secondary education, for both men and women. Overall, education has a strong positive impact on the occupational attainment of men and women. This favorable relationship between education attainment and occupation class represents the central avenue of social mobility for individuals from disadvantaged and low status household backgrounds.

*Education and female labor force participation*

2.8. The role of education in promoting female labor force

participation constitutes an important element of economic modernization and gender empowerment. The impact of education on female labor force participation is shown in Table 2.4. below. Education exerts a positive and statistically significant effect on female labor force participation among women with GCE A/L qualifications, graduates and postgraduates. The incremental impact of these education levels on the likelihood of labor force participation increases from slightly over 1% among GCE A/L qualified women to about 6% for postgraduate qualified women. Among women with GCE O/L qualifications or less, the impact of education on labor force participation is statistically insignificant, although negatively signed. Past studies of female labor force participation in Sri Lanka have shown a similar pattern, with the higher education levels exerting a positive effect and the lower education levels a negative or

statistically insignificant effect [see Glewwe (1985), Sahn and Alderman (1987), Aturupane (1993)]. There are two sets of reasons for the higher labor force participation probabilities of women with GCE A/L or above. First, there are self-selection effects, as women who study to these levels are likely to possess greater ability and motivation to work. Second, highly educated women enjoy higher life-cycle earnings prospects. Hence, the opportunity cost of non-participation is greater for such women.

*Unemployed educated young people*

2.9. The central challenge faced by Sri Lankan policy makers since the late 1950s has been the absorption of an increasingly educated young labor force into productive employment [see Rodrigo et al 1987, Alailima (1997), Aturupane (1997) and World Bank (2000)]. The pattern of

**Table 2.4. The Impact of Education on Female Labor Force Participation, Marginal Effects Derived from a Probit Model, Maximum-Likelihood Estimates (2002)**

Education level	Marginal Effect %	T Statistic
Primary education incomplete	-0.3	-0.93
Primary complete	-0.7	-1.63
Junior Secondary	-0.9	-1.75
GCE O/L qualified	-0.2	-0.60
GCE A/L qualified	1.4	3.80
Graduate	5.2	3.09
Postgraduate	6.1	3.45

Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Labor Force Survey. The probit model is controlled for other factors affecting female labor force participation, such as age, technical training, demographic composition of household, family socio-economic conditions and marital status.

**Table 2.5. Unemployment Rates by Education Level, Men and Women**

Education level	Age 19-60			Age 19-29		
	Male %	Female %	Total %	Male %	Female %	Total %
No schooling	2	1	1	6	1	4
Primary education	2	3	2	6	10	7
Junior secondary education	4	7	5	11	15	12
Secondary education	9	13	10	18	21	19
GCE O/L qualified	8	17	11	21	36	27
GCE A/L qualified	10	21	15	27	40	34
Graduates	6	12	9	21	30	26
Postgraduates	3	2	3	na	na	na
All education groups	6	11	8	17	27	20

Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Labor Force Survey (2002). Note: The unemployment rates for postgraduate educated individuals in the age range 19-29 were not calculated due to the small sample of observations available.

unemployment across education levels is given in Table 2.5. The unemployment rate for the full labor force aged 19-60 is clearly lower, at 6% for men and 11% for women, than for young people aged 19-29, where male unemployment is 17% and female unemployment 27%. The main source of unemployment among young people is the transition from school or university to work, with the average length of job search around one year. Unemployment rates of young people are especially high among educated groups, such as GCE O/L and GCE A/L qualified individuals and university graduates, with unemployment ranging from 26%-34% for both sexes combined. Within gender groups, unemployment is especially high among women, especially GCE O/L, GCE A/L

and university qualified women, where unemployment rates are as high as 30%-40%. Economic analysis of the factors associated with unemployment rates have also shown that the upper levels of education are positively related to unemployment.

2.10. The economic literature has advanced many reasons for the phenomenon of unemployed educated young people, including skills mismatch and job queuing for public sector employment [see World Bank (2000)]. The principal reason, however, has been structural unemployment caused by the slow pace of economic growth, which prevented the creation of adequate jobs to match the supply of educated youth. In consequence, the government has stepped in regularly over the past three decades to absorb educated young people,

especially university graduates, into public employment to forestall political discontent and social unrest.<sup>9</sup> The large gender differential in unemployment can be attributed mainly to higher reservation wages among women and the narrower band of occupations within which female job seekers receive and accept employment offers [see Aturupane (1997), Jayaweera and Sanmugam (2002)]. The main government strategies to increase employment, especially among educated young people, have been to promote skills development and to increase labor market flexibility. The former strategy, developing vocational training and technical education, is a supply side measure and, while important, cannot fully combat structural unemployment caused by sluggish economic growth,

9. Educated unemployed young people played a leading role in the civil disturbances of 1971 and 1987-89 and in the separatist movement in the northern parts of the country from the 1970s onwards.

which results in insufficient demand for educated labor. The latter strategy, improving labor market flexibility, is a promising demand side measure. However, it is also a measure that has been introduced very recently, January 2004, and has not yet had time to affect the labor market fully.

## 2.2 Social Benefits of Investment in Education: Externality Effects

### *Impact on nutrition and family health outcomes*

2.11. The externality effects of maternal education on child nutrition and family health are among the key social benefits of investing in education. The relationship between mother's education and child nutrition in Sri Lanka is presented in Table 2.6. below. Maternal education clearly plays a strong and significant role in reducing the likelihood of child under-

nutrition. The probability of a child being severely or moderately underweight decreases progressively and significantly as maternal education rises from middle secondary (grades 6-10) level through GCE O/L and GCE A/L and higher. Similarly, the likelihood of a child being severely or moderately stunted declines continuously and significantly as the mother's education increases from primary (grade 5) through GCE A/L and above. The positive relationship between maternal education and child nutrition is the result of superior nutrition knowledge and greater ability to implement favorable nutrition practices among educated women. Studies have shown that educated mothers adopt better pre-natal and neo-natal practices, obtain and respond faster to new information on child nutrition, and utilize health care services for respiratory and

water-borne diseases more frequently and effectively [*see de Silva (2003a), Rajapaksa (2003)*]. For instance, mothers with primary and secondary education were more likely to seek treatment from medical facilities and to use medicines over the prescribed cycle of treatment than uneducated mothers. Similarly, secondary educated mothers had a higher propensity to use necessary nutrition supplementation in infancy [*see Table 2.7*] and to adopt appropriate weaning practices. This externality effect of education did not seem to carry through to tertiary educated mothers, however, supporting the view that the gains of tertiary education are mainly appropriated by graduates as private benefits. One important reason for the absence of a significant relationship between tertiary education attainment of mothers and family health may be that

**Table 2.6. The Impact of Maternal Education on Child Nutrition, 2000.**  
Regression Coefficients from Probit Models, Maximum-Likelihood Estimates

Education level of mother	Probability of being severely or moderately underweight	Probability of being severely or moderately stunted
Primary educated mother (grade 5 completed)	-0.082 (-0.49)	-0.470 (-2.55)
Middle secondary educated mother (grade 6-10)	-0.311 (-1.93)	-0.757 (-3.92)
GCE O/L completed	-0.397 (-2.29)	-0.920 (-4.36)
GCE A/L completed or higher	-0.920 (-4.69)	-1.101 (-4.58)

Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Demographic and Health Surveys 1993 and 2000. Values within brackets are 't' statistics. A "child" is defined as children under 5 years. The probit regressions are controlled for household consumption, age of child, gender of child and local public and community facilities.

**Table 2.7. Proportion of Babies given Colostrum at Birth by Mother's Education Level, 1993 and 2002**

Education	1993 %	2000 %
No schooling	34	65
Primary	45	66
Junior Secondary	54	74
GCE O/L	69	83
GCE A/L	na	92

Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Demographic and Health Surveys, 1993 and 2000.

women educated to these levels normally go to work, so that their time at home is too limited to help improve health and nutrition outcomes.

### 2.3 Social Benefits of Investment in Education: Equity and Distributive Justice

2.12. A cardinal principle of Sri Lankan public policy, ranging over several generations and successive governments, has been the promotion of equity and distributive justice through investment in education. Important education legislation, such as the Education Ordinances of (1939) and (1947), stressed the central role of education in achieving economic and social equity. Recent policy statements, such as NEC (1997) and NEC (2003), have restated that advancing equity through education is a fundamental principle of national policy. In support of this principle, GOSL maintains and financially supports several policy initiatives and measures. These include the island-wide network

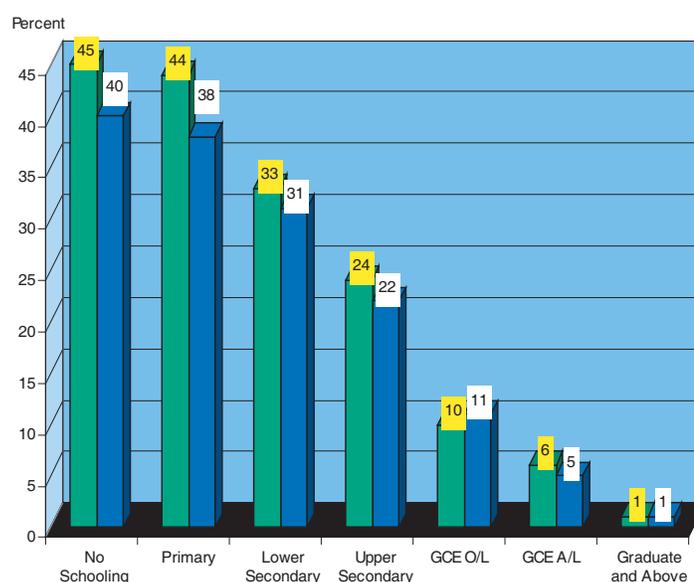
of free government primary and secondary schools; incentive schemes such as free textbooks, free uniforms and transport subsidies to promote school attendance, especially among low-income families; tuition free public universities with admission quotas for students from disadvantaged districts; a regionally widespread system of vocational training centers, many of which offer tuition free instruction; and a publicly funded apprenticeship training

scheme through which on-site factory and firm placements can be received for skills development through on-the-job training.

*Education and deprivation: poverty rates by education attainment of household heads*

2.13. The development experience of many countries has amply demonstrated the power of human capital to expand economic opportunities and reduce poverty. In Sri

**Figure 2.2. Poverty Incidence by Education Level of Household Head (1985/86 and 1995/96)**



Source: Gunewardena, 2000.

Lanka, too, education attainment is strongly correlated with lower poverty rates [see Figure 2.2]. The incidence of poverty is highest among households with uneducated heads, 45% in 1985/86 and 40% in 1995/96. Poverty rates are marginally lower among households with primary educated heads, 44% in 1985/86 and 38% in 1995/96. As the education level of the household head increases household poverty rates decrease continually, falling to just 1% among households with a tertiary educated head. Poverty rates fall most sharply when household heads move through the secondary education cycle, from junior secondary through to GCE O/L and GCE A/L. This pattern of declining poverty as the education level of the household head increases is also supported by studies which show the same decreasing pattern between poverty rates and education levels of principal income earners of households

**Table 2.8. Multiple Regression Analysis of Economic Welfare, Generalized Least Squares Estimates**

Dependant Variable is the Logarithm of per capita Consumption Expenditures				
Variable	Female Headed Households		Male Headed Households	
	Coefficient	T Ratio	Coefficient	T Ratio
Constant	6.38	134.95	6.54	85.56
<b>Variables related to the head of household</b>				
Age 41-50 years	0.03	0.89	0.04	1.04
Age 51-60 years	0.06	1.61	0.08	1.72
Age 61-70 years	0.11	2.71	0.20	2.82
Age 71-80 years	0.09	1.78	0.11	1.46
Primary education (grade 1-5)	0.08	2.63	0.18	3.18
Junior secondary education (grade 6-9)	0.24	7.12	0.20	3.50
Secondary education (grade 10)	0.28	6.51	0.37	5.88
GCE O/L	0.54	12.45	0.59	8.91
GCE A/L	0.45	7.18	0.88	11.34
Unemployed	0.19	3.49	-0.12	-1.66
Homemaker	0.10	3.36	0.13	1.01
Unable to work	0.10	2.97	-0.04	-0.80
Widow/Widower	0.09	3.96	0.09	-0.36
Separated/ Divorced	-0.09	-2.18	-0.08	0.44
Unmarried	0.10	1.72	0.04	2.20
<b>Household Variables</b>				
Household size	-0.09	-8.23	-0.11	-6.40
Number of primary earners	0.10	5.39	0.08	2.20
Number of secondary earners	0.09	4.41	0.11	3.96
Number of dependants	-0.01	-0.57	-0.09	-1.08
Urban sector	0.29	11.86	0.38	10.97
Estate sector	-0.06	-1.36	-0.05	-1.19
<b>Test Statistics</b>				
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		0.22		0.32
F		38.22		30.88
		[21,2801]		[21,1337]
X <sup>2</sup>		158.41		89.64
		[21]		[21]
Sample Size		2823		1359

Source: Aturupane, Harsha (1998).

Note: F is a Wald test for joint significance of regression coefficients. X<sup>2</sup> is the Breusch-Pagan Test for heteroscedasticity. All 't' values have been estimated using heteroscedasticity consistent standard errors.

[see Gunewardena (2000)]. The higher earnings received by educated household heads or principal income earners clearly help to lift households above the poverty thresholds. Other factors are also likely to contribute, such as better fertility control and smaller family size, more regular employment, and informed consumption choices, among educated households.

#### *Education and economic welfare of poor households*

2.14. The economic welfare levels of poor families are closely related to the education attainment of the household head. A study of household expenditures among households in the poorest regions of Sri Lanka showed that consumption increased sharply as the education level of the household head rose, among both female and male headed households

[see Table 2.8]. All education regression coefficients from primary education upwards are positively signed and statistically significant at conventional levels of confidence. Further, the coefficients generally increase as the education level rises. The regression coefficients suggest that, among male headed households in poor regions, families with primary educated heads consume 20% more than households with uneducated heads. This consumption differential rises continuously, with households containing heads educated up to GCE A/L enjoying consumption levels 142% higher. Among female headed households, families with primary educated heads consume 8% more than households with uneducated heads. Among households with heads educated up to GCE O/L, this difference in consumption is

72% greater. These findings show that poor households enjoy strong welfare gains from education.

#### *Education enrolment across economic groups*

2.15. Enrolment rates of children across economic groups show that in the primary education cycle there is a high degree of equity between families from various economic levels [see Table 2.9]. Net primary enrolment among poor households is 95% and net primary enrolment among the richest quintile 97%.<sup>10</sup> At the junior secondary and senior secondary levels, too, the distribution of net enrolment is fairly equitable, with enrolment rates ranging from 63%-71% and 32%-47% between poor and non-poor households. These values imply that net enrolment among non-poor households is only 8% higher for junior

**Table 2.9. Net Enrolment Rates in Major Education Cycles by Economic Groups**

Consumption quintiles	Net primary enrolment (grades 1-5) %	Net junior secondary enrolment (grades 6-9) %	Net enrolment (grades 10-13) %	Net tertiary enrolment %
Lowest 1-20	95	61	31	2
Quintile 21-40	96	66	35	2
Quintile 41-60	95	67	41	4
Quintile 61-80	96	77	47	5
Highest 81-100	97	76	60	13
Poor	95	63	32	2
Non-Poor	96	71	47	6
Sri Lanka	96	68	42	5

Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Household Income and Expenditure Survey, Department of Census and Statistics, 1995/96.

10. The quality of education in public schools attended by rich children and poor children can, of course, vary. However, the volume of public investment in schools attended by poor children may well be higher than in schools attended by rich children. The former tend to be disproportionately small schools, with high student teacher ratios, and are more expensive to operate and maintain in per student terms.

secondary education and 15% higher for senior secondary education in comparison to poor households. Further, these enrolment rates by economic quintile are calculated from 1995/96 data, as this is the most recent household income and expenditure survey available. Evidence from other sources, such as school censuses, show that secondary enrolment rates among poorer households have risen considerably since then, so that the school enrolment gap between low income and high income households is likely to have narrowed further. Overall, GOSL policy to provide universal access to free public primary and secondary education, reinforced by incentives to enroll in school, appears to have benefited children from poor households substantially.

2.16. Enrolment in tertiary education, however, reveals sharp disparities between poor and non-poor households. The tertiary enrolment rate among non-poor households is about three times higher than among poor households. Further, the most affluent consumption group accounts for about half of all enrolment. These findings suggest that the benefits of tertiary education accrue mainly to prosperous households. This is plausible, as overall tertiary enrolment levels in Sri Lanka were about 5% in 1995/96 and are currently about 11%. The vast majority of students from

poor households do not survive through the secondary education system to reach the tertiary education cycle. The disparity in tertiary education enrolment between poorer households and wealthier households is likely to have remained constant or even widened since 1995/96, as enrolment expansion in tuition free public universities has been moderate. The main increase in tertiary education enrolment over the past 8 years or so has been in fee levying private degree awarding institutions and professional courses and programs. These private tertiary education programs and courses are likely to be too expensive for lower income households, especially as many of these programs are examined and certified from overseas institutions in developed

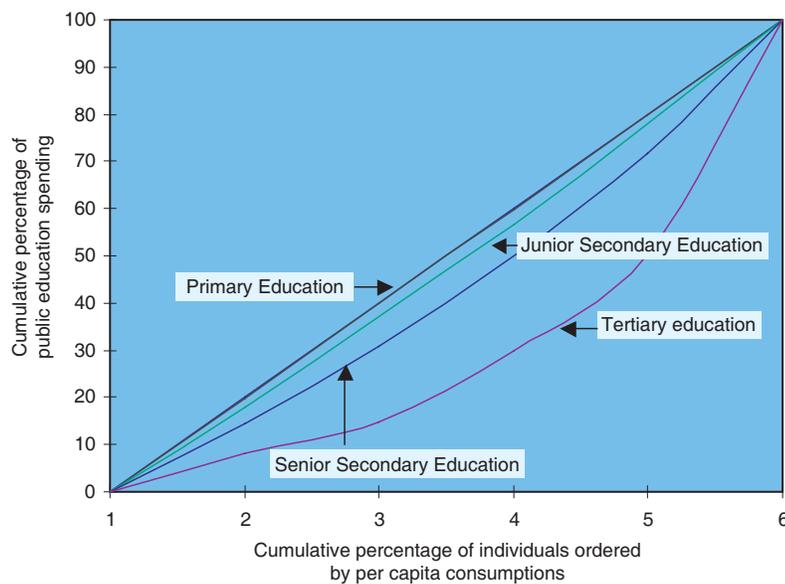
countries such as the U.K., Australia and Singapore.

## 2.4 Equity of Public Education Expenditure

### *Public education spending across economic groups*

2.17. Public expenditure on primary and secondary education is distributed among different economic classes with a high degree of equity [see *Figure 2.3*]. The Lorenz curves for primary education and junior secondary education, which denote the degree of equality of public education spending across consumption quintiles, lie close to the 45% degree line of perfect equality. The Lorenz curve for senior secondary education lies somewhat further from the 45% degree line, but is nonetheless fairly close to it.

**Figure 2.3. Lorenz Curves of Shares of Public Education Expenditure among Economic Groups**



Source: World Bank estimates.

**Table 2.10. Inequality Measures of Public Education Expenditure**

Public education spending by level	Gini Coefficient of Inequality %	Coefficient of Variation %
Primary	0.4	0.1
Junior Secondary	5.1	0.3
Senior Secondary	16.5	3.1
Tertiary	48.4	44.0

Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Household Income and Expenditure Survey, Department of Census and Statistics, 1995/96.

This implies that public investment in education over the primary and secondary education cycles are shared fairly evenly between affluent, middle class, working class and poor households. This is especially the case for primary schooling and junior secondary schooling.<sup>11</sup> Public expenditure on tertiary education, in contrast, is distributed inequitably across economic groups, with increasing shares of expenditure accruing to prosperous households. The Lorenz curve of tertiary education spending deviates substantially from the 45% degree line of equality. This implies that the incidence of public tertiary education spending is quite unequally distributed. Further, the largest share of tertiary education spending benefits only the richest 20% of households.

2.18. These findings are confirmed by two other inequality measures, the Gini coefficient and the coefficient of variation, of public education expenditure [see Table 2.10].

The Gini coefficient of inequality for primary education is less than 1%, and for junior secondary education about 5%, implying a very high degree of equality of spending across economic classes at these education levels. The Gini coefficient of inequality for senior secondary education is about 17%, which again implies considerable equity of public expenditure. These findings are supported by the coefficient of variation of public education spending, which ranges from 0.1% for primary schooling to 3% for senior secondary education. At the tertiary education level, however, there is a high degree of inequality of public education spending, with a Gini coefficient of 48% and a coefficient of variation of 44%.

## 2.5 Regional Dimensions of Equity: Geographical Variations in Equitable Access to Education

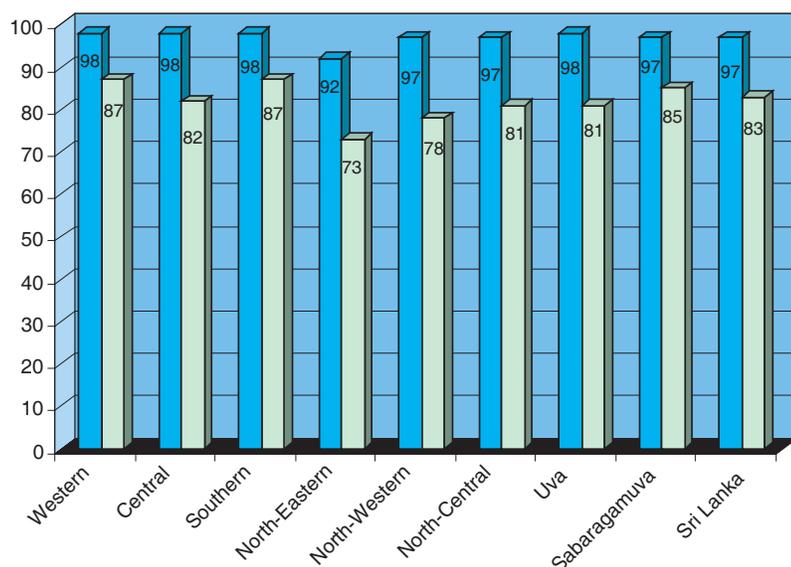
*The compulsory education cycle*

2.19. School participation rates reveal a high degree of regional

equality over the primary education cycle (grades 1-5) [see Figure 2.4]. Primary participation ranges between 98% in provinces such as Western, Central, Southern and Uva to 92% in the conflict affected North-East. The average primary participation rate for the country as a whole is 97%. Participation rates in the junior secondary education cycle (grades 6-9), however, display considerably greater variation than at the primary level. The Western and Southern Provinces attain the highest levels of junior secondary participation, 87%, but participation in the North-Western Province is only 78% and the North-Eastern Province just 73%. There are also substantial intra-province variations in junior secondary participation. The Vavuniya and Batticaloa districts of the North-Eastern Province, for instance, attain participation rates of just 55% and 65% respectively. The Puttalam District of the North-Western Province and Nuwara Eliya District of the Central

11. The quality of public schools attended by poor and affluent students can, of course, vary in favor of the rich. However, the government has several policy measures in place to allocate public resources across schools equitably. Additional resources received by wealthier schools tend to be from private sources, such as past students' association, parents' associations and local philanthropists.

**Figure 2.4. Participation Rates in the Compulsory Education Cycle (Grades 1-9), 2001 (Two bars: Grades 1-5 & Grades 6-9).**



Source: World Bank estimates, based on Ministry of Education, School Census, 2001.

Province, too, reach participation rates of only 69% and 73% respectively. In contrast, the Colombo District of the Western Province and the Jaffna District of the North-Eastern Province achieve very high participation rates of 93% and 92% respectively.

2.20. Average learning achievements in the primary education cycle also show high regional variations [see Table 2.11]. The proportion of primary students attaining mastery of their first language, Sinhalese or Tamil, varies from 23% in the North-Eastern Province to 51% in the

Western Province. Similarly, mastery of primary mathematics ranges from 25% in the North-Eastern Province to 52% in the Western Province, and mastery of English language competencies varies from 5% in the North-Eastern Province to 20% in the Western Province. The Central, Uva and North-Central Provinces, too, tend to perform poorly on language and mathematics scores. Intra-regional variations within provinces are also high. In the North-Eastern Province, for instance, mastery of first language ranges from 11% in the Kilinochchi District to 26%-27% in the Vavuniya, Amparai, Jaffna and Trincomalee Districts. Within the Central Province, mastery of mathematics varies from 22% in the Nuwara Eliya District to 41% in the Kandy District. Overall, Kilinochchi and Mullaitivu, the two districts most severely affected by the

**Table 2.11. Primary Education Learning Outcomes by Province, 2003**

Province	Proportion of students achieving mastery of their first language (Sinhalese or Tamil) %	Proportion of students achieving mastery of mathematics %	Proportion of students achieving mastery of the English language %
Western	51	52	20
Central	34	33	8
Southern	43	44	13
North-Eastern	23	25	5
North Western	42	43	9
North Central	36	41	8
Uva	34	35	8
Sabaragamuwa	40	43	10
Sri Lanka	37	38	10

Source: National Assessment of Grade 4 Cognitive Achievement, National Education Research and Evaluation Center, University of Colombo.

**Table 2.12. Net Enrolment in Senior Secondary Education and GCE O/L and GCE A/L Examination Pass Rates, 2002**

Province	Senior secondary (grades 10-13) net enrolment rate %	Proportion of students successfully completing the GCE O/L examination %	Proportion of students successfully completing the GCE A/L examination %
Western	52	48	54
Central	51	32	55
Southern	50	37	57
North-Eastern	na	32	58
North Western	49	38	58
North Central	46	31	53
Uva	46	31	52
Sabaragamuva	47	34	57
Sri Lanka	50	37	56

Source: Net enrolment rates calculated from the Labor Force Survey 2002, Department of Census and Statistics, and examination rates obtained from the Department of Examinations, Ministry of Education.

secessionist conflict, perform worst in the country, while the Colombo District performs best.

2.21. The comparatively high regional variations in participation rates within the junior secondary education cycle and the substantial geographical disparities in learning achievements can be attributed to several factors, such as: (i) variations in the quality of education across regions, including teacher capabilities, availability and attendance, classroom practices, school leadership, physical facilities and quality inputs; (ii) variations in social and economic conditions of households and students, with lower education participation and achievement in poorer districts and provinces, and higher education participation and achievement in wealthier districts and provinces; and (iii) the impact of the secessionist

conflict, which disrupted the education system in the North-Eastern Province and the surrounding regions of neighboring provinces.

#### *Senior secondary education*

2.22. The pattern of net enrolment across the senior secondary education cycle (grades 10-13) shows only modest regional variation, ranging from 46%-52% [see Table 2.12]. The highest enrolment is in the Western Province, with 52% of children in the age-group 15-18 enrolled in senior secondary education, followed by the Central Province 51% and Southern Province 50%. Net enrolment is lowest in the North-Central and Uva Provinces, with 46% of children aged 15-18 enrolled in senior secondary schools. While household survey data for the North-Eastern Province is not yet available to estimate net enrolment rates, school census

information suggests that the overall level of enrolment is likely to be slightly less than in the Uva and North-Central Provinces. The relatively even distribution of senior secondary enrolment across provinces can be attributed to several factors: (i) widespread access to senior secondary education, with about 6,600 government schools (67% of all public schools) offering classes at least up to GCE O/L; (ii) the policy of automatic promotion up to grade 11, which facilitates enrolment; and (iii) the provision of incentives for school attendance, such as free textbooks and uniforms, and subsidized transport.

2.23. Pass rates at the GCE O/L examination show sharp variations in achievement between the Western Province and the rest of the country. In the Western Province, about one out of every two students passes the GCE O/L; however, in the other

provinces only one out of every three students passes the GCE O/L examination. Pass rates are lowest in the North-Central and Uva Provinces, with only 31% of candidates passing the GCE O/L examination. There are two main reasons for the steep difference between the Western Province and the rest of the country. First, the Western Province has some of the best educational facilities in the country, and is a popular location with principals, teachers and education administrators. In consequence, the education system in the Western Province is superior, both in terms of human resources and the stock of physical capital, to the rest of the country. Second, the Western Province is considerably wealthier and better developed than the rest of the country, and students come from more educated families and invest greater private resources in education. Hence, household and student specific determinants of education outcomes are more favorable in the Western Province.

2.24. GCE A/L examination pass rates are fairly even across provinces, ranging from 52% in Uva to 58% in the North-Western and North-Eastern Provinces. The low regional variation in GCE A/L pass rates across provinces can be attributed to several factors: (i) students who appear for this examination are among the

brightest and best motivated in their age cohort and belong to about the top 25% of the ability distribution; (ii) GCE A/L classes are chiefly offered in schools located in cities and towns, where differences in school facilities and the availability of educational resources are modest; and (iii) households incur substantial private expenses to support GCE A/L students, especially through private tuition. The main regional inequality in the GCE A/L cycle is in access to science subjects and mathematics [see *NEC (2003)*]. Only 600 schools in the country offer GCE A/L science classes. Further, effective GCE A/L science teaching is confined to about 200 urban schools. In consequence, access to GCE A/L education in science subjects is tightly constrained. In the distribution of such schools, the North-Central, Uva and North-Eastern Provinces are particularly disadvantaged.

## **2.6 Regional Dimensions of Equity: Government Policies to Overcome Regional Variations in Education Access, Quality and Opportunity**

2.25. Government policy to reduce regional disparities and increase education access and quality in disadvantaged areas contains two main components: (i) progressive central government financing, with

favorable treatment for poor provinces and regions; and (ii) special policy measures to promote equity of education access, quality and opportunity, especially: (a) a norm-based unit cost resource allocation mechanism to distribute public resources to schools equitably; (b) a scholarship examination at grade 5 to provide poor but talented children access to higher quality schools; and (c) district and special quotas for students from disadvantaged regions to attend universities.

### *Progressive government financing*

2.26. One of the cardinal policies guiding government education expenditure is the development of education systems in the poorer provinces; especially those, such as the North-Eastern, Uva and North-Central Provinces, whose provincial revenue raising capabilities are either low or non-existent. In contrast, affluent areas of the country such as the Western Province are awarded considerably lower resources for education by the central government. For instance, the share of central government financing of provincial education expenditure ranges from about 45%-50% in the Western Province to 100% in the North-Eastern Province. The pattern of public primary and secondary education expenditure per student as a proportion of provincial per capita income, is

clearly progressive [see Figure 2.5 and Figure 2.6].

2.27. The poorest province containing the lowest education outcomes, North-Eastern, enjoys the highest proportionate government expenditure per

student on education. The richest province with the highest education outcomes, Western, experiences the lowest proportionate government expenditure per student on education. Also, public education spending per student

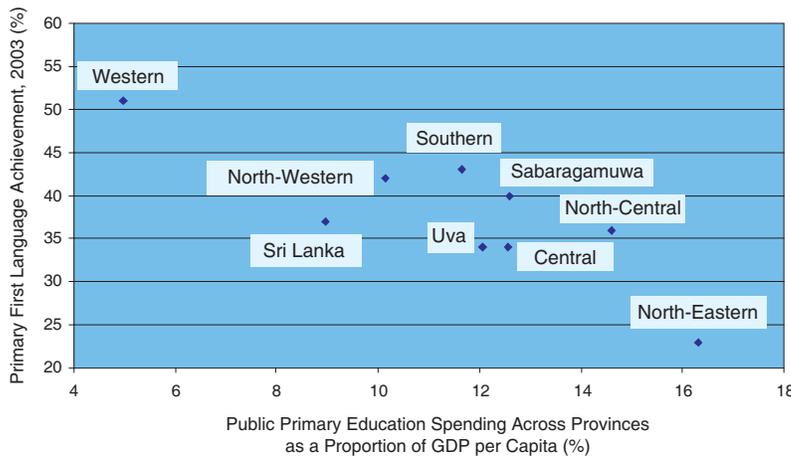
as a proportion of provincial income per capita is about 300% greater in the North-Eastern Province than in the Western Province. Other poor provinces or provinces containing very poor areas, such as Uva, North-Central, Central and Southern, also receive generous central government grants for education which enable them to invest considerably higher resources in human capital accumulation than can be financed through provincial resources alone. Central government spending on education, health and other social services constitutes one of the chief income re-distribution mechanisms in the country. About 75%-80% of government revenue is generated in the Western Province, the most affluent region of the country, and re-distributed through the central government to the other provinces. The education system, which accounts for about half or more of provincial spending, is one of the chief beneficiaries of progressive public investment.

*Special policy measures to promote equity of access, quality and opportunity*

*The norm-based unit cost resource allocation mechanism for schools.*

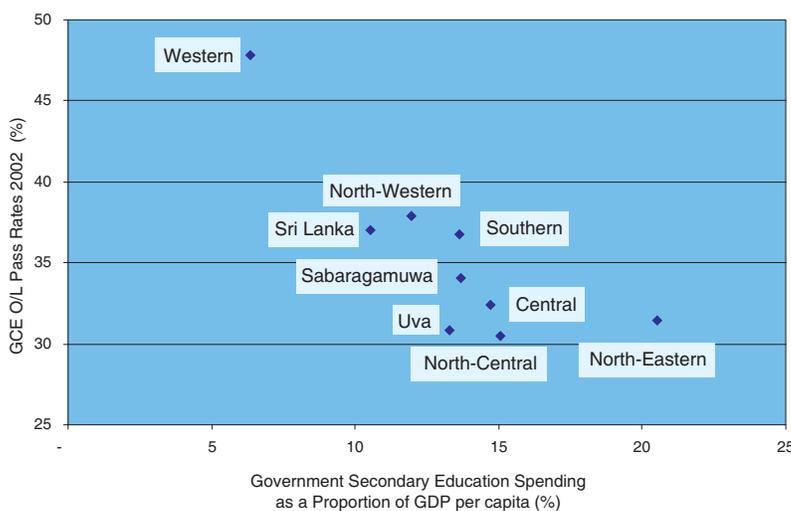
2.28. The allocation of resources to schools, up to the mid-1990s, was chiefly based on historical budgeting and the initiative and dynamism of individual principals. This resulted, over time, in large

**Figure 2.5. Progressive Government Financing of Provinces with Low Average Primary Education Achievement Levels**



Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Government of Sri Lanka Budget Estimates, Finance Commission and Provincial Councils' Financial Statistics and Central Bank of Sri Lanka National Income Accounts.

**Figure 2.6. Progressive Central Government Financing of Provinces with Low GCE O/L Pass Rates**



Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Government of Sri Lanka Budget Estimates, Finance Commission and Provincial Councils' Financial Statistics and Central Bank of Sri Lanka National Income Accounts.

budgetary disparities between schools, with funding variations between schools of similar characteristics as large as 1:300 in 1996 [see *GOSL-ADB (1996), Aturupane and Abeygunawardena (2000)*]. To address this issue, the government adopted a policy of funding schools based on a norm-based, unit cost resource allocation formula [see *Aturupane and Abeygunawardena (2000)*]. This formula is built on five criteria: (i) quality input norms produced by curriculum developers, teacher educators and master teachers; (ii) a central equation to allocate resources for recurrent expenditures to schools on a per student basis; (iii) fine tuning of the central equation to accommodate economies of scale enjoyed by large schools and diseconomies of scale experienced by small schools; (iv) variations across grade cycles, based on quality input norms; and (v) the application of a stock adjustment principle for capital investments, where schools are allocated resources to enable gradual development from their existing capital stock to the desired capital stock implied by the quality input norms. This resource allocation formula was pilot tested in a few provinces during 1999, and introduced island-wide from 2000 onwards. The formula has proved highly successful, reducing disparities between schools with similar characteristics from 1:300 in

1996 to about 1:15 by 2002 [see *Finance Commission (2002)*]. Poor schools have enjoyed large inflows of quality inputs and central government and provincial council education staff members have welcomed the increased equity of resource allocation to schools. Education policy makers have affirmed the use of the norm-based unit cost resource allocation mechanism as the basis on which public resources should be distributed to schools in the future [see *NEC (2003)*].

