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ABSTRACT

This meeting was held to review current educational planning with special reference to problems and difficulties confronting Asian countries, to study steps for better enforceable educational plans for development, and to seek solutions applicable to countries at varying stages of development. Three speeches deal with problems and trends in educational planning in general; while seven speeches discuss educational planning in its current state in the seven participating Asian States -- The Republic of China, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand. The report highlights the problem areas in educational planning as viewed by the conference participants: (1) planning for qualitative change, (2) the implementation of educational plans, (3) planning mechanisms and relationships to general development planners and finance officials, and (4) resource allocation. Specific recommendations for future action in the field of educational planning at regional and national levels are presented. The document includes the conference agenda, the prospectus, conference addresses, and a list of conference participants. (Author/DN)

MEETING OF EXPERTS ON EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN ASIA

Tokyo, 25 November - 1 December 1970

FINAL REPORT

JAPANESE NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR UNESCO

1971

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

The Meeting of Experts on Educational Planning in Asia, held in Tokyo from 25 November to 1 December 1970, was organized by the Japanese National Commission for Unesco with the financial assistance from Unesco under the participation programme.

At the invitation of the Japanese National Commission for Unesco, the following six Member States in Asia participated in the Meeting: Republic of China, Indonesia, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand. Japan, the host country, had three participants. Outstanding scholars in the field of educational planning, Dr. C. Edward Beeby from New Zealand and Dr. Gabriel Betancur-Mejia from Colombia, were also invited to the Meeting. The Director-General of Unesco was represented by Dr. Jerry B. Bolibaugh, a staff member of the Department of Planning and Financing of Education. The Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration was represented by the Director, Prof. M.V. Mathur. A full list of participants is shown in Annex VIII.

The objectives of the Meeting were firstly to review current educational planning with special reference to problems and difficulties with which the Asian countries are confronted, such as plan implementation, project development and co-ordination of financing of educational programmes, and secondly to study steps for better and enforceable educational plans for development, and to seek solutions applicable to countries at varying stages of development.

OUTLINE OF PROCEEDINGS

The opening ceremony of the Meeting was held at 9:30 a.m. on 25 November at the Tokyo Prince Hotel. In his opening address, Mr. Ryoji Ito, Secretary-General of the Japanese National Commission for Unesco, extended to the participants a warm welcome to Japan and stressed the importance of educational planning for the educational development in the Asian region. He expressed the hope that the recommendations to be adopted at the end of the Meeting would be brought to the attention of the third Regional Conference of Ministers of Education in Asia to be held in 1971.

Dr. Jerry B. Bolibaugh, Unesco representative, stated in his address that the Meeting is very timely to enrich our insights into problems, trends and potential solutions of educational planning.

The Meeting elected the following officers:

Chairman:	Prof. M.V. Mathur (Asian Institute)
Vice-Chairman:	Prof. Shigeo Masui (Japan)
Rapporteur:	Dr. Jerry B. Bolibaugh (Unesco)

The work of the Meeting started with a presentation by Dr. J.B. Bolibaugh on "Some Major Problem Areas and Emerging Trends of Educational Planning," a full text

of which is seen in Annex IV. This was followed by country reports presented by experts from the seven participating Asian Member States, and the subsequent discussion on problems referred to in each of the reports. All the reports are reproduced in Annex VII. The Meeting then had two keynote speeches by the eminent experts from outside the region, Dr. C.E. Beeby and Dr. G. Betancur-Mejia, on recent trends on educational planning. Full texts of these speeches are given in Annex V and VI respectively.

The Meeting then proceeded to identifying the real problems and difficulties which are in the way of the desired implementation of educational planning in Asian countries.

Major problem areas identified after discussion were as follows:

1. Planning for qualitative change.
2. The implementation of educational plans.
3. Planning mechanisms and relationships to general development planners and finance officials.
4. Resource allocation.
5. Rural and life-long education.

Because of the limitation of time available and of the broadness of the problem, the participants later agreed to eliminate the last item in spite of its important implications for educational planning. The remaining four major problems were dealt with in the subsequent five sessions from Thursday 26 afternoon to Monday 30 November, except Saturday and Sunday. A summary of the discussions on the major problem areas is shown in the following chapter.

In the weekend, with a view to making firsthand observation on the present situation of technical education in Japan, a school visit was organized on Saturday morning, 28 November, to the Tokyo Metropolitan Karasuyama Technical Upper Secondary School. Furthermore, an organized over night trip to Kyoto, ancient capital of Japan, was made from Saturday afternoon, 28 to Sunday 29 November in order to know more about the Japanese tradition and culture, visiting places of historical and cultural interests.

The concluding part of the Meeting was devoted to the formulation of specific recommendations for future action in the field of educational planning at regional basis as well as national basis.

A SUMMARY OF DISCUSSION POINTS – MAJOR PROBLEM AREAS

INTRODUCTION

Following the formal presentations and subsequent discussions, the participants decided to base their analysis of problems within the following related areas: I. Planning for qualitative change; II. The implementation of educational plans; III. Planning mechanisms and relationships to general development planners and finance officials; and IV. Resource allocation.

An attempt has been made to summarize in concise but general form, the views expressed by the participants on issues raised under each topical heading. Due to the limitations of discussion time, not all dimensions of the topics could be explored. Nevertheless, many observations as well as specific illustrations have been omitted in order to keep the length of the report at a minimum. Finally, it must be recognized that the process of synthesis and generalization tends to reduce the significance and impact of the fruitful exchanges which took place between the participants.

I. PLANNING FOR QUALITATIVE CHANGE

1. A fundamental difficulty for educational planners within this major problem area consists in lack of experience of dealing with qualitative changes since the planning endeavors of the past have been largely of a quantitative nature. Not only is it necessary to define precisely the meaning of quality, but to identify ways to improve it.

2. Qualitative improvement may be considered in terms of internal and external criteria.

2.1 The internal aspect implies determining the degree to which an individual school, schools of a given type and level, and finally, the system as whole, are meeting their objectives. Thus, outcomes should be measured against objectives with the process variables such as management operations, personnel, structure and curricula (content and methods), and facilities (including equipment) subject to change.

A number of problems exist concerning internal analysis and improvement: objectives are not always clear consistent or measurable, outcomes in terms of drop-out and graduate student performance in the real world are difficult to determine, and the changing of the process involves altering human behavior and administrative tradition as well as physical and technological components. A considerable amount of time, cost, widespread participation and effective communication, are involved.

2.2 External criteria may be stated in various ways. Generally, they could involve categories such as: (1) productivity, (2) democratic ends, (3) humanistic outcomes. Obviously, productivity may clash with democratic ends since the scarcity of resources demand a selectivity in developing countries with priority upon productivity over social demand for educational opportunity. Further, humanistic ends may be a matter of dispute.

Within this context, educational planning bodies must develop a capacity to assess socio-political realities in order to prepare a realistic plan of qualitative change.

3. The planning and implementation of qualitative improvement within the private school sectors are particularly difficult because governments frequently lack adequate

relations and effective communication with private education groups.

Various means for governments to improve quality within the private education sector include financial subsidy, inspection, accreditation, national examinations, the establishment of standards through legislation, and the placement of public officials on the governing boards of private institutions.

4. The cost implications of qualitative change are likely to be significant and alternative plan measures must be investigated in order to maximize results at minimal costs. In this respect, the multiplier effect plays an important role.

5. Occasionally, plans for qualitative improvement have had to be abandoned when unanticipated quantitative expansion has consumed the resources allocated for the former. Among other implications, this demonstrates a need for a more thorough, coordinated and continuous process of qualitative/quantitative planning, implementation, evaluation and adjustment.

II. THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EDUCATIONAL PLANS

1. Pre-requisites for successful implementation include: (1) the preparation of realistic plans which implies a compromise between a theoretical ideal and social, economic and professional constraints; (2) the involvement in the planning process of those responsible for plan implementation; and (3) a systematic cultivation of attitudes favourable to change among professional and lay groups with particular attention to public information personnel.

2. As suggested above, plans constitute instruments of change and thereby create social stress or tension. Planners must be sensitive to the value of both positive and negative incentives as motivators of attitudinal change and utilize them selectively to facilitate plan implementation. Positive incentives are reward-oriented while negative incentives are largely of a threatening or punitive nature.

Similarly, planners should identify change facilitating agents as well as potential constraining forces to implementation. For example, parental opinion generally represents a positive force while vested interests normally act as constraints to change. Obviously, planners must develop means to maximize the positive forces and to minimize the constraining ones.

3. While planners should be sensitive to public opinion concerning the needs of education, that opinion may be too diversified to provide clear indicators for educational planning and implementation. It is important that planners take the initiative in leading public opinion and in presenting the issues so that the readiness for acceptance and implementation of the plan is optimized.

4. Frequently, educational plans have been too broad and ambitious to be implemented. Sophisticated plans involve a selection of priorities with the greatest multiplier

potential. On the other hand, experience has indicated that planners may tend to become overly optimistic in the anticipated results of multiplier activities.

5. To be implemented successfully, plans should be based upon specific objectives derived from more fundamental national policy objectives and contain an internal consistency and clarity from the broadest policy statements to the specific operational activities. Wherever possible, the sequency and timing of related programmes and activities should be estimated and indicated in plan documents.

III. PLANNING MECHANISMS AND RELATIONSHIPS TO GENERAL DEVELOPMENT PLANNERS AND FINANCE OFFICIALS

1. The organizational characteristics of educational planning mechanisms vary necessarily according to the national socio-economic environment.

1.1 In cases where the responsibilities for various types and levels of education are dispersed among several national-level ministries or agencies, a national educational planning unit to provide leadership and coordination appears necessary. This type of unit might assume various forms such as that of a semi-autonomous agency responsible directly to the Office of the Prime Minister or to a national overall planning agency. On the other hand, it may constitute a section within a national overall planning agency.

In these instances, second-level national planning units within the pertinent individual ministries and equivalent agencies are essential to conduct the more specific planning requirements based upon the policies and plans developed at the higher level. Obviously, a close working relationship must be developed and maintained between all hierarchical and horizontal units engaged in educational planning. This association should include general development planners and finance officials.

1.2 Where a national ministry or department of education is responsible for most types of educational training, a single planning unit at the top staff level within the ministry may be adequate. However, in such cases, a need exists for an external body to formulate fundamental policy and objectives as well as to evaluate the planning and implementation endeavours of the Ministry. Further, given the awareness to coordinate more effectively formal and out-of-school education, a coordinating mechanism or function between pertinent governmental and non-governmental bodies may be necessary. As indicated above, general planners and finance officials should be involved continuously in order to facilitate consistency with general planning and ensure the necessary financial support.

When a single national planning unit exists, there may be a tendency for that unit to become too large. This requires an analysis of alternative ways to implement the functional requirements of educational planning. For example, the more complex and long-term research activities may be allocated to research-oriented organ-

izations on a contract basis while, as suggested previously, policy formulation and the evaluation of outcomes in relation to policy might be a function of an agency external to the ministry or department of education.

2. Regardless of the characteristics of educational planning bodies, certain principles may be generalized. For example, the growing scope and methodology of educational planning, as well as the quantitative expansion of education, have increased the complexities of the planning and management endeavour to the extent that an inter-disciplinary team approach, involving a variety of hierarchical and horizontal operations, is necessary. Within this context, the implications of such terms as coordination and communication effectiveness, research and evaluation, the viability of alternatives or planning in terms of implementational feasibility, feedback and adjustment indicate the need to apply modern management principles and practices to one of the largest enterprises in any country, the system of education.