*Grade 5 scholarship for poor but talented pupils*

2.29. The variations in education quality, obviously, reach deeper than the geographical boundaries of provincial councils. The quality of education varies among schools within provincial boundaries as much as across provinces. Students from poor rural homes tend to be disadvantaged, in particular, as schools located in cities and towns are on average of higher quality than schools in rural areas. The government has a special policy measure, the Grade 5 scholarship scheme, to increase educational opportunities for talented children from poor households and schools. Students upon reaching grade 5 are allowed to sit a national scholarship examination, and successful pupils from disadvantaged schools are entitled to transfer, with state assistance, to better

schools for their secondary education. The Grade 5 scholarship scheme has been extremely popular among parents and families, and government policy is to continue this scheme, with periodic fine tuning [see *NEC (2003)*].

*University quotas to provide preferential access to students from poor districts*

2.30. The government allocates a proportion of university places on the basis of district quotas, to compensate for educational disadvantages to students from poorer districts. For subjects such as Medicine, Engineering, Science, Agriculture, Law and Commerce only 40% of university places are allocated purely on GCE A/L marks. A further 55% of places are awarded on a district quota system, with each district receiving a quota proportional to its population. Within the district quotas, allocation of university positions is again on the basis of GCE A/L marks. The final 5% of university places are reserved for students from educationally disadvantaged districts. At present, the disadvantaged districts, which receive preferential treatment in the allocation of university quotas, are: (i) seven of the eight districts of the North-Eastern Province, Jaffna, Kilinochchi, Mullativu, Vavuniya, Mannar, Trincomalee and Amparai; (ii) the two districts of the Uva Province, Moneragala and

Badulla; (iii) the two districts of the North-Central Province, Anuradhapura and Pollonaruwa; and (iv) one district each from the Southern and Central Provinces, Hambantota and Nuwara Eliya, respectively. However, university admission is based purely on marks at the GCE A/L for arts subjects, as educational opportunities are considered fairly even across districts for arts subjects.

## **2.7 Conclusions and Options for the Future**

2.31. The preceding analysis shows that investment in education produces a wide array of economic and social benefits, ranging from increased labor productivity, occupational attainment and earnings to superior family health and child nutrition outcomes. The social rate of return to education is high, especially at the compulsory basic and senior secondary education grade cycles, and suggests that Sri Lanka under-invests in education at these levels. Externality effects, such as health and nutrition benefits, are also strong among primary and secondary educated mothers. Tertiary education generates high private returns to individuals, through such outcomes as higher female labor force participation, superior occupational attainment and increased earnings. However, social returns to tertiary education are considerably

smaller than for compulsory basic and secondary education, suggesting that the benefits of tertiary education accrue chiefly to individuals as private gains.

2.32. The potential benefits of investment in education have not been fully utilized, as slow economic growth has resulted in poor expansion of the demand for educated labor, resulting in several episodes of social unrest and political instability led by frustrated, unemployed educated young people. The main causes of slow growth were economic policies that, over a long period of time from the 1950s to the 1970s, stifled markets and reduced incentives, and the secessionist conflict in the North-Eastern area from the 1980s onwards. Currently, the pro-market policies of the major political parties and the ceasefire in the North-Eastern region offer promise of faster economic growth and higher demand for educated labor. Peace would especially benefit households and students in the North-Eastern province, which is now the least developed region in the country.

2.33. Education exerts a powerful effect on poverty reduction and the economic welfare of the poor. There is also a high degree of equity of government education investment across provinces, with progressively higher per student allocations for educationally disadvantaged regions. The wide range of

policy measures to promote enrolment, attendance and school completion, especially at primary and compulsory basic education levels, have enjoyed a high measure of success. And successful and popular policies, such as the norm-based unit cost resource allocation mechanism, have greatly enhanced the equity of resource distribution among schools. The allocation of public education spending across economic groups is progressive at the primary and secondary education levels, with benefits relatively evenly distributed among all economic groups. However, at tertiary education level the pattern of public education spending is regressive, with benefits accruing disproportionately to the highest economic class.

2.34. These findings, especially the pattern of social and private rates of return to education, the externality benefits of schooling, and the equity of government education expenditure among economic classes, suggest four important policy directions for future public investment in education.

a. Expansion of public investment in primary and secondary education, while controlling expenditure on tertiary education, especially costly university education. This can be accomplished by allocating the largest share of any increase in

budgetary resources for education to primary and secondary education. In addition, resources generated within the education system through cost saving measures can also be channeled towards the school system.

b. Increased resources for primary and secondary schooling could be allocated to meet the extra cost of achieving universal enrolment and completion in the compulsory schooling cycle, grades 1-9, and to raise the quality of primary and secondary education. Policy measures to attract the last 18% of the population aged 6-14 into the education system can include expanding and developing the special education and non-formal education programs, reconstructing and rehabilitating the damaged schools in the conflict affected regions, improving facilities for disabled children, and increasing the coverage of basic services in schools located in disadvantaged areas, such as water supply and sanitation. Increasing the quality of education can include investing greater resources in quality inputs, such as teaching material, learning

resources, equipment and technology, and quality processes, such as professional development of teachers, training of principals to provide effective school leadership, and on-site academic and managerial support to schools.

c. Creating a favorable environment for private investment in education. The private sector can contribute considerable resources to the education system. However, the legal restriction on establishing private schools over the grade 1-9 cycle needs to be lifted to exploit this potential source of additional investment into the education sector. In addition, the government needs to take steps to lighten the limitations on private investment imposed by the political economy environment, which is highly negative toward private investment. Removing the legal barrier to private investment in the basic education cycle would be one important step. A further key step would be an official public endorsement of the recommendations made by the NEC (2003) to allow the establishment of private schools, international schools and

private degree awarding institutions, under suitable quality assurance criteria and measures.

d. Expansion of tertiary education, especially the expensive university system, could be left chiefly to the private sector. To further encourage private investment in tertiary education the government needs to advance policy measures to counter the present negative political economy environment surrounding the tertiary system. Currently, several promising policy actions have been initiated, including reform of the legislative framework governing the university system to provide greater autonomy to individual institutions, financial stipends for tertiary level skills development activities, and the creation of an accreditation framework to cover both private degree awarding institutions and public universities. Further measures could include developing a student loan scheme, especially for poor but talented students, and introducing a voucher system that tertiary level students can use in either private or public tertiary education institutions.

**Appendix Table A1.**  
**Male and Female Labor Force Participation Rates, 2002**

Age	Men %	Women %
19-24 years	74	44
25-29 years	92	45
30-34 years	96	41
35-39 years	95	46
40-44 years	94	46
45-49 years	92	44
50-54 years	88	39
55-59 years	77	27
60-70 years	50	12

*Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Labor Force Survey, 2002.*

# Chapter Three

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## INVESTMENT IN EDUCATION: RESOURCES AND SERVICE DELIVERY

### 3.0 Introduction

3.1. Investment in education is one of the central pillars of government policy in Sri Lanka. The objectives of investing public resources in education are to promote equity and social mobility, contribute to high and sustained economic growth, and enhance human development. In addition, private households invest resources in education to improve employment prospects, earnings and social status. Three key factors determining the quantity and quality of education outputs are the level, composition and distribution of education expenditures, the internal efficiency of the education system and the effectiveness of education service delivery mechanisms. This chapter analyzes education investment in Sri Lanka, with a

special focus on public investment, internal efficiency and the quality of service delivery. The magnitude and pattern of private investment in education is also examined.

### 3.1 Public Investment in Education

*Public education expenditure in international perspective*

3.2. Government education expenditure in Sri Lanka currently amounts to about LKR 40,000 million (USD 415 million) annually [see Table 3.1]. In recent years, the education budget has accounted for approximately 3% of national income and 7%-9% of government spending. This represents a comparatively modest level of public education investment by developing

country standards [see Table 3.2]. Sri Lanka devotes the lowest share of the public budget to education of the entire set of countries, shown in Table 3.2, mostly high performing East Asian countries or neighboring South Asian nations. The group of lower middle-income countries, to which Sri Lanka is expected to belong in the near future, allocate about 4% of their national income to public education. Countries such as South Korea, Malaysia, Thailand and Singapore, which act as models for Sri Lankan policy makers, devote 18%-31% of government expenditures to education. South Asian countries and low income nations allocate, on average, about 3.2% of national income and 11% of government

**Table 3.1. Public Investment in Education as a Proportion of National Income and Government Expenditure, 1998-2002**

Year	Public education expenditure (nominal prices) (rupees million)	Education expenditure as a percentage of GDP %	Education expenditure as a percentage of government expenditure %	Education recurrent expenditure as a percentage of government recurrent expenditure %	Education capital expenditure as a percentage of government capital expenditure %
1998	28,689	3.1	8.4	11.5	4.1
1999	29,368	2.9	8.9	11.2	5.0
2000	35,348	3.1	7.8	11.4	3.5
2001	39,995	3.2	8.2	11.7	3.3
2002	40,017	2.9	6.8	10.3	2.5

Source: Calculated from Revenue and Expenditure Statements and Budget Estimates, Government of Sri Lanka and Provincial Councils, and Annual Reports, Central Bank of Sri Lanka.

expenditures to education. a lower proportion of national the relatively modest level of Further, in South Asia, only income on public education. public education investment in Pakistan and Bangladesh spend There are five main reasons for Sri Lanka: (i) the broad range of

**Table 3.2. Education Expenditure as a Share of National Income and Government Expenditures, Sri Lanka and Selected Other Countries**

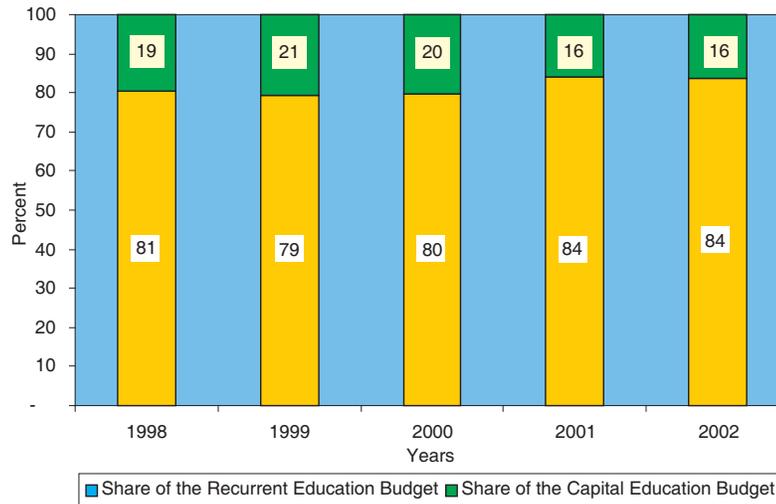
Country	Education Expenditure as a Proportion of National Income %	Education Expenditure as a Proportion of Government Expenditure %	Education Recurrent Expenditure per Student as a Proportion of National Income per capita %	Average Teacher Salaries as a Proportion of National Income per capita %
Sri Lanka	2.9	6.8	9.7	1.5
India	4.1	12.7	16.3	3.0
Bangladesh	2.5	15.7		3.3
Pakistan	1.8	7.8		
Nepal	3.7	14.1	14.5	
Malaysia	6.2	26.7	20.7	2.9
Maldives	3.9	11.2		
Bhutan	5.2	12.9		
Thailand	5.4	31.0	25.3	3.1
South Korea	3.8	17.4		4.1
Singapore	3.7	23.6		
Phillipines	4.2	20.6		
Costa Rica	4.4	22.8		
South Asia	3.2	11.2	14.5	2.8
Low Income Countries	3.2		16.3	
Lower Middle Income Countries	4.1		18.5	
Upper Middle Income Countries	5.0		23.0	

Source: Sri Lanka, calculations from Government of Sri Lanka Budget Estimates, Central Bank of Ceylon Annual Reports, various issues; Other Countries, World Development Indicators (World Bank) and UNESCO Statistics, various issues. The information above for Sri Lanka is computed from 2002 data. Other countries and regions are from the closest available year in the late 1990s and early 2000s.

public services, such as universal free health care and wide-ranging access to poverty oriented safety nets, such as the Samurdhi program, which are generally not available in most other developing countries, and compete for government resources; (ii) high defense expenditure, which absorbs over 5% of GDP and crowds out other investments; (iii) low public revenue, which has contributed to large budget deficits and constrained government expenditures; (iv) comparatively low teacher salaries, with Sri Lankan teachers receiving salaries about half or less, as a proportion of national income per capita, than teachers in countries such as India, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Thailand and South Korea; and (v) the fact that Sri Lanka built up its capital stock of schools during the 1950s-1970s, so that there is now no need for major investment in the construction of classrooms and new school buildings.

3.3. The tight budget constraint in recent years has fallen especially heavily on the capital budget. The education capital budget declined steeply from 5% of government capital spending in 1999 to 2.5% in 2002. In terms of shares of the education budget, the capital budget decreased from about 20% in 1998-2000 to 16% in 2001-02 [see Figure 3.1]. This fall in capital investment constrained expansion and

**Figure 3.1. Shares of Public Capital and Recurrent Education Spending, 1998-2002.**



Source: World Bank estimates, calculated from UNDP (2003).

development of the education system. In particular, it restricted investment in physical facilities to expand and increase urban schools; supply basic services, such as water supply and sanitation, to rural schools; and invest in quality inputs, such as IT centers, science laboratories, libraries, activity rooms and multi-purpose rooms. As a result of the decline in government capital resources to education, a high proportion of investment expenditure has been financed through donor funded projects. For instance, in 2002, the contribution of donor assistance to the Ministry of Human Resources, Education and Cultural affairs was equal to approximately 68% of the capital budget. When government counterpart funding to donor projects is included, this share rises to about 81%.

#### *The trend and composition of public education expenditure*

3.4. The recent trend of public education expenditure shows considerable fluctuation in real spending [see Table 3.3]. Overall, public education spending per student declined in 2002 by about 4 percent in comparison to the level in 2001. Further, both recurrent and capital spending per student decreased between 2001 and 2002. However, education expenditure per student increased sharply in 2000 and 2001 in relation to the levels in 1998 and 1999, mainly due to investment in new public universities. As such, the level of expenditure in 2002 was above the spending levels in 1998-99, despite the decline relative to 2001. The decline in per student public education spending in 2002 can partly be attributed to the fiscal

**Table 3.3. Time Trend of Public Education Expenditure per Student in Real Terms, 1998-2002**

Year	Real Public Education Expenditure per Student (1996 = 100)	Real Public Recurrent Education Expenditure per Student (1996 = 100)	Real Public Capital Education Expenditure per Student (1996 = 100)
1998	5,747	4,631	1,116
1999	5,626	4,467	1,159
2000	6,241	4,963	1,277
2001	6,286	5,284	1,002
2002	6,032	5,046	987

Source: Calculated from Revenue and Expenditure Statements and Budget Estimates, Government of Sri Lanka, Central Bank Reports, School Census Statistics and UGC Statistical Handbook, various issues.

difficulties of the period, which forced a tight budgetary policy. Such major fluctuations within a short span of time make it difficult for education policy makers, managers and administrators to develop long-term investment decisions and plans.

3.5. The recurrent education budget accounts for about 79%-84% of public education expenditure. The chief component of recurrent education expenditure, accounting for about 85%-90% of the combined central and provincial recurrent education budgets, is salaries and wages. The major share of the salary bill is on teacher salaries, followed by the salaries of principals, education administrators and other grades. After salaries, the next highest shares of recurrent education spending are on textbooks, which receive about 3% of the total recurrent budget, and school uniforms, which account for about 2% of the total

recurrent education budget. The balance funds are mainly used for administrative and operating costs such as electricity, communications, water and postal charges, and staff travel. The main challenge faced by the recurrent education budget is to allocate sufficient funds, once salaries and administrative costs have been met, to support education quality processes, such as professional development of teachers and principals and delivery of on-site academic and administrative support to schools, and meet the operating costs of capital education investment.

3.6. The main share of capital or investment expenditure in the school system, accounting for over 80% of capital education investment, is on construction activities, mainly building of class room blocks. Only a relatively small proportion of resources, less than 20%, are invested in quality inputs, such as equipment, technology, furniture and tools. The

classroom construction activities in the school system also appear *ad hoc*, without sound forward planning based on enrolment needs. In consequence, many rural schools carry excess capacity with empty classrooms, while urban schools are heavily congested and over-crowded. Construction activities in the university system, too, appear uncoordinated, with heavy expenditure on buildings without a clear plan based on needs assessments of universities. As a result of the low investment in quality inputs, such as equipment and technology, the country could find itself on the wrong side of the digital divide and be seriously constrained in equipping future generations with the knowledge, skills and competencies required in the modern global knowledge economy. The main challenges facing the education capital budget are to rationalize construction activities in the

school system and universities, allocate greater resources to expanding and increasing urban schools, and devote more funds to high level quality inputs, such as IT centers, science laboratories, libraries, activity rooms, equipment and technology.

*Distribution of public education expenditure by education level and international comparisons*

3.7. Total public education spending is about LKR 40,000 million. Out of this sum, approximately 32% (13,000 million rupees) is spent on primary education, 50% (20,000 million rupees) on secondary education, 14% (5,600 million rupees) on tertiary education, and 3% (1,400 million rupees) on technical education [see Table 3.4].

3.8. Unit recurrent costs per student are lowest for primary schooling, about 6,500 rupees per student, followed by secondary schooling,

approximately 7,500 rupees per student. Technical education, at 15,000 rupees per student, is more expensive than primary and secondary education.

Unit recurrent costs are highest, by a long way, for university education, costing around 66,000 rupees per student. As a proportion of GDP per capita, primary and secondary schooling cost 8% - 9% per student and technical education about double that at 18% per student. University education is considerably more expensive, costing 79% of national income per capita per student.

3.9. This pattern of costs is fairly typical for education systems, with primary education being the least costly and university education the most expensive. These expenditure levels, unit costs and proportions reflect enrolment numbers and shares, and variations in production costs across education cycles.

University education is normally the most expensive level of education, requiring highly qualified staff, sophisticated technology and advanced equipment and material, resulting in higher human capital and physical resource costs. Technical education also tends to be expensive, as it requires highly specialized equipment and staff resources. Primary and secondary education are less expensive than university or technical education as they afford greater scope for economies of scale and require less sophisticated technology and capital inputs. However, secondary education is normally more expensive than primary education, as secondary teachers tend to be better qualified and paid, and the production technology is more capital intensive, especially at the senior secondary level.

3.10. By international standards, average recurrent education expenditures per

**Table 3.4. Education Investment by Education Level, 2002**

Education Level	Total Expenditure (Rupees million)	Recurrent Expenditure (Rupees million)	Capital Expenditure (Rupees million)	Share of Education Expenditure by Level %	Unit Recurrent Costs (Rupees)	Unit Recurrent Costs as a Proportion of GDP per capita %
Primary	12,904	11,001	1,903	32	6,471	8
Secondary	20,184	17,207	2,977	50	7,481	9
University	5,577	4,416	1,161	14	65,697	79
Technical	1,352	848	503	3	14,834	18
Total	40,016	33,472	6,545	100	8,064	10

Source: Calculated from Government of Sri Lanka, Revenues and Expenditure Statements, Statistics of the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Higher Education, Provincial Councils and University Grants Commission. Note: Numbers may not add up precisely due to rounding.

**Table 3.5. Unit Recurrent Expenditure on Major Education Cycles:  
Sri Lanka and Selected Countries**

Country	Primary education expenditure per student as a proportion of national income per capita %	Secondary education expenditure per student as a proportion of national income per capita %	Tertiary education expenditure per student as a proportion of national income per capita %
Sri Lanka	9	11	100
India	8	16	93
Bangladesh	-	-	-
Pakistan	-	-	-
Nepal	9	12	111
Malaysia	11	17	54
Maldives	-	-	-
Bhutan	-	-	-
Thailand	12	11	25
South Korea	17	12	6
Hong Kong	8	13	-
Singapore	-	-	34
Indonesia	-	-	12
Phillipines	9	10	15
Costa Rica	-	18	-
South Asia	-	-	84
Low Income Countries	-	-	-
Lower Middle Income Countries	-	-	-
Upper Middle Income Countries	-	-	-

Source: Sri Lanka, calculations from Government of Sri Lanka, Revenue and Expenditure Statements and Budget Estimates, Central Bank of Ceylon Annual Reports, various issues; other Countries, World Development Indicators (World Bank), UNDP Human Development Reports, and UNESCO Statistics, various issues. The information above for Sri Lanka is computed from 2002 data. Other countries and regions are from the closest available year in the late 1990s and early 2000s. Note: Numbers may not add up precisely due to rounding.

student in Sri Lanka are modest at primary and secondary education levels, but high at the tertiary education level [see Table 3.5]. Average recurrent education expenditure per student as a share of national income per capita on primary and secondary education, at about 9% and 11% respectively, are among the lowest in South Asia and East Asia. In contrast, average tertiary education expenditure per student as a share of national income per capita, at 100%, is slightly

higher than India, and substantially above the level in East Asian countries such as South Korea, Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia and the Philippines. The main reason for the high share of public recurrent spending on tertiary education is the large unit cost of government universities. Overall, the pattern of average recurrent expenditure across education levels suggests that, in contrast to high performing East Asian countries, the balance of public

resources in Sri Lanka may be tilted unduly in favor of tertiary education, at the expense of primary and secondary schooling.

### 3.2 Private Investment in Education

3.11. Households invest considerable resources on education. In 1995/96, the most recent date for which information on household education expenditure is currently available, private

**Table 3.6. Household Education Expenditure, 1995/96**

Consumption Quintile	Annual Household Expenditures (Rupees '000)	Share of Expenditures Across Economic Groups %
Quintile 1-20	290,400	6
Quintile 21-40	400,800	9
Quintile 41-60	602,400	13
Quintile 61-80	925,200	20
Quintile 81-100	2,448,000	52
Poor	331,200	7
Non-poor	4,344,000	93
Sri Lanka	4,668,000	100

Source: World Bank estimates, calculated from the Department of Census and Statistics Household Income and Expenditure Survey, 1995/96. Note: Figures may not add up due to rounding.

expenditure in seven provinces<sup>12</sup> was about 4,688 million rupees [see Table 3.6]. At 1995/96 public education investment levels, this was equal to about 23% of government education expenditure. It was also greater than public capital education expenditure by about 13%.<sup>13</sup>

3.12. The major proportion of household education spending is by the richest consumption quintile, which accounts for about 52% of total household education expenditure. The share of private education investment then progressively declines as the consumption quintiles become less affluent, with the poorest quintile accounting for only about 6% of total private education expenditure. The poor, who were 25% of the population in

1995/96, account for 7% of household education spending, while the non-poor spend the balance 93%. These findings can be attributed to several factors, including: (i) the higher discretionary income available to prosperous households to invest in child quality through education; (ii) the survival of students from wealthy homes to higher levels of the education system, which require greater expenditure and, at the tertiary level, is comparatively open to private investment, especially outside the university system; and (iii) the normally higher education levels of affluent parents, which induces them to invest more heavily in the education of their children.

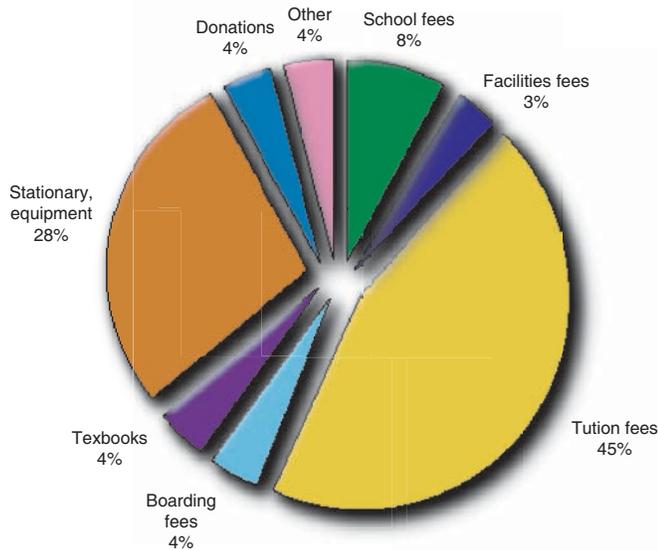
3.13. The largest component of annual private education

expenditure, about 590 rupees per student (45% of total unit private education expenditure), is on tuition fees [see Figure 3.2]. This is followed by equipment and stationary, 360 rupees per student (28%) and school fees, 103 rupees per student (8%). Other types of expenditure, such as textbooks, boarding fees, facility fees, donations and miscellaneous expenses, account for about 246 rupees per student or 19% of total private education spending. The dominance of tuition in private household education spending is the outcome of several factors, such as: (i) extreme competition to enter university; (ii) the high stakes grade 5 scholarship examination; (iii) perceived inadequacies in teaching and

12. Information for the conflict affected North-Eastern Province was not collected in the 1995/96 household income and expenditure survey, due to the armed secessionist conflict in the area.

13. Note that these estimates underestimate total private education spending, as information for the North-Eastern Province is not available. This is the poorest province, with about 72% of the per capita income of the next poorest province, North-Central. On the assumption that household education spending in the North-Eastern Province is equal to 72% of the North-Central Province, private education expenditure in the former would be about 162 million rupees. This would have raised total household education expenditure to 4,830 million rupees in 1995/96.

**Figure 3.2. Shares of Private Education Expenditure per Student by Spending Category.**



Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 1995/96.

examination preparation by schools, especially for major public examinations such as the GCE O/L and GCE A/L; and (iv) a culture of attending tuition classes, which has now become virtually institutionalized [see NEC (2003)]. The problem of low teacher salaries, too, has forced many teachers to search for secondary income sources, and private tuition is an obvious second job for school teachers.

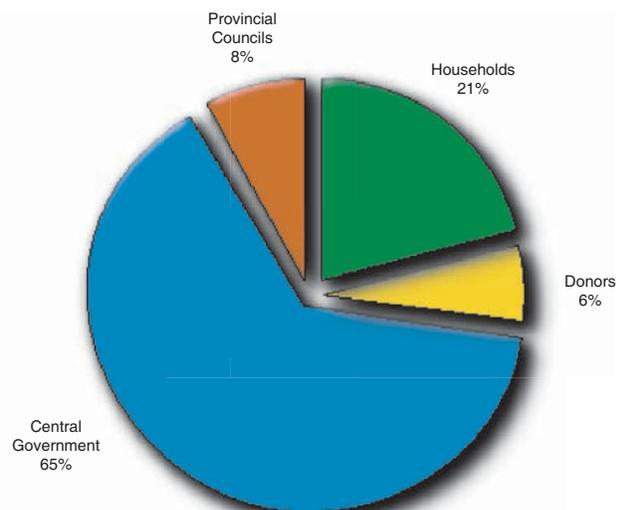
#### *Current Levels of Private Education Expenditure*

3.14. The present level of household education investment can be estimated based on certain assumptions about the income elasticity of demand for education. A conservative assumption is that household education spending

per student increases at the same rate as per capita consumption. Based on this assumption, and that households in the North-

Eastern Province spend 72% of the level in the North-Central Province<sup>14</sup>, total private household education expenditure in 2002 can be estimated to be about 10,600 million rupees in 2002 prices. This would be equal to about 26% of total public education expenditure, and is 62% higher than the public capital education budget. In fact, private household education spending is likely to be greater than this conservative estimate, as the income elasticity of demand for education is typically higher than unitary. Hence, at present, it is likely that private household education spending may be nearer 30%-35% of public education spending and about double the government capital budget for education. This level

**Figure 3.3. Shares of Education Financing by Source, 2002.**



Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Government of Sri Lanka Budget Estimates, and estimated private education expenditure.

14. The North-Central Province is the poorest province, next to the North-Eastern Province. The per capita income of the North-Eastern Province was about 72% of the per capita income of the North-Central Province in 2002.

of private investment could be increased if the NEC (2003) proposals are implemented and the legal restriction on private schools is lifted.

### 3.3 Sources of Education Financing

3.15. The central government finances the major share of education expenditure in the country, accounting for about 65% of total public and private education investment [see Figure 3.3]. Slightly more than half these resources, about 53%, are spent directly by central government education institutions. The balance, about 47%, is awarded as grants to the provincial councils. After the central government, households finance the second highest share of education investment, about 21%. This is followed by provincial councils through their own revenues, 8%, and donor

funds, 6%. Credits from the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank constitute the main sources of donor funds. JICA is the chief source of grant aid, followed by UN institutions such as UNICEF, and countries such as the U.K., Germany and Sweden.

### 3.4 Internal Efficiency of Investment in Education

*Internal efficiency of student flows through the primary and secondary education cycles*

3.16. The internal efficiency of primary schooling (grades 1-5) and junior secondary schooling (grades 6-9), measured in terms of flow rates, are high [see Table 3.7]. Repetition rates and drop out rates range from 2%-7%, with slightly higher repetition and drop out among boys than girls. The high student flow rates can be attributed to several

policy measures: (i) the supply of sufficient school places, through the island-wide network of primary and secondary schools, to meet the demand for education from parents and students; (ii) incentive schemes, such as free textbooks, school uniforms and subsidized transport, to enroll and continue through the school system; and (iii) automatic promotion from grades 1-11, with no formal mechanisms to fail pupils, unless students voluntarily repeat grades. In addition to public policy measures, the demand for education from parents is also strong, and makes an important contribution to the high student flow rates through the compulsory education cycle. The marginally higher repetition and drop out rates among boys compared to girls, observed mainly at grades 8-9, can be attributed chiefly to the higher opportunity cost of schooling for

**Table 3.7. Compulsory Education Cycle: Repetition Rates and Drop Out Rates, by Gender, 2001**

	Boys Repetition Rate	Girls Repetition Rate %	Both Sexes Repetition Rate %	Boys Drop Out Rate %	Girls Drop Out Rate %	Both Sexes Drop Out Rate %
Grade 1	2.2	1.6	1.9	-0.7	-0.7	-0.8
Grade 2	4.5	3.7	3.9	0.01	0.01	0.07
Grade 3	4.8	3.2	4.0	-0.01	0.01	0.01
Grade 4	4.3	2.9	3.6	1.1	0.6	0.9
Grade 5	3.7	2.5	3.2	1.8	0.9	1.4
Grade 6	5.5	5.2	5.4	3.2	2.1	2.7
Grade 7	3.1	2.0	2.6	3.9	2.5	3.2
Grade 8	2.6	1.8	2.2	6.0	3.8	4.9
Grade 9	1.8	1.5	1.6	7.1	4.9	6.0

Source: School Census, Ministry of Education.

**Table 3.8. Proportion of Repeaters in the GCE O/L and GCE A/L Grades, 2002**

Grade Cycle	Proportion of Students Repeating %	Proportion of Boys Repeating %	Proportion of Girls Repeating %
GCE O/L	27	27	26
GCE A/L Science	35	34	36
GCE A/L Arts	37	37	36
GCE A/L Commerce	35	34	34

Source: School Census, Ministry of Education.

teen-aged boys, who are able to obtain jobs as unskilled workers in the informal labor market.

3.17. Repetition rates at the key examination grades in the senior secondary education cycle, grades 11 and 13, however, are high [see Table 3.8]. In grade 11, about 27% of students are repeaters, with the proportion of repeating boys and girls close to even. This is a high percentage, as it implies that about one in four students in grade 11 is in the class for the second time. In grade 13, the proportion of students repeating rises further. Among GCE A/L science students, 35% of students are repeaters, among GCE A/L arts students, 37% of students take the class for the second time; and among GCE A/L commerce students, 35% of students are repeaters. The repetition rates of boys and girls are very similar across grades 11 and 13, and among types of subjects. The GCE A/L repetition rates show that about 1 in 3 students in grade 13 is taking the class for the second time. The high repetition rates at grade 11 and grade 13 suggest the existence of considerable cost

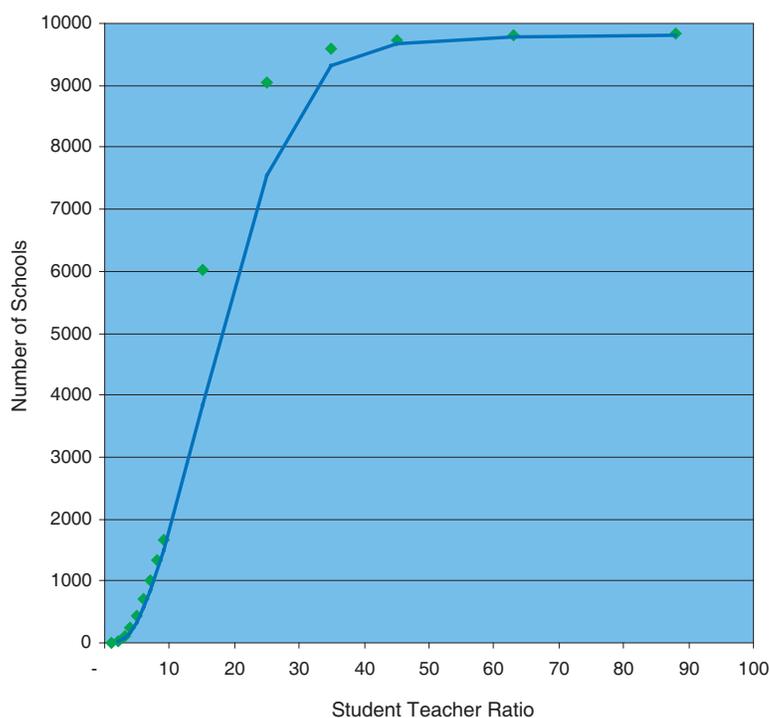
inefficiencies in the education system at these levels. The main reason for these high repetition rates at grade 11 and grade 13 are the low learning levels of students through the primary and secondary cycle up to grade 11, which is exposed at the public examinations.