3. Wherever possible, the improvement of educational management should be brought about through internal national arrangements; however, where necessary, external management consultant firms with an understanding of the inter-workings and purposes of education systems as well as cross-cultural experiences, should be employed in order to expedite the effectiveness of educational systems.

4. A major problem of managerial effectiveness consists in the inability of planners who are civil servants to have direct widespread communication linkage with public opinion; in this respect, relatively autonomous institutes of evaluation and research may serve a most useful purpose.

5. Educational planning personnel may be divided into technical and general categories based upon function. Technical personnel are those who perform generally within their own specialization, such as statistics, while the educational planner per se tends to be an overall designer and coordinator, and hence a generalist with a varied experience in line and staff functions with a conversant ability in a number of technical specializations, as well as a sensitivity to political and bureaucratic realities.

IV. RESOURCE ALLOCATION

1. Resource allocation represents one of the most complex and hence difficult problems of educational planners. To some extent, this depends upon whether the national conception of education is oriented primarily toward the consumer or investment attitude. In either case, competition with other social service or economic development sectors constitutes a problem for planners.

2. Another representative problem is the restrictions of traditional budgetary practices, which may imply a rigid policy against the transfer of funds between categories, as well as expenditure deadlines resulting in questionable last-minute expenditures or the

lost of sorely needed funds. Obviously, the particular problems involved vary from country to country according to national practices and policy differences for recurrent or routine budgets as opposed to development or capital budgets, but the principle of ineffective utilization or loss of scarce resources applies generally to most national situations.

3. A related constraint is the relative inefficiency of the management and instructional aspects of education systems. This implies that planners must include qualitative as well as quantitative measures in educational plans.

4. The problem of resource allocation may be minimized through a number of ways. A major strategy for a ministry of education is to share the responsibility for education and training with governmental and non-governmental organizations ranging from such ministries as those of defense and agriculture to private industries and parental organizations. Further, external multi-lateral and bi-lateral sources are frequently under-employed as resources. Other means include the decentralization of control and a related increase in local taxation for education, a graduated tuition fee system based upon family income, and perhaps most important, an improvement of the internal efficiency and, thereby, achieve quantitative expansion without increased funding.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

In formulating the recommendations below, the participants limited themselves primarily to the four major problem areas discussed previously. Due to the restrictions of time, such topics as modern instructional technology and life-long education were avoided in spite of their many implications for educational planning. Indeed, within the four broad problem areas, it was recognized that in-depth discussions of highly technical and complex matters could not be undertaken. The recommendations are necessarily general in character, but their implications are many and significant.

1. In order to improve educational planning in the Asian region, it is recommended that a working group be formed in order to study the feasibility of organizing:

(i) a regional exchange of fundamental education indicators as a basis for comparative studies leading to the identification of the unique development characteristics of different countries. Awareness of such unique features should enable educational planners and policy-makers to formulate more realistic plans.

(ii) periodic country review meetings, conducted at the request of a Member State of the region. Including external experts and national policy-making, planning-management personnel, the participants would review specific educational policies as proposed by the country in order to determine realistic means to modify or improve educational policy in view of national aims and objectives. This activity would be of benefit to all of the participating countries in addition to being of

service to the requesting nation.

2. The participants recommend that more active steps be taken, at both the national and international levels, to study experiments in the improvements of education within the Asian region in order to discover the degree of success they have achieved, and to analyse the reasons for their success or failure, as well as the involved costs. When the conclusions are made public, they will enable every country to benefit from the experience of every other. It is suggested that such investigations might best be undertaken under the auspices of Unesco, the Asian Institute and such national research institutions as the Japanese N.I.E.R.

3. The participants suggest to Unesco that it express officially its opinion that an institute of educational research is essential to good educational planning, and that it recommend Member States lacking such facilities establish the necessary organization as a matter of urgency.

4. Educational plans should be conceived and stated in realistic terms; this implies a compromise between a theoretical ideal and socio-economic and professional constraints. Further, long- and short-term plans should be consistent and stated in operational terms.

To this end, greater efforts should be made by national governments and international organizations to secure improved mutual understanding and a closer cooperation between educational administrators and the theorists and practitioners of educational planning. In addition, it is important that teachers and heads of educational institutions have an understanding of planning and administration as well as a sense of involvement if plans are to be implemented successfully at the instructional and institutional level.

5. Governments are urged to develop modern management structures and techniques within their educational organizations with particular emphasis upon the promotion of effective communication. If they lack a national capability, in this regard governments should engage management consultant groups as a means of expediting the improvement of educational systems, provided such groups are sufficiently conversant with the characteristics of educational systems and have had ample opportunity to study conditions of the country.

6. In order to attract and retain highly competent managerial staff within their education systems, it is recommended that governments focus increased attention upon constructive personnel policies and practices, including the identification and recruitment of young talent, continuous in-service training, and more continuity or stability in the performance of critical functions.

7. It is recommended that educational planners and decision-makers intensify their efforts to improve education through such strategies as;

(i) securing additional credits and grants through multi- and bi-lateral agencies

including the Asian Development Bank;

(ii) obtaining the right to carry over from one fiscal year to the next unexpended budgetary allocations for education;

(iii) involving deliberately a range of governmental agencies and non-governmental organizations, such as private industry and parental groups, in sharing certain aspects and responsibilities of the national education mechanism to ensure effective coordination between them;

(iv) creating incentives such as the matching fund system.

8. Educational policy-makers and planners are urged to focus increasing attention upon the improvement of educational opportunity and quality in rural areas within the framework of comprehensive rural development plans. This special focus appears necessary due to the complexity of the problems as well as the inadequacies of past plans in many countries to deal with them.

9. Participants stress the grave difficulties in their countries of achieving a proper balance between the production of educated manpower and the economic development that can make effective use of it. Therefore, it is recommended that governments give special attention to the complex problems of achieving the mutual adjustments between education and economic development that will avoid shortages of educated manpower the one hand and educated unemployment on the other

10. The participants recommend the Japanese National Commission for Unesco, the Unesco Secretariat and its regional institutions take cognizance of the above recommendations and conclusions, and the appropriate actions to follow them up.

ANNEX I

AGENDA OF THE MEETING

1. Opening of the Meeting.

2. Election of the Chairman, the Vice-Chairman and the Rapporteur.

3. Present status of educational planning in Asian countries.
   - 3.1 Statement by the Unesco representative.
   - 3.2 Country reports by the Asian experts.

4. Recent trends of educational planning.

5. Examination of major problems more or less common to Asian countries.
   - 5.1 Identification of major problems.
   - 5.2 Discussion of problems.
   - 5.3 Some suggestions for the possible solutions to the problems and practical steps to be taken.

6. Examination and adoption of the Report of the Meeting.

7. Closing of the Meeting.

ANNEX II

PROSPECTUS OF THE MEETING

Background

1. In the past decade, a spectacular educational "explosion" took place all over the world, and comprehensive educational planning became widely accepted as a vital means for the effective development of education which is now considered as a prerequisite to the social and economic development of the country.

2. In spite of these educational expansion and improvement, it is often pointed out that the current educational systems do not meet the individual and social needs in the rapidly changing world. In this context, Unesco, in pursuance of the resolution adopted by the United Nations General Assembly concerning the International Education Year, invited all the Member States to take stock of their respective situation of education and to take necessary steps for the new development in education.

3. In the Asian region, regional conferences of Ministers of Education have examined major policy issues related to the overall development of education in Asia. In particular, the second conference in 1965 adopted the Asian Model of Educational Development as a general framework within which each country would identify its needs and evolve a strategy of educational growth.

4. As is already known, the International Conference on Educational Planning held in Paris in 1968 suggested ways and means of improving educational planning and devising strategies for the expansion and improvements of education in Member States on the basis of the analysis of the experience gained hitherto and on the evaluation of foreseeable main problems and trends in educational planning.

5. However, considering the magnitude and complexity of the problems and recognizing the limitations which exist in finding adequate solutions to them, there must be a follow-up of the recommendations of the Conference at the regional level with more deliberation and care to seek the solutions to these problems of planning and administration raised by changing educational needs for development in Asian countries.

6. Under these circumstances, the Japanese National Commission for Unesco has taken initiatives, with the assistance from Unesco, to organize a Meeting of Experts on Educational Planning in Asia with participation of experts from the selected Member States in Asia, and of prominent experts from outside the region.

Objectives of the Meeting

7. The objectives of the Meeting are firstly to review current educational planning

with special reference to problems and difficulties with which the Asian countries are confronted now, such as plan implementation, project development and co-ordination of financing of educational programmes, and secondly to study steps for better and enforceable educational plans for development, and to seek solutions applicable to countries at varying stages of development.

Proposed topics for discussion

8. Topics for discussion are proposed as follows:

(1) Present status of educational planning in Asian countries

For this purpose the Meeting will first have reports by the Asian experts on the above subject in their respective countries, which will be followed by series of discussion among the participants and advices by the eminent experts from outside the region with a view to identifying some major problems which are more or less common to the Asian countries.

(2) Examination of major problems more or less common to Asian countries.

Such following problems as formation of educational plan for development, plan-implementation and project development, relation between educational planning and the development and improvement of educational system, and relation between educational planning and the innovation and improvement of education.

(3) Some suggestions for the possible solutions to the problems and practical steps to be taken.

Dates and venue of the Meeting

9. The Meeting will take place at the Tokyo Prince Hotel, Tokyo, for a week from Wednesday 25 November to Tuesday 1 December 1970.

Participation

10. Each of the National Commission for Unesco of the following six Member States is invited to nominate a fully qualified expert: Republic of China, Indonesia, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand. An invitation to attend the Meeting will be extended by the Japanese National Commission for Unesco to individual nominees. Several experts will participate from Japan.

11. In addition, a few experts whose contribution to the deliberation of the Meeting is particularly desired will be invited.

12. Unesco will be invited to be represented. Appropriate international and regional organizations may also be invited to send observers.

Documents for the Meeting

13. Each participant from the Asian countries is requested to prepare a report on present status of educational planning with special reference to practical problems and difficulties encountered within 3,000 words.

14. The following documents will be included in the working documents for the Meeting:

(1) Educational Planning – A World Survey of Problems and Prospects, published by Unesco, 1970.

(2) Educating for Development, prepared by Mr. William J. Platt, Director of Department of Planning and Financing of Education, Unesco.

(3) The Use of Modern Management Techniques in Education in Developing Countries, prepared by Mr. Raymond F. Lyons, Director of Training, International Institute for Educational Planning.

Working Language

15. The working language of the Meeting will be English.

Financial arrangements

16. Participants mentioned in paragraph 10 will be provided with an economy class return air ticket and living expenses from the day preceding the opening of the Meeting to the final day of the Meeting (i.e. 24 November to 1 December 1970).

17. Experts mentioned in paragraph 11 will be provided with living expenses. Return air tickets can only be provided to limited experts.