*Size and distribution of schools*

3.18. Sri Lanka maintains a

large and geographically widely dispersed network of public schools. This school network was established, over successive past generations, to serve a population residing largely in rural areas. However, with economic development and expansion of the service and industrial sectors, the proportion of population living in cities and towns has been increasing in

**Figure 3.4. Cumulative Number of Schools by Student Teacher Ratio**



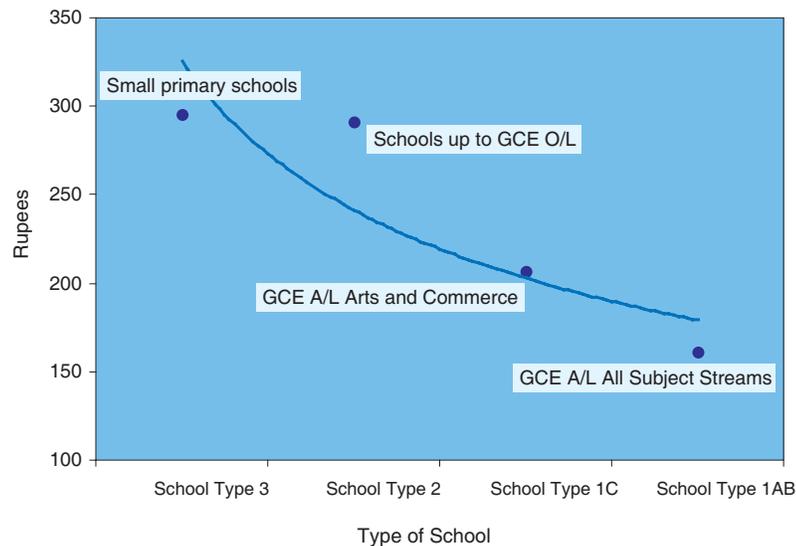
Source: World Bank estimates, based on the School Census, Ministry of Education.

recent years. In addition, better transport and communications networks have placed rural villages in touch with schools in urban centers. In consequence, there has been sharply increasing demand for popular, prestigious urban schools and decreasing demand for rural and less prestigious semi-urban schools. This shift in demand has led to the existence of a large number of very small schools. About 5,900 schools (60% of schools) have less than 300 students. Further, about 2,700 schools (27% of schools) have under 100 students, and 1,360 schools (14% of schools) have less than 50 students. This network of small schools is expensive to maintain and operate. In particular, student-teacher ratios in small schools tend to be low, resulting in high unit recurrent costs. About 1,000 schools (10% of schools) have student-teacher ratios as low as 7:1 or less [see Figure 3.4]. Around 1,700 schools (17%) have student-teacher ratios less than 10:1, and about 6,000 schools (60%) have student-teacher ratios of 15:1 or less.

3.19. Schools with such small student-teacher ratios are far more expensive to operate [see Figure 3.5], and typically have unit recurrent costs about 100% greater than large schools with student-teacher ratios of about 25:1.

3.20. Schools with such small unit recurrent costs are

**Figure 3.5. Unit Recurrent Cost of a Teacher by School Type**



Source: World Bank estimates, based on Ministry of Education, School Census, 2002.

expensive to maintain [see Figure 3.5]. The annual unit cost per teacher ranges from about 295 rupees in small primary schools and 290 rupees in small schools with GCE O/L classes to about 150 rupees in larger schools with high enrolment numbers.

*Government strategy to increase cost efficiency*

3.21. Government strategy to enhance the cost effectiveness of the school system contains two principal components.

a. Attempts to provide facilities and equipment to small schools to make them sufficiently attractive to prevent students from leaving for other, more popular schools. This strategy has been largely ineffective, as urbanization has generated strong

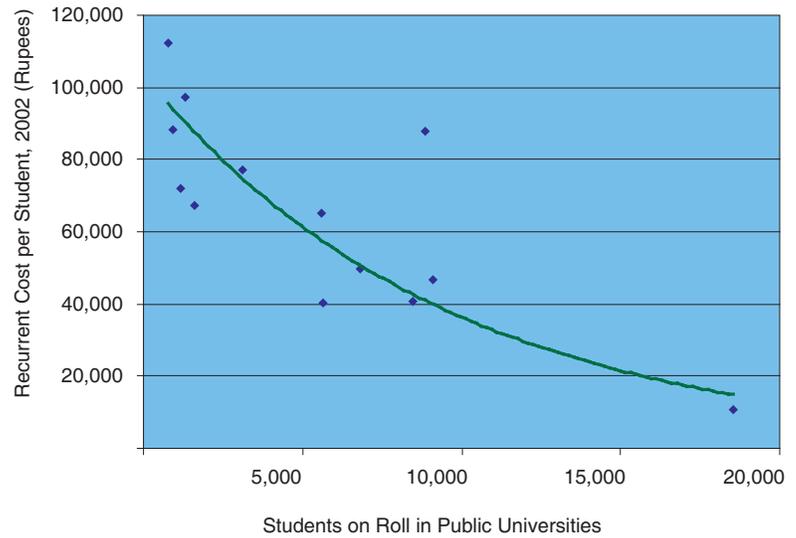
countervailing power. In addition, small rural schools do not have reputations that can match schools in cities and towns, and the provision of facilities and equipment alone is not adequate to stem the flow of students to prestigious schools. However, this strategy remains popular with many educationists [see NEC (2003)].

b. Efforts to limit the growth of schools in cities and towns by imposing constraints on enrolment numbers, combined with very slow establishment of new urban schools. This strategy to force students to attend less prestigious schools through administrative fiat has also largely been ineffective, and existing

urban schools have increased to the extent that they now suffer diseconomies of scale, with over-crowded and congested class rooms. Some schools in Colombo, for instance, exceed 5,000 students, and the largest school has about 8,000 students.

3.22. The government had a third strategy to address the problem of high cost small schools which was effective, but has recently been suspended due to social pressure. This was a school rationalization strategy, where small schools were amalgamated and consolidated with larger schools in their neighborhoods. This strategy worked well in all parts of the country except the North-Eastern Province, where it was hardly tried. However, the benefits of this strategy, both in terms of providing students from small schools with a superior learning environment in larger schools and increasing the cost-efficiency of the system was not widely understood by local communities. In consequence, it drew widespread criticism, compelling the government to suspend the process. However, it is an important education strategy which needs to be reintroduced, in combination with an effective media campaign to explain the objectives and benefits of the school rationalization program to local communities and

**Figure 3.6. Unit Recurrent Cost of Public Universities as a Function of Students on Roll**



Source: World Bank estimates, based on University Grants Commission statistics.

pressure groups. Care should also be taken to ensure that the school rationalization process does not damage access to education to any students. In addition, new schools need to be established in urban areas, to absorb student demand as population migrates from villages to towns and cities.

*Internal efficiency and unit costs of university education*

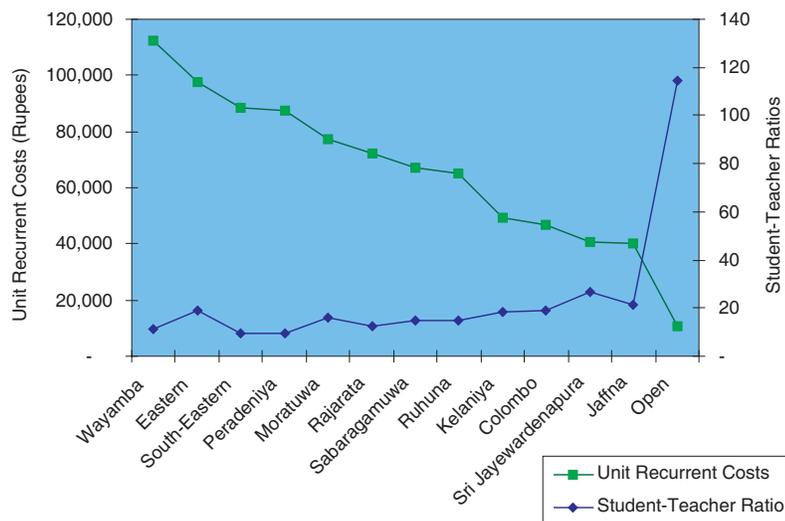
3.23. Public university education in Sri Lanka is expensive, with high unit operating costs in comparison to other developing countries. In addition, there are wide differences in unit costs among public universities, ranging from about 40,000-120,000 rupees per student per year [see Figure 3.6]. Generally, unit costs are related to student enrolment size, with smaller universities experiencing high costs and

larger universities, which can reap economies of scale, enjoying low unit costs. The most expensive universities tend to be small, new institutions such as the Wayamba, Eastern and South-Eastern Universities. Larger, older universities such as Kelaniya, Sri Jayewardenapura, Colombo and Jaffna have the lowest unit costs, apart from the special case of the Open University, which only offers distance education courses and has high enrolment numbers and very low unit costs. The exception to the general rule above of an inverse relationship between unit costs and enrolment size is Peradeniya University, which is the second largest university in terms of student numbers, but has unit costs comparable to the small South-Eastern University. The main reason for the high unit operating cost of Peradeniya

University appears to be its small student-teacher ratio (9:1) and student-employee ratio (6:1), and the high maintenance cost of its spacious, widely spread campus and large residential facilities.

3.24. The principal component of university average recurrent expenditure is the student-teacher ratio [see Figure 3.7]. Universities such as Wayamba, Eastern, South-Eastern and Peradeniya, which have low student-teacher ratios, have high unit costs; while universities such as Kelaniya, Jaywardenapura, Colombo and Jaffna which have high student-teacher ratios have low unit costs. Overall, the negative relationship between student-teacher ratios and unit recurrent costs is strong through the entire university system. This relationship is the result of university salary costs, which are largely dependant on the level of academic salaries. Universities with high student teacher ratios have comparatively lower average salary expenditure, and hence smaller unit recurrent costs, than universities with low student teacher ratios. The second most important determinant of unit recurrent costs is the ratio of students to non-academic staff, as the latter strongly affects the university wage bill and hence recurrent expenditures. The public universities have extremely low student-non-academic staff ratios: ranging

**Figure 3.7. Unit Recurrent Cost of Public Universities Related to Student-Teacher Ratios, 2002.**



Source: World Bank estimates, based on University Grants Commission statistics.

from 3:1 in universities such as Wayamba, Eastern, South-Eastern and Peradeniya to 8:1 in Sri Jaywardenapura. The average for student-non-academic staff ratio for the 12 public universities which offer on-site degree courses is only 4:1. In terms of academic staff to non-academic staff, too, the ratio is 1:4. This suggests a cost inefficient system, with an unduly large proportion of resources devoted to non-academic staff salaries.

3.25. Capital investment in the public university sector is also heavily weighted, in per student terms, towards the new, small universities such as Wayamba, Rajarata, Eastern, South-Eastern and Sabaragamuwa. This is necessary as the basic infrastructure of these universities, such as lecture theatres, libraries, laboratories and offices, needs to be

constructed. However, the investment in construction for the new universities has diverted resources away from quality inputs, such as equipment, technology and tools, for the university system as a whole. As the basic construction activities diminish, resources need to be invested in quality inputs and quality processes.

#### *Government strategy to enhance budget management of the education sector*

3.26. The government has commenced a medium-term budget framework to increase predictability of resource flows and enable education planning over a longer horizon than is possible with annual budgeting. In the first stage, the medium term budget framework will largely focus on implementing policies to increase the internal efficiency of public education spending, reallocate resources

from low priority to higher priority investments within the existing resource envelope, and increase transparency and accountability of financial processes. Additional resources for education will mainly be possible only if private investment can be encouraged. This first budget stage is designed over a three year planning horizon. The second stage, over a further three year cycle, can also focus on increasing public resources for education, as the overall macroeconomic balances stabilize and greater resources become available for public spending.

### **3.5 Education Service Delivery: Organizational and Operational Challenges**

3.27. The quantity and pattern of public expenditure on education is an extremely important determinant of education attainment and learning in a country. Equally important, however, is the quality and effectiveness of service delivery. In this context, Sri Lanka enjoys important positive features. A network of education institutions already exists to formulate policy; staff, plan and administer the school and university system; develop curricula and syllabi for schools and degree programs in universities; provide professional development opportunities for school principals, section heads and

teachers, and university academics; and conduct examinations and certification that enjoys public confidence. Legally defined cadres exist for important services, such as the teachers' service, teacher educators' service and education administrators' service. The government also has reasonable financial management procedures, with double entry bookkeeping and cash accounting, although not yet accrual accounting. Further, there is both a supreme audit institution, the Auditor General's Department and an internal audit within the education system. Hence, the service delivery network of the education system is built on a strong foundation.

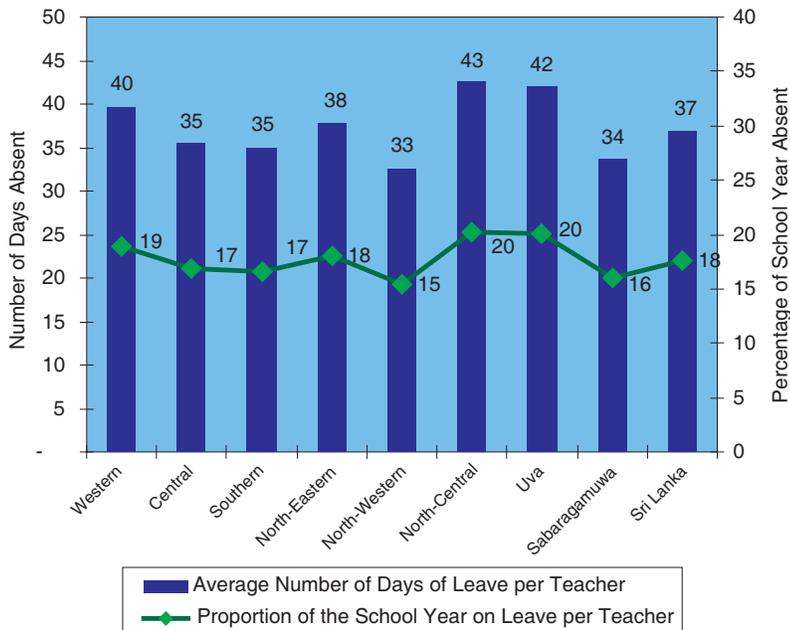
3.28. However, Sri Lanka also faces a set of important policy challenges as its education system seeks to take off beyond the first stage of development, providing universal access to basic education to a largely rural population, to the second stage of development, establishing a high quality education system in the context of a rapidly growing urban population. In this context, the education service delivery network faces a set of major structural challenges that it needs to overcome.

3.29. *Weak teacher deployment.* Teachers prefer to reside in cities, towns and prosperous rural areas, while avoiding disadvantaged rural areas.

Schools in congenial locations tend to be overstaffed and schools in uncongenial locations understaffed. Education administrators complain that teacher transfers from surplus schools to deficit schools are hindered by political interference, with widespread political intervention to countermand transfer orders. Weak teacher deployment chiefly hurts poor children, as the highest rates of teacher understaffing occur in economically disadvantaged rural communities. However, such communities typically have less voice and power, and are unable to act as a countervailing force to teacher deployment patterns which place them at a disadvantage.

3.30. *High teacher absenteeism.* Teacher absenteeism poses a major problem, especially in schools located in difficult areas. Administrative records show that teachers take about 7 million days of legitimate leave per year. The average leave taken per teacher in an academic year ranges from 33 days in the North-Western Province to 42 days and 43 days in the Uva and North-Central Provinces, respectively [see Figure 3.8]. As a proportion of the school year, the incidence of teacher absenteeism varies from 15% in the North-Western Province to 20% in the North-Central and Uva Provinces. This amounts, across the 192,000 strong teaching force, to around 18% of

**Figure 3.8. Teacher Absenteeism, by Province, 2002.**



Source: World Bank estimates, based on the School Census, Ministry of Education.

the academic year for the country as a whole. Further, these are absenteeism rates based on leave days taken. Anecdotal evidence and casual empiricism suggest that leave regulations are not strictly enforced, and that de facto teacher absenteeism may actually be higher.

*Government policy to improve teacher deployment and reduce teacher absenteeism*

3.31. Recent government thinking to improve teacher deployment and reduce teacher absenteeism contains three policy measures: (a) providing incentives, such as extra salary increments, swifter promotion, preferential access to popular schools for children and construction of teachers' quarters, to teachers taking up

appointments in disadvantaged areas; (b) allowing teachers to encash unutilized leave; and (c) recruiting teachers directly to schools, rather than a centralized, transferable service. The first two measures have not been implemented effectively in the past due to a shortage of finances. The last measure requires amendments to the legislation governing teacher recruitment, and needs to be considered by parliament.

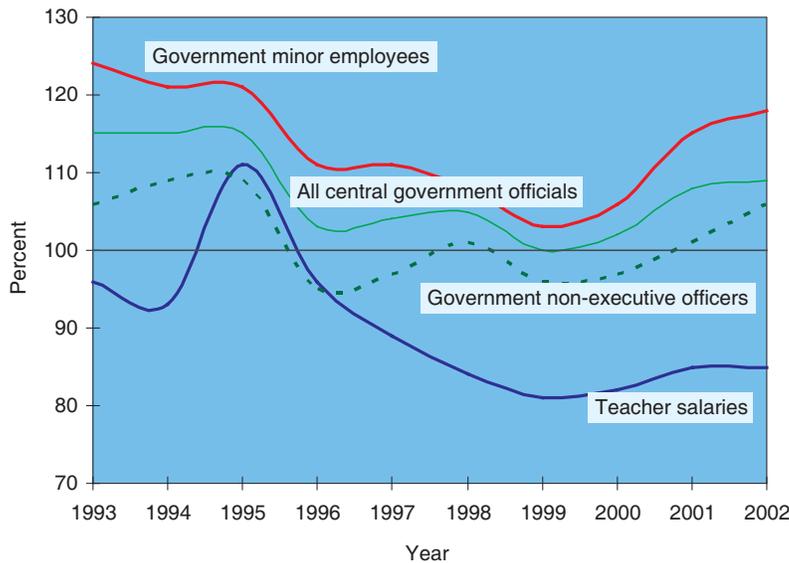
*3.32. Low teacher salaries and poor teacher motivation.*

Education policy makers have argued that teacher status, motivation and work attitudes have been deteriorating over the years and stressed the importance of re-motivating and improving the attitudes of teachers [see NEC (2003)].

Teacher salaries have been declining in real terms over the past 25 years [see Figure 3.9], which supports the notion that teacher status has been falling. Teachers in 2002 earned only about 85% of the salary, in real terms, that teachers received in 1978. Other government servants currently earn somewhat more, in real terms, than in 1978, although real wage increases have not kept pace with economic growth. But teachers have not shared in the fruits of economic growth at all over the past generation or so. On the positive side, low teacher salaries have enabled the Sri Lankan education system to deliver basic education services at a fairly low cost to the government budget. On the negative side, however, low teacher salaries is likely to have hurt teacher morale and performance, and weakened the quality of new entrants into the teaching service.

3.33. *Inadequate managerial and academic empowerment of key education service delivery institutions, such as schools, National Colleges of Education (NCOEs) and Teacher Centers (TCs).* Schools, NCOEs and TCs, which are the key education service delivery institutions within the school system, have limited managerial and academic responsibilities. In particular, managerial functions such as staff recruitment, financing and resource utilization, and administration,

**Figure 3.9. Real Value of Salaries of Teachers in Relation to Other Government Servants (1978 = 100)**



Source: Central Bank of Sri Lanka, Annual Reports.

tend to be concentrated at managerial restrictions on central or intermediate government levels. For instance, employment of teachers and teacher educators are to centralized, transferable services. Similarly, purchases of equipment, material and consumables for schools were highly centralized until recently. TCs do not have accounts and TC managers lack authority to purchase equipment or material for their centers. Academic functions of NCOEs and TCs, too, are heavily centralized. The curricula for teacher education courses, examinations and certification for the 17 NCOEs are all provided by the center. As such, the NCOEs and TCs possess limited scope for academic and managerial leadership, and institutional growth and development. Similarly, school leadership and dynamism are inhibited by the

*Government policy to devolve management and empower education institutions*

3.34. Government policy thinking for the future is to devolve greater managerial powers and responsibilities to schools and teacher education institutions. As a first step, schools have been empowered to purchase quality inputs, such as equipment, books, tools and consumables, through capital and recurrent education budgets, up to fairly generous thresholds. This measure has been highly popular, with quality input purchases becoming more sensitive to local school needs, and purchased more swiftly and efficiently than through centralized methods of procurement. As further steps to devolve school management, the

government proposes to establish school boards, encourage community participation in school affairs, raise school quality input purchase thresholds even higher, and eventually allow school based recruitment of teachers. These measures are intended to improve the quality of service delivery at the school level by providing greater scope for dynamic school leadership, better community support, and higher proximity and accountability of service providers to beneficiaries. The last measure is also intended to solve the problem of teacher deployment in disadvantaged schools, as teachers would not belong to a centralized transferable service but be appointed directly to schools.

3.35. Policy interest in decentralizing management to teacher education institutions, such as NCOEs and TCs, have not yet evolved into concrete plans. The long-term objective is to develop NCOEs to a level where they prepare teachers for degree level teacher education programs. However, the changes required to the managerial and academic roles and responsibilities of key agents in the system, such as the Office of the Chief Commissioner for the Colleges of Education, the National Institute of Education, and the Presidents of the National Colleges of Education, and the new structure of responsibility and

accountability, need to be studied further to advance the policy agenda in this area.

3.36. *Administrative capacity constraints.* The education administrative system as a whole experiences technical and operational capacity constraints. In consequence, even routine and day-to-day administrative functions can take considerable time. For instance, recruitment of teachers to fill vacancies in conflict affected areas take about 2 years from advertisement to appointment. The administrative processes for the promotion of university academics can take considerable periods of time, sometimes one year from application to appointment. Claims for loans by teachers and principals, too, can take years before they are granted. Similarly, activities such as processing teacher transfers, and delivering textbooks and school uniforms, have sometimes been delayed over the past few years. Three key problems hampering efficient administration are: (i) excessive reliance on manual operations instead of automated and computerized systems; (ii) the absence of basic internal mechanisms, such as organized filing systems and inventory control methods; and (iii) insufficient forward planning.

3.37. *External interference in administration.* Education policy makers highlight interference by external forces in education administration as a

major impediment to efficient service delivery [see NEC (2003)]. Further, this interference can arise even in simple, basic administrative functions, such as school admissions, the appointment of minor staff to universities and teacher transfers. This hinders service delivery by weakening rule compliance. Further, it hampers decision making, which becomes vulnerable to forces outside the formal executive framework of government.

3.38. *Procurement weaknesses.* An important area where government technical capacity is severely limited is procurement. Procurement implementation is weak for several reasons, such as: (i) difficulties in drawing up technical specifications; (ii) problems in preparing tender and bidding documents; (iii) slow execution of technical evaluations; and (iv) weaknesses in producing clear and accurate technical evaluation and tender board reports and minutes. Further, these weaknesses apply at all levels of the education system, including universities and central government education agencies. For instance, procurement of university wide tenders for computers are known to have taken up to two years. Similarly, tenders for school computer equipment have sometimes taken more than a year in recent times. Other major civil works and equipment tenders of high

value, too, can take well in excess of a year.

*Specific factors constraining service delivery in public universities*

3.39. The public universities enjoy a high degree of academic autonomy. Curriculum development, standards setting, examinations, certification, and employment and promotion of academic staff, are within the discretion of each university. Central government functions, exercised chiefly through the University Grants Commission, are overall policy formulation, rationalization of universities and degree programs, financing, student admissions and recruitment of non-academic staff. In principle, the academic autonomy enjoyed by universities should ease problems of service delivery and enable the production of high quality teaching and research. However, service delivery within the university system is constrained by several factors.

3.40. *Low academic salaries, leading to staffing difficulties.* A Ph.D qualified senior lecturer or professor earns in the range of about USD 200-350 per month. This is a competitive salary in the public sector, although modest by private sector standards. However, the competition for highly qualified human capital, such as Ph.D qualified individuals, is mainly from overseas universities and research institutions. Such

individuals, if employed in a developed country university, can earn more in a month than he/she could earn in a year in Sri Lanka. This salary differential has made it difficult to attract and retain highly qualified academic staff in Sri Lankan universities. The problem has been compounded, in the case of universities located outside the principal urban centers of Colombo and Kandy, by the difficulty of attracting qualified individuals to reside in subsidiary towns or semi-urban locations. Hence, while in Colombo or Kandy based universities, such as Moratuwa, Colombo, Kelaniya, Jayewardenapura and Peradeniya, the ratio of academic staff with postgraduate qualifications (such as Professors and Senior Lecturers) to academic staff without postgraduate qualifications (such as Lecturers) averages about 1.5 to 1, in the universities located in subsidiary towns or semi-urban locations such as Rajarata, Eastern, South Eastern, Wayamba and Sabaragamuwa, this ratio is only about 0.25 to 1. The inability of the latter set of universities to attract highly qualified staff clearly hampers their quality of research and teaching.

3.41. *Rigid administrative and management structures.* The public university system was largely laid to provide undergraduate teaching, and the administrative and management

arrangements of universities reflect this focus. However, modern universities produce a range of outputs in addition to undergraduate teaching, such as research, postgraduate teaching, consultancy services and community activities. The administrative and managerial procedures and practices in universities have not evolved to support the production of this full range of outputs, although some universities have advanced further than others. One of the consequences is that about 95% of university income comes from the central government, with only 5% of income coming from other sources. An important structural feature hindering entrepreneurial income generating activity in universities, for instance, is that money earned by a public university legally belongs to the Ministry of Finance, and there is no guarantee that this money will be reinvested in the university.

3.42. *Student unrest.* The public university system is vulnerable to periodic bouts of student unrest, with certain universities worse affected than others. During periods of student unrest universities can even be closed down, disrupting academic work and delaying course completion durations. In addition, the extent of violence has sometimes been so severe that there have been episodes of physical violence. Attempts to introduce fee paying courses in public universities have met with particularly

virulent opposition from certain student groups, who perceive these as efforts to privatize university education.

3.43. Government strategy to increase internal efficiency and raise the quality of service delivery in the university system contains four major strands.

- a. Controlling expansion of the public university system and encouraging private degree awarding institutions, professional associations and overseas tertiary education institutions, including distance mode institutions, to meet the demand for tertiary education. This is a rational strategy which increases resources for the tertiary sector and also directs its focus towards employment oriented courses. Further, as private degree awarding institutions charge fees, student unrest hardly exists.
- b. Further devolving administrative and managerial power to universities. In particular, the government envisages granting powers to set academic salaries, admit students and recruit non-academic staff to universities. These measure could improve the ability of universities to attract and retain high quality academic staff,

compete to obtain good students and develop institutional loyalty among non-academic staff. Also, if a gradual reduction of the quantity of non-academic staff could be introduced, more resources would become available for investment in measures to enhance academic quality.

- c. Building institutional capacity by strengthening national planning, monitoring and evaluation capacity in the university system and establishing a Board of Quality Assurance to take responsibility for policy development and monitoring on quality criteria.
- d. Introducing performance based funding into the public university system. Linking financing to performance is expected to provide incentives for quality enhancement of degree programs. In addition, it is expected to increase the labor market relevance of university courses.

3.44. Overall, these are useful measures. In particular, the rapid growth of enrolment in private tertiary level institutions is a favorable trend. In addition, the devolution of greater autonomy to universities is a promising initiative.

### 3.6 Conclusions and Options for the Future

3.45. The government faces several key challenges to increase the quality of education, enhance equity of public spending, strengthen service delivery within the system, and improve the economic and social relevance of schools, universities and technical education institutions. These challenges exist at a time when public investment in education is low by developing country standards, government education spending has been declining in real terms and the state experiences a heavy fiscal deficit which compels it to adopt a conservative fiscal policy. In this context, the government can consider four sets of measures to increase education investment and enhance the efficiency and equity of public education spending.

#### Options for education investment

*Increase private sector investment and participation in education*

3.46. *Promoting private sector participation in education, especially at tertiary level.*

Relaxing legal obstacles and introducing strategic initiatives to counter the adverse political economy environment to private sector participation in education could produce several benefits. First, it would increase the overall volume of resources invested in the education sector.

Second, since the students attending private schools and education institutions are likely to be drawn from upper income families, it would release more public resources, on a per student basis, for students from poorer families. Third, it would stimulate economic activity in a sector where investment has been artificially restricted and contribute to higher growth. Fourth, it would provide an alternative mode of service delivery, with considerable power and responsibility at the level of the individual education institutions, such as private schools and institutes. These private education institutions would be compelled to offer high quality services to remain viable in an economic context where they are in competition with free public education institutions.

3.47. The National Education Commission has recognized the importance of creating a favorable environment for private investment in education and recommends three types of private schools (NEC 2003): (i) fee-levying private schools, which finance their entire expenses, teach the national curriculum and prepare students for national examinations; (ii) fee-levying international schools, which finance all their expenses, teach foreign curricula and prepare students for overseas examinations, but within an accreditation framework set by the education

authorities; and (iii) non-fee levying assisted schools, which teach the national curriculum and prepare students for national examinations, but where there is cost-sharing between the state and the schools, with the government typically paying teacher salaries and the schools bearing capital expenditures and recurrent costs net of teacher salaries. Creating a favorable environment for private investment in school education requires developing a new education act and repealing the legislation, passed in the early 1960s, which acts as a major barrier to the establishment of private schools.

3.48. The establishment of private universities has been an extremely contentious issue, with several past attempts resulting in student violence and social unrest. Hence, it is highly unlikely that private universities can be established in Sri Lanka in the medium-term. GOSL has responded to the opposition to private universities by encouraging the private sector to participate in non-contentious areas. These have mainly been the establishment of private degree awarding institutions, usually linked to foreign universities, and investment in tertiary level programs such as professional and technical courses. GOSL needs to explore options to expand private participation in tertiary level non-university education, especially in professional and

technical fields where the demand for labor, both within and outside the country, is strong.

*Protect and gradually increase public investment in education*

3.49. Government policy to improve education quality envisages important measures to modernize curricula; expand child-friendly, activity based education; promote child-centered pedagogical methods; strengthen school leadership by principals; enhance the professional development of teachers; and increase the use of equipment and technology in schools and other education institutions. These policy initiatives to improve the quality of education would require considerable investment of resources in the education system. Given the low level and decreasing trend of real public education spending, and the major challenges Sri Lanka faces in improving the quality and economic and social relevance of the education system, it is important that the government preserve the current level of real expenditure in the short-term and increase public investment in education gradually over the medium-term. The government needs to consider the possibility of at least maintaining the real value of the education budget from 2005 onwards, and gradually raising public education investment, especially in the compulsory basic education and

senior secondary education cycles, as the tight overall fiscal constraint eases over the years.

*Enhance the equity of public education spending*

3.50. The pattern of student enrolment over major grade cycles, and the unit costs of education by grade level, show that investment in primary education and secondary education are relatively progressive and benefit students from low and middle income households, while investment in tertiary education tends to benefit students from upper-income households. In consequence, there is a strong case for allocating the major share of any increase in public resources for the education sector to primary and secondary schooling, while carefully controlling the expansion of the public university system and allowing enrolment expansion in tertiary education take place mainly in the private sector. Opportunities for poorer students to access tertiary education could be expanded through schemes such as student vouchers and student loans, rather than through direct provision.

*Increase cost-effectiveness of the education system*

3.51. The tight resource constraint faced by the government makes it extremely important that the education system generates internal savings to reduce costs. In this

context, three important policy measures are available.

- a. *School rationalization.* The cost-effectiveness of operating the school system can be enhanced by consolidating and amalgamating small, uneconomical schools, where this can be accomplished without reducing access to schooling and damaging enrolment and attendance. The public school network is such that a sizable proportion of small schools are located close to other, larger government schools. MHRECA and the provincial councils designed and implemented a successful school rationalization program, during 1998-2002, which consolidated and amalgamated small, unviable schools. This program was temporarily suspended due to intense political pressure. However, the government could consider re-opening this school rationalization program, but with careful safeguards to protect access for poor and vulnerable groups.
- b. *Increasing the student-teacher ratio in schools and tertiary education institutions.* Currently, the student teacher ratio in schools, at 21:1, is low.

Countries with outstanding education systems and far higher income levels, such as South Korea, Singapore and Hong Kong, have higher student-teacher ratios and more cost-effective systems. The current teacher employment and deployment policy is based on a target student-teacher ratio of 22:1 for secondary grades and 26:1 for primary grades. The government could consider increasing the target student-teacher ratio to about 23:1 for secondary grades and 28:1 for primary grades in the medium term. In addition, the student-teacher ratio in the public university system tends to be very low, at 14:1. The government could consider increasing this student-teacher ratio to about 18:1, so that cost savings can be generated within the system.

- c. *Rationalization of administrative staffing.* The roles, functions and responsibilities of staff within the complex, multi-tiered education administrative system tend to be rather unclear. A careful analysis of work loads, and *de jure* and *de facto* roles, functions and responsibilities of staff in

the various education ministries, provincial councils, zonal education offices, division education offices and tertiary education institutions is likely to identify both duplication of roles and functions, and gaps and shortages of staff. Overall, there may be an excess of staff, which a carefully designed voluntary retirement scheme could decrease, reducing pressure on the budget and releasing more resources for investment. A study of roles, functions and responsibilities of staff within the education system, as first step, would be extremely useful.

3.52. In order to increase resources for quality enhancing education policy initiatives through the implementation of cost saving measures within the education system, it is vitally important that the Ministry of Finance permits funds saved to be channeled back into the education system for investment. If the funds saved through cost-reducing measures are not re-invested in the education system the objective of enhancing education quality would be defeated. Further, the education system would lose the incentive to implement difficult measures such as school rationalization and higher student-teacher ratios.

*Shift resource allocation in favor of equipment and technology*

3.53. Over time, the balance of capital and recurrent spending within the education budget needs to shift to allocate a greater share of resources to capital expenditure. Within the capital budget, a higher proportion of resources needs to be invested in quality inputs such as IT centers, science laboratories, libraries, activity rooms, multi-purpose rooms, equipment, technology and tools. The construction and expansion of buildings, which absorbs the highest share of the capital budget, needs to be rationalized, prioritizing the urban school system which is experiencing rising demand. Within the recurrent budget, too, resources need to be reallocated from salaries and administrative expenses to quality processes, such as teacher education and training, management and academic training of school principals, and the purchase of teaching material and learning resources.

*Options to Improve the Quality and Efficiency of Education Service Delivery*

3.54. Development initiatives and strategies to widen education access to the poorest and most disadvantaged economic groups, improve education quality and learning outcomes, and orient the education system to the world of work, also requires

strengthening the efficiency and quality of service delivery in the education system. Several important initiatives are available to the government to improve and strengthen the delivery of education services.

*Empowering frontline service delivery institutions, such as schools and universities*

3.55. A key government policy initiative under consideration is to devolve managerial power to frontline service delivery institutions, such as schools and universities. In the school system, the aim of devolving managerial authority is to empower principals, headmasters and headmistresses, and teachers; enable schools to forge links with local communities to improve resource mobilization and public accountability; and improve the speed and sensitivity of decision making by decreasing administrative layers. In devolving managerial autonomy to schools, it is important that different models of school development boards be pilot tested, as the governance capacity of schools varies significantly, depending on such factors as location, size and history. For instance, the main public schools in cities and towns are likely to possess vastly greater managerial capabilities and sophisticated community support than small rural schools in remote villages.

3.56. Universities already enjoy considerable autonomy, but

further powers to recruit administrative staff, tailor academic salaries to individual staff members, and decide on student admissions, could increase the motivation, responsibility and accountability of university staff and authorities. These measures, however, may be controversial from a political economy perspective. For instance, providing universities freedom to tailor academic salaries to individual staff members can be highly controversial in a context where academics are accustomed to a uniform salary scale. Similarly, devolving responsibility for student admissions to individual universities has to be made consistent with the policy of allocating student quotas to disadvantaged districts.

3.57. The government could also consider applying the principle of devolving governance to other education institutions, such as National Colleges of Education (NCOEs) and Teacher Centers (TCs). Currently, the NCOEs have little managerial responsibility and autonomy. Curriculum design, assessment and certification of teacher education courses offered by NCOEs are undertaken by the National Institute of Education (NIE). Recruitment of academic staff is to a centralized teacher educators' service, and NCOEs rarely have a voice in the choice of academic staff allocated to them. TCs operate in an

inefficient administrative structure. The NIE designs the curricula of continuing teacher education programs offered by TCs. The NCOEs act as academic advisors to TCs. For administrative purposes, including finances, the TCs come under the zonal education offices. This complex administrative and academic structure has badly hampered the development of TCs. Devolving a greater degree of managerial autonomy and responsibility to NCOEs and TCs could increase the operational efficiency of the institutions and enhance the quality of service delivery.

*Developing performance appraisal systems and introducing fiscal incentives for performance*

3.58. The strengthening of performance appraisal systems could contribute strongly to higher quality service delivery. Within the university system, performance appraisal has commenced, especially for academic staff. However, measures to introduce performance appraisal to the school system have proved controversial, and left undeveloped. Three key initiatives are required to develop performance appraisal within the school system:

- a. the value of performance appraisal systems as feedback mechanisms to strengthen service

delivery and reward good performance, rather than as punitive measures for poor performance, needs to be communicated to stakeholders, especially education unions;

- b. performance appraisal systems need to be designed for the various education services, such as the teachers' service, education administrators' service, principals' service and the teacher educators' service, in close consultation with stakeholders, including the relevant unions; and
- c. the technical capacity of education institutions and education administrators to manage and utilize performance appraisal systems needs to be strengthened.

3.59. Introducing financial incentives for performance, especially for key services, can be a promising initiative. For instance, poor teacher deployment and high teacher absenteeism in difficult areas is a key constraint on effective service delivery within the education system. Further, the impact of weak teacher deployment falls disproportionately on poor students, as the most unpopular regions, where teacher absenteeism is highest, are typically remote, economically disadvantaged, rural locations. To improve teacher deployment

and attendance, the government could implement the NEC (2003) proposals to offer financial incentives to teachers locating in schools in difficult areas. In addition, to reduce teacher absenteeism, teachers could be entitled to encash unutilized leave. The main constraint to introducing fiscal incentives for performance is the tight budget situation, which precludes expensive new policy measures. However, if cost savings could be generated within the education system, some of the resources obtained could be allocated to introduce such performance incentives measures.

*Streamlining roles, responsibilities and accountability within the education system*

3.60. Many of the measures suggested to improve education service delivery would require government officials in the central ministry, provincial councils and zonal offices to assume new and additional roles and responsibilities, while devolving some of their current powers to frontline service delivery institutions, such as schools, national colleges of education and teacher centers. During this process of decentralization and empowerment of local institutions, the current pattern of responsibility and accountability and the future models required need to be analyzed carefully.

*Human resource development of central, provincial and zonal education authorities*

3.61. The complex system of education governance, with multiple tiers of administration at the central, provincial and zonal levels, requires a wide range of administrative, technical and operations skills and competencies from staff working at each tier. An overall human resource strategy needs to be developed and implemented, across the different tiers of the education system, to equip central, provincial and zonal education staff with the necessary administrative, technical and operations skills and competencies. In addition, this strategy needs to provide for regular and continuous updating of skills and competencies as technical and operations skills advance and develop.

*Institutional strengthening of central, provincial and zonal education authorities*

3.62. Strengthening the operational procedures, capabilities and performance of central, provincial and zonal education authorities can contribute significantly to the quality and efficiency of education planning, administration and service delivery in the future. Lessons from recent policy measures and development initiatives, including reforms supported by donors such as the World Bank and Asian Development Bank,

suggest some key areas where institutional strengthening is urgently required.

*Administrative processing*

3.63. The administrative processes in central, provincial and zonal offices tend to be long and cumbersome, resulting in considerable delays in operational activities. One major reason for these delays are the use of outdated manual systems for important administrative tasks, including correspondence, filing, record keeping and inventory control. Developing computerized operating systems for normal and routine administrative tasks would substantially increase the efficiency of government operations.

*Strengthening procurement capabilities*

3.64. The ability of government officials to draft bidding documents, prepare technical specifications, appraise proposals, and draw up technical evaluation reports and tender board recommendations to international standards is limited, resulting in lengthy procurement processes. Strengthening the procurement capabilities of government officials, hence, is an important area for future institutional development.

*Addressing political economy constraints*

3.65. Communicating the rationale for controversial but

important policy measures to stakeholders and beneficiaries and building stakeholder participation in reforms is an important area where government capacity is weak. For instance, the government implemented a school rationalization program over 1998-2002, which achieved over 75% of its target. In numerical terms, this was a successful rationalization program. However, it generated intense controversy, central and provincial education authorities were unable to explain the rationale for the program clearly to local communities, resulting in its temporary suspension in 2003. Similarly, the government commenced a multiple textbook policy, to widen choice and improve quality, which generated intense controversy and delayed implementation for several years. Again, central and provincial education authorities lacked the capability to communicate the policy effectively. The country also has, in the aggregate, a surplus of school teachers, although there are deficiencies in certain subjects, especially English, and in the Tamil medium. However, there is intense pressure to employ more teachers, inter alia to reduce the pressure of unemployed educated young people. Again, government agencies have often found it nearly impossible to withstand this pressure. Hence, strengthening the ability of government education agencies,

at each level of the administrative tier, to communicate the rationale for potentially controversial policy measures and build stakeholder support is a vitally important area for future institutional strengthening.

*Capacity development to undertake education research and analysis, policy formulation and planning*

3.66 There are three key initiatives that would contribute to the development of a high performing education system, especially at the level of analysis, policy formulation and planning.

*Medium-term budgeting and a multi-year planning horizon*

3.67. A priority initiative to improve education planning and resource management is the development of a medium-term budget framework to facilitate multi-year planning. The medium term budget could cover a period of about three years, with provision for annual updating to take into account fresh information and needs. The medium-term budget could also be embedded in a long-term rolling plan for education development. It would facilitate education planning and management by improving the predictability of resources and providing a longer-term development horizon than is permitted by the current annual budgets.

*Public expenditure tracking*

3.68. A public expenditure tracking system would constitute an important management tool for education policy makers and finance officials and complement the medium-term budgeting system. It would provide the central government and the provinces information on the flow of funds through the education system and the actual level of resources reaching various service delivery points, such as schools, universities, national colleges of education and teacher centers. It would also increase the transparency of resource flows through the system. Such information could then feed back into policy formulation and resource allocation as education development needs evolve, and central government and provincial plans are refined.

*Promoting education research, monitoring and evaluation*

3.69. Sound research, monitoring and evaluation, based on statistically valid procedures and measurable indicators, is extremely valuable for policy makers. In advanced education systems analytically rigorous education research and evaluation constitutes the foundation for policy formulation. The Sri Lankan education system currently has several promising initiatives, such as the annual school census, the assessment of grade 4 learning outcomes by NEREC,

and the NEREC qualitative study of education management practices, that provide a basis for a rich and informative monitoring and evaluation framework. This education monitoring and evaluation system could be developed with special emphasis on the analysis of education performance and causal factors useful for policy making. Education monitoring and evaluation activities can be encouraged to utilize both quantitative and qualitative methods, and use modern research techniques such as experimental designs, randomized trials and longitudinal surveys.

# Chapter Four

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## DIMENSIONS OF EDUCATION QUALITY: STATUS, CHALLENGES AND POLICY RESPONSES

### 4.0 Introduction

4.1. The quality of education, broadly defined to cover cognitive achievement as well as other dimensions of learning, such as good team work, a disciplined and industrious work ethic, effective communication, visionary leadership, and good civic attitudes and practices, is at the core of the Sri Lankan education policy agenda [see *NEC (2003)*]. This chapter analyzes several important dimensions of education quality. First, an analysis of the level and determinants of cognitive achievement is undertaken. This is followed by a discussion of the government strategy to improve education quality and link education to the world of work. Next, a set of four case studies undertaken specially for this report, are presented. The

first case study examines education management practices in schools, an issue that is at the heart of the school effectiveness and school performance literature. The second case study covers an area of increasing policy interest and concern in Sri Lanka, early childhood development. The third case study focuses on the reconstruction of the education system in the least developed area of the country, the conflict affected region. The final case study examines an important element of the relationship between education and social cohesion, the civic attitudes and understanding of students.

### 4.1 Dimensions of Education Quality: Levels and Determinants of Cognitive Achievement

*Cognitive achievement levels of students in the primary education cycle*

4.2. Education policy makers express concern at the unsatisfactory state of learning levels in the country [see *NEC (1997), (2003)*]. Cognitive achievement tests among primary school children show substantial shortfalls in mastery of fundamental language and numeracy skills towards the end of the primary cycle [see *Table 4.1 and Table 4.2*]. In first language (Sinhalese and Tamil), average mastery is only 37%. This implies that two out of every three children have not achieved the targeted level of first language mastery through grades 1-4. Writing (28%) and syntax (30%) are the weakest mother tongue skills. Comprehension (45%), too, is

**Table 4.1. Proportion of Children Achieving Mastery of Language Skills at Grade 4, 2003**

Skill	First Language (Sinhala or Tamil)			English Language		
	Sri Lanka %	Urban Sector %	Rural Sector %	Sri Lanka %	Urban Sector %	Rural Sector %
Vocabulary	70	81	68	35	48	30
Comprehension	45	56	43	16	33	13
Syntax	30	44	27	20	34	17
Writing	28	40	25	1	4	1
Total	37	51	34	10	23	7

Source: National Assessment of Grade 4 Learning Achievement: National Education Research and Evaluation Center, University of Colombo.

Note: Numbers have been rounded to the nearest integer.

poor. Vocabulary skills (70%) are better, but even here one in three children has an inadequate command of the language. English language skills are extremely low. Only 10% of primary children achieve the targeted level of mastery. English language writing skills are virtually non-existent, with just 1% of children exhibiting the required skill level. English language comprehension (16%) and syntax (20%) are also very poor. English language vocabulary skills are higher (35%), but show that two out of three children lack even this basic skill.

4.3. In mathematics achievement, too, overall

mastery is only 38%. Mastery of mathematical concepts is 45%, procedures 51% and problem solving only 34%. The low level of cognitive achievement among primary students is especially worrying, from a policy perspective, as primary education forms the foundation upon which secondary and tertiary education and various types of skills training are built. Hence, the quality and performance of the entire education system is constrained by the low achievement levels in the primary grades.

4.4. In addition to these low overall achievement levels, there are also significant disparities in achievement

between urban and rural areas. First language (Sinhalese or Tamil) mastery in urban areas is 51%, but falls to 34% in rural areas. In English language skills, 23% of urban children achieve mastery, but in rural areas only 7% of children reach mastery. In mathematics, 52% of urban children attain mastery, while just 35% of rural children achieve the required level of competence. These urban-rural differences can be attributed to a combination of factors, such as the lower quality of education services in rural areas, poorer parental capability and support, and weaker opportunities for child activities that promote learning.

**Table 4.2. Proportion of Primary Children Achieving Mastery of Numeracy Skills at Grade 4, 2003**

Skill	Sri Lanka %	Urban Sector %	Rural Sector %
Concepts	45	58	42
Procedures	51	56	40
Problem Solving	34	39	26
Total	38	52	35

Source: National Assessment of Grade 4 Learning Achievement: National Education Research and Evaluation Center, University of Colombo.

Note: Numbers have been rounded to the nearest integer.

*Analysis of factors associated with grade 4 cognitive achievement*

4.5. The results of an econometric analysis of the factors associated with grade 4 cognitive achievement are presented, in terms of school, household and child specific variables, in Table 4.3. Among education variables, teacher performance plays an important role in determining the learning outcomes of students. Students perform better in classes where teachers use child centered learning methods, prepare lessons daily, employ desk work as part of classroom practice, use oral English in their teaching, and evaluate student exercises. These are plausible findings, as teachers set the tone and content of the classroom experience of students. In addition, within schools, teachers determine the level and extent of student exposure to first language and English language skills such as vocabulary, comprehension, syntax and writing, and mathematical skills such as conceptual understanding, knowledge of procedures and application to problem solving. From a policy perspective, these findings emphasize the importance of teacher performance. Hence, initiatives to improve the capabilities, motivation and classroom practice of teachers needs to be a core element of education development strategy.

4.6. The adoption of a child centered learning approach contributes positively to learning outcomes in all three subject areas, first language, English and mathematics. This finding provides important econometric support to findings from qualitative studies that parents and teachers perceive child centered learning as improving student performance. The use of oral English in teaching contributes favorably not only to English language scores, but also to first language learning and mathematics achievement. This can be attributed to the ability of teachers conversant in English to access ideas and general information better than teachers lacking English language competency. Improving the English language capabilities of teachers, hence, could yield broad benefits to students.

4.7. The timely possession of textbooks has a positive and significant impact on learning achievement. This finding illustrates the importance of textbooks as a key teaching and learning resource to improve cognitive achievement. Government policy is to provide schools with a choice of free textbooks for children in grades 1-11, purchasing the selected titles from private textbook publishers. This policy, referred to as the multiple textbook option (MBO), is intended to promote learning by ensuring that all students have textbooks,

while relying on private sector publication of competing textbooks to increase quality and reduce cost.

4.8. Students attending schools with electricity perform better than students in schools without electricity. Schools with electricity are likely to be better endowed, in terms of facilities and services, so that this is a plausible finding. Children in schools in municipal areas perform better than children in urban council or rural areas. However, the difference between children in urban council and rural areas is insignificant. This may be due to the intense attention given by government to improve the quality of rural schools.

4.9. The analysis also throws up a number of anomalous findings. For instance, observations on the enthusiasm of teachers, the pleasantness of learning activities and the ability of teachers to cope with learning disabilities, are all negatively associated with cognitive scores. These findings may partly reflect the difficulty of measuring such variables, which are based on third party observations, accurately. Children in schools with classroom cupboards perform worse than other children, which is again an anomalous result. It may indicate the difficulty of directly relating such inputs as classroom cupboards to final learning outcomes in a production function framework.

**Table 4.3. Regression Analysis of Student, Household and School Characteristics Affecting Learning Achievement in Grade 4 in 2003**

Explanatory Variables	Mathematics learning levels	English language learning levels	First language (Sinhalese or Tamil) learning levels
Male child	-0.185*** (0.039)	-0.254*** (0.037)	-0.298*** (0.038)
Age of child	-0.018 (0.048)	-0.075 (0.046)	-0.065 (0.051)
Mother's education	0.016** (0.007)	0.019*** (0.007)	0.019*** (0.007)
Father's education	0.041*** (0.007)	0.056*** (0.007)	0.045*** (0.007)
Log of household spending per capita	0.166*** (0.037)	0.231*** (0.039)	0.169*** (0.037)
Parental aspirations for child's education	0.049*** (0.010)	0.049*** (0.009)	0.047*** (0.010)
Schools located in a municipal council	0.174** (0.088)	0.396*** (0.085)	0.332*** (0.082)
Schools located in an urban council	-0.079 (0.080)	0.116 (0.078)	0.057 (0.075)
Child's height	0.103*** (0.020)	0.120*** (0.020)	0.119*** (0.020)
Child missed school frequently due to illness	-0.144** (0.057)	-0.166*** (0.051)	-0.143*** (0.055)
Child has hearing difficulty	-0.723*** (0.187)	-0.365** (0.148)	-0.433** (0.180)
Child suffers from worm infections	-0.052 (0.072)	-0.033 (0.068)	-0.072 (0.074)
Schools with grades up to GCE A/L (Arts, Commerce & Science)	-0.124 (0.095)	-0.181** (0.090)	-0.259*** (0.091)
Schools with grades up to GCE A/L (Arts & Commerce only)	0.031 (0.089)	-0.289*** (0.085)	-0.073 (0.087)
Schools with grades up to GCE O/L	0.077 (0.088)	-0.090 (0.085)	-0.086 (0.086)
Private schools	-1.141*** (0.208)	-1.454*** (0.213)	-1.378*** (0.188)
School has a walled compound	0.138* (0.082)	0.122 (0.082)	0.117 (0.080)
Electricity available in school	0.261*** (0.072)	0.249*** (0.065)	0.221*** (0.070)
School principal male	-0.149** (0.060)	-0.081 (0.062)	-0.076 (0.060)
Availability of textbooks by the beginning of the second term	0.603*** (0.089)	0.432*** (0.092)	0.620*** (0.088)
Teacher prepares daily lesson plans	0.149*** (0.057)	0.151*** (0.051)	0.113** (0.053)

**Table 4.3. Regression Analysis of Student, Household and School Characteristics Affecting Learning Achievement in Grade 4 in 2003**  
*contd.,*

Explanatory Variables	Mathematics learning levels	English language learning levels	First language (Sinhalese or Tamil) learning levels
Teacher prepares visual aids	-0.035 (0.058)	-0.039 (0.055)	-0.063 (0.053)
Teacher uses student centered teaching methods	0.288*** (0.059)	0.179*** (0.055)	0.272*** (0.056)
Teacher uses deskwork	0.100** (0.041)	0.102** (0.041)	0.064 (0.041)
School has book cupboards	-0.120*** (0.043)	-0.172*** (0.042)	-0.167*** (0.041)
School has playgrounds	-0.011 (0.054)	0.050 (0.052)	-0.068 (0.050)
Teacher uses textbooks	0.018 (0.049)	0.101** (0.047)	0.054 (0.047)
Teacher evaluates students' exercises	0.099 (0.065)	0.113* (0.059)	0.152** (0.066)
Pleasantness of learning activities	-0.141** (0.060)	-0.146** (0.057)	-0.228*** (0.057)
Teacher's ability to cope with children having learning disabilities	-0.282*** (0.056)	-0.240*** (0.050)	-0.235*** (0.055)
Teacher uses oral English	0.075** (0.037)	0.099*** (0.036)	0.138*** (0.034)
Enthusiasm of the teacher	-0.218*** (0.068)	-0.156** (0.070)	-0.134** (0.067)
Constant	-2.262*** (0.579)	-2.207*** (0.562)	-1.813*** (0.608)
Number of observations	2,177	2,220	2,205
R-squared	0.34	0.43	0.39

Source: World Bank estimates, based on the NEREC study of learning assessments, 2003 and National Education Commission education, health and household survey data, 2003.

Note: Standard errors in parentheses.

\* significant at 10%; \*\* significant at 5%; \*\*\* significant at 1%. All regressions were estimated using ordinary least squares (OLS) methods. Some regressions also added community fixed effects, which in effect add a dummy variable for each community. These fixed effects regressions control for all observed and unobserved community characteristics and thus are useful for reducing bias in the estimated impacts of household and school characteristics. For example, it is possible in a regression without such fixed effects that an observed school characteristic is correlated with some unobserved community characteristic that raises educational achievement, such as the prevalence of tutoring services in the local community (wealthy communities may have better schools and also more tutoring services). This correlation would lead to overestimation of the causal impact of school characteristics on test scores, but adding community fixed effects removes this potential source of bias.

#### *Household variables and learning outcomes*

4.10. Household variables play an extremely important role in determining cognitive achievement levels. The education attainment of fathers

and mothers exert a positive effect on learning levels in all three dependent variables, mathematics, English language and first language achievement. Parental educational aspirations for children are also favorably

associated with learning outcomes in all three subjects. These are plausible findings, as educated parents with high educational goals for their children are more likely and able to provide an encouraging and

supportive learning environment at home. The econometric analysis also shows that children from affluent households have higher learning outcomes. Again, this is an intuitively reasonable finding, as wealthy families are better able to invest in the education of their children.

*Child specific variables and cognitive achievement*

4.11. The health and nutrition status of children are significantly related to student achievement. Height is positively related to learning levels, suggesting that stunted children perform worse than normal children. This is intuitively plausible, as stunting is an indication of low nutrition, and under-nutrition impairs learning ability and attention in classrooms. Children with hearing impediments and sickly students perform poorly on all three dimensions of learning, mathematics, English and first language. These findings suggest that attention needs to be given to factors outside the education system too, such as child health conditions and nutrition levels, when seeking to improve education quality. Strengthening the school health program and special education program for children with learning disabilities, such as hearing impediments, could contribute to improved education outcomes among some of the most disadvantaged and vulnerable children. Male

children appear to perform worse than female children, with significantly lower test scores. This finding needs to be investigated further, as it may indicate school and classroom practices that place primary aged boys at a disadvantage.

**4.2 Enhancing Education Quality: Government Policies and Strategy**

4.12. The unsatisfactory state of education quality has led to intense public debate and interest in developing education policies to improve learning outcomes. Government policy to improve education quality contains seven interacting components, drawn from the education performance of countries with more advanced education systems and the literature on school effectiveness and performance.

4.13. *Curriculum modernization.* The primary education curriculum has been reformed to implement the policy framework proposed by the NEC (1997). Three key components of these policies are:

- (i) integration of the primary curriculum around the subject areas of first language, mathematics, religion and environmental studies;
- (ii) introduction of oral English from grade 1 onwards and formal English from grade 3 onwards;
- (iii) organization of the primary education cycle along the key stage model used

in England, with three key stages, grades 1-2, grades 3-4 and grade 5. Essential learning competencies have been set for each key stage, so that mastery of these competencies can be assessed.

4.14. The junior secondary education curriculum has been organized to emphasize activity based learning, practical projects and subject content knowledge, with greater emphasis on practical work at the earlier levels of secondary schooling. The senior secondary education curriculum awards importance to subject content depth, broad general knowledge and awareness, problem solving skills, strong reasoning ability and accurate comprehension.

4.15. Two sets of key policy changes were introduced into the university system at the undergraduate level during the 1990s: (i) new universities were established, such as Rajarata, Sabaragamuwa and Wayamba, to offer non-standard degree courses; and (ii) the course unit system was introduced, to offer greater flexibility in course design, enable wider student choice and a broader undergraduate education than the older, highly specialized academic system. The new system sacrifices subject content depth at the undergraduate level, however, which is a problem for hierarchically ordered subjects. Further, the absence of a well-developed postgraduate education program constrains

the ability of the tertiary education system to compensate for this loss of subject content depth at the undergraduate level.

4.16. *Introducing modern, student-friendly teaching approaches and learning methods.* The primary and secondary education system seeks to adopt a student-centered approach to learning. This includes, over the key stages of the primary curriculum, guided play, activity and desk work. In the secondary education curriculum, the emphasis is on projects, self-learning, hands-on experiences and learning by doing. The recent implementation experience of these curriculum approaches and teaching-learning models have been intensively assessed at the primary and secondary education levels. Several evaluations of the primary education system [see *SLAAED (2000)* and *NEREC (2002)*] found that the approach was highly popular among stakeholders and beneficiaries, such as children, parents, teachers, principals and education administrators. Evaluations of key recent policy measures in the senior secondary education system, too, found favorable responses from stakeholders and beneficiaries [see *Wijetunge and Rupasinghe (2003)*, *Perera, Gunewardena and Wijetunge (2003)* and *Karunaratne (2003)*]. The design and

implementation of the reforms at both the primary and senior secondary education stages were generally considered sound and well prepared, and were strongly supported by the central and provincial education systems. Inevitably, in a wide-ranging reform process, there were also teething problems, especially given the tight fiscal constraints and limited administrative capacity of the system. However, these were not serious problems, and the NEC proposes continuing these policies, with some fine tuning at the senior secondary level [see *NEC (2003)*].

4.17. Policy measures and implementation at the junior secondary education level have been less successful [see *Mettananda (2002)*, *Gunewardena and Lekamge (2003)*, *Perera, Gunewardena and Wijetunge (2003)*]. The main reasons for the weaker performance of education policy measures at this level appear to be: (i) policy inconsistency, especially on the grade span and curriculum organization; (ii) the failure to establish a high level technical committee to oversee and support implementation, as at the primary level; and (iii) inadequate resources to support the ambitious reforms proposed [see *NEC (2003)*].

4.18. *Developing effective leadership and management capabilities among heads of education institutions,*

*especially principals and section heads.* The cardinal importance of good leadership in developing and maintaining high performing education institutions has been stressed by policy makers in recent years. A formal Principals' Service was established in 1997. In addition, a Principals' Training Center is being developed at Meepe by the National Institute of Education (NIE), and offers a wide range of education management programs, from short thematic courses to postgraduate Diplomas and Masters degrees. As with new initiatives, considerable further development is needed. Currently, school principals are appointed from both the Principals' Service and the older (1971) Sri Lanka Education Administrators' Service, with little synchronization between the two. Further, principals and school section heads (head masters and head mistresses) lack incentives to engage in professional development and training activities. Also, suitable performance appraisal systems have not yet been established. The NEC (2003) recommends developing a national policy for school principals, outlining qualifications, appointment and promotion criteria, relationship to other education services, professional and career development incentives and opportunities, and performance appraisal and rewards. Such a national policy can be extremely useful. Further, government

needs to consider extending the policy to cover school section heads, such as headmasters and headmistresses, as well.

4.19. *Increasing the quality of the teaching force.* Sri Lankan education policy makers emphasize the crucial role of teachers in delivering education services [see NEC (1997), (2003)]. Over the past seven years the country has established 17 National Colleges of Education (NCOEs) to ensure that all individuals joining the teachers' service successfully complete a three year pre-service teacher education program and receive due certification, or are university graduates. The number of untrained teachers in the system has been reduced from about 45,000 in 1997 to around 2,000 in 2003. In addition, 94 Teacher Centers (TCs) have been established, one in each zone, to facilitate continuing professional development opportunities for teachers, especially to widen and upgrade subject content knowledge, and refresh pedagogical skills through continuing teacher education. A national Teacher Educators' Service has also been established to provide an academic cadre for the NCOEs and TCs. Key proposals to develop teacher quality in the future include: (i) developing an all graduate teacher cadre; (ii) establishing a Teacher Education Board for planning, coordinating and quality

assurance of the teacher education system; and (iii) ensuring teachers acquire competency in English, computer literacy, counseling and guidance, and the teaching of Sinhalese or Tamil as third languages, in addition to pedagogy and subject expertise. The findings from the econometric analysis of the relationship between learning outcomes and teacher variables in the preceding section highlight the importance of these policy measures to improve the motivation and performance of teachers.

4.20. *Providing on-site academic support to schools and education institutions.* Schools are supported through a system of in-service advisors who are expected to visit schools and provide advice, guidance and technical support to principals and teachers. This system functioned well in earlier generations, but recently the system appears to have weakened, especially at the level of Divisional Education Offices. Current policy thinking is to absorb the Divisional Education Offices into the Zonal Education Offices, and strengthen the capabilities and performance of this important administrative tier. This is an area where further policy development and capacity building would be extremely useful.

4.21. *Reforming examinations and assessment systems.* Continuous assessment methods

have been introduced in universities and are in the process of being introduced within the school system. The objective of continuous assessment methods are to strengthen the project and activity based approach to pedagogy and learning, improve the work ethics and discipline of students by compelling them to prepare throughout the year, and provide students with a better opportunity to perform at their normal level than can be observed through single year-end examinations. In the school system, school based continuous assessment has been introduced as part of the GCE O/L and GCE A/L examination cycles. Policy makers plan to review the implementation experience of school based assessment over a three year cycle and develop further refinements to the model [see NEC (2003)]. In the university system, continuous assessment was introduced in the late 1990s to complement the course unit model. The university assessment methods include examinations at the end of semesters, and classroom tests and take home assignments during the semester. In addition, some degree programs also offer mid-semester tests.

4.22. *Strengthening education research, monitoring and evaluation.* This is an important policy measure, introduced to obtain regular and systematic feedback on the performance of various aspects of the education

system and design policies based on objective and rigorous evidence. A key initiative to develop education research and evaluation capacity has been the establishment of a National Education Research and Evaluation Center (NEREC). This center has commenced conducting statistically rigorous tests of learning achievement in the country.

### 4.3 Pursuing Excellence in Education Quality

4.23 The development measures above provide a promising foundation upon which Sri Lanka can build a high quality education system. The education development literature, the education reform experience of other countries, and the education experience of Sri Lanka itself, suggest several further development initiatives that are urgently needed to improve the quality of education and establish high performing schools in the country.

#### *Improving understanding, at school level, of targeted competencies in the primary education curriculum*

4.24. Currently, the competencies, skills and expected learning outcomes of the primary school curriculum are clearly specified. However, understanding of these achievement levels among principals and teachers is limited and inadequate. Further, the capabilities of principals and

teachers to translate these primary school achievement levels into effective teaching strategies in schools and classrooms are weak. The government could consider two key initiatives to combat this problem:

- a. ensure widespread dissemination and understanding of the competencies, skills and expected learning outcomes of the primary school curriculum among principals and teachers, including making printed versions of these achievement levels available to schools; and
- b. strengthen the capacity of teachers to equip students up to the achievement levels specified in the curriculum.

#### *Clarifying and detailing the secondary school curriculum*

4.25. Unlike in the primary school curriculum, the competencies, skills and expected learning outcomes of the secondary school curriculum are not clearly specified. In consequence, the secondary curriculum is disorganized, with poor sequencing across grade levels and cycles. In addition, schools are unable to set goals and targets for achievement levels in each grade, or organize their teaching methods and learning strategies around a clearly articulated curriculum. Hence, two core development

initiatives that can be considered by government to strengthen secondary education in the future are to:

- a. clarify and organize the secondary school curriculum, specifying the competencies, skills and expected learning outcomes in each grade and subject; and
- b. ensure widespread dissemination and understanding of these achievement levels among principals and teachers, including making relevant printed material available to schools.

#### *Strengthening professional competencies and skills of teachers*

4.26. The quality of the teaching force is of cardinal importance in any education system. Sri Lanka invested heavily, over the past five years or so, to construct, staff and equip a complete network of national colleges of education (NCOEs) to provide pre-service teacher education and teacher centers (TCs) to deliver continuing teacher education. Virtually all school teachers are now trained, and enjoy opportunities for professional development during their career. The government can build on this institutional foundation to develop the professional capabilities and skills of teachers. Key actions that would help achieve this objective are:

- a. introducing continuing teacher training programs aimed at transforming and developing entire schools through on-site training, to complement the off-site training activities currently offered through teacher centers to enable individual teachers to upgrade their skills;
  - b. modernizing the curricula and instructional practices of pre-service and continuing teacher training programs to equip teachers to utilize equipment and technology in teaching activities, such as course planning and organization, classroom practice, student assignments and homework, and assessment of student knowledge and skills;
  - c. developing the curricula and instructional practices of pre-service and continuing teacher education programs to equip teachers with the pedagogical skills needed to promote child-centered and activity based teaching-learning approaches in the primary and secondary grade cycles;
  - d. endowing teachers with the skills to forge partnerships with local communities to improve school quality;
  - e. equipping teachers to assume responsibility, under the leadership of principals, to set and achieve high school performance standards; and
  - f. strengthening the professional knowledge and understanding of subject areas and the pedagogical skills of teachers on a regular, continuing cycle over their teaching careers.
- Strengthening the leadership and management capabilities of principals, headmasters and headmistresses*
- 4.27. The central importance of high quality school leadership is appreciated by Sri Lankan education policy makers. A principals' training center is being developed to provide leadership and management training to principals and school section heads such as headmasters and headmistresses. Further, policy measures are being introduced to empower principals and devolve considerable managerial power to schools. Strengthening the leadership skills and managerial competencies of school principals, headmasters and headmistresses is a key area for development. Important leadership and management skills required in the future include the abilities to:
- a. clearly articulate the vision and educational goals of schools;
  - b. organize schools to implement the curriculum effectively;
  - c. match the pedagogical competencies of teachers to the classroom and co-curricular needs of schools;
  - d. appraise staff, especially teachers, and progressively improve their competencies and skills;
  - e. motivate staff and students towards high performance;
  - f. deploy and utilize physical resources to promote school goals;
  - g. develop close ties with community organizations, including parent-teacher associations and past pupils associations; and
  - h. maintain high visibility and accessibility to pupils, teachers, parents and other community members.
- Developing academic and administrative support systems for schools*
- 4.28. Support networks that provide academic and administrative assistance and guidance to schools are at a rudimentary stage in Sri Lanka. The existing system of in-service advisors to provide support to schools is poorly developed. Strengthening this system is of strategic importance for future education development. Priority areas for

future development include:

- a. clearly articulating the roles and responsibilities of in-service advisors;
- b. selecting and appointing in-service advisors on the basis of proven professional competence and performance;
- c. equipping in-service advisors to provide services, including information and training regarding good instructional practices, to schools to raise performance;
- d. utilizing in-service advisors effectively to evaluate and provide constructive feedback on the academic performance and efforts of school principals and teachers; and
- e. incorporating on-site support to schools into the regular development activities of provincial education authorities and zonal education offices.

*Expanding the education capital stock and increasing the use of equipment and technology in teaching and learning*

4.29 As Sri Lanka stands poised on the threshold of the second stage of education development, the school system needs to advance from a low-technology environment heavily dependent on “chalk and talk” to a modern, equipment and technology intensive education

system. The education capital stock of IT centers and equipment, science laboratories, libraries, activity rooms, instruments and tools, needs to be increased in stages. Concurrently, equipment and technology have to be awarded a prominent role in teaching methods, learning approaches and examinations. For instance, instructional time in science can be weighted more in favor of laboratory work, and lab-based assignments used as part of the assessment mechanism. Similarly, teaching methods in subjects such as mathematics and physics can include the use of educational software to enable, *inter alia*, self-paced learning among children. Audio equipment can be utilized in language instruction, especially English, to develop vocabulary, pronunciation and oral fluency. And increasing use of libraries and reading material provide an extremely effective method of enhancing learning outcomes.

*Improving the quality of textbooks*

4.30. Textbooks constitute the main learning resource in the education system. Further, for a developing country such as Sri Lanka, it is likely to remain the chief quality input for many years into the future. As such, ensuring high quality textbooks is vitally important. In recent years, the government has implemented an important policy initiative to increase the quality of textbooks and widen

the choice of textbooks available to schools by dismantling a state monopoly and opening textbook publication to competitive private firms. Future development of private sector textbook publication could include the following key steps:

- a. enhancing the technical capacity of textbook writers, illustrators and editors in the country;
- b. strengthening quality control of manuscripts and drafts, including checking factual accuracy and eliminating material that hurts different religious and ethnic groups;
- c. speeding up contracting and delivery to ensure timely distribution to schools prior to the commencement of the academic year; and
- d. developing technical capacity among writers to produce supplementary reading material, workbooks and textbook guides.

*Reconstructing damaged education institutions in conflict affected areas*

4.31. Enrolment and learning levels are lowest in the conflict affected areas, which experience special challenges caused by the destruction of education infrastructure. Government education institutions in the conflict affected areas, especially schools, suffered

damage during the conflict period. An assessment of the reconstruction, rehabilitation and developmental needs of the region [see *UNICEF-World Bank (2003)*] estimated that about USD140 million is required to restore the education capital stock in the region. Technical capacity, however, is a major challenge in implementing education reconstruction and rehabilitation work in the conflict affected regions. In particular, there are shortages of material and skilled labor. Also, as funds have poured into the region for reconstruction work, prices of goods and wages have risen. Long-term support to restore the education system in the conflict affected areas requires considerable capacity building activity.

*Promoting social cohesion through education*

4.32. Enhancing civic knowledge and understanding among students is an important measure to promote respect for diversity, democratic governance and civil liberties in the backdrop of the 20 year long secessionist conflict in the country. Additional measures to promote social cohesion through education include producing textbooks that are sensitive to the cultures of different social groups, using the curriculum and co-curricular activities to promote respect for diversity, introducing schools where children from different ethnic

groups can study together and promoting the use of English as a link language. These are useful measures, although their impact clearly depends on the cooperation of different social groups. In particular, the cooperation of dominant groups in the conflict affected areas is needed to promote these activities effectively.

*Improving the quality of university education*

4.33. The university system has not experienced the same intensive process of consultative policy development as the school system. However, the UGC and individual universities have developed several initiatives to enhance quality. These include reforming curricula and examination systems, especially organizing degree programs around course unit systems and introducing continuous assessment systems, developing corporate plans for universities, introducing performance appraisal systems for staff, setting up an accreditation process under an independent board, and introducing an element of performance based funding. These initiatives have yet to be tested, and good evaluations, especially of the older initiatives such as the introduction of course unit systems and continuous assessment mechanisms, could be helpful to policy makers and academics.