ANNEX III

SCHEDULE OF THE MEETING

Tuesday 24 November 1970

		Registration
Wednesday 25 November		
9:30 – 10:00	Agenda Item 1:	Opening of the Meeting.
	Agenda Item 2:	Election of the Chairman, the Vice-Chairman and the Rapporteur.
10:30 – 12:00	Agenda Item 3.1:	Present status of educational planning in Asian countries: Statement by the Unesco representative.
	Agenda Item 3.2:	Present status of educational planning in Asian countries: Country reports by the Asian experts.
14:00 – 17:00	Agenda Item 3.2:	Country reports (continued).
	Agenda Item 4:	Recent trends of educational planning (by Dr. Beeby and Dr. Betancur-Mejia).
Thursday 26 November		
9:00 – 12:00	Agenda Item 5.1:	Examination of major problems more or less common to Asian countries: Identification of major problems.
14:00 – 17:00	Agenda Item 5.2:	Discussion of problems.
Friday 27 November		
9:00 – 12:00	Agenda Item 5.2:	Discussion of problems (continued).
14:00 – 17:00	Agenda Item 5.2:	Discussion of problems (continued).
Saturday 28 November		
8:30 – 12:00		Visit to the Tokyo Metropolitan Karasuyama Technical Upper Secondary School.

Afternoon		Observation tour.
Sunday 29 November		
		Observation tour.
Monday 30 November		
9:00 – 12:00	Agenda Item 5.3:	Some suggestions for the possible solutions to the problems and practical steps to be taken.
14:00 – 17:00	Agenda Item 5.3:	(continued)
Tuesday 1 December		
9:00 – 12:00	Agenda Item 6:	Examination and adoption of the Report of the Meeting.
12:00 – 12:30	Agenda Item 7:	Closing of the Meeting.

ANNEX IV

SOME MAJOR PROBLEM AREAS AND EMERGING TRENDS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

By Dr. Jerry B. Bolibaugh, Unesco Representative

Mr. Chairman, Participants and Guests:

When presenting the problems and trends of such a complex and evolving field as educational planning, one must be prepared to write several volumes or to be very selective and, thereby, become either too narrow and detailed or too general and superficial. If these remarks fall within the latter category, it is for the sake of brevity, particularly since the excellent country status reports and the comments of our distinguished consultants are to follow.

I would like to discuss briefly planning problems[1/] in terms of three related topics: (1) institutionalization, (2) scope and methodology, (3) personnel. Within this context, educational planning constitutes a recent and growing endeavour which might be characterized as a bright young child in an adult world, showing some promise but not always taken seriously.

This situation is reflected in institutional relationships where educational planning units suffer frequently from the lack of a well-defined role in relation to such organizations as overall national planning agencies, financial and budgetary units, and the substantive departments within the Ministry of Education. As relatively new and fluctuating units, educational planning organisms generally find themselves outside the power structure dominated by traditional ministerial departments and external agencies. One obvious result of this may be the gaps and inconsistencies between educational plans and national plans, budgetary allocations, and implementation activities. Indeed, educational planning units may constitute little more than data collection agencies with only a minor role in actual planning.

The problem of institutionalization is compounded by that of the scope and methods of educational planning. Until recently, this planning was conceived largely, and is still practiced, on a macro and quantitative basis with the results not entirely satisfactory regardless of the planning methods, such as the manpower, rate of return, and linear expansion or projection approaches. Now, both the scope and methodology of educational planning are being challenged and while this is most encouraging from

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1. I wish to acknowledge the invaluable contributions of Dr. R.R. Singh, Director of the Unesco Regional Office to my understanding of Asian educational planning problems. However, I must accept full responsibility for the statements in this paper.

the long-range point of view, it implies new problems for the practitioner who must not only comprehend emerging principles and techniques but attempt to render them functional in terms of the local cultural and institutional environment.

However, the fact remains that the scope and methodology of educational planning are undergoing change. In this connection, I would like to cite Philip Coombs in his introduction to the 1969 IIEP publication, edited by Dr. Beeby, and entitled: Qualitative Aspects of Educational Planning. Mr. Coombs stresses that the simple strategy of linear expansion of educational systems is no longer appropriate or viable, if it ever was; planners must focus upon developing a capability for qualitative changes and such changes must be conceived as far-reaching rather than as limited to the improvement of quality in terms of pass rates on traditional examinations. He continues that educational planning must break through the outer crust of aggregate dimensions of an educational system and come to grips with the planning of change in its specific processes and institutions. Thus, as Coombs points out, the nature and practice of educational planning itself must undergo far-reaching changes.

This would seem to imply that planning must not only include qualitative aspects, but that a much closer link, than in the past, between plans and implementation must be achieved, since micro and internal qualitative changes, present a mix of constraints which can be overcome only through the timely planning and execution of implementation measures. But between planning and implementation exists the decision-making process. Recently, planners have attempted to present decision-makers with alternative plans for quantitative measures providing various assumptions concerning population and GNP growth rates as well as alternative school population growth projections and their cost implications. While qualitative changes have been proposed also and achieved, these have generally occurred independently of any detailed involvement by planning units. Thus, decision-makers, have been hadicapped in making choices due to the absence of comprehensive, coordinated qualitative-quantitative planning including the estimated viability of alternative combined strategies.

If educational planning must undergo major changes as Coombs and others suggest, consider the personnel problem which appears to surpass us already. Who is the educational planner? If he is a non-educator, he lacks communication with the educators. If he is an educator without substantial training in planning techniques, he lacks communication with the overall national development planners. In another negative context, if he is a planner, he is not an implementor. Perhaps the question should be: What is an educational planner? And the answer might be that he is a mythological superhuman, a new breed possessing in-depth knowledge of economics, manpower, educational management including planning, curriculum research and development skills as well as many others. However, the realistic answer seems to be an inter-disciplinary research-oriented team approach to educational planning involving a continuous, permanent work-

ing relationship. In Asia, this appraoch is practiced in many countries and the principle appears to be accepted as appropriate in most others.

In this regard, and turning to emerging trends, I would like to take a moment to touch briefly upon the rapidly increasing influence that system technology is having upon both the planning-management and teaching-learning aspects of education. You will note that one of our seminar reference documents, The Use of Modern Management Techniques in Education in Developing Countries, by Raymond F. Lyons, is devoted largely to introducing certain managerial aspects of the systems approach. Further, on page 28, Mr. Lyons cites a new IIEP documents, Systems Analysis and Educational Design, by T.R. Razik, which provides one explanation of systems approach to developing the teaching-learning process referred to as "educational design" because it involves more than the traditional concept of curriculum development. In connection with the latter application, I would like to mention the Educational System for the '70s project involving the first large scale attempt in the United States to apply system technology to secondary-level education in order to obtain the far-reaching qualitative changes Mr. Coombs proposes as essential.

Returning to Unesco and some pending implications, the Department of Educational Planning and Financing is endeavouring to recruit educational planners trained in system technology. And finally, in the Long Term Outline Plan for 1971-1976 presented by the Director-General at the recent Unesco General Conference, we find reference, under the heading of Promotion of research and training in educational planning and administration, to employ systems analysis in order to define the educational process in relation to development.

These are just a few indicators of the growing impact of system technology upon education. Although the impact has been limited largely to the United States and Europe, its spread throughout the world appears to be only a matter of time. In 1967, I presented a paper from which I would like to quote the following: "...the entire field of national-level educational planning, which includes an important research component, would benefit in terms of precision and objectivity if the system approach were employed universally by the practitioners of this activity. Pioneer educational planners throughout the world... come from various professional fields and are trained in different ways. They need a common methodological approach and a common communication tool. System technology provides a means to achieve this commonality."[2/]

2. Planning International Educational Research Through System Technology, a paper presented at the Symposium on the Application of System Analysis and Management Techniques to Educational Planning in California, June 1967.

I would like to stress the word "benefit" in the above quotation because we all realize no conceptual and methodological instrument per se will solve the problems of educational planning, decision-making and implementation. However, the systems approach will facilitate a coordinated team attack upon the identification and analysis of qualitative as well as quantitative problems, and in the preparation of alternative solutions for the decision-makers as well as in the provision of a greater control over implementation since the method constitutes a "closed-loop" procedure stressing constant evaluation and feedback so that adjustments in plans, decisions and implementation may be made as unanticipated constraints or events are identified. In another way, it may be said to provide a conceptual and operational framework in which more elements of the complex planning process may be fitted together to achieve a coherent whole.

As Mr. Lyons points out in the conclusion of his paper, the technical and institutional prerequisites for applying these new techniques in developing countries have not yet been entirely met, but he adds the concepts of these new techniques are invaluable and he continues to mention that certain techniques lend themselves to simpler forms of application within a local context.

These brief reference to system technology may appear to be highly theoretical to those unfamiliar with the approach. However, system planning constitutes an emerging trend worthy of the attention of everyone associated with educational planning since our conventional institutional and methodological approaches appear too limited to meet the demands of a more comprehensive and coordinated attack upon the qualitative and quantitative aspects of educational problems.

In closing, I would like to emphasize that emerging conceptual and methodological trends are just that. They represent promising ideas and techniques requiring our investigation in view of possible future utilization. For as Dr. Platt cites in our other reference document, Educating for Development, "...whereas the hallmark of the last decade of educational development was quantitative expansion, the hallmark of the next one must be major selective growth accompanied by greater adaptation, change and innovation..."

However, our primary focus during the next few days will be upon your present problems and upon possible solutions under varying and evolving national conditions. Within this latter context, we shall benefit from the identification of significant, concrete problems derived from your concerns, as well as from the difficult search for alternative solutions within the constraints posed by given cultures.

ANNEX V

RECENT TRENDS IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

By Dr. C. Edward Beeby, New Zealand

Educational planning in its modern sense, and with its new-found fervour, is only ten or fifteen years old, but events have moved so quickly that the time has come for those of us who practice it to review what we have learnt over this short period. This meeting, with its wealth of experience throughout Asia and beyond, is a very proper body to make such a review. The Japanese National Commission has been generous enough to call us "experts"; we would be the first to admit that, in any real sense of the term, it is too early as yet to talk of experts in educational planning, but the country reports we have heard in the past couple of days have shown that we share sufficient experience to be qualified to draw tentative conclusions from it if we can only snatch enough time from our daily struggle with crises.

It is obvious from what we have just heard that all of us who work in developing countries face very similar situations, and I suspect that, if each of us was invited to set down the problems he has met in trying to apply the principles of educational planning in practice, we should come up with lists that were not markedly different. May I begin the process by stating briefly what I believe we have learnt about the practice of planning over the past decade. But first I must warn you of my own particular bias. I have been fortunate enough to see something of planning in many countries—but that in itself amounts to a confession of superficiality. I have also had a chance to mingle with the theorists as well as the practitioners, but I remain essentially an educational administrator concerned with making planning work, and what I have to say to-day will inevitably show that bias. It is for you to correct it from your own collective experience.

What, then, have we—or I—learnt about educational planning in the last few years? Our saddest bit of hard-gained wisdom is that it is easier to make plans than to carry them out. Educational planning is a much more complex business than many people thought ten years ago. All of you have mentioned in your country reports such obvious obstacles to implementation as shortages of finance and qualified staff, and there is little I can add to what you have said. I shall concentrate, rather, on the mistakes in our thinking about planning that have widened the gap between theory and practice. These, after all, are within our professional control, and we can do something about them even though decisions on finance, school buildings, and staff lie in other hands. Many of the mistakes we made in the 1960's were excusable, indeed inevitable, but they would be unpardonable if they carried over into the 1970's. Happily, there are already signs that both those who theorize about planning and those who try to do it are taking a much more balanced view of it than they did in the first flush of their enthusiasm for new concepts and

shining new techniques. The changes in thinking appear to be occurring around the following points:

I. Over-simplified Thinking

When exciting new ideas and techniques quite suddenly began to press in on an activity as traditional as education, it was inevitable that their exponents should at first see the problems as simpler than they really were. Our thinking about manpower and education is a good example of this. In the early 1960's educational planning, for some enthusiasts, was little more than manpower planning. To be sure, in the opening paragraph of any article they raised their hats reverently to other aims and other values in education, but soon plunged into topics where linear models were more effective, and, barring the occasional footnote, concentrated on the function of an educational system to provide skilled manpower. They, quite naturally, asked the kinds of question that their techniques could answer, and pushed the rest under the carpet. If they had let themselves become bogged down in the generalities and vague ideals that mar many discussions between educators, it is hard to see how they could have brought their studies to the point where anyone could judge what was of value in them and what fallacy. But it did lead to a period of grievously over-simplified thinking about educational planning.

While no educationist can ever again ignore the close and ever-changing relation between his craft and the manpower needs of the country, the past five or six years there have brought a measure of disillusion about basing educational planning on the manpower concepts we originally had. There are several reasons for this, many of them technical in nature and not necessarily related to the teacher's more general concern about basing educational aims too exclusively on economic criteria. Manpower surveys in some countries have proved very faulty; the accuracy of a forecast or prediction rapidly decreases when the period involved goes beyond three to five years, while the period of gestation of major educational plans is necessarily much longer than that; the elasticity of the supply of skilled labour is greater than the techniques generally allow for; many of the techniques in manpower planning ignore altogether the prospective earnings of each group of workers and the costs of producing them, it has proved more difficult than we had imagined to keep the right balance between industrial development and educational development, and in most new countries an early period of acute shortage of educated manpower has been followed by an apparent surplus and the unexpected phenomenon of unemployed intellectuals.

We are at last beginning to realize that it is not just a matter of manpower demands dominating educational development, but of there being some mutual adjustment between them. The type of economic development planned (for example, capital intensive or labour intensive) must take more account of the kind and quantity of manpower the education system is able to produce, and of the social effects of each type of deve-

lopment (See William Platt's paper "Educating for Development" amongst your working documents.).

This kind of simplistic theorizing on educational planning is not confined to manpower. It is likely to occur whenever a new concept or a new technique—one thinks at this moment of systems analysis and of the new media—breaks through into an established routine; its exponents over-simplify the new environment in which they find themselves, and both the new practices and the old are liable to suffer from the inevitable reaction against the original naive assumptions. It is a situation in which the old, experienced administrator and planner has to struggle with his conscience to discover how much of his resistance to the innovation is due to hard-won wisdom and how much to the hardening of his arteries.

II. Social Demand

One major factor affecting the balance between educational plans and manpower plans has been the strength of the "social demand" for certain kinds of education. I am becoming increasingly conscious in many countries of a tension between the planners of education on the one hand, and the consumers of education on the other, between those who think of education in terms of national needs and goals, and parents and pupils who see it in the light of their own personal purposes and ambitions. Technically competent plans have frequently been distorted in practice because they have failed to take into account a persistent social demand for particular kinds of education that seem—often fallaciously, the planner knows—to cater for individual purposes. An example is the strong preference for traditional academic courses at the secondary level rather than for the technical and trade courses which the planners say the country needs and which they expect to offer eventually the better opportunities for employment. And, at one stage in a poor country's growth, every politician knows the pressure that builds up for some kind of primary schooling, however poor, for every child, even though this would use up the funds the planners need for developing secondary, technical and higher education of quality. The most serious case of this divergence of views between those who think nationally and those who think solely of their own or their children's welfare is found in developing countries with seventy or eighty percent of their population directly dependent on the land and with little knowledge of how to get the best from it. The planners see the village school as an instrument for preparing more efficient farmers, while many of the children, and some of their parents, see it as a means of their getting away from the country altogether.

When such a conflict occurs between the planners and the consumers of education, the consumers will usually win, either through political action or simply by using the schools for their own purposes, no matter what the official purpose may be. If all else fails, they will fall back on private, fee-paying schools, and these are frequently of such

poor quality that they not only give their pupils little of value but also drag down the standards of the official schools that are trying to give an education more closely related to the country's needs.

So what does the planner do about social pressures that run counter to his plans? First of all, he must try to understand the reasons for the pressures. They may lie, for example, in a quite realistic understanding by parents and pupils of the poor salary prospects offered by some forms of employment. I have myself known cases where institutions for training much-needed technicians stood almost empty because students with the same initial qualifications could gain in the State services twice the salary by taking any sort of course at the university that made no greater deamnds on them than the technician course at a technical college. The obvious remedy lay not in exhorting the young to sacrifice their economic prospects for the sake of the country but in amending the State salary scales so that they would reflect the present needs of the country rather than the academic snobbery of an earlier age. Again, the wish of country parents to have some of their children prepared for urban life may spring from real economic conditions in the country. The solutions may not be educational ones at all, and while life on the land is "poor, nasty, brutish and short", schemes for a curriculum with an "agricultural bias" will come to nothing. On the other hand the planner may find in some cases that the success of his plans for school children depends in part on the establishment of adequate systems of adult education to make parents aware of the significance of various types and levels of education for the future of their children. It may even happen that it is the plan itself that is at fault, and it will need to be modified to take account of a social demand that is wiser than anything the planner's techniques have produced.

III. Political Factors

The neglect of social demand is a special case of the general neglect of political factors in much of the earlier theoretical writing about educational planning. The theorists tended to give attention to relatively clear-cut issues such as manpower and cost-benefit analysis, and to avoid the messy complications created by political influences—or even to blame them for interfering with "real" planning. But political factors are of the very nature of planning. Educational planning in its broadest sense is a political activity, and cannot be confined to a back room. There are, of course, important parts of the operation that are technical and intellectual in nature—the collection and processing of data, the thinking out of alternative courses of action and the analysis of their costs and consequences—but even these operations are not carried out in a politically aseptic atmosphere. No experienced planning technician will do elaborate calculations on a portion of a plan that runs diametrically counter to a major Government policy or that will be sure to arouse irrisistible public opposition. The academic may prefer the purer-than-life concept of educational planning that ignores politics, because it is easier to dissect in the study

or put on a computer, but the practical administrator or politician knows that the decision on educational plans is usually a matter of the resolution of tensions between forces pulling in various directions. Far from being a simple intellectual process, planning in this sense resembles rather the resolution of forces we learnt about in the "parallelogram of forces" in our high school physics.

In this resolution of competing forces, the job of the planning technician is to collect the data, the ideas, the arguments that will represent as strongly as possible the intellectual and rational factors bearing on a particular decision. You can call this "planning" if you like, but, for my part, I always see beyond it to the final resolution of forces from which emerges the plan. In this sense the person, or body, that deserves the title of "the planner" is the one that makes the final decision after considering all the factors, intellectual, political, social, economic, emotional, that bear upon the issue. As planning technicians our job is to strengthen with our skill and techniques the pull of the rational forces.

IV. The By-passing of the Administrator

My concern with the place of the educational administrator in planning follows directly from what I have just said. The new theories of educational planning by-passed the educational administrator and rarely mentioned him except to blame him for the lack of planning in the past. And the administrator was in part to blame; the fresh impetus in educational planning in the late 1950's and early 60's came not from him but from the economists and the sociologists. They, for their part, made the mistake of exaggerating the newness of their contribution, and often wrote as if no planning had ever occurred in education before they discovered it. Public education is a long-range activity that cannot exist without planning of some sort, even though it has often been little more than an annual scramble to throw together a budget. But in the best education systems the planning in some sectors has been good for decades, though in none of them was it as comprehensive as the newer concept of planning demands, and the stress was frequently on "internal" planning rather than on planning with the broader economic, political and social ends in mind.

However lethargic and inept they might have been, it was still a mistake not to bring the administrators in on the ground floor of the new planning movement instead of blinding them with science, since they were the only persons with practical experience of educational planning, even though it may have been of a humble type. The result was that, in the early days, most of the people who wrote about educational planning had never done it and few of those who had done it were writing about it, either because they hadn't time or because they were frightened off by the strange algebraic vocabulary of another discipline. It would have been far wiser for planning theorists to emphasize that the methods they were advocating were, on the whole, only more sophisticated and

systematic ways of doing what good educational administrators had always done, at least in some parts of their systems.

One result of the academic approach to planning was to make too sharp a distinction between the making of a plan, the adoption of a plan, and its implementation, and to regard only the first of these three processes as being "planning", with at least the implication that this is the sole business of some slightly mythical creature called "the planner". In practice, these processes are never as distinct as this. The adoption of a plan is never a single, climactic event where the Minister comes into the process for the first time. And, if the administrator is consulted only when he has to implement the plan, this is far too late. He must be involved in its preparation if the plan is to be realistic and if he is to feel any responsibility for it. If he has no sympathy for it, a skilled administrator can easily kill a plan while appearing to give it luke-warm support. Moreover, in the very act of implementing a plan that is necessarily expressed in very general terms an administrator finds that he must interpret it, and in some degree amend it. One sign of this unreal division between living processes is the scant attention given in the literature of educational planning to the preparation of the annual budget. It is only at the point where a portion of the long-range plan is translated into an annual budget that it gets any legal significance, because this is the moment at which authority is given to spend. Every politician or administrator knows the gulfs that can open up between a five-year plan and the budgets for its fourth and fifth years. It is a subject that merits more study by the theorists.

The failure of the new "planners" to involve from the beginning the people who would be responsible for carrying out the plan is one reason why so many educational plans lie still in the dust of pigeon-holes. Fortunately, more administrators are now becoming involved in even theoretical discussions on planning, though many are still suspicious of it, and the organization of the planning unit in a ministry is sometimes not calculated to decrease their suspicion. Admittedly, a minister who realizes that his department is unfitted by structure and temperament to bring about the major changes in the schools that the country needs is in a dilemma; if he relies on the dreary individuals already in the key posts, he will get, at the best, only a trickle of timid innovations; and if he appoints a lively brains trust of planners responsible only to himself he is liable to find himself with a flood of bright, imaginative plans that will run away into the sand of the administrative desert. Local circumstances and the balance of personalities must in the end determine his decision; the only generalization one can make with any certainty is that if the senior "line" administrators are brought into the planning process at an early stage the resulting plan will be rather duller, it will lose some of its intellectual cutting edge and its first exciting colour, but it will be more likely some day to affect what goes on in the schools. The central problem is how to stimulate a ministry to change and then coordinate the planning of the various sectors of education without robbing the "line" officers in each sector of their sense of involvement in the planning

process and their feeling of responsibility for the result. I hope the meeting will discuss this topic in some detail.

V. The New Emphasis on Quality

Nearly every country report presented to this meeting has stressed the need for improving the quality of education. Understandably, the initial emphasis in the literature of planning was on the expansion of the quantity of education, because this was the easiest place to begin, the problems of quantity lent themselves more readily to the techniques the economist had to offer. So all the models of educational planning that have moulded opinion on the subject over the past ten years have been of the quantitative type. When the practice of planning began to lead back so regularly to problems of quality, it became obvious that these models are not adequate for this part of the job. The ground rules for planning qualitative change in education are, in many respects, very different from those controlling quantitative growth.

Before I go further with this idea, may I define what I mean by qualitative change as distinct from change that merely provides more of what the country already has. As I understand it, a qualitative change in education is one that alters the manner of the content of teaching or of learning.