**4.4 Orienting the Education System to the World of Work**

4.34. The Sri Lankan education policy framework stresses the importance of orienting the education system to the world of work [see *NEC (2003)*]. Policy makers are aware that the best foundation for the world of work is a high quality school system which can supply the labor market with trainable individuals and provide a strong spring board for technical, professional and university education. The school system plays a pivotal role in producing knowledge and generic skills, such as team work, decision making, initiative, problem solving, responsibility, leadership and communication, which are important in the world of work. The school system also constitutes the basic curriculum framework for the acquisition of knowledge and specific capabilities in demand in the labor market. Plans to improve the orientation of the Sri Lankan education system to the world of work needs priority development initiatives in curricula, use of IT and technology in education, language skills and fluency, and career guidance and counseling.

*Developing and implementing an activity based curriculum*

4.35. The activity based curriculum approach advocated by Sri Lankan policy makers for secondary education is explicitly

designed to develop a sound work ethic among school children [see *NEC (2003)*]. As such, it can play a key role in orienting the education system to the world of work. The future development and implementation of the activity based curriculum approach depends on key initiatives to:

- a. train teachers in activity based pedagogy;
- b. train principals to organize schools for an activity based curriculum;
- c. provide sufficient classroom space and activity rooms to implement activity based learning; and
- d. make adequate equipment, technology and reading material available in schools to support activity based teaching and learning.

*Increasing IT literacy and skills and introducing IT based teaching and learning*

4.36. IT literacy and skills are fundamental in the modern world, and vastly increase the national and global labor market prospects of school completers and university graduates. Education policy makers are aware of the cardinal importance of IT, and advocate expanding and deepening the use of IT in the education system. This is an extremely important, high priority policy measure. Key initiatives to develop the use of IT in the school system and

implement IT based teaching and learning include:

- a. equipping schools with IT facilities and connectivity in stages;
- b. establishing a national education network to maximize access to IT based education material;
- c. training teachers in IT equipment, educational software and on-line education resources;
- d. creating awareness among school principals on the use of IT in education; and
- e. making provision for IT equipment and IT based educational resources in school quality input allocations.

*Improving English language skills*

4.37. English language skills and fluency enjoy strong demand in the national labor market. In addition, English language competency opens job prospects in the global economy. In consequence, developing English language skills constitutes a central element of the education policy framework to improve the labor market orientation of the school system. Important development initiatives for the future include:

- a. allowing private schools to provide students a choice of English as a medium of instruction, along with Sinhalese and Tamil, from grade 1

- upwards;
- b. introducing English as a medium of instruction in government schools in stages, as and when adequate teachers become available;
- c. training teachers, including re-training “excess teachers” in the system, to teach English as a subject;
- d. training teachers, including re-training “excess teachers” in the system, to teach in English as a medium of instruction; and
- e. utilizing audio-visual educational resources and IT based education material widely for English language teaching and learning.

*Strengthening skills development and training*

4.38. Skills development constitutes the chief active labor market strategy of the government to promote the job prospects and labor productivity of school leavers. Several promising development initiatives and policy measures have been proposed by policy makers, including:

- a. strengthening the Technical and Vocational Education Commission (TVEC) as the apex body for TEVT;
- b. developing the role of government to function as a facilitator, standard

- setter and regulator of training;
- c. fostering private sector participation in training;
- d. promoting government-industry partnerships in skills development;
- e. accrediting and monitoring the quality of public and private training institutions;
- f. rationalizing the public sector TEVT system;
- g. improving the linkages of the TEVT system with the school and university systems; including establishing career guidance and counseling in schools and universities;
- h. promoting vocational training for the informal sector; and
- i. providing financial incentives for training targeting the corporate sector.

These are rational and potentially productive ideas, reflecting international thinking and practice. The actual stage of development of these various policy initiatives is modest, with many ideas still at the level of blue prints. Translating these policy ideas into development strategies and implementing them constitute the next major challenges faced by the TEVT sector.

*Developing career guidance and counseling*

4.39. An important government recommendation to link education to the world of work is the development of effective career guidance and counseling. Universities have commenced career guidance and counseling activities. However, in the school system, career guidance and counseling is virtually non-existent. Developing career guidance and counseling in schools is an important initiative for future implementation. Key actions to promote this initiative could include:

- a. training a core cadre of school staff in career guidance and counseling;
- b. prioritizing schools in poor regions in the development of guidance and counseling, as students in such areas have less access to labor market information; and
- c. developing information networks between vocational training and technical education institutions and guidance counselors in schools.

#### **4.5 Case Studies of Selected Dimensions of Education Quality**

4.40. The preceding analysis examined important dimensions of learning outcomes and government education strategy at the broad level of national policy. The current section presents four case studies, specially commissioned for this

report, which analyze key elements of education quality: (i) education management practices and the interaction of inputs and processes at school level; (ii) Early Childhood Development; (iii) reconstruction of the education system in conflict affected areas; and (iv) the promotion of social cohesion through the school system.

# Case Study I

## Developing Responsive Schools for Quality Learning

4.1.1. Analyzing the qualitative dynamics of the interaction among the conditions within schools in Sri Lanka is important for education policy making, as general recommendations about program design based on quantitative assessments need to be supplemented by qualitative information. For example, there is strong research evidence that the presence of textbooks affects school achievement positively. However, the dynamics and efficacy of book use in schools is not well understood. For educational reform and program design to be successful, these quantitative analyses need to be enriched by systematic qualitative information on the dynamics within schools.

4.1.2. As part of a process to take a fresh look at the guiding parameters which should be in place for learning environments in Sri Lankan schools, a qualitative study was undertaken by the National Education Research and Evaluation Center (NEREC) for this report. The study focused on 100 schools (92 public and 8 private) across all provinces in Sri Lanka and represents all school types. More in-depth case studies are also underway in eight schools, including two private schools.

4.1.3. The study particularly focused on key interacting school-related factors and their relationships with the larger education system and local communities. These factors were based on those identified from international experience which improve student learning environments [see *ANTRIEP (2000)*, *Heneveld and Craig (1996)*, *Lockheed and Verspoor (1991)*]. These include:

- Strong parent and community support
- Effective support from the larger education system, including clearly defined student outcomes; transparent and merit-based career opportunities for staff, and frequent and appropriate teacher development activities
- Adequate material support; i.e., sufficient instructional materials, adequate facilities
- Effective leadership
- A capable teaching force
- Flexibility and autonomy to organize school priorities and activities
- Sufficient days spent in school during the school year
- Clear goals and high expectations of students and staff
- Positive teacher attitudes, collaborative planning and collegial relationships

- Order and discipline
- Sequenced curriculum articulation and organization
- School-wide recognition of academic success and incentives
- Maximized learning time in the classroom
- Variety in teaching strategies
- Well supervised homework appropriate to the age level of students
- Frequent constructive student assessment and feedback

4.1.4. Based on the information currently available from this qualitative analysis, seven key areas that appear to warrant strong consideration in Sri Lanka, especially as school-based management is developed, are: (i) clearly defining student outcomes and high expectations that are then effectively translated into classroom learning practice; (ii) modernizing the curriculum to better match the expected student learning outcomes and to develop more child-friendly classroom practice; (iii) strengthening the instructional and managerial leadership within schools, most typically as provided by the school principal, headmasters and headmistresses; (iv) developing more capable and motivated teachers with positive teacher

attitudes; (v) maximizing the support and participation from the local community; (vi) developing alternative methods to corporal punishment to motivate children to undertake the needed learning tasks, and to be excited about their own ongoing learning; and (vii) specifying more clearly the power, authority and responsibilities at each level of the education system.

a. *Clearly defined student outcomes and high expectations.* In the qualitative analysis, it is striking that of the 100 schools studied, the majority of them had difficulty in translating the expected learning competencies of students (i.e. cognitive, affective and psycho-motor) into school objectives and classroom practice. It is imperative that teachers know what students need to learn. Based on international research, effective schools tend to be places of commitment to learning. This is clearly communicated by the principal and the teachers. Student performance is monitored regularly. Also student assignments are sufficiently frequent and difficult so as to convey this high expectation and teachers' confidence in students' abilities and confidence in students is

reinforced by giving them many opportunities to take responsibility for school activities. These expectations tend to translate into more positive self-concepts and great self-reliance among students.

b. *Curriculum relevant school activities.* Based on the expected student competencies, schools need to develop a comprehensive written scheme of work that identifies learning objectives and realistically available materials, and all teachers can explain what they teach in terms of this scheme. Materials, both provided and locally-prepared, identified in this scheme of work should be available and used by teachers. In the primary school, all teachers should be able to identify basic skills in each subject and demonstrate how they ensure mastery of these skills by students. Subject content across grade levels needs to be relevant for current and future learning needs, respectful of diverse cultural and religious backgrounds, and be presented in an integrated sequence across grade levels. There should also be some flexibility for teachers to adapt the curriculum to

their specific students' needs.

c. *Strong school leadership.* School principals play a key role in the school to: (i) see that the resources are available to provide, adequate support to teachers, sufficient learning materials, and an adequate and well-maintained learning facility; (ii) pursue high instructional standards through written policies, high expectations and management of the learning process; (iii) communicate regularly and effectively with teachers, with parents and others in the community; and (iv) maintain high visibility and accessibility to pupils, teachers, parents and others in the community. Teachers also have a responsibility to work with and share accountability with the principal for the ongoing improvement of their instructional practice and school quality.

d. *Capable and motivated teachers:* Characteristics of teachers in effective schools tend to fall into two categories. There are conditions that it appears makes teachers in a school more capable of being effective, and there are the attitudes and behaviors they exhibit in their work. Among the conditions that

define the capability of a school's teaching force are: (i) the teachers' mastery of the material they are supposed to teach; (ii) the amount of teaching experience they have; (iii) the length of time they have been in the school; and (iv) the extent to which the teachers are full-time in the school. Regarding behavior, teachers tend to be more effective when they have confidence in their ability to teach, care about teaching and about their students, and cooperate with each other. This is reflected in teachers' comfort in using learning materials and in trying new ideas, by low teacher absenteeism and tardiness, and in a high level of group involvement in planning, teaching and in resolving whole-school issues. The lack of direct pedagogical support to teachers in their classrooms is problematic in Sri Lankan schools. Teacher support networks that bring this support into classrooms, either from headmasters, headmistresses, school principals, other experienced teachers, learning advisors or other resource persons, would provide an invaluable service to teachers to both motivate and increase

skills.

e. *Parent and community participation:* From the broader research literature, five categories of parent and community support that are relevant to the Sri Lankan context are: (i) children come to school prepared to learn (e.g., are healthy, and where possible have been involved with reading, conversations and directed play at home); (ii) the community provides financial and material support to schools (monetary, or in-kind contributions, assistance to build schools); (iii) communication between the school and community is frequent (e.g., school-public events and parent-teacher conferences are frequent and meaningful); communications to parents by school staff are frequent and meaningful, positive parent-initiated contacts with school staff are frequent and meaningful); (iv) the community has a meaningful role in school governance (e.g., the role, functions and authority of the school board are clear and agreed-upon; the school board meet frequently and make meaningful decisions); and (v) community members and parents assist with instruction

(e.g., parents support the idea of homework and monitor it, parents/community serve as information sources and/or an audience for student work).

f. *Order and discipline:* Disciplinary matters can be minimized in classrooms often by the way the classroom is organized as well as the interest level generated by engaging, child-friendly practices. For example, seating arrangements should be uncongested; external noise levels and lighting conducive to learning; school rules and regulations clearly articulated, agreed upon by teachers and students, and equitably maintained; learning centers of individual activities available for students who may finish work early or need either remedial or further engaging activities, and good work rewarded publicly.

g. *Effective support from the larger education system:* Support to individual schools by the education system's management structure is important to enhance school quality. In terms of demonstrating its support, the system needs to: (i) delegate authority and responsibility for improvement to the schools themselves; (ii)

communicate expectations and exert pressure where necessary for successful academic results; (iii) provide services to the schools to help them succeed, including information and training regarding instructional practices and protection from political turbulence; and (iv) monitor and evaluate schools' academic performance and the efforts of school principals, particularly as instructional managers. The system of a clearly-defined policy for authority delegation and of expected student competencies are necessary to promote high academic standards. This will also mean that, in Sri Lanka, there is a need to more clearly specify the power, authority and responsibilities at each level of the education system, especially as the system moves more towards school-based management. Areas of the system where there are currently overlapping responsibilities will also need clarification so that school principals will know clearly to whom they are accountable. At present, as noted by NEC (2003), some schools are subject to multiple control by different layers.

4.1.5. The move to develop more school-based management in Sri Lanka has the potential to better address these differing needs and processes at each school, bringing more authority and responsibility closer to the teaching-learning interaction within schools. As the unit of focus of greatest learning impact, schools are essential players in the processes of regulation, monitoring and self-renewal.

#### *Teacher Support Networks*

4.1.6. The quality of a student's education depends largely on the quality of teachers. This is especially important in the primary school level, when children's learning is very formative and not so independent. It is even more true of developing countries, where, especially in rural areas, other factors involved with the learning process, such as access to appropriate textbooks is more problematic [see Carron and Ngoc Chau (1996)]. If teachers are absent, discouraged, do not have the needed pedagogical expertise to maximize learning time, do not believe in the capability of students to learn, and/or do not work in supportive teaching environments, student learning suffers. Teachers are also key agents for socialization in schools. So the role of teachers is critical and warrants special attention.

4.1.7. Teacher support networks are needed if sound pedagogical

practice and motivation are to be developed. These networks and their associated activities can be varied in structure and organization. As a general rule though, those that focus on continuous development to guide, monitor, and support necessary skills, knowledge and new ideas, tend to be more successful in bringing about change at the classroom level than those which seek quick fixes to fill up deficiencies, or programs that simply provide a qualification. Impact is even further enhanced when the support (skill development and resources) is brought directly into teachers' classrooms, in contrast to support that is offered at a distance and requires time to travel. The school setting should be the prime focus of activity.

4.1.8. A central principle of support networks is that the professional development of teachers is a process, not an event. It involves change over time and is achieved in stages during a teacher's career as more experience is gained. The stages are impacted by: (i) the degree and accessibility of services and support that can be provided within the education system; and (ii) the willingness of teachers to want to learn and apply new ideas.

4.1.9. The following provides information on some different types of teacher networks that might be considered. A combination of these is desirable:

4.1.10. *School-Based Networks*: The one model noted for its effectiveness in changing classroom practice is school-based support. This typically involves the direct participation and joint control by teachers and school principals, along with other officials, usually inspectors/supervisors. The support and participation of the school principal or other “director-organizer” is essential. Self-explanatory teacher guides and shared teacher idea booklets further strengthen this approach.

4.1.11. In-school activities, held regularly, typically include: (i) individual consultations between the teacher and the principal, supervisor or other experts, especially with emphasis on classroom supervision and use of instructional materials; (ii) observation of excellent teachers, discussion, peer coaching, and mentoring; (iii) visits to other classrooms and schools; and (iv) regular group teacher meetings, either by grade level or subject to discuss issues and share resource ideas. Peer coaching, in which two teachers observe each other's classes with the objective of helping each other improve their instructional abilities, has become increasingly popular along with mentoring programs. Activities tend to focus on concrete and specific training for instructional and management practice, and are appropriate to the current needs

of the teacher. This assistance can also provide a valuable link with more formal in-service training that might have been provided but which needs classroom practice to ensure implementation of the acquired learning. Similar support should also be organized for school principals so that they also might develop better leadership and pedagogical skills.

4.1.12. The school-based model is very effective for long-term guided learning, depending on the caliber of staff available in the school or other staff who can regularly visit the school. The role of the principal as instructional leader, and not just administrative manager tends to be a feature. If a school does not have competent staff to provide appropriate advice and assistance, then the services of a visiting resource teacher, or other appropriate personnel who might be found in a school-cluster network, or within other teaching institutions/services from the larger education system becomes a necessity for success (*see Egyptian example, Box 4.1*).

4.1.13. *School-Cluster Networks, Teacher Centers and Resource Centers*: School-cluster networks (such as those employed in Colombia, Guatemala, Indonesia, Lesotho, Nepal, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand and Zambia) are very helpful to share scarce material and human resources. Core schools tend to host

educational resource centers developed and operated jointly within the cluster. The Learning Action Cells in the Philippines exist at the school, district and regional levels and are used for school evaluation and staff development for both teachers and principals. Similar organizational patterns operate in many other countries. In reality, the activities undertaken at the cluster level, tend to be more formal and related to decentralized in-service training programs [*see Colombian example, Box 4.2*]. However, there is the potential to also have activities more akin to the school-based networks. Clusters offer the added advantage of having greater access to share staffing, material resources, and a range of ideas.

4.1.14. Resource Centers tend to be prominent within school clusters, However, their establishment is always controversial. The concept is simple, but clarity of purpose and the implementation of the support structure which is needed for classroom practice impact, tend to be problematic.

4.1.15. Based on international experience [*see many studies referred to in Bray (1987), Craig et. al. (1997), Knamiller and Fairhurst (1998)*], instructional support to teachers via networks, i.e., regular meetings of teachers between and within schools to share resources and ideas, team teaching with an experienced teacher, regular

visits and advice by learning coordinators/ resource teachers, sharing useful classroom materials etc., tend to be more effective than the establishment of fixed site centers. However, if the establishment of a fixed school clusters, should be thoroughly addressed. Because the following key issues which many of the following elements need to be addressed in the are difficult to achieve, the affirmative for successful better advice is often to place operation of resource centers in effort and financial resources

#### Box 4.1: School-Based Training/Support (SBT) in Egypt: Programs for English Teachers

School-based training and support has been operating since 1994 in several areas of Egypt as pilot programs for English teachers at the preparatory level. The main goal is to provide in-service training and support to increase the effectiveness of teachers through training and mentoring at the school site.

Targets of the programs include:

- Teachers effectively using the instructional texts in the classroom.
- Unifying the teachers in a school and actively encouraging them to work as a team.
- Improving communication among Ministry of Education inspectors, senior teachers, school principals, school directors and parents.
- Recognizing, acknowledging and rewarding individual creativity to create greater job satisfaction, enhanced self-worth, and professional pride in teaching.
- Providing a model for the sharing of effective strategies for solving problems.
- Identifying and actively encouraging those individuals who are models of excellence and potential leaders in their schools.
- Providing a forum for participatory input that affects the sense of investment and consequent ownership that all participants develop toward their school.
- Encouraging inspectors, teachers, and administrators to develop strategies for resolving conflict.
- Encouraging more active and communicative pupil participation in the learning process.
- Institutionalizing the model of using the school as a unit for ongoing professional development.

Strengths of the program:

- Preparatory school teachers receive materials on basic classroom teaching techniques. These materials are based on the instructional texts and can be used immediately by the teacher to make classroom teaching more interesting and effective.
- Because the training and support takes place at the school site:
  - Teachers receive training without having to take time off work or travel long distances;
  - Teachers can practice new techniques and discuss the new material with colleagues and senior teachers on a daily basis;
  - The senior teacher (or any interested and motivated teacher) can give classroom demonstrations using SBT activities, or attend demonstrations given by other teachers in the school.
- SBT activities increase communication and sharing of ideas among the English teaching staff.
- Transferring the SBT activities and ideas to other English classes in a school gives the senior teacher increased responsibility for professional development, and increases the status of the senior teacher.
- Teachers in participating schools develop a better rapport through working together to integrate SBT activities into their classes.
- All teachers in the school receive new material and observe demonstrations (rather than one or two teachers being nominated to attend a local training session).
- SBT provides a positive focus for inspectors' school visits, classroom observation, and meetings with teachers.
- Senior teachers monitor teachers using SBT activities on a day-to-day basis and can thus better assist inspectors on their observation visits.
- Among the most motivated teachers, SBT encourages creative thinking and problem solving.
- SBT involves inspectors as demonstrators, trainers, observers and evaluators; and it strengthens the relationship between the supervising inspector, and the senior teacher in a participating school by focusing on professional development.
- SBT can serve as a link between a centralized type of in-service training program and specific teacher needs. It includes schools identified by the inspector general and the inspectors for improvement.
- Participating teachers and inspectors are encouraged to make suggestions and revisions, which are then incorporated into the SBT materials.

To ensure the success of the program:

- The inspector-general or senior inspector must strongly support the introduction of the SBT into local schools, want to assist in its implementation, and keep pressure on inspectors and senior teachers to do the work.
- The inspector-general or senior inspector must identify key schools with strong senior teachers (especially in the first year of implementation), and make sure that the supervising inspector actively participates in SBT.
- The inspector-general or senior inspector and participating inspectors must be willing to implement procedures for quality control of SBT (e.g. attendance at demonstrations, following visits for instructional support, observations and constructive feedback to participating teachers, and encouragement and advice to senior teachers).
- The inspector-general or senior inspector and participating inspectors must be willing to meet regularly to discuss SBT, or to include SBT implementation as a discussion item during regularly scheduled weekly meetings.
- The format and advantages of using the school as a unit of ongoing professional development must be well understood by all participants.
- This school-level support must be linked to the larger education in-service training system.
- SBT must be viewed as a means of promoting community and organizational development, in addition to providing a forum for professional development, and improving teachers' use of the books and other classroom skills.

Source: LeBlanc 1997

into a visiting “resource teacher” program [see *Lesotho example, Box 4.3*] rather than a fixed site center:

- Is there common agreement between the schools about clearly stated objectives?
- Does the topography of the areas to be covered allow easy access to the centers - consider ease or difficulty of communication and transportation, time, physical weariness and cost?
- Is there support and collaboration of participants involved in the cluster?
- Is there participatory planning and implementation by staff from the schools?
- Is there support and collaboration of education officers higher up in the education system?
- Are the skills of the people responsible for the teaching, training, mentoring and support adequate?
- Do the activities undertaken at the resource center have a strong application to classroom practice?
- Are there outreach programs or personnel that visit the other schools in conjunction with programs offered at the main resource center?
- Are the resources and support in the center appropriate to current staff needs?
- Is there adequate equipment and resources?

#### Box 4.2: The Micro-centers (Teacher Centers) in the Escuela Nueva in Colombia

According to Schiefelbein (1992:69-71), the teachers:

.. learn by doing in three programmed one-week workshops organized by the decentralized regional unit in charge of training with intervening practice periods, and limited supervision. In the first workshop, each teacher visits a demonstration school, learns about the cooperation of the student council and the layout and organization of the learning activities areas, and participates in group discussion. The second workshop is held when the school has been adopted as the Nueva Escuela model: a student council is elected and the community informed usually two or three months after the first workshop. In that week, teachers learn to use the self-instructional textbooks correctly, practice the multi-grade approach, flexible promotion, and are encouraged to introduce innovations. In the third workshop, teachers learn to organize and use the class library, maps, posters, and reinforce their ability to work with several grades at the same time. This is also occasion for review, follow-up evaluation and problem solving. At the end of the third workshop, teachers receive a 100-book library. After each workshop, teachers are invited to meet once a month in a nearby school in what is known as a Micro-center. These micro-centers operate within demonstration schools to analyze problems and to discuss solutions. No hierarchical staff relationships are generated by microcenters, but supervisors do attend the meetings when feasible.

### Box 4.3: Teacher Support Networks: The District Resource Teacher (DRT) Program in Lesotho

#### Highlights :

- One of the attributing factors for the success of the teacher education program is that it began as an idea from the Ministry of Education rather than by the project, thereby encouraging ownership and motivation.
- The program particularly targets small schools in scattered and distant locations where teachers are often isolated. The schools tend to be multi-grade, and have fewer than five teachers. About 700 of the 1,200 schools in the country are covered, accounting for 2,000 of the country's 6,000 teachers.
- Classroom environments are very conducive to learning, e.g., visual aids are used and displayed on walls, and learning centers are organized in classrooms.
- The DRT's supportive role is coordinated with that of the Inspectorate, whose current role involves checking on whether the schools are doing their work properly.

#### Observations:

- Activities include individual consultations, group workshops for school clusters, and dissemination of new curricula produced by the National Curriculum Development Center.
- DRTs sit down with teachers, discuss their perceived difficulties, and offer suggestions to deal with them.
- Typical difficulties involve classroom organization and management of multi-grade schools, group work, learning centers, peer learning, and mobilizing community members to help with classroom activities such as reading to mothers.
- DRTs team teach with local teachers and help develop teaching materials.
- DRTs usually visit schools four times a year, which allows two to three visits a year for all the teachers in the schools under the DRT's care (typically between ten and fifteen schools). Workshops are often held on weekends.

#### Selection of DRTs:

- The first efforts were rather random - experienced teachers proposed by the district education officers were appointed. But this did not necessarily work very well.
- The second group recruited at the end of the program needed to be qualified, experienced teachers, with head teacher or deputy-head teacher experience, willing to travel frequently and ride horseback where necessary. Efforts were made to try to have a gender balance as well as distributions by district and religion.
- Potential participants needed to write about why they wanted to be DRTs, interviews were conducted, and were followed by training.

#### Sustainability:

When donor support ended, DRTs were given a teacher's salary on a special scale of a resource teacher or a senior resource teacher that was paid by the Ministry of Education. Over seventy DRTs were operating and some were promoted into the Inspectorate. The DRTs are within the teaching service and paid from the regular government budget. The extra expenditures of the DRT program, mainly travel costs and per diems of DRTs while they are in the schools, are paid through the Ministry of Education.

*Source: O'Grady 1996*

- |  |   |   |
|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is there sufficient release time for staff to attend the center during school hours?</li> <li>• Are there incentives in place to attract staff to use the center and collaborate?</li> <li>• Is additional staffing needed for the center? Is additional staffing feasible and affordable?</li> <li>• What are the requirements for financing: the center,</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are the costs and benefits of resources shared - financial and non-financial?</li> </ul> <p>4.1.16. Sri Lanka currently has 84 Teacher Centers. Their prime function is to hold non-residential courses running from one to three days. While the idea</p> | <p>of having an outreach program directly to classrooms is supported in principle by many of the Directors of these centers, lack of appropriate staff and resources, logistical constraints, as well as lack of clear policy and authorization to undertake more direct classroom support is preventing this development. This will be an important area of focus for the Office of the Chief Commissioner for Teacher Education (CCTE).</p> |
|--|---|---|

4.1.17. *School, Institutional, Teachers' Union, Business Networks*: Other collaborative efforts for professional support include: (i) institutional twinning, where teacher educators in a teacher training institution (or even secondary school) develop a partnership with another well established institution in either the same country, another developing nation or a more resource rich nation to provide staff exchanges, shared training, ideas, curriculum and other ongoing support; (ii) partnerships between local schools and the teacher training institutions to provide testing grounds for new research practices intended to maximize student learning (university staff meet regularly in the schools to discuss practical concerns and problems of the classroom, and the schools provide places for student teaching and opportunities for research); (iii) partnerships between teachers' unions and school clusters/districts/central levels to contribute as part of the professional network to collaboratively provide workshops, discussion forums, and training; (iv) individual collaboration of teachers or school districts with institutions of higher education to pursue mutually-beneficial projects such as science and technology exchanges and in-service training for teachers related to higher education institution

programs; and (v) collaboration between schools and businesses/industries. This can be particularly advantageous at the secondary school level where businesses and industries, as well as tertiary institutions, have an interest in students developing appropriate skills for the workforce and for higher learning, and therefore take a more active role in supporting schools and the teaching process.

4.1.18. *Unstructured and resource-based networks*: There is a strong argument that, as experienced or qualified teachers will have demonstrated a capacity to learn, there is no need to create a formal system of training for their continuing professional development. Rather, provided educational resources are available to them, they should be able to choose what meets their needs and learn without a formal structure.

4.1.19. Both industrialized and developing countries have used resource-based approaches in order to strengthen the teaching force, using discussion forums, general information and networking opportunities, and a variety of different media. Increasingly, and especially within the industrialized world, use is being made of the internet as a means to network and access resources. A British program, TeacherNewsUK, for example, aims to support professional development by

selecting appropriate web projects, facilitating links to national and international networks of teachers and developing on-line discussions. The Canadian School Net provides discussion groups, teacher-designed networking projects, a virtual environment for situation-based learning, interactive curriculum resources, on-line career materials and access to special processes for hardware and software companies. Nine thousand schools and 900 libraries were connected by 1997 to this network. Examples can be found in other countries as well.

4.1.20. But resource-based approaches are not limited to the advanced technologies. For example, Bhutan relies on radio, and India's "Hints to Teachers" a weekly 45 minute broadcast uses television. There is also an increasing network of broadcasted programs that are designed to reach teachers internationally, e.g., BBC World Service. These learning support opportunities for teachers are less well documented than those that are structured, and little evaluation of them is available. But it seems likely that, just as many adult learners benefit more from unstructured than structured programs, so teachers are likely to be influenced by programs of this kind [*see Craig and Perraton (2003)*], the exception being that new teachers who have had limited

teacher preparation tend to benefit more from structured learning support, at least to begin with.

4.1.21. In conclusion, teacher support networks must be aimed primarily at helping each teacher facilitate change in the classroom. The success of

improved teaching practice is the key to help children learn, and the success of each school to ensure this, is the key to overall quality improvement in the education system. Support to teachers is not just about more training. It is about a continuum of opportunities for teachers to

become better at their classroom practice. Teacher support should also include a more thorough consideration of schools as social organizations, since this context influences teaching and learning [see *Rosenholtz (1991)*].

## Case Study II

### Early Childhood Development in Sri Lanka

*Early childhood development: Importance and significance*

4.2.1. *The First Six Years of Life:* The first six or so years of a child's life, known as the early childhood stage, is globally acknowledged to be the most critical years for life long development, as the pace of growth in these years is extremely rapid. Recent research in the field of neuroscience has provided convincing evidence of the existence of critical periods within the early years for the formation of synaptic connections and the full development of the potential of the brain. Research has also indicated that if these early years are not supported by, or embedded in, a stimulating and enriching physical and psychosocial environment, the chances of the child's brain developing to

its full potential is considerably, and often irreversibly, reduced. This early childhood stage in life is also important as a foundation for social and personal habits and values which last a lifetime. Hence, investing in these early years in children is extremely important for the quality of life in a country. Formal early childhood development (ECD) programs, which have become common in developing countries, derive their importance from this rationale.

4.2.2. Planning early childhood programs needs to take into account three important principles of child development. First, the child development process is continuous and cumulative. In consequence, it is important to address the entire childhood continuum, from prenatal to the end of the primary stage, as opposed to intervening in any one sub-stage only. For example, primary and

secondary education learning levels are significantly influenced by favorable early childhood outcomes. Second, health, nutrition and education-psychosocial development are all synergistically related, so that addressing these needs in a combined, holistic framework maximizes impact. Third, child development is optimized when the programs address not only the child, but also the child's overall growth context.

*Early childhood education in Sri Lanka*

4.2.3. There are about 11,000-12,500 pre-schools, such as nurseries, Montessorios and kindergartens in the country. Enrolment in these institutions is estimated to cover about 60% of children aged 3-5, [see *Abhayadeva (2003), Wijetunge and Wickremaratne (2003)*]. These pre-school institutions are largely, over 80%, within the

private sector. As a result of the increasing recognition of the importance of early childhood development by policy makers, Sri Lanka drafted a National Policy on Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) in 2003. This draft policy adopts a comprehensive definition of ECCD to address the needs of children from pre-natal to 5 years. As defined in the draft policy document, “.....programs for ECCD should ....take into consideration the holistic nature of the process of development and adopt an integrated approach giving attention to the child's health, nutrition, cognitive and psychosocial needs” [see *Ministry of Social Welfare (2003)*]. The same draft policy states, as its mission, the “....holistic growth and development of all children by providing a safe, caring and conducive environment in the homes and other settings, well supported by a comprehensive and integrated system of early childhood care and development services.” The plan of action to realize this mission identifies four areas of intervention: (i) building knowledge and skills of care givers to promote optimal child survival, growth and development; (ii) improving and expanding training opportunities for service providers; (iii) transforming scholastically focused pre-schools into community managed, child-friendly development centers; and (d)

providing equal opportunities to all children, including those with special needs, for their survival, growth and development. To implement this plan, the policy suggests a coordination system with representation from across departments at the national and different sub-national levels, and highlights the role of key stakeholders, particularly parents, communities and the private sector.

### **Key issues in early childhood care and development**

4.2.4 The central ECCD issue in Sri Lanka is the absence of clarity regarding the responsibility for ECCD. The Ministry of Social Welfare has technical responsibility, without any link to the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Education and Cultural Affairs, and the Ministry of School Education. This disregards the fact that the age range of 0-5/6 years covered by ECCD contains a range of sub-stage specific developmental priorities which require holistic nurture and development. This age range is conventionally sub-divided into two sub-stages of 0-3 years and 3-6 years. Health, nutrition and psychosocial stimulation constitute the chief priorities for the younger age range. Pre-school education assumes priority importance in the age range of 3-6 years, although health and nutrition

naturally continue to be important. While the interventions and outcomes of the 0-3 age group also have a bearing on learning potential and achievements in later life, the stage of pre-school education directly precedes primary education and has a clear link with learning at the primary stage. Hence, it is important to have *continuity in the curriculum between pre-school and primary education*. The Sri Lankan ECCD and education system have not yet evolved to the point of establishing this connection. Given the crucial importance of ECCD in determining learning ability and cognitive potential at the primary education level, this gap needs to be urgently filled.

### **Shortfalls in access to early childhood care and development**

4.2.5. Ensuring access to pre-school education programs for all children is an immediate challenge to fulfill the policy mission and to realize EFA goals. The Sri Lankan Draft Plan of Action for EFA sets a target of 80% coverage against a baseline of 62% for the period 2004 to 2008. It mentions home based provisions for the residual 20%. To achieve this targeted expansion of enrolment, increasing pre-school facilities constitutes an urgent need. A formal study of the network of pre-schools and potential policy initiatives to stimulate

investment in this sub-sector, especially from private providers, is a priority. One potential source of supply of pre-school facilities could be the excess classroom buildings found in some areas of the country, as population outflows from rural to urban regions has reduced enrolment in rural schools. These buildings could be sold or leased to civil society organizations interested in offering pre-school services.

### **Quality of early childhood care and development**

4.2.6. Policy makers and researchers argue that the quality of ECCD services is unsatisfactory [see *UNICEF (2003)*, *NEC (2003)*]. The UNICEF (2003) study indicates that the majority of ECCD centers included in a sample survey lacked adequate physical facilities. Most centers did not have an appropriate building since they were run in homes or cramped spaces, there was a shortage of appropriate furniture and play material. Arrangements for children with disabilities were also lacking. In terms of academic qualifications and teacher training, only about 29% of teachers had school leaving qualifications, while just 17% of teachers had received any systematic training in ECCD. Teachers' salaries ranged between Rs. 500-6,000 per month. In terms of classroom processes and curriculum, there was a tendency to teach the

primary curriculum in preschools, rather than a curriculum appropriate for pre-primary aged children. The rapid expansion of pre-schools, the absence of sufficient trained pre-school teachers and the scarcity of suitable play material contributed to this tendency to teach the primary curriculum. This downward extension of the primary curriculum, which implies introducing formal instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic to children below 5/6 years, results in mis-education at this stage and can be detrimental to children's education and development. Centers which follow the playway method advocated by ECCD experts and developmentally appropriate curricula are small in number, although the few that do exist appear considerably more effective than institutions following academic type primary curricula [see *UNICEF (2003)*].