There are three main reasons why the strategy of planning qualitative change, as I have defined it, is different from that for quantitative change:

1. There is likely to be considerable disagreement in the profession and in the community on what constitutes improvement in quality, and the consequent tensions call for a different strategy in public relations.
2. Teaching is different from most other professional activities in that, unless the individual classroom teacher both understands and accepts the qualitative changes that are being planned, no significant change will occur. This is quite different, for example, from the case of a young architect designing a roof truss under instructions from his superior; his personal faith in the technique has nothing to do with the result.
3. The teachers in any system differ widely in their willingness and their ability to change their practice, and so changes will occur at different speeds and to different degrees in different schools and classrooms. One of the most difficult jobs of the administrator-planner is to devise a system of controlling the schools that gives freedom to the best teachers to innovate and experiment, and at the same time gives the less able teachers the support they need in the way of fixed syllabuses, official texts, examinations, and inspections.

So it is impossible to change the quality of teaching by regulations alone or by merely issuing new official curricula. If teachers don't understand and accept the changes, they will go on doing the same old thing under a new name. It follows, too, that qualitative improvement in teaching and learning never takes place on a solid front. The administrator has to make it possible for the most able and adventurous teachers to move out in front, and then, by somewhat different techniques, has to help and encourage the average and below-average teachers to follow at their own best speed.

At present we know far too little about this process of change to be able to predict with any certainty how long each phase will take. So it is impossible to base plans for many forms of qualitative change on PERT or flow diagrams that depend on such predictions. We need to do a great deal of solid thinking in order to adapt the rules and models developed for quantitative change to the very different conditions under which changes in the quality of education must be planned. We shall have to start with a rigorous analysis of the various meanings of "quality" in education. I hope the meeting will consider this.

VI. The Life History of a System of Planning

Finally, we have learnt that the kind of educational planning that is possible in any country depends on the stage of political, economic and social development of that country. Without some political and economic stability, for instance, educational planning in any long-range sense is impossible, and the lack of reliable statistics makes planning anywhere a rough-and-ready affair. We need a thorough study of the life-history of a system of educational planning, of how it grows in a developing country, and of the type of planning that is possible at each stage of political and economic development. Highly sophisticated planning in an unsophisticated setting can do more harm than good.

Conclusion

All this may sound a little depressing, but it is not meant to be. Looking back over the twenty-one years since I organized for Unesco its first international advisory team on education—to Afghanistan—I am shocked at how ignorant we all were then of the whole process of growth of an education system in a developing country, and of what outsiders could, and could not, do to help. The Afghans, I fear, learnt little from us, but Unesco there began the long, slow job of developing techniques for helping a country to plan its education.

In the process we have discovered complexities we had never dreamed of, and many of them have still to be unravelled, but the pioneers of modern educational planning have behind them a list of solid achievements that are not to be despised. The most immediately obvious are in the techniques for processing data; the computer, and the manipulation of data that it makes practicable, have opened up vast new possibilities

of analysing some of the complexities of an education system and of its relations with the community it serves–provided, of course, we can first get reliable figures to feed into the computer.

But even more significant than the new techniques are the new ideas that have emerged about the part education plays in a country's growth. We educationists have always said, in a vague general way, that education is essential to national welfare, but it was the economists who first tried to show, in hard market terms, that education is an investment and not just a consumer good. This pleased us greatly because it confined what we had always believed, but we were not so happy about the corollary that, in so far as we use the argument that education is an investment as a means of getting more money for it, we must accept the criterion that the rate of return for educational expenditure should at least equal that for railways, roads, irrigation, improved seeds and fertilizers. There are, needless to say, many non-economic reasons for spending money on education, but it is no longer possible for anyone to put up a plan for education, as many have done in the past, without costing it and making at least some rough attempt to show in quantitative terms the gains that might be expected to follow from it. I happen to believe that, except on a narrow front, the new techniques of cost-benefit analysis in education involve so many unproved assumptions that they are, at present, research tools rather than immediately useful instruments for the planner and administrator, but there is little doubt that they will play an increasing part in educational decisions and that requests for additional funds for education in the future must become more economically sophisticated than they have often been in the past.

I feel much the same about manpower techniques in educational planning. They have frequently been disappointing, but they represent a point of view that we in education can never again afford to ignore. We have in English a saying that expresses perfectly my own attitude towards some of the new and rather rudimentary techniques that have been introduced into educational planning–"Follow the light, but not the lantern". We may, for the moment, suspect some of the more doctrinnaire excursions of the lantern, but we should continue to be grateful for the light.

Quite apart from the virtues or failings of any technique, plans for education have come to be seen, as never before, against the background of the total development plans for the country. This is advance from which there can be no retreat, and, if we have found flaws in our new concepts and techniques, that in itself is an advance if it has taught us the humility that so well becomes a man who sets out to plan the lives of others.

ANNEX VI

A HISTORICAL REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ITS PRESENT PROBLEMS

By Dr. Gabriel Betancur-Mejia, Colombia

1. First of all, I wish to express my gratitude to the Japanese National Commission for Unesco and its Secretary-General, Dr. Ito, for the invitation to participate in this important meeting.

2. Dr. Ito has requested me to tell you how, why and when we started in Colombia the overall planning of education and its subsequent emergence as an international movement, as well as some of my conclusions concerning its effectiveness and shortcomings.

3. I will be very brief since I have only fifteen minutes and I will give only a sketch since you are all experts in the planning of education.

4. In 1945, I wrote my thesis in Public Administration at Syracuse University on the theme: "Project for the Creation of the Colombian Institute for Advanced Training Abroad". This Institute, known as ICETEX, was created in 1950 by the Colombian Government and started operations in 1952. In brief, it is a financial institution to provide student loans for post-graduate studies abroad and for higher education studies within the country. So far, it has financed more than 50,000 students and ten Latin American countries have created similar institutions. The Spanish edition of The Reader's Digest of August 1969 included an article on this Institute.

5. In 1952, as founder and first Director of this Institute I began to see the problems of Colombian education, first at the level of higher education, then in its relations with secondary education and, finally, with the primary level. The Institute gave first priority for its loans to all those studying in the field of education.

6. As Chairman of the Commission for the Reorganization of our Public Administration, I had the opportunity to see the weakness of the administrative aspects of the educational sector of my country.

7. The opportunity to serve at the same time as Vice-Chairman of the National Planning Committee gave me the opportunity to see the lack of correlation between the development objectives and the preparation of personnel at all levels to implement them.

8. When I was appointed Minister of Education in 1955, I thought that one way to syncronise education and development was through overall planning of education based upon quantitative forecasts, placing emphasis on the quality of education to make it a dynamic factor of development, and the reorganization of the administrative structure

of the educational sector through the application of modern techniques of management. These actions assured the highest return for the resources invested and they were necessary to obtain adequate financing of the plan for education.

9. In 1956, the Organization of American States and Unesco sponsored a Conference of Ministers of Education in Lima, Peru. There I presented three draft resolutions: one on the "Overall Planning of Education"; the second on "Financing Overall Plans of Education"; and the third on "Modernization of the Administration of Public Education".

10. In the resolution on financing, I suggested that as education was the basis of development, therefore it should be eligible for financing through international sources such as the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

11. In 1955, I began to hire some of the graduates who had been studying abroad (through ICETEX) to initiate the unit in Educational Planning at the Ministry of Education. Among them was Dr. Simon Romero-Lozano. In 1956, after the Conference of Ministers at Lima, I invited Dr. Ricardo Diez-Hochleitner to head that planning unit and he arrived in June 1956. Also I obtained from Unesco the cooperation of Dr. Blat Jimeno.

12. In 1957, the Organization of American States following the recommendations of the Conference of Lima wanted to organize a seminar on the overall planning of education and, as the only country of the region with experience was Colombia, the OAS engaged the Colombian team. Dr. Diez-Hochleitner went to OAS in Washington in June 1957, as well as Dr. Romero-Lozano.

13. In June 1957, the project for the first Colombian Five-Year Plan of Education was completed.

14. Dr. Diez-Hochleitner organized the Inter-American Seminar on Overall Planning of Education based on the Colombian experience, which was held in Washington D.C., USA from 16 - 28 June 1958. Forsthat seminar I prepared a paper on "Meaning and Scope of the Overall Planning of Education".

15. The seminar approved the first complete set of recommendations on educational planning which have provided guidance to this movement. Many of these recommendations, as stated in the Unesco Planning Conference on Education in 1968, remain valid to-day.

This seminar had the following agenda:

1. Meaning and scope of overall planning of education
   1) Concept and objectives of educational planning
   2) Characteristics of educational planning
   3) Aims of educational planning

2. Organization, methods and techniques of overall planning of education

   1) Organization of the bureau or services for educational planning
   2) Training and selection of specialists for educational planning
   3) Work's system for educational planning
   4) Work stages for educational planning
   5) Educational statistics as a tool for educational planning
   6) Educational research for educational planning
   7) Educational informations and documentation center for educational planning
   8) Comparative education as a tool for educational planning
   9) The educational pilots projects and the educational planning
   10) The participation of public opinion in educational planning

3. Educational management

   1) Principles of educational administration for educational planning
   2) Reform of the administration of education according to the overall planning of education
   3) Training courses for the administrative personnel of education

4. Financing of education

   1) Inventory of the financial needs and resources of education
   2) Credit for education
   3) New financial resources to aid educational development
   4) Budgeting as a tool for educational planning

5. Qualitative planning of education

   1) Primary education
   2) Secondary education
   3) Technical and vocational education
   4) Teachers training
   5) Adult education and fundamental education
   6) Higher education and research
   7) Cultural services

6. Quantitative planning of education

   1) Determination of demand and necessary directive, teaching and administrative personnel

7. Other reforms according to the overall planning of education

   1) Re-estructuration of the educational system
   2) Glossary of education
   3) Welfare services for students

4) Educational legislation
5) Educational calendar; vacations, examination etc.
6) Educational research and teaching methods
7) Legal status of the teaching, supervisors and administrative personnel of education
8) Organization of schools
9) School and professional orientation
10) Professional especialization
11) Educational statistics
12) Norms for school construction
13) Bases for the selection and editing of textbooks

16. In June 1958, Unesco invited Dr. Diez-Hochleitner to join its staff to promote the overall planning of education.

17. In December 1959, Unesco and the Unesco French National Commission organized a meeting on the overall planning of education in Paris.

18. As one of the problems for the development of overall educational planning was the lack of trained personnel, the Colombian Delegation presented at the 1958 Seminar in Washington the request that OAS and Unesco promote the organization of courses in this new field. In October 1959, both Unesco and OAS organized the first training course for Latin America at Bogota, Colombia. Later, Unesco in cooperation with the ECLA organized in 1963 the courses on educational planning at Santiago, Chile, under the direction of Dr. Simon Romero-Lozano.

19. In 1956 at the Unesco General Conference, I related the Colombian experience on overall planning of education and insisted that the IBRD provide loans for education. After a very interesting debate, the motion was approved and the Director-General of Unesco was authorized to contact the President of the IBRD. In 1963, the IBRD started its education unit and Dr. Diez-Hochleitner was seconded by Unesco to work in the Bank. In 1964 the Cooperative Agreement was signed by the President of the Bank and the Director-General of Unesco.

20. In 1966, as Assistant Director-General for Education of Unesco, I recommended the creation of the Department of Planning and Financing of Education, at the General Conference.