### **Professional development of pre-school teachers**

4.2.7. The need for training teachers in pre-schools has been highlighted by the Children's Secretariat through its Divisional Centers and with the help of NGOs. With a large number of untrained teachers in the system there is a need to: (i) provide different types and levels of training in ECCD; and (ii) institute a system of continuous training, since one

point training does not have sufficient sustained impact, especially in the absence of any follow up support. Setting up decentralized training systems for pre-school teachers could be a promising option to improve the quality of professional staff.

4.2.8. The Open University offers a one year pre-school teacher training diploma in ECCD. The Open University is considering preparation of a multi-disciplinary degree program to prepare pre-school teachers with multiple skills and an adequate knowledge base to work primarily in the NGO sector. This could be a useful course to equip workers to address the multiple linkages within the area of child development. However, it would be necessary to supplement this with specific training for pre-school teachers in knowledge, skills and attitudes for Early Childhood Education. The Ministry of Human Resource Development, Education and Cultural Affairs has set up eight provincial centers under its Non-Formal Education Branch, five of which conduct training in ECE. Clearly, it is important to ensure that these centers themselves have a trained core faculty to provide relevant and needs-based training to pre-school teachers.

4.2.9. With the rapid expansion of pre-schools in the country, largely in civil society, issues of regulation, minimum specifications, quality standards

and training, assume great significance. The Children's Secretariat has drawn up some minimum requirements for registration for pre-schools, but these have not yet been implemented. The main constraints appear to be insufficient public awareness and the absence of an appropriate advocated system in the provincial councils to implement the regulations. The Children's Secretariat has also

prepared a standard curriculum for pre-schools to standardize quality. This is currently only reference material, in the absence of provision for supportive training or authority for supervision. However, it could form the basis for a formal curriculum if the necessary support structures could be established. The Ministry of Social Welfare policy document also suggests coordination committees at various levels.

But for quality assurance functionaries are required in the field who have the training, experience, authority and accountability to ensure quality and promote it through proactive and positive support programs and supervision. Clear lines of authority and implementation, from national to the provincial and sub-provincial levels, are required to establish this as a formal system.

## Case Study III

### Rehabilitating and Reconstructing Education in the Conflict Affected Areas

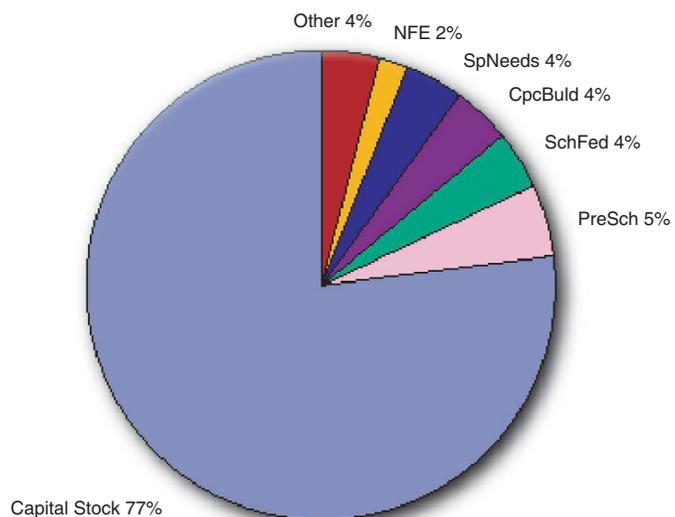
#### Introduction and Background

4.3.1. The 20 year secessionist conflict in parts of North-Eastern Sri Lanka has resulted in considerable damage to education in that region. A comprehensive assessment of education sector needs in the conflict affected areas, conducted in 2003, covered: (i) the physical capital stock, such as school buildings and facilities, furniture and equipment; (ii) teachers, principals and section heads; (iii) children with special needs; (iv) non-formal education; (v) peace education; (vi) school feeding programs; and (vii) pre-school education. The full education sector reconstruction,

rehabilitation and development needs were estimated at about US\$164 million (\$136 million for the North-Eastern Province and \$28 million for four adjacent districts). Out of this total, the education capital stock, such as school infrastructure

reconstruction, furniture and equipment, constituted the largest segment (77%) [see Figure 4.1]. In addition the tertiary education sector needs were estimated at \$26 million. The tertiary education needs covered reconstruction of

**Figure 4.1: Needs of the Education Reconstruction, Rehabilitation and Development Program**

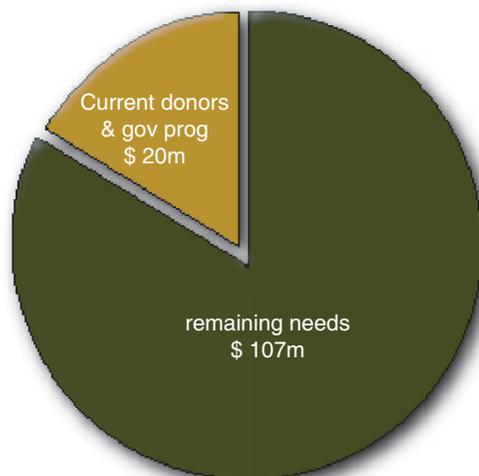


damaged infrastructure and cost of staff training.

### *The financing gap*

4.3.2. The current donor programs consist mainly of the World Bank's GEP2 project and ADB's NECORD project for school infrastructure in the conflict affected areas. The total donor programs are estimated at approximately US\$15 million. These cover about 12% of the capital stock needs in these areas. In addition to donor support, the government provides development grants to provincial schools through its Province Specific Development Grant (PSDG) program. This program is quite small compared to the level of need. The PSDG for the NEP was only one million dollars in 2003 and about \$1.2 million in 2004. The small government contribution to capital expenditure is mainly due to the tight fiscal condition of public finances and its impact on the education budget. Public education sector expenditure declined in real terms during 2000-2002. If the Government continues its PSDG programs at the same level, its contribution in the coming five years will be about US\$5 million, which will leave a financing gap of over \$107 million for school reconstruction, rehabilitation and development in the conflict affected areas [see Figure 4.2]. The government is expected to rely heavily on donor support to finance this gap.

**Figure 4.2: The Financing Gap of Capital Stock Needs in the Conflict Affected Areas**



### *Government support for recurrent education expenditure*

4.3.3. The government currently covers the operational costs of the education system in the conflict affected areas, including paying salaries, textbooks, teaching materials, transport subsidies and student uniforms. These operating expenses consume a substantial volume of resources. For instance, the government allocated over US\$13 million for salaries in the NEP districts in 2003. As is to be expected, districts with large student populations receive the largest share of expenditure. The four largest districts Jaffna, Amparai, Batticaloa and Trincomalee receive over 80% of total salaries. These large districts also have quite high expenditures per student and fairly low student teacher ratios [see Figure 4.3]. These districts often voice concerns over shortages of teachers. The

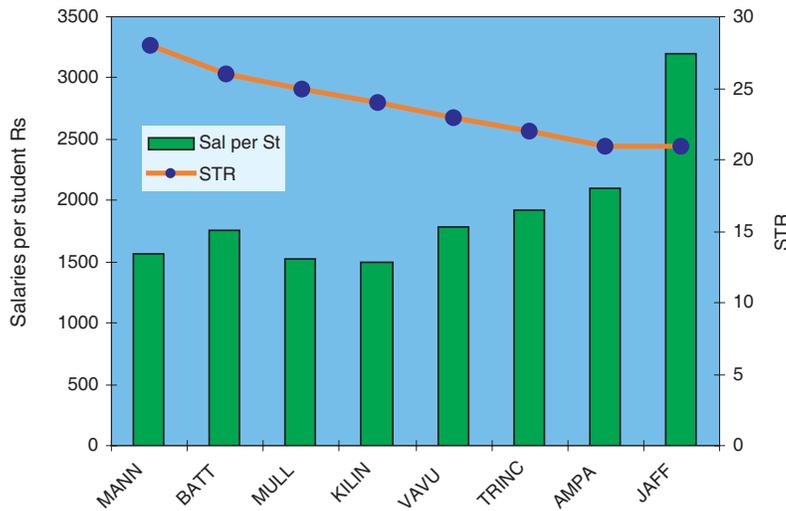
existence of teacher shortages in some subjects, such as English, science and mathematics, is to be expected, given the difficulty of finding such teachers at the national level. However, this region also has potential to meet teacher demand through greater use of multi-grade and multi-subject teaching, teacher redeployment and school rationalization.

### **Capacity constraints**

#### *Staff shortages and surpluses*

4.3.4. Detailed information on the shortages and surpluses according to the approved cadre and existing staff in the provincial and zonal departments shows that the situation is complicated, without a clear pattern of shortages and surpluses across the departments. Overall, zonal and provincial departments show a small net shortage while

**Figure 4.3: Salaries per Student and STR in NEP Districts**



divisional offices show a net surplus of staff. As for occupations, directors, specialist staff and accountants are generally in short supply, while clerks and unskilled workers are in excess supply.

4.3.5. Extra care has to be taken when examining the shortages and surpluses according to the cadre as in so many instances, the cadre does not reflect the actual needs. For example, according to the cadre there are enough engineers (5) and technical officers (48) in NEP districts. But there are no engineers in the districts of Kilinochchi, Mannar and Mulativu, where the needs are high and demand is escalating with increased school reconstruction activities. The cadre also shows large surpluses of in-service advisors.

4.3.6. There is mounting pressure to revise the cadre to

reflect the needs, especially in the hard hit areas of the conflict zone. Extra care has to be taken during such estimates. The surge in demand could be temporary and loading the public sector with more staff will strain the budget and could be cost ineffective, as government officials tend to stay in service until retirement. The needs should be assessed carefully in terms of their magnitude and expected duration. Also, alternative ways to recruit should be identified and applied, such as recruiting specialists on contracts. Furthermore, investing in means to improve workers' productivity should be explored such as offering specialized training, providing IT and other essential office equipment with associated training, and transport funds, especially for remote areas, where supervision and monitoring is logistically difficult and time-consuming.

### *Planning school facilities*

4.3.7. Currently the planning process combines subjective judgment and needs based on criteria such as the need per student and number of classrooms per school. Usually there is a lack of professional judgment with regard to provision of new buildings or furniture and the identification of buildings that can be rehabilitated or repaired. The school works departments as a whole lack skilled human resources and transport facilities to perform adequate supervision visits to schools.

### **Capacity for reconstruction and supervision**

4.3.8. The capacity for reconstruction in the districts that are badly affected by the conflict, like Jaffna, Kilinochchi, Mulativu, Mannar and Vavuniya, are limited due to shortages of qualified contractors and skilled workers. In addition, there are scarcities of construction materials, such as river sand and concrete aggregates. So far these shortages have not become major obstacles and contractors report the availability of labor and materials. They also report substantial increases in the wages for skilled and unskilled workers and high mobility of workers with the end of the conflict and the removal of road blocks and other barriers. Furthermore, the existing short-term skill development training

for youth has helped in meeting the demand for some skills. However, the situation could change if demand for labor and materials continues to escalate as a result of the expected increase in construction activities of other sectors.

4.3.9. The school works departments in the provincial

offices of the conflict affected areas have enough staff structure to supervise the construction of school facilities. However, staff capacity needs to be strengthened by filling the vacant positions of technical staff and training. Qualified staff hired by donor projects play a major role in meeting the demand for operational staff.

The shortage of transport facilities, office equipment such as computers and telecommunication equipment, has negatively affected the capacity of the existing staff. The provision of such facilities to school works departments could improve service delivery capability.

## Case Study IV

### Promoting Peace building, Civic Values and Social Cohesion through Education

*Government policies and strategies*

4.4.1. The goals of peace building, good citizenship and social cohesion run as consistent threads through the recent education policy and planning documents [see NEC (2003)]. Current and proposed policies include the following measures: (i) the proposed re-introduction

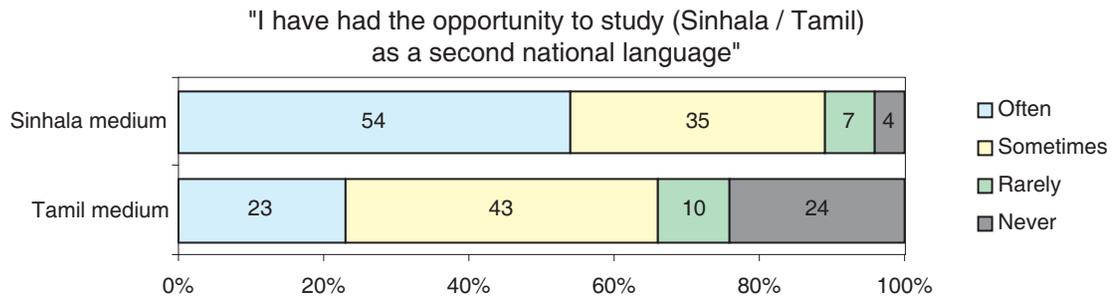
of 'civics / citizenship' in the school curriculum; (ii) strengthening the curriculum to promote civic values across subjects and grade levels; (iii) investing in the teaching of the second national language and the 'link language' English; (iv) creating opportunities to break down the language and ethnic-based segregation of schools through the re-introduction of English-medium instruction; (v) providing schools a choice of free textbooks, written by a variety of authors and

systematically screened for bias; (vi) training teachers to handle sensitive issues of culture and ethnicity in the classroom, and supporting multi-ethnic teacher training institutions, where feasible; and (vii) supporting school-based strategies to promote peacebuilding and civic competencies through inclusive school management practices, co-curricular activities, and school-community links. The implementation of these measures has been mixed in its coverage and its impact.

**Table 4.4. 'Civic Education Study' Student Questionnaire, Civic Knowledge**

Variable	Categories	Sample %	Civic knowledge %
Sex	Total	100	56
	Male	45.7	58
	Female	52.1	54
Students' Ethnicity	Sinhalese	72.7	56
	Sri Lankan Tamil	16.3	48
	Indian origin Tamil	3.0	54
	Muslim	6.9	60
	Other	0.2	60
	Province	Western	22
Central		13.6	52.7
Southern		14	55.3
Northern		5.5	46.5
Eastern		7.8	49.2
North-Western		11.8	56.4
North-Central		6.8	53.2
Uva		7.5	55.9
Sabaragamuwa		10.2	58.4

**Figure 4.4. 'Civic Education Study' Student Questionnaire (Social Cohesion, Diversity, Peace)**



*Civic competencies among Sri Lankan 14 year-olds - findings of a national research study*

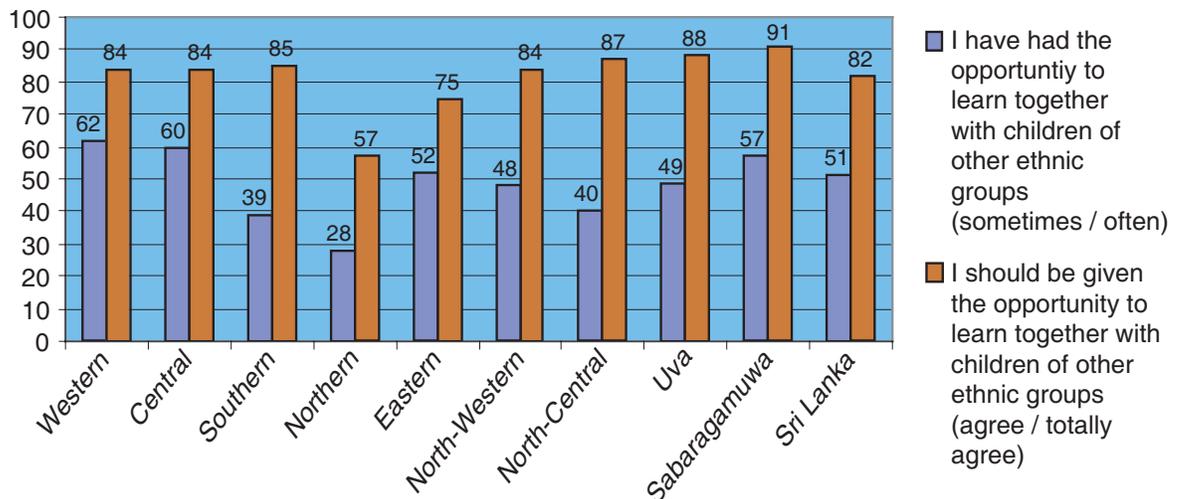
4.4.2 Three areas of a recent study [see NEREC (2004)] on the civic competencies of children are briefly reported on here: (i) 'Civic Knowledge' test scores; (ii) opportunities to learn the second national language; and (iii) findings from the special survey section on 'Social Cohesion, Diversity and Peace'. The study was based on a nationally representative sample of 2660 students, taken from 133 schools in all 25 districts.

4.4.3. 'Civic Knowledge' test scores for Sri Lankan Tamil students, and for the North-Eastern Province are lower than for the other ethnic groups and provinces, probably due to the effects of the conflict. The relatively low test scores for North-Eastern Province mirror low levels of achievement in the national assessment of learning outcomes at primary level, when compared to other provinces [see NEREC (2004)].

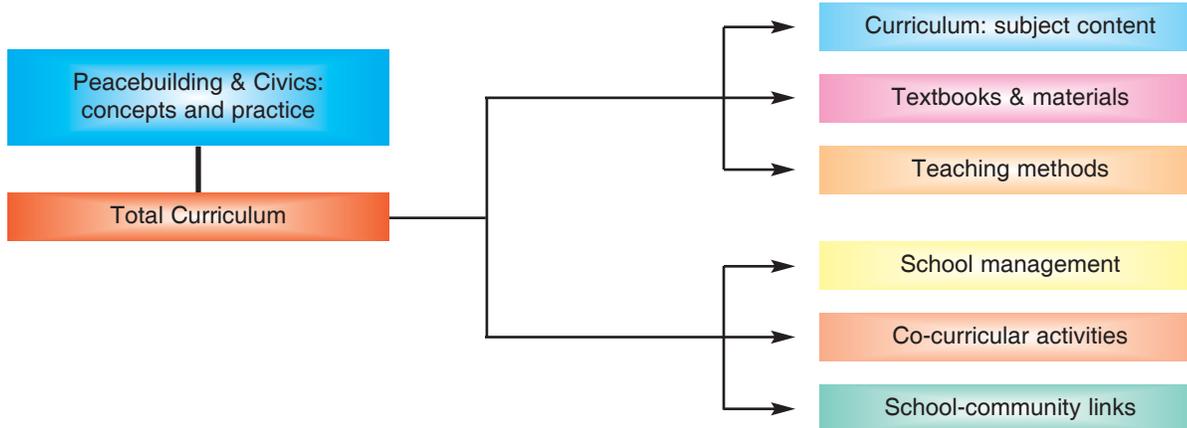
4.4.4. 18% of all respondents had 'never' or 'rarely' had the opportunity to study the second

national language - a compulsory subject from Grades 3-9. Tamil-medium students were particularly isolated, with 34% of respondents 'never' or 'rarely' learning Sinhala. In the Northern part of North-Eastern Province, this figure rises to 61%. When asked whether they should have opportunities for second national language learning, 89% of all respondents agreed. The low levels of second national language learning can be attributed to demand-side factors (the second national language is not a compulsory subject in Grade 5 scholarship

**Figure 4.5. 'Civic Education Study' Student Questionnaire (Social Cohesion, Diversity, Peace)**



**Figure 4.6. Integration of Peacebuilding & Civics in Schools (UNESCO, 2001, adapted)**



and O/L examinations, thereby reducing the incentives to study it; there is also a higher demand for English, for socio-economic reasons), and supply-side factors (e.g. a shortage of teachers).

4.4.5. 51% of all respondents have 'sometimes' or 'often' had the opportunity to learn together with children of other ethnic groups. The figure is lowest in the Northern part of the North-Eastern Province, and in the Southern Province. When asked whether they should have the opportunity to learn together with children of other ethnic groups, 82% of all respondents agreed. 49% of all students also reported that they had no close friends from other ethnic groups. Answering a separate test item, 61% of all respondents have 'never' or 'rarely' had the opportunity to discuss ethnic problems with children of other ethnic groups. When asked whether they should have these opportunities, 77% of all

respondents agreed. There is a clear disparity, in all Provinces, between actual and desired opportunities across these categories: children want more opportunities to learn the second national language, to learn together, and to exchange ideas with other ethnic groups. Focus group discussions were also held with students in seven zones in the north and east. Students displayed: (i) enthusiasm for cross-cultural activities; (ii) a strong appetite for peace; (iii) disillusionment with 'politics'; (iv) a notion of 'citizenship' that is multi-cultural and not mono-

cultural in nature; and (v) modest knowledge of current political processes [see NEREC (2004)]. In a separate test item, 90% of students felt that schools should contribute to activities to bring about peace.

#### *The school curriculum and broader instructional processes*

4.4.6. A literature review reveals that studies<sup>15</sup> which address the instructional challenges of promoting peace building in Sri Lankan schools show broad consensus in two areas: (i) the education system needs to orient

#### *School-level pilots in civics & citizenship - an example from Northern Ireland*

The two-year 'Social, Civic and Political Education Project' was a partnership between the Council for Curriculum, Examinations & Assessment, and a university. The project included the development and trialing of curriculum resources, teacher training modules, and models of cooperation between schools, curriculum developers, NGOs and community organizations. Through a process of piloting different approaches, the project arrived at a model of teaching and learning where 'citizenship' concepts were designed to be investigated, rather than taught didactically: "In the attempt to move beyond 'polite exchange' and to avoid a compliance model of citizenship we have arrived at an investigatory curriculum driven by questions rather than answers".

15. E.g. NEC, (2003), Perera et. al., (2003); NEREC, (2004).

itself further to address adequately the challenges of peace building, pluralism and civic education; and (ii) educational strategies to address these issues should adopt a ‘systemic’ or ‘integrative’ approach, which will involve a range of institutions and interventions at different levels, with particular emphasis on the school. Figure 4.6 provides a useful conceptual framework.

#### *Curriculum and assessment*

4.4.7. The school curriculum is structured around 5 broad competencies: communication, the environment, ethics and religion, play and leisure, learning to learn. Within this framework, specific ‘Essential Learning Competencies’ are defined for the different Key Stages at primary level. They are currently being developed for the secondary level. Consideration might be given to defining broad competencies relating to civic values, and establishing a clear and manageable link established between these competencies, curriculum and syllabus specification, teacher guides and textbooks, teacher training and assessment (both school-based assessment and examinations).

4.4.8. Many countries are investing in ‘citizenship’, even at the primary level. In the UK, while citizenship education is not a statutory requirement for

primary schools, there exist a wide range of resources including teachers’ guides, schemes of work, guides for managers, and ‘whole-school planning’ frameworks.<sup>16</sup> A ‘peace curriculum’ has been piloted in Sierra Leone, with curriculum units, cross-curricular units and ‘whole-school and community activities’ from Grade 1. The NEC recommendations propose a continuation of the primary reforms, with renewed attention in areas including “the development of *values and attitudes*”, and “the teaching of *languages*”, [see *NEC (2003)*, pp. 156-158, *emphasis added*]. Three approaches might be adopted: (i) develop resources and programs of work to support primary teachers in the promotion of peace building and civics; (ii) strengthen the teaching of languages; and (iii) reinforce measures to promote multi-culturalism and social inclusion within the core NIE functions of curriculum and materials development, and teacher training.

4.4.9. At the secondary level, there is a particular opportunity arising with the reintroduction of civics / citizenship into the secondary curriculum, starting from 2005. The recent NEC analysis also concludes that competencies relating to social harmony and citizenship are “crosscutting issues that each curriculum developer has to

integrate appropriately into syllabi” [see *NEC (2003)*]. These strategies can be pursued together, combined with approaches piloted at the school level.

4.4.10. Selecting from a choice of items listed, teachers listed the following items as their greatest needs in terms of improving civic education: (i) additional training in subject matter knowledge; (ii) additional training in teaching methods; (iii) better materials and text books; (iv) more opportunities for special projects; and (v) more resources for extra-curricular activities [see *NEREC (2004)*]. 70% of teachers agreed that they should negotiate with students what is to be studied in civic education, while 88% of students replying to the Student Questionnaire felt that their active participation should be obtained for civic education activities. These responses seem to allow for a high degree of interaction in the teaching / learning of civics, supporting the NEC’s recommendations for an issue based and activity based approach [see *NEC (2003)*]. In Focus Group discussions in the North-Eastern Province, emphasis was placed on the contested and political nature of ‘citizenship’ and ‘civics’. It was suggested that an approach to citizenship based on co-existence would be preferable to an assimilationist approach,

16. See e.g. (<http://www.standards.dfes.gov.uk/schemes2/ks1-2citizenship>)

### *Dharmadutha College, Badulla*

In Dharmadutha College, Badulla, which is 85% Sinhalese, the Principal has worked with his prefects and students to initiate activities with neighbouring Tamil and Muslim schools. The school has established the 'Uva Students Peace Foundation', which organises inter-school activities, and prints a newsletter. The Principal has promoted Tamil-medium instruction, and English-medium at junior and senior secondary levels. Sinhalese students say that activities with neighbouring Tamil and Muslim students have increased levels of trust between the groups and resulted in strong friendships.

which might be perceived as a threat to cultural and ethnic identity.<sup>17</sup>

4.4.11. Perera et. al. (2003) highlight similar concerns for history: "...reaching consensus on some of the fundamental and most sensitive issues such as 'whose history, selected by whom, and for what purpose', seem well nigh impossible". They conclude that "Creative solutions may need to be sought, allowing for the flexibility already existing in the system for *regional variations*, the *multiple book option*, etc." [see Perera et. al., 2003, *emphasis added*]. Both areas seem to indicate potential to advance a model of history teaching that can encourage critical thinking based on evidence, and accommodate alternative perspectives. First, the scope for accommodating regional variations in the history curriculum - as the Uva Province has commenced - should be explored. Second, the Multiple Textbook Option offers the possibility of providing different perspectives, within a national curriculum framework.

4.4.12. The potential of languages to promote inter-cultural understanding lies perhaps in three areas: (i) improving the language competencies of children will increase the opportunities for children to communicate across language divides; (ii) expanding English-medium instruction will create opportunities to break down the language-based segregation of schools; and (iii) the teaching of languages can be used as a vehicle to promote multi-culturalism. There is also strong potential to promote peace building / civics in subjects such as Religion, Aesthetics, and IT.

4.4.13. The subject Life Competencies was introduced in Grades 7-9 in the current cycle of reforms, to address a range of areas including civics and inter-cultural understanding. Small-scale surveys and focus group discussions with teachers indicate the following needs to strengthen this program: (i) increase clarity over objectives and curriculum content; (ii) greater teacher and staff development; and (iii) increased

resources and system-wide support [see Perera et. al., 2003].

### *Textbooks*

4.4.14. Textbook writing and production processes have at times resulted in textbook content which is error-ridden and insensitive to various social groups. In recent years, however, the government has embarked upon a series of reforms, including: (i) introducing the 'Multiple Textbook Option', moving from a state monopoly single textbook policy to private sector production of three titles per subject per grade; (ii) a focus on inclusion and equity in material production processes at the NIE, particularly at the primary level; (iii) developing 'sensitivity' guidelines for Subject Specialist Teams in textbook selection procedures; and (iv) constituting a specialist 'Diversity Review Panel' - representing different ethnic groups and religions, and diverse academic disciplines - to review materials for bias. It will be necessary to strengthen these measures and monitor their outcomes.

### *Teacher education*

4.4.15. Initiatives to promote multiculturalism in teacher education have been limited in their coverage, and require stronger links to the curriculum.

17. In Northern Ireland, neither the British nor Irish national identity provides the basis for a 'patriotic' model of 'citizenship' that can be accepted in all schools. Smith (2003) concludes that citizenship education should be based on concepts of rights and responsibilities, rather than national unity.

Perera notes: “Educating teachers for a pluralist society, to manage curriculum related teaching, learning and adopting a multi-cultural perspective would require *more concerted and systematic orientation of teachers*” [see Perera et. al., 2003, *emphasis added*]. The challenge, it seems, is mainly in two areas: (i) strengthen the NCOE pre-service curriculum to enable teachers to handle peace building and civics at primary and secondary level; and (ii) invest in continuing teacher development programs. Such programs should be in step with curriculum reforms, and should build upon work supported by UNICEF and GTZ. Tennekoon (2001) shows through action research conducted at the Pasdunrata NCOE that structured opportunities for inter-cultural collaboration can help reduce ethnocentric attitudes in student teachers, and also help them to handle effectively the concept of social cohesion in the classroom - evidence of the value of breaking down institutional segregation in teacher training. Consideration may also be given to a more formal qualification relating to civics / citizenship. South Africa, for example, has introduced an 'Advanced Certificate in Citizenship Education'.

*School management, co-curricular activities & school-community links*

4.4.16. The school ‘culture’ or ‘hidden curriculum’ is key to the development of values, attitudes and behaviours in students.

4.4.17. Research currently being conducted by the NIE, with UNICEF support, will document examples of good practice to promote social cohesion in schools. This research could be used to inform Principals training, and to support school-based strategies for peace building and civics, appropriate for each school's particular instructional and social context. This is particularly relevant given proposals to develop School-Based Management through School Development Boards. Different approaches might be investigated through a pilot phase.

4.4.18. The following measures therefore emerge as promising areas for strengthening, consistent with current and proposed policy:

- a. specifying broad learning competencies, and supporting teachers to develop and assess these competencies in schools;
- b. introducing an inclusive ‘civics/citizenship’ curriculum that emphasize

- c. activity based learning and links to the broader world outside the school; strengthening the capacity of curriculum developers, teachers and managers to incorporate civic values as a cross-cutting concern across subjects, grade levels, and school practices;
- d. strengthening the teaching of the second national languages and English;
- e. continuing an equitable phased expansion of English - medium instruction;
- f. providing a choice of textbooks and materials, inclusive and screened for bias;
- g. investing in pre-service and continuing teacher development; and
- h. incentivising and supporting school-based strategies for peace building and civics, through school-based planning and management.

# Chapter Five

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## TRAINING AND LINKS TO THE LABOR MARKET

### 5.0 Introduction

5.1. High unemployment rates among educated young people and their low skill levels are issues of critical policy concern for GOSL. Youth unemployment, resulting mainly from prolonged job search, is of particular concern given the history of social unrest over youth joblessness. This is combined with another policy concern that school-leavers - grade 9, GCE O and A-levels, and university graduates are entering the labor market ill-prepared for the world of work. An important response from GOSL has been to develop technical education and vocational training to facilitate the school to work transition and to reduce skills gaps and skill mismatches in the labor market.

However, the information base on the technical education and vocational training (TEVT) system is weak, with no major reviews of this sector in recent times. This chapter seeks to fill this important information gap by undertaking an analysis of TEVT to complement the analysis of the general education system.

5.2. The chapter focuses on two principal areas. First, it provides an overview of the overall policy framework for the TEVT sector. It examines: (i) the governance and financing of public sector training institutions; (ii) the supply of public sector vocational training and technical education opportunities, the range of training programs and courses available, enrollments over time,

and their regional coverage; (iii) the environment for private sector participation in training; and (iv) the evolution of thinking about TEVT and its role in the economy, and formulation and implementation of training policies. Second, the chapter uses time-series data from the Labor Force Survey (LFS) to investigate the linkages between technical education and vocational training on one hand, and labor market outcomes on the other hand. This analysis will focus on (i) the demand for post-school technical and vocational training, especially among school completers at the key exit points of the school system and between gender groups; (ii) how the demand for training varies over the work-life; and (iii) the labor market outcomes of investments in

different types of training, especially their impacts on unemployment, job search duration, and earnings. The chapter concludes with a summary of findings and implications.

### 5.1 TVET Institutional Framework and Policies

#### *Institutional Framework*

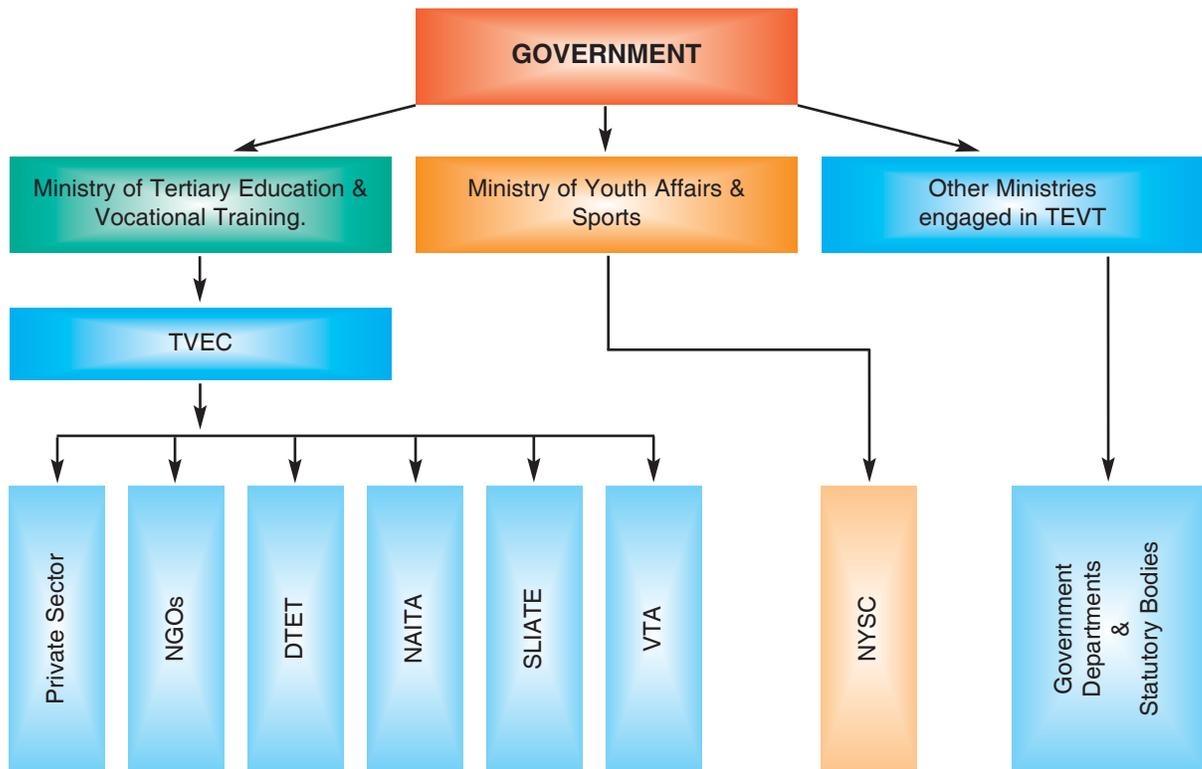
5.3. The Technical Education and Vocational Training (TEVT) sector in Sri Lanka is currently made up of an extensive system of public, private and NGO sector training providers. Public sector TEVT providers in Sri

Lanka used to function under different ministries up to the mid-1990s. In 1994 however, the TEVT sector was elevated to a ministerial function and the key TEVT providers placed under the supervision of one ministry, the Ministry of Tertiary Education and Vocational Training (MTEVT).<sup>18</sup> As part of this reorganization, the Tertiary and Vocational Education Commission (TVEC) was established and now functions as the apex body for setting policy and regulating TEVT sector activities. In 2001, there were about 920 training institutes registered with the TEVC

comprising of 556 institutions in the public sector, 252 in the private sector and 112 in the NGO sector. In addition, a sizable number of private sector providers operate in the market without registering with the TEVC.<sup>19</sup> The broad institutional framework of the TEVT system in Sri Lanka is presented in Figure 5.1.