21. The above historical facts give answers to the questions of Dr. Ito. Now I will be very brief in the conclusions. It seems to me that we should ask ourselves a question: Why, if most educators for the past years are in agreement on what should be done to improve education, it has not improved as much as we had hoped? Some possible answers are as follows:

(a) Most of the administrative structures of education are outmoded. The new

management methods have not penetrated our sector. If we say that education is the biggest and most important single enterprise of each country, then we must administer it in the most efficient manner. In some countries the responsibilities for education at the different levels of administration must be entirely reorganized.

(b) It is necessary to have stability of personnel at the top echelons of the educational sector working for its improvement so that the necessary reforms may be carried out.

(c) When the sector of education is not well planned and implemented, its responsibilities are assumed by other sectors which start their own educational activities, rendering even more difficult the problems of coordination.

(d) Increased coordination between planning and implementation is vital if the plans are to be realistic and operational.

(e) Planners should explain at all stages what they are doing to swerve political opinion around to their point of view. This systematic work gives the planner the opportunity to incorporate extremely valuable suggestions, as well as winning support for the plan's approval and implementation.

(f) The educational planning teams have to assure the participation not only of educators and economists, but also of competent personnel in social sciences, administration and in the new field of mass communications (TV, Radio, etc.). The best approach is the inter-disciplinary one.

(g) The education plans have to have as a paramount objective, preparation for employment while taking into account all the other basic objectives of education. In this connection, close contact must exist with the authorities responsible for the selection of technology since this has a great impact on employment. Developing countries import the technologies of developed countries even though these have not been created to meet their particular problems. They have capital but lack manpower; we have an over supply of manpower and lack capital. Educators have to remind the appropriate authorities that, besides preparing people for employment, they also have to create the mechanisms to generate employment and to ensure proper placement.

(h) Sometimes one of the problems in the preparation of educational plans is the lack of reliable statistics. In Colombia in 1968, the government, faced with this problem, conducted an educational census which provided an opportunity to awaken public opinion to the importance of education. Further, it gave a true picture of the educational situation.

(i) Educational planning has helped to obtain more resources for education in the last decade. The responsibility of educational planners and administrators is to employ these resources in the best possible way. In 1966, the new Colombian Government, wishing to obtain the maximum from the actual resources, prepared

an "emergency plan" and with the same resources was able to increase about 400,000 places in primary schools, and 20 percent in secondary schools.

(j) The planners of education have to look at some factors which are outside the scope of the educational system. Nutrition is a very important one. For example, if the intake of a balanced diet for babies is not assured when their brains are being fromed, then the education system will suffer the future consequences in terms of low intellectual capacity.

(k) Planners have to look at the future consequences of the new concept of life-long education and to prepare society for the great changes that will occur in education in this decade and even more so in the 1980's. One of the consequences will be the impact on costs when education is divided into several stages and combined with work activities. Life-long education has to start with planners themselves, so that they are aware of the latest developments in the field of education and other related fields. In the long run, it will prove very costly for a country not to give continuing educational opportunities to its educational planners.

(l) Educational planners should have systematic contact with:

(i) Personnel of the Ministry of Education
(ii) Teacher Training Schools at all levels
(iii) Professional Associations

in order to keep them informed of planning and to obtain their reactions.

(m) My last comment concerns quality. Since 1955, I have thought that this is the most important element in the planning of education because all the other components serve quality: finance, administration and quantitative expansion. Good quality makes education a dynamic instrument of progress. That is why planners must give it first priority.

(n) In 1969, on the day before he died suddenly, Dr. Kapur, a member of the International Committee advising Spain on its educational reform, said something which made a great impression on the Committee. "Planners should never forget to consider the elements conducive to happiness which exist even in the most primitive or deprived regions".

ANNEX VII/1

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

The educational structure of the Republic of China in Taiwan is shown in the following diagram. It consists of (1) the kindergarten for children below 6 years of age, starting at the age of 3; (2) the elementary school of grades 1-6, covering the age range 6-12 years; (3) the comprehensive junior high school of 3 grades, covering the age range 12-15; (4) the academic and vocational senior high schools, both of 3 grades, covering the age range 15-18; (5) the normal college and the vocational college, both of 5 grades, covering the age range 15-20; (6) the technical institute of 2 grades, covering the age range 18-20; (7) the college of 3 grades, covering the age range 18-21; (8) the degree-granting college and university, both of 4 grades, covering the age range 18-22; and (9) the graduate school beyond the age of 22, including the master's and doctoral programs, each of which requiring at least 2 years of work in residence.

The universal education in Taiwan has been extended from 6 years in the elementary school to 9 years including 3 years in the comprehensive junior high school. The 6-year elementary education is free and compulsory, while the 3-year education in the junior high school is free but not mandatory as yet.

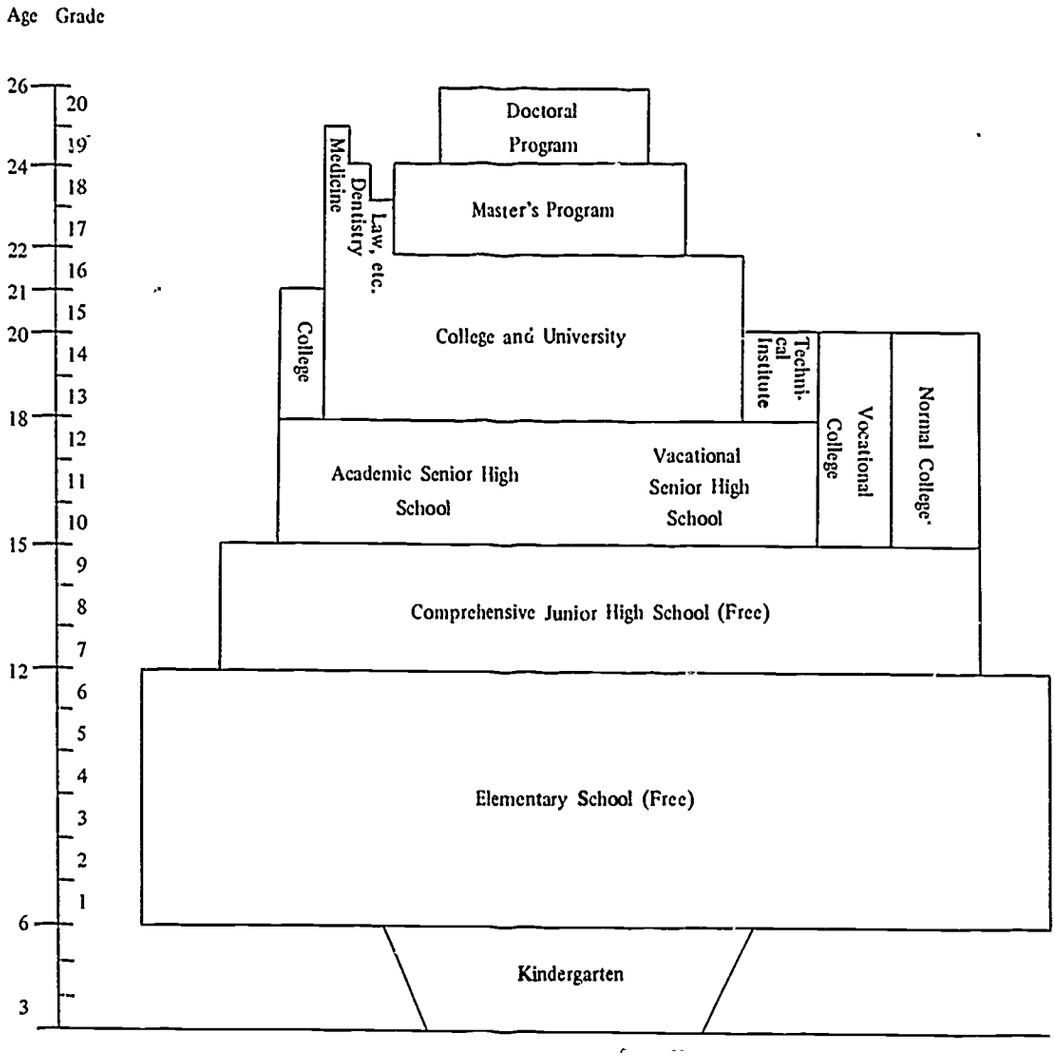
Educational planning in the Republic was not given serious attention until economic development in the country had reached a stage in recent years that made such planning a necessity. Four 4-year economic development plans have been accomplished; the fifth one covering the period from 1969 through 1972 is under way.

In 1962, the Ministry of Education in the Republic of China contracted with Stanford Research Institute to undertake a study to: (1) investigate the Republic's present educational system in the light of its output of trained personnel, (2) estimate the demand for, and supply of, such persons by 1965, and (3) explore means to improve education and training programs with a view to making the country better able to achieve its economic development aims. A report of the study was published in October, 1962 with the title Education and Development: The Role of Educational Planning in the Economic Development of the Republic of China.

In 1964, the Ministry of Education of the Republic of China, with the assistance of Dr. Martin Strommes, a UNESCO advisor, and Prof. T.K. Kang, a Chinese educator, drafted a long-term plan for educational development covering the period from 1964 through 1982. The 18-year plan encompassed education at all levels from elementary school till the graduate school. Teacher education, vocational education and out-of-school education were also included. The plan estimated that free universal education would be extended up to the junior-high-school level in 1973. The extension took place, however, five years sooner in 1968 as a result of an executive order issued by President Chiang Kai-shek.

Submitted by Prof. Chun-Fu Lu,
National Chengchi University, Taipei.

The Educational Structure of the Republic of China



As a revision of the 18-year plan, a new 12-year plan for educational development from 1969 through 1980 was sketched by the Ministry of Education and discussed at the Fifth National Conference on Education held in August, 1970.

With or without thorough planning, the growth of education in the Republic of China on Taiwan during the past two decades has been remarkable as shown in the following tables.

Table 1. Percentage of Various Populations Receiving Education

Population	1950-51	1969-70
Students at all levels in total population*	14%	26%
School age children in elementary school	79.98%	97.62%
Elementary school graduates entering junior high	32%	74.7%
Junior high graduates continuing their education	31.37%	84.7%
Senior high graduates going to college	72.57%	71%**

* The total population in Taiwan was 7.6 million in 1950-51 and 14.5 million in 1969-70.

** In recent years, large numbers of high school graduates entered the five-year vocational college and normal college, the first three years of which resembling the senior high school and the last two years corresponding to the junior college. The five-year college is a recent innovation in the Republic's educational system. Students entering the five-year college are not included in this category but calculated as "junior high school graduates continuing their education".

Table 2. Numbers of Schools and Students

Level	1950-51	1969-70
Preschool education		
kindergarten	28	581
enrollment	17,111	91,468
Elementary education		
elementary schools	1,231	2,275
enrollment	906,950	2,428,041
Secondary education		
junior and senior high schools	128	702
enrollment	79,948	872,277
vocational high schools	77	141
enrollment	34,437	155,947
normal schools*	8	4
enrollment	5,651	528
Higher education**		
colleges and universities	7	91
enrollment	6,665	184,215

* Since 1960, normal schools have been gradually reorganized into five-year normal colleges and regular teachers colleges.

** Institutions of higher education encompass (1) regular degree-granting colleges and universities (with or without graduate schools), (2) three-year colleges, (3) two-year technical institutes, (4) five-year normal colleges, and (5) five-year vocational colleges, the last four types granting no degrees and the last two types admitting junior-high-school graduates.

In spite of the fact that educational development has been closely following rapid economic growth in the Republic of China, several problems have been encountered in educational planning.

One of the problems is the lack of a coordinating and integrating organization for educational planning. At the present time, several government agencies are concerned with educational planning; notably the Manpower Development Committee of the Council for International Economic Cooperation and Development, and the various departments and committees of the Ministry of Education. Two other such agencies are the National Science Council (primarily for planning in science education) and the Culture Division of the Planning Commission for National Development (an organization under the National Security Council for planning on cultural and educational matters).

Another problem is the absence of an institute for educational research. Although graduate schools of education and professors of education in the Republic do carry on scientific research that provides the empirical basis for educational planning, there exists no organization for the sole purpose of educational research to generate knowledge and guide educational decisions.

Because of the huge military expenditures necessary for national defense that absorb a large percentage of national income, the educational planner in Taiwan finds it difficult to adequately finance the educational programs for national development and social change. This is probably at the root of most other problems encountered in educational planning.

As a consequence of the financing difficulty, public servants and teachers at all levels of schools are underpaid. This accounts for the inefficiency of educational administration and the shortage of qualified, devoted teachers in schools and colleges. The quality of education is therefore seriously affected.

The last but not the least problem is the brain drain, especially in fields of science and technology. This is probably related to the four problems previously mentioned. Every year nearly ten percent of college and university graduates go abroad for further education, mostly to the United States of America; yet ninety percent of them do not return. This constitutes a great loss of high-level manpower (scientists and scholars in particular) to the country.

The Government of the Republic of China is not unaware of the problems. Actions to attack them are being taken. The solutions will, however, be contingent upon external conditions as well as internal factors.

ANNEX VII/2

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN INDONESIA

1. INTRODUCTION

Before 1966 the economy of Indonesia is subordinated by the politics. Economic decisions did not consider economic principles. Wastage occurs in the utilisation of domestic as well as foreign resources. Hyper-inflation was the result of these policies, reaching the highest point in the first half of 1966. The country become a chaos.

A new Government took over with economic and political stabilisation as its first objective. The achievement of this government in curbing inflation was very remarkable. The inflation rate was cut from 50% in 1966 to about 10% in 1969. The time was considered ripe for a planned effort in the development of the country.

1.1 The Five Year Development Plan

The purpose of the plan as formaly stated is to achieve: enough food and clothing; rehabilitation of the infrastructure; housing; increase in employment opportunities; and mental well being. In the implementation of the plan, the agriculture sector received the most attention. Next came the agriculture related industries.

By stressing the development in the agriculture sector it was hoped that enough rice will be produced to enable the country to stop rice imports in 1974. Other agriculture products will either reduce imports or help improve export earnings.

The other advantage of developing agriculture is that at this present stage it is a labor intensive enterprise. It was hoped that agriculture could help reduce unemployment before the country could embark on a fullscale industrialization program. The rehabilitation of the infrastructure was also a hope for keeping the unemployment level to a manageable proportion.

The consuming product (such as clothing) industry will also be helped if the purchasing power of the population, especially the peasants will increase. Demand for hullers, crump rubber machines, logging machines, etc. also increase. Economic stabilitation will result because of the stabilitation of food prices. This will form a good base for an industrial take-off.

Submitted by Dr. Setijadi,
Secretary,
Office of Educational Development,
Ministry of Education and Culture,
Djakarta

The infrastructure was deteriorating because not enough funds were allocated for their maintenance. Railways, roads, ports etc. need to be rehabilitated to increase their service capabilities. Without adequate infrastructure the industry could not be developed.

Oil and nickel are the two mining products which earn a major portion of foreign exchange. Foreign capital is invited to invest in the industry especially in these two mining industries.

1.2 The Educational Chapter of the Five-Year Plan

Tha main task in manpower development should therefore be to supply enough skilled workers, technicians and professionals in the priority areas of the development.

The educational system in Indonesia is such that almost every Ministry has its own educational institutes; from vocational high schools to full fledge universities. This makes educational planning very difficult.

Take for instance agriculture education. The Ministry of Agriculture handles agriculture extension education and agriculture high schools. Previously they have also one agriculture academy (3 years tertiary level), which they close down a few years ago. But the Ministry of Education owns one institute of agriculture (5 years tertiary level) and various agriculture faculties within several universities.

The Five Year Plan is supposed to be program oriented rather than institution oriented. But the fact still remains that the budget is divided into Ministry of Education and non-Ministry of Education programs. The non-Ministry of Education program is called Institutional Education for lack of a better word.

Planning for "regular" education and "institutional" education are done by different ministries with no effective coordination. Therefore it is for instance, difficult to plan for agriculture manpower supply. No institute is in effective control of the whole manpower or education sector.

Another difficulty that we have in the five year plan is the unrelatedness of targets and budget. Certain increases in enrollments and the building of new schools are not matched by the budget. The supposed target of about 140 new Senior Technical High Schools will consume U.S. $240 million, much in excess of the less than U.S. $154 million allocated for the "regular" education sector in five years.

In primary education we have the same picture. None is being allocated for the projected 3.5 million increase of enrollments. The target for primary education is exclusively used to increase the quality of teaching. The fact is, that since about 1956 the central government is no more building many primary schools. Later, the Ministry of Internal Affairs became responsible for the building and maintenance of primary schools. Except for a few enterprising provinces, none of the provincial governments was doing much in the building and maintenance of primary schools. That leaves the parents and the society at large with the responsibility of the building and maintenance

of public as well as private schools. The difference of public and private schools being only that all of the teachers of the public schools are appointed by the provincial government whereas only some of the teachers of (subsidized) private schools are being paid by the provincial government. Hence in planning the public and private primary schools, we have to rely on private investment, over which the planners have almost no control. Therefore, planning became much more of an exercise in prediction: the planners will predict how many new schools will be built by the parents and the society in the future; many of them will request to the government to "take over" their schools. Unless some effective means of controlling private investment is found in primary schools there is not much the planners could do in planning the increase of enrollments.

Technical and vocational education received about 40% of the total "regular" education budget. In the five-year plan vocational education is indentical with vocational schools. This is what could be called the "vocational education fallacy". In the manpower planning not much attention is being paid to training centers or training on-the-job. No explicit effort is being contemplated to coordinate the schools and the industry. In other words vocational education (schools) was planned with disregard to the already existing training courses in industry or elsewhere. Improving vocational education is expressed in terms of increasing the vocational school/general school ratio (see tabel I).

Table I

Expansion Ratio Among Senior Secondary Schools

Year	School-type			Ratio	
	General Secondary	Technical	Other vocational	General	Vocational
1967	397	89	245	100	84
1973	462	235	310	100	112

Source: The Five Year Development Plan 1969/70 - 1973/74. Republic of Indonesia.

1.3 The Reorganization of the Ministry of Education

In the midst of preparation for the first year of the five year plan, the Ministry was reorganized. The present Ministry of Education and Culture was a fusion of three Ministries: the Ministry of Basic Education and Culture, the Ministry of Higher Education and the Ministry of Sports. It will easily be understood that the high degree

of autonomy enjoyed before as a separate Ministry could not easily be controled. A drastic reorganization seems to be the only solution.

This drastic reorganization proved to be a major handicap in carrying out the plan adequately, because it was carried out almost simultaneously with the preparation of the first year of the five year plan, which does not imply that without reorganization the Ministry could perform any better.

A major feature of this reorganization may prove to be effective for educational planning in the future. A new agency for educational planning was developed. Two major characteristics were important in the new agency. First, it has the responsibility of coordinating all planning and programming activities. Second, it is high enough in the hierarchy so that it is directly responsible to the Minister. In its infancy this new agency, the Office of Educational Development (BPP), had already to deal with the complex problems of educational planning.

Another important agency for implementation of the plan is the Team for the Control of the Five Year Plan Projects (TPOP). This Team is an arm of the office of the Minister, responsible for monitoring and control of the projects.

The Secretariat General and the Directorate Generals are responsible for directing the projects. The Inspectorate General has to evaluate that everything is done properly and the objectives are being achieved.

2. THE ANNUAL PLANNING PROCESS

2.1 The process for 1969/70

The five year plan is not a five year plan in the usual sense. It consists of five annual plans. Every year each annual plan is presented before parliament for approval. It is also a flexible plan in a sense that, if a project is considered not practical or does not contribute to the overall target or considered to expensive, the project could be changed. In actual practice the change is not easy. The Central Planning Board (BAPPENAS) could only approve changes if it could be proved, that the project is not working as well as it should be or is not contributing to the overall target. Since many of the projects does not work too well, and since results could not be evaluated quickly there were only a few projects which could be radically changed or terminated beforehand. This insistence on continuation is good if the planning was done properly. However, since not enough time was devoted for preparation and since the planners had usually not enough experience in this kind of planning, many of the plans were considered wrong after a second thought. Also, not enough data were available to back up the plans. If they were available, the reliability of those were questioned. Last minute changes were being made. Readjustments were made constantly during the implementation year.

2.2 The process for 1970/71

These changes and adjustments have consumed such a big portion of the planners attention, that the development of the second annual plan was delayed until the last minute. The result was almost a half year of delay in plan implementation. Inexperience of project leaders was also one of the causes of delay, since they were not able to meet the target of that year. The burden of these carry-overs were headaches for the planners, because carry-overs should be charged against the following year's budget, and consequently readjustments of the projects were required.

2.3 Innovations in the process for 1971/72

This year, preparation for the 3rd annual plan was done early. Each project was scrutinized more strictly. Policies on national priorities were more enforced. There was every indication that the implementation would not be delayed for too long. By the end of December, three month before the next fiscal year begins, all projects should already pass the first review stage by the Central Planning Board and the Directorate General of Budget.

Between early January and end of March further negotiations and adjustment will take place. If carry-over is kept to a minimum, not many readjustments will take place after the plan implementation officially starts in April 1971. The planning cycle would be carried out almost according to the schedule (see figure 1).

A Planning, Programming, Budgetting Scheme (PPBS) was introduced and partially followed.* More inputs of data were utilized and a radical Systems Analysis Planning Approach is being contemplated. However much should be done before innovations could at all be realized.

Two activities seem very important for future planning. One is the National Assessment of Education and the other is the development of the Systems Analysis Model.

3. ASSESSMENT AND SYSTEMS ANALYSIS

3.1 The National Assessment of Education Project

This project has three tasks:

a. To collect problems and information necessary for a long term national strategy of education.

b. To evaluate those problems and information.