5.4. Among public sector institutions, the key providers include the Department of Technical Education and Training (DTET), National Apprenticeship and Industrial Training Authority (NAITA), Sri

**Figure 5.1. Institutional Framework of the TVET Sector**



18. Prior to that, under the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training and the Ministry of Vocational Training and Rural Industries.  
 19. According to the Ministry of Tertiary Education and Training (MTET), there were around 1,000 unregistered vocational and technical institutions operating throughout the country in 2003.

Lanka Institute of Advanced Technical Education (SLIATE), Vocational Training Authority of Sri Lanka (VTA), and National Youth Services Council (NYSC). In addition, several other Ministries, government departments and semi-government institutions also conduct sector specific skill development programs relating to fisheries, agriculture, textiles/garments, transport, c o n s t r u c t i o n , telecommunication and various other manufacturing fields. The major public TEVT providers account for nearly 85 percent of training provided by the state sector:

- DTET delivers formal institution-based training at 37 technical colleges and affiliated institutions in major provincial and district capitals. Using this regional net work, DTET offers about 60 courses on a full-time and part-time basis in four areas: a) technicians studies, b) craft studies, c) business studies and, d) general studies. The majority of programs are in the management and commerce (32.5%), building and construction (29.7%) and electrical and electronics (17.9%) sub-sectors.
- NAITA, the successor to the National Apprenticeship Board, has island-wide coverage through a delivery

network in 9 Provinces. It offers four major vocational training programs:

- a. enterprise - based apprenticeships;
- b. institution-based dual training;
- c. in-plant training for other tertiary level courses; and
- d. training of trainers.

Together, they account for about 140 courses representing 20 different trade groups.

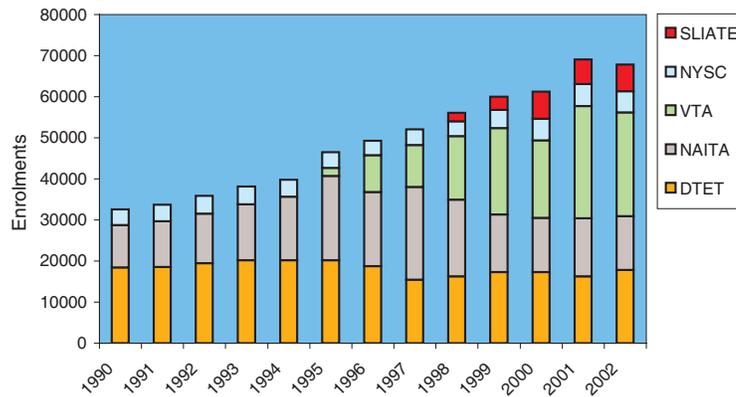
- VTA began vocational training in 1995 as the successor to the training arm of the Department of Labor which pioneered vocational training for out-of school, unemployed youth. It caters primarily to rural unemployed youth, providing employment-oriented short courses at 207 Rural Vocational Training Centers (RVTC) which work closely with rural committees and local organizations. In addition, 14 District Vocational Training Centers (DVTC), 4 National Institutes and 9 Special Centers offer certificated courses of longer duration.
- SLIATE, established in 1995, caters to A-level qualified students interested in TEVT. It oversees 6 Advanced Technical Institutions and

3 Advanced Technical Centers, and conducts some higher level technical courses in 10 Technical Colleges that were previously run by DTET.

- NYSC is another major public TEVT provider but under the supervision of the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Sports (MYAS). The courses at NYSC are offered at two levels: Level 1 (basic courses) and Level 2 (semi-skilled craftsman courses). In addition, NYSC also provides job market information and career guidance services to rural youth through its Rural Centers.

5.5. The non-state TEVT sector, while quite small initially, has grown and expanded into many areas during the post-liberalization period. Private training institutes are now well established in occupational areas such as machining, welding, radio repair, motor repair, electrical wiring, refrigeration and air conditioning, television, computer and communications technology, tourism and hotel industry. Many private providers operate on a fee basis, especially in urban centers for book-keeping and accountancy, computer technology and office management. The NGO training sector covers many religious and voluntary organizations that

**Figure 5.2 TEVT Enrollments 1990-2002**



Source: Technical and Vocational Education Commission.

offer craft-level training, fee-free or on a nominal fee basis, targeting unemployed youth, rural women, school leavers, and semi- or unskilled workers. The information base on private and NGO sector TEVT providers - their enrollments, regional distribution, course offerings, and operations - is limited and coverage relatively incomplete.

### Trainee Enrollments

5.6. Figure 5.2 presents information on training output of the major public TEVT providers from 1990 to 2002. Student intake grew from 32,612 to 67,612 between 1990 and 2002 representing an annual growth of 8.9 percent. The figure shows the growing dominance over time of VTA as against the declining share of NAITA in the TEVT sector. The

DTET share appears to have stabilized after a significant drop in 1996 with the takeover of some of its training programs by SLIATE. Though not shown here, in terms of gender, the proportion of female enrollments in TEVT courses has remained relatively constant at about 40 percent, clustered in several traditionally female occupations (e.g. dressmaking, ISM operator, beauty culture, secretarial jobs); recently, however, female participation has increased as new courses were offered in English for commerce, industry and further education (69%), accounting technicians (65%), computer applications (73%) and computer programmer and operator (57%).<sup>20</sup> In general, female participation in TEVT is low relative to their participation rates in school and higher education.

**Table 5.1 TEVT Enrollments by Province - 1990 to 2002**

Province	1990	1995	2000	2001	2002
Western	29.23	30.54	30.07	29.86	28.60
Southern	16.03	15.82	16.38	8.77	16.71
Sabaragamuwa	12.44	11.15	11.65	16.62	11.63
North-Western	11.64	10.53	9.66	2.32	9.93
Central	11.52	12.06	9.35	8.95	9.31
Eastern	9.29	8.91	8.92	9.93	9.16
Uva	5.60	6.17	6.87	4.41	7.46
North Central	3.96	4.35	4.53	7.55	4.49
Northern	0.30	0.48	2.56	11.58	2.71
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Technical and Vocational Education Commission.

20. Based on DTET data for 2002.

**Table 5.2 Total Expenditures by Major TEVT Institutions (Rs. Millions)**

Institution	1983		1993		2002	
	Recurr.	Capital	Recurr.	Capital	Recurr.	Capital
DTET	43.6	37.7	130.7	262.3	319.0	125.0
Department of Labor	21.4	7.1	61.0	16.5	-	-
NAITA	57.4	55.5	152.3	33.7	217.0	20.0
VTA	-	-	-	-	208.0	16.0
NYSC	4.1	3.6	22.5	-	214.0	4.0
TVEC	-	-	7.0	-	21.0	5.5
SLIATE	-	-	-	-	101.5	19.3
SDP Skills					136.0*	121.0*
Total	126.5	103.9	373.5	312.5	1216.5	310.8

Sources: Annual Government Budget Estimates and Final Accounts of Statutory Bodies

Notes: Recurr. = Recurrent budget ; Capital = Capital budget; SDP = Skills Development Project;

\* Apportioned based on ADB project documents

5.7. Table 5.1 reports total student enrollments across provinces by the major public sector TEVT providers. The table reveals a regional concentration of TEVT activities in the Western, Southern, Sabaragamuwa, North-Western and Central Provinces. The Western Province alone accounts for about 30 percent of enrollments while the other four provinces together account for more than 45 percent of total enrollments. This closely follows the heavy concentration of regional gross domestic product (RGDP) in the Western Province (47 percent) and in the other four provinces (37 percent). Among the major public sector providers, VTA leads in serving rural youth because of its regional network of RVTCs supported by District and National Training Centers. In 2002, these RVTCs (19,351 trainees) and DVTCs (3,157 trainees) accounted for about

one third of all enrollment by major public TEVT providers.

5.8. Table 5.2 presents the recurrent and capital expenditures by the major public TEVT institutions in 1983, 1993 and 2002. Between 1983 and 2002, total expenditures by major public sector TEVT providers increased from Rs. 230.4 million to Rs. 1527.3 million, representing an average annual growth of 35 percent in nominal terms. At constant prices, however, this reflects only a marginal increase of 1.3 percent per annum. Even this increase is mainly due to additional investments provided by the Asian Development Bank (ADB) through the Skills Development Project (SDP). In terms of total government expenditure, the share of major public TEVT providers was around 0.31 and 0.36 percent in 1983 and 2002, respectively. Another point emerges from

Table 5.2, namely that allocations for capital investments have declined steadily over this period, from 45 to 20 percent. Given the relatively high cost of specialized buildings, workshop and equipment required for TEVT, this declining share of capital budgets has adverse implications of delayed replacement and growing obsolescence of training equipment.

#### *Evolution of TEVT Institutions and Training Policies*

5.9. The TEVT institutional framework and training policies have evolved over the past three decades. One policy objective, however, has remained constant - government provision of pre-employment technical and vocational training to address the problem of high youth unemployment. Over time, however, other policy considerations have emerged

with changes in the macroeconomic environment, including meeting the skill needs of industrial restructuring and competitiveness in a global economy. This section describes these major changes in thinking about the roles and objectives of TEVT and the institutional reform that accompanied these policy changes, drawing upon a number of key policy statements and documents, as well as interviews with responsible government agencies.

5.10. Demand side considerations in promoting TEVT began with the post-1977 pro-market reforms and continued through the 1980s. The 1977 policy reforms of trade and industry, and adoption of export-led growth strategies led to expansion of the secondary and tertiary sectors of the economy, creating additional demand for skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labor. The state TEVT sector did not have the resources or the institutional flexibility to respond, which created opportunities for private sector providers to enter and fill this unsatisfied demand for training. The private sector training role was explicitly recognized as part of a larger strategy of promoting TVET for national competitiveness in the 1989 Industrialization Strategy

of the Ministry of Industrial Development (MID). To develop specific skills and expertise required by an outward looking industrial sector, MID made upgrading of technical training institutes and establishment of a Vocational and Tertiary Education Commission (VTEC) priorities for immediate action. It also stressed the need to expand the role of private industry and NGOs in TEVT development, with industry providing more training facilities at lower levels and voluntary organizations offering training in technology and management skills. Fiscal incentives (for example, double deduction of training expenditures from income tax) were also considered as possible policy initiatives to promote industry's participation in training provision.<sup>21</sup>

5.11. The new government that was formed in 1994 continued this policy in developing the TEVT sector. The Policy Statement issued by the President in January 1995 is instructive; it stated that “despite its high levels of literacy, the Sri Lankan workforce lacks the requisite skills that are essential for industrial upgrading and diversification. The numerous short-run skill development

programs and the general education system are essentially supply-driven and therefore have a poor record of providing industry-relevant skills. The vocational training system will be extensively restructured so as to be demand-driven, in cooperation with the private sector who will be the eventual employers.” Echoing this, the 1995 Budget Speech emphasized the importance of “consolidating the variety of dispersed and uncoordinated facilities for vocational training and directing them to create skills which are sorely needed by the growing economy”. To this end, the New Industrialization Strategy of MID (1995) identified three major areas for TEVT reform: (i) restructuring tertiary education and the vocational training system; (ii) setting up a Skills Development Fund; and (iii) reorienting public sector technical institutes to meet market needs. In October, 1997 a special Task Force was established to study inter-ministerial barriers and to come up with policy recommendations for TEVT sector development involving both the public and private sectors. Its findings led to major changes in the TEVT sector in terms of rationalization, recognition of vocational training as a

21. References to double deduction tax incentives for training (DDIT) have appeared periodically in Budget speeches over the years, but it remains unclear whether this fiscal incentive has ever been implemented, and if so, how wide-spread its use is, or whether it has had the desired impact of fostering training in industry. In Malaysia, an assessment of its DDIT indicated that the incentive was used principally by large companies and multi-national corporations who were already training; it was not widely used among local small and medium-size enterprises (SMEs), most of whom provide little in-service training. As such, the GOM eliminated DDIT in 1993 and, in its place, introduced the Human Resource Development Fund.

Ministerial Function, and co-ordination of TEVT activities at the national level.

5.12. Since 2001, a large number of policy documents have been published, highlighting the challenges facing the TEVT sector, proposing further reforms to and rationalization of public training institutions, introducing competency standards and accreditation, and offering new financial incentives and policy instruments for fostering demand-led training:

- “Vision 2010” (2001) identified three major challenges facing the TEVT sector - qualitative and quantitative mismatches in certain areas of skills demand; external and internal inefficiencies in the sector with duplication of courses, outdated equipment and curricula, shortage of good trainers and high dropout rates; and sub-optimal use of public sector workshops and laboratories. In response to these challenges, policies in the TEVT sector should: (i) promote private sector-led skills training; (ii) target youth with an entrepreneurial mind-set; (iii) link performance and budgets and provide

institutions with increased autonomy; (iv) foster more skilled training through a system of skill accreditation; (v) provide skills to compete in global labor markets; and (vi) train to match industry's skill needs.

- “Regaining Sri Lanka” (2001), published by the new government, noted that, “post secondary skills training institutes suffer from a mismatch between the training offered and the skills required in a modern, market economy. Management deficiencies, outdated equipment and curricula and shortage of capable trainers lead to high drop out rates and low returns to training.” It proposed that (i) performance standards for vocational training be revised along the lines of competency-based training, based on standards derived from industry; and (ii) a Higher Institute of Applied Technology be established to lead the vocational training process, and provide a recognized system of professional certification in the vocational trades.

- The “Draft National Employment Policy”

(2002), put out by the Ministry of Employment and Labor, recommended six major policy reforms for the TEVT sector: (i) training systems restructured to meet future demands; (ii) promotion of vocational training for the informal sector; (iii) fostering government-industry partnerships in training; (iv) the government to function as a facilitator, standard setter and regulator of training; (v) financial incentives for training targeting the corporate sector; and (vi) provision to disadvantaged groups of financial assistance for training. The Budget Speech for 2003 and 2004 elaborated on the operational details of these recommendations, including the establishment of a Human Resources Endowment Fund (HREF) that would provide training vouchers for unemployed youth and skills upgrading for employees, as well as soft loans to upgrade training facilities for providers.<sup>22</sup>

- The “National Policy and Action Plan for the Development of Technical Education” (2002) published by the National Education Council (NEC)

22. The proposed Human Resources Endowment Fund (HREF) is to be funded from dormant social security accounts. The 2004 Budget Speech proposed that funds from the ADB Skills Development Fund also be used to finance HREF. The fund remains to be implemented as the proposed new training initiative has yet to be presented to, and discussed by, parliament.

called for the reorganization and upgrading of the TEVT sector. Seven major elements are to be considered in formulating the national policy framework for the TEVT sector: (i) skills laddering to facilitate upward mobility of skills acquisition; (ii) better linkages of TEVT with the school and university systems; (iii) private sector participation in training; (iv) improved functioning of the Technical and Vocational Education Commission (TVEC) as the apex body for TEVT; (v) accreditation of and quality monitoring of public and private training institutions; (vi) rationalization of the public sector TEVT system; and (vii) setting up a degree awarding institution for TEVT.

5.13. The TEVT sector's restructuring, rationalization and reform process to implement the many proposals introduced since the mid-1990s is still a work-in-progress. Interviews with MTEVT, TEVC and individual TEVT institutions indicated that a number of initiatives are underway. A partial list includes (i) pilots in several provinces to

simplify applications for training-a single application for all TEVT institutions-and to coordinate and rationalize course offerings from different TEVT institutions in the same local area; (ii) development of concrete action plans in the TVEC to implement broad policy directives, especially in the area of competency based training and skills laddering; (iii) course offerings on a fee paying basis for selected high-demand courses as a way to partially recover costs; and (iv) increased collaboration across TEVT institutions, especially with NAITA which has strong links with employers, to solicit opportunities for practical training from private sector employers to enhance the industrial relevance of training.

### **Monitoring and Evaluation of Training**

5.14. TVEC is charged with overall implementation of technical and vocational training policies, and coordination of training in the public and private sectors. As part of this mandate, it assembles and publishes statistics on training, a directory of public and private sector training providers, as well as selected labor market data on job vacancies and job seekers.<sup>23</sup> This labor market information system (LMIS) is valuable but its usefulness is limited by its

current availability in hard-copy only; it remains to be made available electronically to policymakers and the public. The TVEC data base's coverage of training opportunities in the private sector is also limited- registration with TEVC is mandatory but an unknown number of private training institutions have reportedly yet to do so. Those that do register provide limited information on their course offerings, but almost no hard data on enrollments and their operations. As such, monitoring of training incidence and trends is necessarily limited to the technical and vocational training provided by the public sector; virtually nothing is known about how widespread training is in the private sector, either that provided by private and NGO sector training providers, or by employers themselves in the form of in-service training. This paucity of training data limits the ability of TVEC and policymakers to make informed evidence-based policy judgments about the adequacy of training provided by the public and private TEVT sectors, or by employers.

5.15. Compounding data constraints is weak public sector capacity in impact evaluations, so that training (and other labor market) interventions to address problems of youth

23. Until recently, the main source of information was job vacancies culled from newspaper advertisements. JobsNet - set up within the past year to receive job applications from job seekers and job vacancies listed by employers, and provide a web-based job matching clearing house - is a promising new source of labor market information.

**Table 5.3 Principal Outcomes of Tracer Studies of TEVT Graduates**

	DTET	NAITA	VTA
<b>Employment Status</b>			
Wage employment	49.3	62.2	14.3
Self employment	6.1	9.6	14.3
Employed in other categories of work	10.7	-	-
Unemployed	33.9	28.2	62.7
Not seeking a job	-	-	8.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>Relevance of Training to the Job</b>			
Very relevant	39.8	72.7	65.4
Relevant	30.4	15.8	8.9
Not relevant at all	29.8	11.5	25.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Sources: DTET(2002), NAITA (2001) and VTA (2001)

unemployment are rarely evaluated. The exceptions are three recent tracer studies of graduates from DTET, NAITA and VTA conducted with technical assistance and funding from GTZ.<sup>24</sup> All three tracer studies used a unified approach-following graduates 1-3 years after training and administering a common (and thus comparable) retrospective survey. The broad outcome criteria used to assess the external efficiency of these TEVT programs included employability after training, and relevance of training received as per industry's requirements.

5.16. The two outcome measures are summarized in Table 5.3 for each program. First, at the time of the survey, employment rates for graduates were 71.8, 66.6 and 28.6 percent for NAITA, DTET and VTA,

respectively. Employability of VTA graduates was especially low. In other results not reported in the table, duration of job search also varied greatly between TEVT providers. In the case of NAITA, for example, 30 percent were able to find employment immediately upon training completion while another 54 percent found jobs within six months. In contrast, only 2.7 per cent of VTA graduates and 37.6 per cent of DTET graduates were able to find some employment within the first six months. Second, for those finding jobs, graduates rated highly the relevance of training provided by NAITA (73 percent "very relevant"), and by VTA (65 percent), as compared to 40 percent for DTET. At the other extreme, focusing on "Not relevant at all" responses, NAITA fared best with just 11 percent negative responses as

compared to 25-30 percent negative responses for the other two TEVT providers.

5.17. These tracer studies provide useful insights but are nonetheless limited. First, as one-off evaluations, tracer studies are of limited use unless they are repeated periodically and used to continuously monitor whether progress is being made to improve training outcomes and remedy identified deficiencies in training relevance. A second, and more serious limitation is the absence of a control group against which performance of graduates can be compared. A control group-comprising individuals with identical characteristics as TEVT trainees but not participating in training programs-is needed to address the counterfactual question of how trainees would have fared

24. The DTET study (1999/2000) was based on a sample of 2,732 graduates taking DTET courses in 1995 and 1996, and drawn from across the country except for the Northern Province. The NAITA study (2000) was based on a sample of 706 apprentices graduating between 1996 and 1999, drawn from the Western, Central, Southern and North Western Provinces. Similarly, the VTA (2001) study was made up of a sample of 973 trainees in 48 trades drawn from the Central, Uva and Southern Provinces.

had they not participated in training, and to measure the net contribution of training to the outcomes observed. For example, if 40 percent of the control group of unemployed found jobs within 12 months as compared to 55 percent of DTET graduates, then just 15 percent (55 minus 40 percent), the observed difference in employment rates, can be attributed to the training provided in DTET. The net impact of training is the relevant outcome to consider in judging the efficacy and cost-efficiency of training (and other labor market) interventions to address youth unemployment.<sup>25</sup>

## 5.2 Overview of TVET Trends from Labour Force Surveys

5.18. With this overview of TEVT institutions and policies as background, the focus of the chapter turns next to an analysis of training trends and their effects on labor market outcomes, especially as they pertain to unemployed youth.

5.19. This section paints a broad brush overview of trends in post-school vocational and technical training (henceforth referred to simply as “training”)

as revealed in a time-series of the Sri Lanka Labor Force Survey (LFS). It addresses the following questions: who gets training, what types of training, are there wide regional differences in training receipt, does training substitute for formal education or does it tend to complement (go together with) education. It exploits the availability of a long time-series of LFS to explore how training varies over the work life for different cohorts of individuals, focusing on training-experience profiles rather than training-age profiles as is more common in the extant Sri Lanka literature, and on the potentially important link between training and unemployment.

### *The Labor Force Surveys*

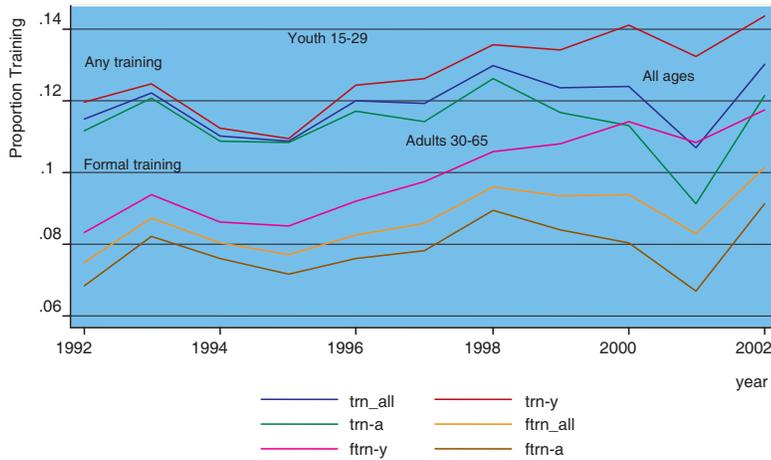
5.20. The LFS has elicited information on training consistently since 1992. Following the questions on educational attainment, respondents are asked about training: (1) Did he/she have vocational / technical training? (2) What type of training? (not coded in several years), (3) Was training formal (providing a diploma or certificate) or informal (not certificated)? and (4) What was the duration of

training (months)? The availability of training data covering a 11-year period between 1992-2002 is unique, especially coupled with the rich information on other individual and household variables, and on labor force status, employment, unemployment, job search, hours and weeks of work, and monthly earnings for wage and salary workers.

5.21. While invaluable for the proposed analysis, nonetheless the training data have several limitations. The LFS does not ask when the training was received - for some individuals, it may be recent; for others (older individuals) it could have been many years ago.<sup>26</sup> The training question implicitly assumes just one training event, while some individuals may actually have received multiple training events.<sup>27</sup> Neither does it identify which training institution provided the training, whether or not it was a public or private provider, nor whether the training was taken while unemployed or as part of employer-provided or financed in-service training. This data set thus precludes an assessment of the quality of public sector versus private sector training, as

25. A good review of rigorous evaluations of active labor market programs, including training, in industrialized and developing countries may be found in Betcherman, Olivas and Dar (2004), “Impacts of Active Labor Market Programs: New Evidence from Evaluations with Particular Attention to Developing and Transition Countries”.
26. This is important since training is an investment, and the payoffs to training may occur with a lag and diminish over time. Thus, for recent trainees, the outcomes from training may not be manifested yet, while the depreciation of training taken a long time ago may yield few measurable labor market benefits.
27. For example, see Lillard and Tan (1991), who find multiple training events common in their study of private sector training in the U.S. using longitudinal surveys of youth, adults and women. Data from a Sri Lanka sample of TEVT trainees in 2001/2002 in the Colombo area also revealed that a quarter of them had received some form of training prior to enrolling in the current public TEVT program.

**Figure 5.3 Proportion of Working Age Population with Technical and Vocational Training: 1992-2002**



Source: World Bank estimates, based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Labor Force Surveys 1992-2002.

might be done by comparing the returns to training from these two sources, or an evaluation of the potentially important productivity and wage impacts of employer-sponsored in-service training reported by a growing body of studies.<sup>28</sup>

5.22. What do the LFS time-series data say about training trends? Figure 5.3 shows the weighted proportions of the working age population that reported having received vocational or technical training, separately for any training in the top panel and for formal (certificated) training in the bottom panel, and within each category of training by age group - youth aged 15-29 years, and adults aged 30-65 years. First, what is readily apparent from these data is the secularly rising trend in training incidence between 1992 and 1999, a

stagnation and marked decline in 2001 with negative economic growth, and recovery in training incidence by 2002.

5.23. Second, training received is increasingly more formal over time. The proportion of the working-age population receiving any training rises from 11 to 13 percent over this 1992-2002 period; the proportion getting formal (i.e., certificated) training rises even more dramatically from 7 to 10 percent. Finally, in each year a higher proportion of youth aged 15-29 years reported training than did adults aged 30-65 years, and over time, these age-related differences in training widened. Recent entrants into the labor market are more likely to get training as compared to entrants from years past, which may either reflect an increased supply of training seats for

technical and vocational training, an increased derived demand for skills from employers, or some combination of the two factors.

#### *Who Gets Training? Snapshots from 1992, 1997 and 2002 LFS*

5.24. Table 5.4 provides a profile of who gets training using three years of LFS data, at the beginning, middle and end of the 1992-2002 period. The top panels of the table report the incidence of any training and formal training by level of educational attainment and gender. Several points are immediately apparent. First, educational attainment and training are complements-the incidence of training generally rises with education, from 0-2 percent for those without schooling, to 20-40 percent for those with a university degree. Second, females are less likely to get training as compared to males at all levels of education, a point raised in the previous section. The gender gap in training is least pronounced at higher levels of education beginning with GCE O-levels. Third, there is a rising trend between 1992 and 2002 in the incidence of training among GCE A/L qualified individuals and graduates, for both males and females. Fourth, among the trained, the less educated receive training that is primarily informal (non-certificated) while the more educated tend to

28. See, for example, Tan and Batra (1997), Tan (2002). Such an analysis is possible using the forthcoming Sri Lanka Investment Climate Survey which elicited information on in-service training.

**Table 5.4 Overview of Training in Sri Lanka - 1992, 1997, 2002**  
**Percent Getting Training by Type of Training, Education, Sex and Province**

Education / Province	Males			Females		
	1992	1997	2002	1992	1997	2002
<b>Education Completed</b>						
<b>Percent Getting Any Training</b>						
No schooling	2.6	3.7	2.4	1.2	0.7	0.7
Primary	8.0	6.2	5.5	2.0	1.2	1.5
Lower secondary	11.5	10.5	9.9	3.5	2.7	2.3
Upper secondary	15.9	14.8	15.8	8.7	6.8	6.8
GCE O level	21.0	22.7	21.2	15.9	16.3	13.6
GCE A level	29.0	34.0	37.3	27.8	29.3	32.6
Graduate	29.9	33.0	39.6	21.9	24.1	31.4
Post-graduate	57.5	53.3	46.9	41.8	48.9	46.7
<b>Education Completed</b>						
<b>Percent Training That is Formal</b>						
No schooling	4.2	29.4	27.5	12.2	23.9	13.4
Primary	23.7	26.9	24.6	43.7	45.4	33.6
Lower secondary	35.7	37.2	46.8	47.1	54.3	38.8
Upper secondary	52.0	62.8	68.7	72.6	67.7	72.2
GCE O level	78.6	83.7	84.6	84.4	81.1	87.4
GCE A level	88.6	91.5	92.2	94.2	93.4	94.7
Graduate	97.9	94.8	96.3	95.6	100.0	93.1
Post-graduate	97.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	98.1	100.0
<b>Province</b>						
<b>Percent Getting Any Training</b>						
Western	17.9	19.7	22.1	9.1	12.1	14.1
Central	12.5	14.3	12.4	7.5	8.3	6.8
Southern	15.4	14.5	14.1	10.8	7.8	8.6
North-West	13.4	11.8	12.6	7.3	5.8	6.2
North-Central	9.2	11.3	13.6	4.2	4.5	7.4
Uva	12.3	10.6	13.2	7.3	6.9	9.1
Sabaragamuwa	13.7	12.8	13.6	8.6	7.9	9.7

Sources: World Bank estimates. Calculated from the Labor Force Surveys 1992, 1997 and 2002. Figures are for the population aged 15 to 65 years, weighted using Department of Census and Statistics sampling weights. Training incidence in the North-Eastern Province is unavailable as the LFS could not cover the area.

get formal training. Finally, echoing Figure 5.3, it appears that the trend over time is towards formal training, especially for males starting with lower secondary education and above, but not for females at all levels of education.

5.25. The bottom panel of Table 5.4 reports the regional incidence of vocational and technical training. Among provinces, the incidence of any training is highest in the Western Province, at 18 percent for males

in 1992, and in the Southern Province at 15 percent, and lowest in the North-Central Province at 9 percent and in Uva Province at 12 percent. By 2002, the Western Province continued to enjoy the highest incidence of training. This training gap between high and low training provinces reduced for men but widened for women between 1992-2002. Also noteworthy is the rise in training incidence in the North-Central Province, the province with the lowest training incidence in

1992. This finding appears to be consistent with the point made in Chapter Two about the Central Government's progressive financing of education and training, targeting resources disproportionately towards provinces with lower per capita income.

*Who Enrolls in Public Sector TVET and When? A Case Study of Colombo Trainees*

5.26. The LFS does not distinguish training by public or private sector providers. This

raises the following questions: Who are public TVET institutions serving? Are youth proceeding directly to TVET after schooling completion, or is it more typical for youth to first test the labor market, that is, engage in job search or employment, before enrolling in TVET? To gain insights into the attributes of the youth population undertaking technical and vocational training in public TVET institutions, the application forms of a sample of 846 trainees enrolled in the Colombo-area TVET institutes were computerized and analyzed as a case study.<sup>29</sup>

5.27. The sample of 846 trainees was drawn from three TVET institutions - the Technical College at Maradana (235), NAITA Regional Office in Colombo (500), and VTA District Office in Colombo (111) - and together they covered a broad range of training - 52 programs in total, 14 from DTET, 28 from NAITA, and 10 from VTA. The programs from DTET and VTA represent institution-based training while those from NAITA focus on enterprise-based apprenticeship programs.<sup>30</sup> Consistent information was collected on gender, age, district of origin, educational attainment, number of attempts at national GCE

O/A-level examinations, stream studied in (science, arts or commerce), year of school completion, prior training if any and whether provided by public or non-state providers, and current course of study.

5.28. Tabulations of enrollment records suggest the following highlights about the attributes of trainees in Colombo-based TVET institutions:

- The majority (96 percent) of trainees are youth less than 30 years old, and they are predominantly male (80 percent).
- Their educational qualifications have the following distribution - 21 percent with grade 10 or less, 45 percent with GCE O-level, 14 percent that failed A-levels, and the remaining 20 percent with GCE A-level qualifications. Among the A-level qualified, trainees coming from Commerce and Arts streams were most common (9 and 8 percent, respectively) and then Sciences (2 percent).
- The number of repeat GCE exam takers (up to 3 tries) is high - 7 percent among the O-level qualified, and a very high 44 percent among those

seeking A-level qualifications when A-level failures are included. The implication is that repeated exam taking to qualify for admission to university is delaying labor market entry for many youth.

- Over a quarter (28 percent) of the sample have had some form of training prior to current enrollment in the public TVET institution.<sup>31</sup> Also significant, given the policy focus on public TEVT, is that 55 percent of those with prior training got their training from private sector providers, 36 percent from public institutions, and 9 percent from unknown sources.
- Most enrollments (58 percent) occur within the first 1-4 years after schooling completion, 18 percent after 5-6 years, 19 percent after 7-9 years, and just 5 percent after 10 or more years in the labor market.

#### *Training Over the Work Life*

5.29. What do training profiles look like as individuals complete formal schooling and acquire work experience in the

29. None of the training institutions had computerized individual records for their trainees; when they were computerized, it was only in the form of aggregated totals.

30. Within the 52 training programs selected for study, information on all student enrollments is included to preclude any potential selection biases (whether by age, sex, education, or work experience) in the choice of the trainee sample.

31. This further reinforces the point that the LFS is too restrictive in eliciting information on just one episode of training, when multiple training events-even among youth-are relatively common.

**Table 5.5. Percent Getting Training by Age Group and Education - 1992, 1997, 2002**

Education level	Youth Age 15-29			Adults Age 30-65		
	1992	1997	2002	1992	1997	2002
Education Completed	Percent Getting Any Training					
No schooling	1.2	3.5	1.4	1.7	1.1	1.2
Primary	5.1	4.2	4.0	5.1	3.7	3.4
Lower secondary	6.8	5.9	5.7	8.2	7.3	6.6
Upper secondary	11.7	10.5	10.7	13.6	11.1	11.8
GCE O level	16.8	17.1	15.1	20.0	21.3	19.1
GCE A level	24.9	30.0	35.8	33.1	32.9	33.4
Graduate	27.4	24.0	28.7	26.0	30.4	37.5
Post-graduate	41.6	40.4	53.9	54.6	52.4	46.2

Sources: World Bank estimates. Calculated from the Labor Force Surveys 1992, 1997 and 2002. Figures are for the population aged 15 to 65 years, weighted using Department of Census and Statistics sampling weights.

labor market? The sample of public TEVT trainees suggests that this profile is steeply rising initially and then flattening out with age. Table 5.5 reports training data from the LFS by educational attainment separately for two broad age groups—youth aged 15-29 years, and adults aged 30 years and above—for insights into these training-age profiles.

5.30. Two points stand out. First, among youth, there is an increase in the incidence of training for those with GCE A-levels and above, but not for those with GCE O-levels and below. For adults aged 30-65 years, the only group to show a rising trend in training are university graduates. Similar age-related differences in training - but across all education groups - were shown in Figure 5.3. Second, at each

level of education, a roughly equal or higher proportion of adults report having training as compared to similarly educated youth among GCE A/L qualified individuals and graduates. This is consistent with the probabilistic interpretation that people tend to acquire training as they become older (though at a slower pace), and that educated individuals are more likely to get training as they age, compared to the less educated.<sup>32</sup> However, this pattern does not appear among postgraduate educated individuals.

5.31. From this intuition, one might contemplate using cross-sectional information on individuals varying in age or years of potential work experience (defined as age minus age at schooling completion) to estimate training experience profiles for different

education groups. This exercise, however, is potentially misleading if cohort effects are important. Essentially, these are effects associated with when individuals entered the labor market. For example, youth today face different training opportunities as compared to similarly educated youth (today's adults) who entered the labor market decades earlier when post-school training infrastructure was less developed. The two demographic groups would also have been exposed to different sets of macroeconomic conditions and policies that influence both the incentives as well as the opportunities to get training. Training-experience profiles estimated from cross-sectional surveys potentially confound the life-cycle profiles of interest with year-of-entry cohort effects.<sup>33</sup>

32. These training-age profiles can also be given a human capital interpretation. With a finite work-life, human capital theory would predict that individuals would concentrate their training (and education) investments early in their lives so as to maximize the present value of the future stream of returns to their investments, reducing (the probability of) investments in training later in their work-life as the period to recoup returns shortens.

33. Indeed, given the rising training trend among higher educated youth in the 1990s, training-experience profiles computed from cross-sectional surveys (i.e. from different year entry cohorts) would be downward sloping instead of flat or upward sloping as required in a cumulative function.

5.32. An alternative approach is to estimate training-experience profiles from pseudo-cohorts constructed from the time-series of LFS spanning the 1992-2002 period. The intuition of the pseudo-cohort approach is straightforward. Consider a group of individuals aged 18-19 years with a GCE O-level education in the 1992 LFS; on average, they might be expected to have 2 years of potential work experience. In the 1994 LFS, this cohort would be age 20-21 with 4 years of potential experience, age 22-23 years in the 1996 LFS with 6 years of potential experience, and so on.<sup>34</sup> By grouping individuals and tracking similar groups of individuals over time using the time-series LFS, data on these pseudo-cohorts can be used to estimate the probability of training with potential work experience, controlling for gender, level of educational attainment, and year-of-entry cohort effects. The regression estimates suggest the following main findings:

- On average, males have a higher probability of getting training over their work life as compared to similarly educated females. This greater likelihood varies by level of educational attainment—a gender gap of about 17

percent for those with primary education, rising to 41 percent for lower secondary, and then declining to 30, 20 and 4 percent for grades 9-10, O-levels and A-levels, before widening again to 10 percent for university graduates.

- Training-experience profiles vary dramatically by level of educational attainment.<sup>35</sup> For those with primary education, there are no discernible effects of increased time in the labor market on the probability of getting training, that is, training-experience profiles are flat. For lower secondary, training profiles rise (but at a diminishing rate) with years of potential experience, becoming increasingly steeper at higher levels of education—about 13-15 percent greater probability of training per year of potential work experience for grades 9-10, GCE O and A levels, and 10 percent for university graduates.

### **Probability of Unemployment, Potential Experience and Training**

5.33. These grouped cohort data can also be used to describe the relationship between training and a number of labor market outcomes. One outcome of particular policy interest is youth unemployment, specifically the issue of whether receipt of technical and vocational training facilitates youth transition from school to work, and from unemployment to productive work. Just as pseudo-cohorts can be tracked over time to look at training-experience profiles, so too can their unemployment probabilities with years of potential work experience be analyzed, free of the confounding year-of-entry cohort effects.

5.34. Table 5.6 reports the regression estimates for the probability of being unemployed last week, and its relationship to years of potential work experience, separately for those with and without training. In addition to experience, the regression model included control variables for gender, level of education, and different year-of-entry cohorts. Several findings emerge:

- Males are significantly less likely to experience a spell of unemployment last week as compared to females with similar

34. In essence, this pseudo-cohort approach involves collapsing the 1992-2002 LFS survey data into cells cross-classified by year, sex, level of educational attainment, 2-year age intervals, and training receipt, with information on the weighted count of individuals in each cell.

35. This finding is based on training probability models estimated on the grouped data separately by level of education. The regression results are not reported here but are available from the World Bank.

**Table 5.6 Training and Probability of Unemployment Last Week  
Using Pseudo-Cohort Data LFS 1992-2002**

<u>Dependent variable:</u> Unemployed last week (1,0)	Training Status			
	<u>With training</u>		<u>No training</u>	
	Coef.	t-stat	Coef.	t-stat
Male	-0.4415	-17.22	-0.3728	-27.17
Level of education				
Primary	0.1124	0.16	-0.1113	-1.73
Lower secondary	-0.2166	-0.32	0.0760	1.20
Upper secondary	-0.1498	-0.22	0.3526	5.68
GCE O-Level	-0.0904	-0.13	0.4440	7.09
GCE A-Level	-0.1443	-0.21	0.4665	7.28
Degree	-0.1434	-0.21	0.2852	3.11
Post-graduate	0.0979	0.10	0.8098	1.41
Potential experience (pexp)	-0.1935	-12.06	-0.1489	-21.31
Pexp-2	0.0050	4.75	0.0019	4.45
Pexp-3	-0.00004	-2.15	0.000003	0.40
Year of entry cohort				
1950s	-0.6845	-1.19	0.0532	0.33
1960s	-0.9704	-1.51	-0.1919	-1.03
1970s	-1.1874	-1.79	-0.4279	-2.17
1980s	-1.5056	-2.28	-0.7637	-3.86
1990-94	-1.7345	-2.63	-0.9784	-4.92
1995-99	-1.7564	-2.64	-1.1836	-5.91
2000-02	-1.8134	-2.66	-1.3189	-6.25
Constant	2.6137	2.73	1.0518	5.04
Number of observations	1081		2009	
Adjusted R-squared	0.5963		0.8007	

Source: World Bank estimates. Calculated from the Labor Force Surveys 1992, 1997 and 2002. Figures are for the population aged 15 to 65 years, weighted using Department of Census and Statistics sampling weights.

educational, experience and year-of-entry cohort attributes. This gender gap in unemployment probability is 44 percent for the group with training, and about 37 percent for those without training.

- For the group with training, the level of educational attainment is not significantly related to unemployment, a surprising finding but one that may be attributed to the strong association

between training and education (one determinant of training), an issue analyzed in greater depth in the next section. In contrast, for the group without training, level of education matters and the probability of unemployment rises with education level to a peak for those with GCE A-levels.

- The probability of experiencing an unemployment spell

declines (at a decreasing rate) with years of potential experience. Especially significant is the markedly steeper unemployment - experience profile of the group with training - each additional year of potential experience reduces their probability of an unemployment spell by over 19 percent as compared to just under 15 percent for the group without training.

- This steeper decline in

unemployment - experience profiles for the group with training as compared to the non-training group continues to hold within education groups. This comparison is confirmed by regression models estimated separately by level of education (not reported here but available from the author).

- Year-of-entry cohort effects are negative and increasingly more negative for recent entry cohorts, which is consistent with the interpretation that 1990s entry cohorts experienced a more favorable set of macroeconomic factors and policies than their peers in the entry cohorts of the 1960s and 1970s.

### 5.3 Determinants of Training

5.35. With this broad overview of training trends and the training-unemployment nexus as background, this section turns first to a microeconomic analysis of the determinants of training, with subsequent sections focusing on the labor market outcomes of training. The analysis - based on pooled cross-section time-series LFS data - does not account for cohort effects, but makes up for it by exploiting rich information

in the LFS to gain insight into the important individual, household and aggregate factors that shape decisions of individuals to invest in post-school training, and their labor market outcomes.

5.36. The individual decision to invest in training is modeled within a human capital framework and is thought to depend on several factors:

- a. level of schooling attainment - training and education are either substitutes for each other (because training compensates for inadequate quantity or quality of schooling), or are complements (the more educated train more because they are also more efficient learners and gain more than the less educated from investing in training);
- b. age - individuals are more likely to invest early in training, rather than later in the life-cycle, so that the returns to training can be realized over a longer period of time;
- c. marital status - familial responsibilities reflected in an individual's marital status may influence training decisions;
- d. household factors - just as parental education affects schooling of children,

they may affect training decisions too either through sociological influences (taste for education), or through income effects associated with higher educational attainment;

- e. location - provinces differ in their levels of per capita incomes and employment opportunities, and these factors can shape individual training decisions;
- f. access to training - training may also depend on the supply of TVET opportunities, and this varies across provinces and over time; a proxy for training supply is the number of public TVET enrollments per 1,000 of the provincial youth population.<sup>36</sup>

5.37. Table 5.7 reports the results of estimating the probability of training - any training, and formal (certificated) training - on this set of individual, household, location and training supply variables. Probit models are estimated separately for the sample of males (about 190,000) and females (197,000). The regression results are not surprising, and are broadly consistent with the tabular information presented earlier in Section 5.1 of this chapter.

36. Training seats by province and year are calculated from TEVT enrollments in Table 5.1 and from counts of youth aged 15-29 years by province computed from the time-series of LFS surveys.

**Table 5.7 Probability of any Training and Formal Training: 1992-2002**

Dependent variable: Training	Males				Females			
	Any training		Formal training		Any training		Formal training	
	Coef.	z-stat	Coef.	z-stat	Coef.	z-stat	Coef.	z-stat
Marital status	-0.0364	-3.8	-0.0810	-7.1	-0.1019	-10.9	-0.1331	-12.4
Education level								
Primary	0.3664	10.7	0.3019	5.5	0.1825	4.8	0.5813	7.1
Lower secondary	0.6921	20.6	0.7598	14.2	0.5000	13.7	0.9364	11.7
Upper secondary	0.8990	27.0	1.1264	21.3	0.9527	27.2	1.5026	19.2
GCE O-Level	1.0903	32.6	1.4598	27.5	1.3191	37.7	1.9384	24.7
GCE A-Level	1.3315	38.6	1.7597	32.8	1.7365	48.5	2.4000	30.5
Degree	1.3265	31.4	1.8274	31.0	1.6091	35.9	2.3059	27.7
Post-graduate	1.8490	31.4	2.3629	32.9	2.0228	29.4	2.7207	27.7
Age	0.0909	46.5	0.0865	37.5	0.0703	30.2	0.0678	26.2
Age-squared	-0.0011	-46.6	-0.0011	-37.3	-0.0009	-28.9	-0.0008	-24.4
Province								
Central	-0.1328	-8.1	-0.0812	-4.3	-0.0358	-1.9	0.0298	1.4
South	-0.0231	-1.6	-0.0615	-3.6	0.0180	1.1	-0.0030	-0.2
North-West	-0.1703	-11.9	-0.1786	-10.7	-0.1816	-10.3	-0.1419	-7.4
North-Central	-0.2499	-11.9	-0.2946	-11.8	-0.2096	-8.1	-0.1794	-6.3
Uva	-0.1116	-7.0	-0.0737	-4.0	0.0970	5.3	0.1110	5.4
Sabaragamuwa	-0.0832	-6.4	-0.0640	-4.3	0.0235	1.5	0.0574	3.4
Training seats [1]	-0.0175	-5.5	-0.0157	-4.3	-0.0148	-3.9	-0.0143	-3.5
Household [2]								
Father's schooling	0.0185	8.8	0.0199	8.5	0.0112	4.4	0.0128	4.7
Mother's schooling	0.0281	10.1	0.0300	9.4	0.0110	3.3	0.0139	3.8
Year (linear)	0.0060	2.7	0.0133	5.2	-0.0038	-1.4	-0.0011	-0.4
Constant	-15.1954	-3.5	-30.3148	-6.0	4.6327	0.9	-1.3909	-0.2
Number of observations	190,148		190,148		197,541		197,541	
Pseudo R-square	0.0737		0.1284		0.1548		0.1905	

Notes: [1] Training supply proxy = total number of TVET graduates by province divided by total youth population ( $\times 1000$ ) aged 15-29 years. [2] Household variables: dummy variables included for missing father's and mother's years of schooling.

Source: World Bank estimates. Calculated from the Labor Force Surveys 1992, 1997 and 2002. Figures are for the population aged 15 to 65 years, weighted using Department of Census and Statistics sampling weights.

5.38. First, the probability of education. Second, the “training seats” are available in any training, and especially of probability of getting training in the province. One possible formal training, is strongly the Western Province (the explanation is that this result correlated with level of omitted category) is higher than may simply reflect the central schooling attainment. Together in all other provinces, with the government's targeting of TEVT with the effects of age, this North-Central Province having resources at provinces with low education - training the lowest probability of training training incidence. Fourth, complementarity would explain once all other control variables parental schooling positively why training-profiles tend to be are included. Third, the effects influences children's training more steeply inclined upwards of training supply are negative, decisions; interestingly, for the more educated which suggests counter- compared to father's education, individuals and relatively flat for intuitively that the probability of mother's education is more those with little formal training is lower the more strongly associated with training

**Table 5.8 Probability of Unemployment Last Week and Usually Unemployed Last Year, 1992-2002**

Dependent variable : Prob(Unemployment)	Unemployed Last Week				Usually Unemployed Past Year			
	Coef.		z		Coef.		Z	
	1992	2002	1992	2002	1992	2002	1992	2002
Male	-0.366	-33.0	-0.365	-32.9	-0.379	-34.1	-0.378	-34.0
Education level								
Primary	0.137	2.5	0.138	2.6	0.036	0.8	0.038	0.9
Lower secondary	0.246	4.6	0.253	4.8	0.038	0.9	0.043	1.0
Upper secondary	0.328	6.2	0.346	6.6	0.105	2.5	0.118	2.8
GCE O-Level	0.463	8.7	0.495	9.4	0.187	4.3	0.213	4.9
GCE A-Level	0.470	8.8	0.518	9.7	0.208	4.7	0.250	5.7
Degree	0.186	2.9	0.223	3.5	-0.124	-2.1	-0.084	-1.5
Post-graduate	-0.453	-3.3	-0.396	-2.9	-0.844	-5.8	-0.785	-5.4
Potential experience	-0.116	-33.9	-0.113	-33.3	-0.136	-39.8	-0.134	-39.3
Potexp-squared	0.003	13.7	0.002	13.2	0.003	19.3	0.003	18.8
Potexp-cubed	0.000	-7.2	0.000	-6.8	0.000	-11.7	0.000	-11.3
Formal training	0.146	10.0			0.091	6.0		
Informal training	-0.012	-0.4			-0.060	-2.2		
For. training duration			0.007	0.9			-0.020	-2.2
Infor. training duration			-0.040	-1.8			-0.061	-2.8
Urban	-0.024	-1.4	-0.024	-1.5	-0.021	-1.2	-0.020	-1.2
Province								
Central	0.161	9.0	0.159	8.9	0.115	6.4	0.114	6.3
Southern	0.293	16.6	0.287	16.2	0.273	15.3	0.268	15.0
North-West	-0.034	-1.6	-0.042	-2.0	-0.004	-0.2	-0.010	-0.5
North-Central	-0.112	-4.4	-0.120	-4.7	0.043	1.8	0.035	1.5
Uva	-0.108	-3.9	-0.109	-4.0	-0.116	-4.2	-0.117	-4.3
Sabaragamuwa	0.156	7.3	0.152	7.2	0.126	5.9	0.123	5.7
Share of public jobs	0.990	5.6	0.997	5.6	0.780	4.4	0.785	4.5
Constant	-0.011	-0.2	-0.012	-0.2	0.406	6.9	0.401	6.8
Sample size	151,763		151,763		145,110		145,110	
Pseudo R-squared	0.2623		0.2613		0.257		0.256	

Source: World Bank estimates. Calculated from the Labor Force Surveys 1992, 1997 and 2002.

Note: Model estimated by probit regressions, including dummy variables for LFS years.

of sons, but neutral with respect to the training of daughters.<sup>37</sup> Finally, consistent with the trends noted earlier, there is a secularly rising trend over time in the training of males, especially formal training, but no apparent time trend in training for females.

#### 5.4 Training and Labor Market Outcomes

5.39. What are the labor market outcomes of these investments in post-school training? Chief among the labor market outcomes of policy interest are unemployment, job search and earnings. Specifically,

policymakers are keenly interested in the effects of training on (i) the probability of experiencing an unemployment spell last week; (ii) length of time spent in job search, or the school-to-work transition; and (iii) monthly earnings, and how the returns to training compare to those for formal schooling.

37. To see this, note that the marginal impact of mother's education on training of males (sons) is 0.028 while that of father's education is 0.018; for females (daughters), the corresponding marginal impact is 0.011, identical for mother's and father's education. For some individuals-renters, relatives, households without parents-education of parents is not known, and missing value indicators are included to take this into account.

Also of interest in each of these areas is whether the labor market effects of training vary by type of training-formal or informal-and duration of training.

#### *Impact of Training on Probability of Unemployment*

5.40. The analysis of the probability of unemployment uses two alternative measures of unemployment defined by the LFS. The first one-termed “unemployed”-is based on whether individuals are available and/or actively looking for work, and who did no work during the past week. The second measure-termed “usually unemployed”-refers to a person who was looking or available for work for the major part of the past year. An enumeration of work and availability for work/job search for each of the past 12 months is used to classify individuals as usually employed, usually unemployed or usually not economically active. The second measure-by averaging over a 12 month period-may provide a more robust characterization of work status as compared to the conventional unemployment measure, which is a snapshot in time.

5.41. A probit model is used to relate unemployment probability to a set of individual and location attributes, including level of educational

attainment, a flexible (cubic) measure of years of potential work experience since schooling completion, receipt of training measured either by formal and informal training indicator variables or by training duration, location in an urban area and by province, and year dummy variables to capture secular trends in unemployment levels. In addition, the model includes a variable representing the proportion of all jobs that are in the public sector, which varies both across provinces and over time.<sup>38</sup> This measure allows us to address the hypothesis that unemployment rates are high because individuals queue up for public sector employment which pays not only higher wages but also better benefits. The regression results are reported in Table 5.8 above, separately for each of the two measures of unemployment.

5.42. The results are broadly similar irrespective of whether the reference period is last week or last year. First, males are significantly less likely (by about 37 percent) to experience unemployment as compared to females. Second, compared to those without schooling (the omitted group), the probability of unemployment appears to rise with level of schooling attainment, peaking at GCE A-levels, and falling for degree graduates and post-graduates. Third, probabilities of

unemployment decline (at a decreasing rate) with years of potential work experience, which might be expected if longer search time yields better information about job opportunities and an exit from unemployment. Fourth, urban location is not statistically important but there are large differences across provinces. Compared to the Western Province, unemployment probabilities are higher in the Central, Sabaragamuwa and Southern provinces, and lower in the North-Central, North-Western and Uva Provinces. Finally, there is a strong positive association between unemployment probabilities and the share of public sector jobs in the province. It is unclear, however, which way the causality runs.

5.43. The effects of post-school training on unemployment probabilities are mixed. When (0,1) indicator variables for training are included, the effects of formal training on unemployment are invariably positive and statistically significant, while those for informal training are negative, though significant only in the “usually unemployed” regressions. When training is measured using duration of training, which distinguishes between incidental and substantive kinds of training, both formal and informal

38. The LFS identifies jobs as being public or private sector. The share of public sector jobs can thus be computed by dividing public sector jobs by job totals, separately by province and year.

training are negative and statistically significant in the “usually unemployed” regressions. These mixed results may arise because the model constrains the unemployment-experience profiles to be the same for everyone, so that training can only affect overall levels of unemployment but not unemployment experience profiles. This is clearly not the case, as was suggested by the earlier analysis using pseudo-cohort data. There, Table 5.6 showed that training is associated with steeper unemployment-experience profiles, implying that unemployment probabilities fall more rapidly with potential experience for individuals with training than for those without training.

#### *Impact of Training on School to Work Transition*

5.44. A second area of policy concern is the long time many youth spend in job search between leaving school and finding employment. For example, according to the 2002 LFS, almost 85 percent of youth aged 15-29 years that are currently unemployed report not ever having a job. This figure rises from about 75 percent for lower secondary passes to

almost 95 percent for university graduates. While these figures highlight the seriousness of this issue, they can be misleading: they mix more and less educated youth with different years of potential work experience and thus time spent in job search, and they ignore the fact that other youth are employed, and may have found employment soon after schooling completion.

5.45. In this section, information from different questions in the LFS are assembled, and the pooled LFS data from 1996-2002 reshaped, to provide more balanced insights into the school-to-work transitions of youth with different levels of schooling attainment, and to address the question of whether technical and vocational training facilitates this transition. The LFS, in its current form, is not well designed to study school to work transitions. So the challenge here is to determine the date of first recorded employment<sup>39</sup> for each individual with a given level of education, from which the time taken from schooling completion to first employment can be calculated. Beginning in 1996, the LFS asked the employed how long they have

been on their current job, so the start date of that job can be ascertained.<sup>40</sup> For the unemployed, the LFS asked whether they have ever had a job and, if so, how long it had been since the previous job.<sup>41</sup> If the prior job is assumed to be of similar duration as those held by their currently employed peers (about 2 years), then this information and the intervening unemployment spell can be used to determine the start date of the previous job. For those who have never had a job, the duration of search for a first job is still ongoing (or censored). Finally, an adjustment is made to search time for those with technical and vocational training-time spent in training is subtracted to reflect their withdrawal from active job search while undergoing training.

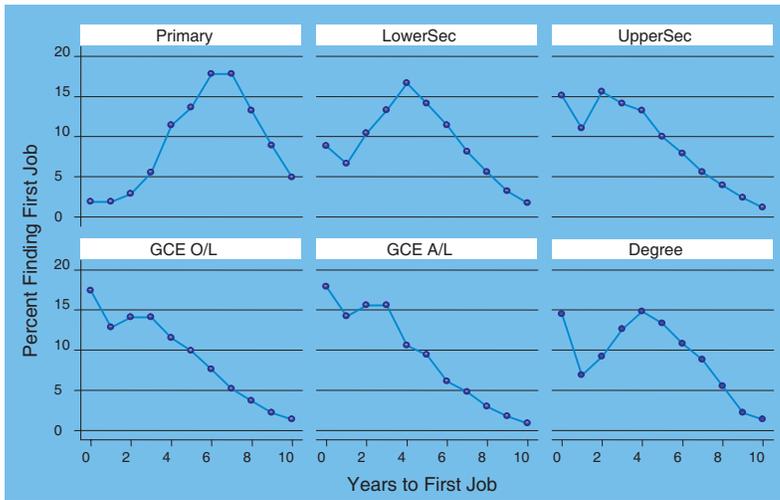
5.46. These calculation were done for a sample of 39,000 individuals from the 1996-2002 LFS, restricted to those with some schooling up to university graduates, and with 0-10 years of potential work experience so as to keep the focus on youth. Figure 5.4 presents graphically the resulting distributions of time-to-employment for different

39. We caution that the first “recorded” employment is not necessarily the first job; some individuals may have had several jobs prior to the recorded job, so time-to-first “recorded” job may overstate duration of job search. But it is the **only** employment spell for which information is available. It may be desirable to revise the LFS to elicit explicitly year of labor market entry and year of first job.

40. The 1996 LFS also started eliciting detailed information on years of schooling from which more precise schooling completion dates can be calculated.

41. The intervening unemployment spell is reported in several intervals, ranging from several months to an open ended 5 or more years. Some assumptions are needed to impute duration (in years) of unemployment to these categories.

**Figure 5.4 Time-To-First-Job by Level of Schooling**



Graph by Edlvi

levels of schooling.<sup>42</sup> Several points emerge from this figure. First, those with the lowest levels of schooling attainment—primary and lower secondary passes—are more likely to face protracted job search before securing their first employment. Their distributions of time-to-first-employment are concentrated around 4-7 years after schooling completion. Second, most of those with upper secondary schooling and with GCE O-level or A-level qualifications find their first job fairly soon after schooling completion. Their distributions of time-to-first-job are concentrated around 0-4 years,

tapering off with time in the labor market. Finally, the school-to-work transition of degree graduates appears to resemble more that of youth with lower secondary schooling than that of the GCE A-level qualified. The distribution of time-to-employment is bi-modal - some find a job within the first year, while many others appear to take longer, about 3-5 years after graduation from university.<sup>43</sup>

5.47. These figures do not control for other factors that may also shape school-to-work transitions, such as gender, household characteristics, location and receipt of post-

school technical and vocational training. The joint effects of schooling attainment and these other factors on time-to-employment can be studied within a regression framework that accounts explicitly for the fact that one part of the sample is still actively searching for the first job, that is, with incomplete (censored) time-to-employment.<sup>44</sup> Table 5.9 reports the results of estimating this regression model for the sample of youth as a whole, and separately by training status, so as to investigate how receipt of technical and vocational training affects school-to-work transitions.

5.48. Table 5.9 makes the following points. Compared to youth with primary schooling, more educated groups find employment after school completion much faster though, as suggested by Figure 5.4, degree graduates are more like those with lower secondary than (say) those with GCE O or A-level qualifications. Gender differences are important, and males find employment faster than females; a contributing factor to this gender gap may be marital status, since marriage is

42. Note that these graphs understate time-to-first-job because they include ongoing (censored) job search for the sample of unemployed youth that have still not found employment at the time of LFS enumeration.
43. These distributions of time-to-employment appear to tell a consistent story about how low levels of schooling attainment disadvantage youth in their job search while higher level school qualifications facilitate the school-to-work transition. But the job search of degree graduates stands apart - many experience fairly long job search before finding employment. Are the durations of job search reasonable? The mean time-to-employment is fairly long, and may suggest that individuals are not reporting prior employment accurately, for example, ignoring casual work and reporting only formal jobs; another contributing factor is the assumption that the first “recorded” employment is also the first job, which would tend to overstate time-to-first job.
44. Survival models are ideally suited for studying the determinants of time to a failure event, in this case time taken to find a job after schooling completion, and accommodating censored spells of job search. Such models may be fit using alternative distributional assumptions about the underlying process, but the one used here is the lognormal distribution.

**Table 5.9 School to Work Transitions with and without Training**

Dependent variable: Time-to-Employment	All Youth		Without Training		With Training	
	Coefficient	z-stat	Coefficient	z-stat	Coefficient	z-stat
Lower secondary	-0.329	-15.6	-0.340	-15.8	-0.166	-1.7
Upper secondary	-0.471	-24.2	-0.492	-24.7	-0.294	-3.1
GCE O-Level	-0.434	-21.0	-0.448	-20.9	-0.284	-3.0
GCE A-Level	-0.454	-20.8	-0.445	-19.4	-0.350	-3.6
Degree	-0.340	-10.8	-0.276	-8.1	-0.459	-4.2
Formal training	-0.069	-6.0				
Informal training	-0.106	-5.2				
Male	-0.070	-8.1	-0.069	-7.3	-0.077	-4.0
Married	0.113	9.6	0.136	10.4	0.028	1.0
Urban	0.030	2.9	0.049	4.1	-0.040	-1.8
Province						
Central	0.027	2.1	0.017	1.2	0.059	2.1
South	0.177	13.1	0.169	11.1	0.190	6.5
North-West	-0.029	-2.0	-0.032	-2.1	-0.036	-1.0
North-Central	-0.072	-4.4	-0.098	-5.5	0.026	0.7
Uva	-0.048	-2.9	-0.086	-4.6	0.111	3.0
Sabaragamuwa	0.114	7.9	0.099	6.1	0.161	5.1
Constant	1.964	54.0	1.979	50.2	1.771	14.7
Sample size	33,206		26,274		6,932	
Number finding jobs	24,605		19,678		4,927	

Source: World Bank estimates. Based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Labor Force Survey.

Notes: The regressions are estimated by maximum likelihood using a parametric survival-time model fit with a lognormal distribution. About one-quarter of the sample were censored. The regression model included control variables for parental education and for LFS years.

associated with delayed time-to-employment. Location also matters: job search is longer in urban areas, and relative to the Western Province, also longer in the Central, South and Sabaragamuwa Provinces. Finally, year dummy variables (not reported here) indicate that overall length of job search has declined over time in parallel with falling unemployment rates.

5.49. What about the effects of training? The first column of Table 5.9 indicates that formal and informal training are both associated with shorter job

search time, with informal training appearing to have a larger impact (-0.10) than formal or certificated training (-0.07). The second and third columns, reporting results estimated separately by training status, make the additional point that while having more education reduces time to employment for both groups, the impact of education is more pronounced for the group with training. To see this, compare the relative contributions of different levels of education to shortening time-to-employment - in the group without training, this peaks with the upper secondary group; in

contrast, in the group with training the contribution rises linearly with level of education to a peak at degree level. In other words, education and training interact positively to reduce time spent in job search.

#### *Impact of Training on Monthly Wages*

5.50. The final outcome considered is the impact of technical and vocational training on monthly wages and salaries. The LFS only elicits income information for the sample of individuals in wage and salary employment, so this analysis is restricted to the sample of about

29,000 employees in the pooled 1992-2002 LFS time-series.<sup>45</sup> Monthly wages are deflated by the consumer price index into 2002 real wages, and expressed in logarithmic terms as is common in the earnings function literature.<sup>46</sup>

5.51. The wage analysis addresses several questions: What are the returns to technical and vocational training, and how do they compare to the returns to general education? For this comparison, training duration in months is converted into year-equivalents like years of schooling.<sup>47</sup> Are the returns to formal certificated training similar to or greater than those to informal training? This question is particularly pertinent given the trend towards more formalized forms of training in recent years. And finally, how are the different kinds of training rewarded in the public sector versus the private sector? The private sector may demand (reward more highly) different kinds of technical and vocational skills, including specific skills, that may not necessarily be certificated, at least by public sector providers. To address this latter question, wage regressions are estimated separately for public and private sector employees.

5.52. Table 5.10 reports the results of wage regressions including control variables for gender, a quadratic measure of years of potential work experience, principal industry of employment, public sector job (in some specifications), urban location, province, and year dummy variables to capture time trends in overall real wage increases.

The results in Table 5.10 suggest the following findings:

- The returns to an additional year of general schooling (9.0 percent) are higher than a year of any technical or vocational training (6.6 percent). One caveat is that participation in training programs (especially informal training) may not be on a full-time basis, which would tend to under-state the returns to training.
- Overall, the returns to formal certificated training (7.0 percent) are usually higher than those to informal training (4.4 percent). This may partially reflect the fact that most informal training is taken by those with the lowest levels of schooling attainment,

while the more educated tend to favor formal training.

However, the rewards to formal and informal training varies dramatically across sectors. In public sector employment, formal training is highly valued (returns of 7.6 percent) but informal training is actually penalized (-38 percent), perhaps because it is associated with menial jobs by those with low levels of education. In contrast, the private sector appears to value formal and informal training equally. Comparing returns, informal kinds of training may actually have the edge (7.1 percent) over formal training (6.7 percent), though the differences may not be statistically significant.

Several other findings are noteworthy. First, there are wage premiums associated with employment in urban areas (15 percent) and in the public sector (9 percent). Second, wage levels are higher in the Western Province (the omitted category) than in

45. The wage and salary information used in this analysis is not adjusted for weeks or hours worked, and does not include small payments in kind.

46. Within a human capital model framework, the log (wage) specification allows the coefficient estimates of years of education and training to be interpreted as the rate of return to investments.

47. Unlike general education, which is full-time, some training programs may be taken on a part-time basis, which would tend to overstate the time spent in training and thus under-estimate the returns to training.

**Table 5.10 Returns to Training For Wage and Salary Employees by Sector**

Dependent variable: Log(monthly wage)	All Sectors		Public Sector				Private Sector	
	Coef.	t-stat	Coef.	t-stat	Coef.	t-stat	Coef.	t-stat
<b>Training</b>								
Years-Any training	0.0664	6.8	n.a.		n.a.		n.a.	
Years-Formal training			0.0704	6.7	0.0766	4.7	0.0668	5.0
Years-Informal training			0.0444	1.9	-0.3770	-3.6	0.0707	2.9
<b>Other attributes</b>								
Years of schooling	0.0904	26.4	0.0901	26.2	0.0832	11.4	0.0923	23.4
Male	0.0993	6.3	0.1000	6.3	0.1983	6.1	0.0610	3.3
Potential Experience	0.1059	9.5	0.1058	9.5	0.1597	5.4	0.1027	8.4
Experience-squared	-0.0043	-4.6	-0.0043	-4.6	-0.0075	-3.3	-0.0042	-4.0
<b>Province</b>								
Central	-0.1367	-6.1	-0.1365	-6.1	-0.1264	-2.8	-0.1317	-5.2
South	-0.1826	-7.6	-0.1821	-7.6	-0.1125	-2.3	-0.1972	-7.1
North-West	-0.0656	-3.0	-0.0652	-2.9	0.0226	0.5	-0.0886	-3.5
North-Central	-0.0816	-2.4	-0.0806	-2.4	0.0322	0.6	-0.1378	-3.2
Uva	-0.2079	-6.1	-0.2073	-6.0	-0.2006	-3.2	-0.2135	-5.2
Sabaragamuwa	-0.2487	-10.1	-0.2482	-10.1	-0.1286	-2.5	-0.2833	-10.1
Urban location	0.1515	8.0	0.1513	8.0	0.0509	1.3	0.1768	8.3
Public sector job	0.0909	3.2	0.0903	3.2	n.a.		n.a.	
Constant	6.3251	110.1	6.3275	110.1	6.1459	41.9	6.3439	98.3
Number observations	29102		29102		6,742		2,360	
Adjusted R-square	0.1001		0.1001		0.0755		0.0910	

Note: Regression models are estimated by ordinary least squares (OLS) methods. They include dummy variables for principal industry groups, and year dummy variables. The full set of coefficient estimates are available from the author.

the rest of the country. Finally, though not reported in the table, there is a secular rise in real wages over time between 1992 and 1998, with some slippage in real wage gains thereafter.

## 5.5 Conclusions and Implications for the Future

5.53. The general education and TEVT sectors are intimately linked with respect to the labor market. The TEVT sector intermediates between the skills that the general educational sector provides school leavers

and the skills that the labor market demands, providing technical and vocational training as needed to facilitate the school to work transition for youth. As the preceding analysis showed, the TEVT sector has not always addressed this skills demand-supply gap well or in a coordinated fashion. But policymakers have recognized the problem, and have over time proposed numerous initiatives to rationalize the TEVT sector, address regional inequities in training, and better coordinate the TEVT policy framework; this reform process is still a work-in-progress. Monitoring

and evaluation of training institutions and their course offerings is nascent, and limited by incomplete and poor data, especially about training by private sector training providers and employers, and by the absence of an evaluation culture. The sector's limited interactions with the general education sector also precludes it from having a more active role in providing schools and guidance counselors with information about training and labor market employment opportunities.

5.54. The preceding analysis also highlighted the potential of the Sri Lanka Labor Force

Survey to provide policy-relevant insights into training trends, and the links between general education, post-school training, and labor market outcomes. It showed that schooling and training are complements, namely, that more educated school leavers receive more technical and vocational training. It highlighted the significant impact of training on reducing the probability of unemployment, and in facilitating the school-to-work transition. And it demonstrated that investments in both education and training yield relatively high returns in the form of higher earnings. But many issues of policy interest could not be addressed, or addressed well, with the existing LFS, including the relative benefits of training by public versus private sector providers, the adequacy of in-service skills development by employers, or rigorous panel analysis of labor market behavior around youth unemployment.

5.55. The ability of policymakers to monitor and evaluate the performance of the TEVT sector, or more broadly, to pilot and rigorously evaluate a range of labor market interventions (including training) to address the problems of youth unemployment and national competitiveness, will require improvements to its data collection system. Some suggestions follow:

- Computerize all student enrollment and program records for all TEVT institutions to facilitate tracking and evaluating the performance of trainees, for use in tracer studies as part of a continuous M&E system.
- Enforce the mandatory reporting requirements of all private sector and NGO training providers to give the TVEC and policymakers a more complete view of the total TEVT sector.
- Include questions on employer-provided or organized training in the information to be enumerated in all establishment surveys and census conducted by the Department of Census and Statistics, as many other industrialized and developing country statistical agencies have done.
- Improve the training questions in the LFS instrument by distinguishing further between public sector and private sector provision of training, whether trained while unemployed or in-service, allowing for more than one training event, and dating receipt of training event(s). Other relatively simple changes to date schooling completion, labor market entry and key events would greatly improve analysis of school-to-work transitions.
- Employ a rotating panel sampling approach in the LFS so individuals can be tracked over 12 months to study how behavior and outcomes change over time. This approach is increasingly being used in both industrialized and developing countries, and can readily be accommodated within the existing LFS sampling framework. This would facilitate study of school-to-work transitions and training outcomes. Furthermore, the rotating panel feature will allow researchers and policymakers to create comparison groups for use as control groups in the evaluation of training programs and other labor market interventions.
- Improve LFS survey & training questions.

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