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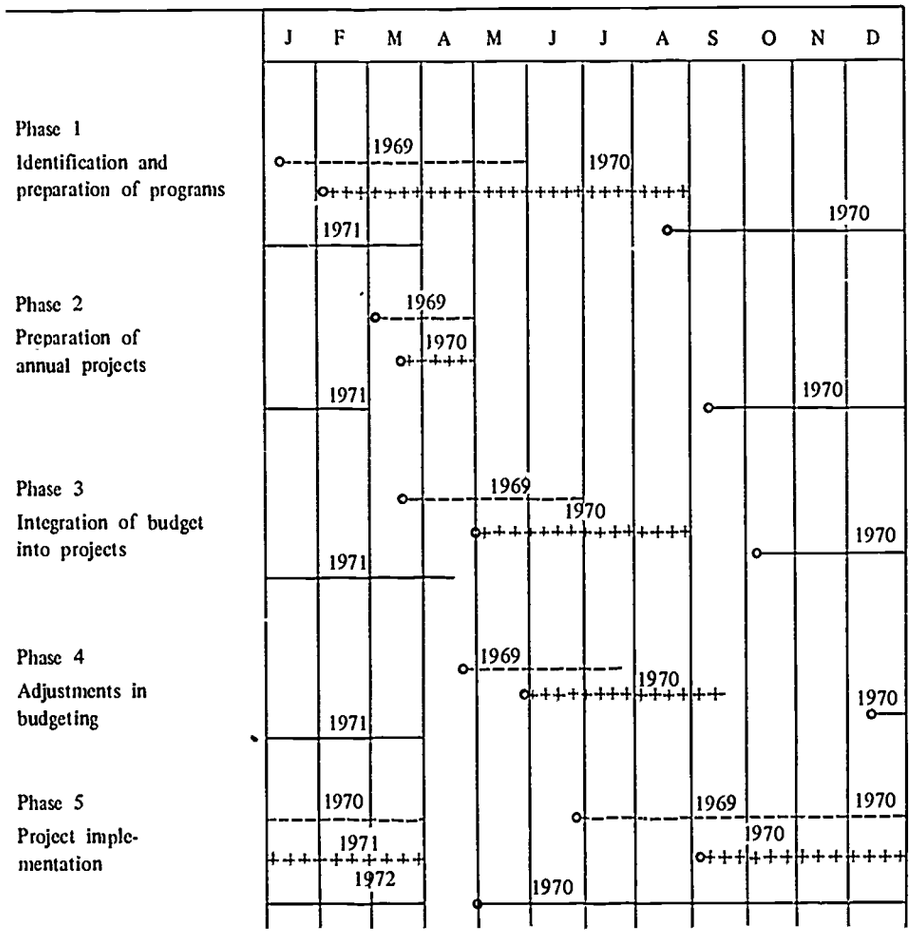
* "Outline of PPBS as Applying to Indonesian Ministry of Education," Ministry of Education, Djakarta, 1970.

FIGURE 1

THE PLANNING CYCLE



Note: In fiscal year 1969 - 70 and 1970 - 71 the planning period is too short, so that implementation (phase 5) is delayed for 3 month in 1969 and more than 5 month in 1970. Since the planning period for fiscal year 1971 - 72 is long enough, it is hoped that there will only about a month delay in the implementation in 1971.

c. To make proposals to the Minister of Education toward a long term national strategy of education in Indonesia.

Because of the third task, the project came to be regarded as a planning unit. Therefore it is placed within the planning secretariat of the Office of Educational Development. The project is of three years duration ending in March 1972. This short period should be utilized wisely by selecting priorities.

After going through several phases of discussions the following procedure was adopted. (What follows are taken from a unpublished paper by C.E. Beeby on Methods of Assessment of Indonesian Education.)

1. decide what appear to be the first major decisions that the Minister will have to make concerning the primary sector (From this point the next steps are taken on the assumption that decisions will concern the allocation of resources).
2. discover, from present indication, how far decisions have already been arrived at concerning the allocation of resources to primary education, and forecasting from these what resources are likely to be available over the short, middle and long range periods.
3. study the alternative structures for the primary schools that would be possible with these resources, and the functions that could be earned out under each structure. (Note: "structure" is used to cover not only the number of grades in the primary school, and in each sector of the school system, but also the number of pupils to be catered for at each grade, which is clearly influenced by the amount of money available "structure" that is to say, covers not only the height of each sector of the pyramid but also its lateral dimension at each grade.)
4. consider ways and means of carrying out more effectively the functions allotted to the primary sector.
5. present the Minister with a list of decisions to be made, in rough order of priority, and a statement of the probable consequences of each type of decision.

Obviously decisions by the Minister of Education will be based on goals for Primary Education. Here the Assessment Project made a distinction between functions and goals. Functions refer to the changes the schools are intended to bring about in the skills, knowledge, and attitudes of its entrants by the time they leave school. Goals refer to the governments aims to bring about changes of any kind in the educational system; when they can be expressed quantitatively with dates for their achievement they will be called its targets. This distinction will proof useful in competing the two approaches in planning. I will refer to this in the final section of this paper.

In order to understand the method better, I like to illustrate this method with one extensive example:

Decision II

Within the primary school system, what relative weights (expressed in terms of expenditure if possible) shall be given to (a) increasing the number of pupils, and (b) improving the quality of education?

A. The decision will depend of:

1. Government policies already decided or indicated.
2. The amount of money likely to be available for primary education.
3. The rate of expansion of primary school numbers that would be possible if part or whole of the money available for development were used to increase numbers.
4. The rate of improvement of quality that would be possible part or whole of the money available for development were used to improve quality.
5. The probable increase in the population of the primary age group over the period, and the demands this will create for additional primary school places.
6. The political and parental pressures that would result from giving the major weight to (a) increasing numbers or (b) improving quality.

B. Additional facts needed for decision

1. The present unit cost per pupil of primary education.
2. The numbers (and percentages) of entrants to the primary school who complete each grade from Grade 1 - Grade 6, and the number who go on from Grade 6 to some form of secondary education.
3. The number of "repeaters" (that is, children who repeat a grade) at each grade. (It is unlikely that any hard figures exist for this, expect in a few cases, but it may be possible to get some rough indication if only for the purpose of calculating the number of "drop-outs" more realistically).
4. The probable numbers in each age-group of primary school age over the next ten years. (Answer already given under Question 1, B.5. above).
5. The number (and percentage) of the relevant age-cohort who never enter primary school at all. Is it possible to break those figures down by (a) sex, (b) town versus country, (c) region?
6. For what proportion of the non-entrants are fact, no school places available? In what areas is this most likely to occur?
7. What has been the rate of expansion over, say, the past three years, of primary school places under the normal, routine budgets? If these budgets

were simply extrapolated for the future, would it be possible to maintain this rate of expansion, or are there new factors (e.g. isolation of areas not now served by schools) that would make the unit cost per school place higher or lower?

8. Where school places are available, why do some parents not send their children to school at all. The truth may be difficult to get at, but Task Force A* might be able to make sample survey sufficient to distinguish between such reasons as economic necessity, indifference, and fear of losing children from the family or village group. It could be done as part of the investigation under Decision I, B.6 above.

C. Alternative courses of action and their consequences

The alternative decisions could range anywhere from spending all the money available for development on expanding the number of school places, to spending it all on improving quality. The most that can be done in Phase A is probably to study the broad consequences of the two extreme decisions. Since it is easier to see the consequences of putting all the emphasis on numbers, I begin with that alternative.

Alternative 1

Spending all the money available for primary education, under both routine and development budgets, on maintaining present standards of quality and increasing the number of school places.

Probable consequences:

(a) Using the unit cost per pupil, work out the number of new school places that could be created each year over the next ten years with the monies available under the routine and the development budgets respectively.

(b) If the total of possible new places exceeds the rate of increase of the population of primary school age, it will be possible either to increase the proportion of children in school in areas which do have schools, or to establish schools in areas where schools do not exist, or to do both.

(c) Etc.

Alternative 2

Spending all the money available for primary education, under both routine and development budgets, on holding fixed the present number of pupils in the schools and then improving the quality of the work to the maximum extent possible with the additional money available.

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* A task-force is a team studying a certain area, say Manpower or Primary Schools.

Probable consequences

(a) The adoption of this decision would probably run counter to Government policies, and it would almost certainly arouse extreme opposition from parents, politicians, teachers and other interested groups. There seems to be no case over the past decade where any country with a reasonable degree of social and political development has been able to "freeze" the numbers in its primary schools in this way (Tanzania probably comes closest to it). The only thing to do would be to estimate, with the aid of the attitude surveys and the opinion of wise and experienced Indonesians (the "jury" system), the minimum amount of expansion that the public would accept, to calculate the yearly cost of this, and to allocate whatever is left over to the improvement of quality. A starting point for discussions on the "minimum expansion" would be given by the amount of expansion that would be possible under the routine budget extrapolated from the figures for recent years.

(b) Etc.

Based on these Methods the Assessment project moves to select priorities for investigation. A draft of the Final Report has been written to act as a control for the studies. It is hoped that by the end of March 1972 the final recommendations are ready to be submitted to the Minister of Education concerning the Strategy of Education beyond the first five-year plan (1974-1984).

3.2 The Systems Analysis Approach in Planning

This planning methodology, following the regular Planning - Programming - Budgeting System (P.P.B.S) procedure, consist of 4 phases. The following were taken from a simulation exercise conducted by the Systems Analysis Team. A more elaborate discussion can be found in a report called "An Indonesian Educational Planning Model Using a Systems Approach," Ministry of Education, Djakarta, 1970.

Phase I. The Selection and Ranking of Targets

This phase consists of 3 steps. The derivation of educational objectives from societal objectives and goals, the derivation of targets from these goals, and the ranking of targets with a relevance tree scheme.

The educational objectives should be stated in terms of output, not process variables. This means that the objectives should refer to graduates, not to the increase of school buildings, equipment and trained teachers. In the selection of educational objectives several points should be considered.

a. What kind of people does the society need that the educational system can help provide?

b. What educational objectives are contained in the five-year-plan?

c. In the goals for each sector of the society, of what help can the education system be? etc.

The educational targets should be stated in qualitative as well as quantitative terms, e.g.:

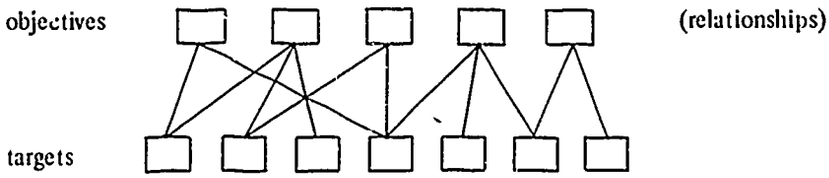
a. Special skill groupings (doctors, electrical engineers, plumbers, etc.)

b. Quality of achievement in various skill groupings (skill hierarchy)

c. Number of graduates from a component (primary school, secondary school, etc.)

d. Time limit for the achievement of any output.

The ranking of targets with a relevance tree scheme is first of all done by drawing lines of relationships of targets and objectives which look something like the following diagram.



After a rather complicated process of determining criteria and scale; and assigning scores, targets could be ranked according to the criteria and scale used.

Phase II. The Translation of Targets into a Variety of Projects

This phase consists of translating the targets into input requirements identifying projects based on the input requirements. To translate targets into input requirements two things are necessary. The first is an estimation of inputs required to achieve quantitative targets and the second an estimation of inputs required to achieve qualitative targets. Translating the quantitative targets into input requirements was done by:

a. choosing from the list of input/graduate ratios* from the data bank the input items to be included in the project.

b. multiply the target number of new graduates by the relevant input/graduate ratios.

Translating qualitative targets into input requirements was a much more complicated matter, because of the difficulty of quantifying quality. The first arose from the difficulty to quantify qualitative targets. The other is in the utilization of an impact index which is an estimated weight of the most easily controlable input variables on the targets to be achieved.

* Quantity of a specific input required, at present or in the future, to produce a graduate.

The end product of this phase is a list of inputs needed to achieve either quantitative or qualitative change. In addition to that, there should be a list of other projects that are required because of the increased demand for student and teachers that the new projects have created.

Phase III. Determining Cost and Benefits

This is the budgeting phase in which inputs is translated into money terms To measure benefits is rather difficult, first because of the great discrepancy of salaries of the government and private employees, and second because of the difficulties in identifying other benefits and translating these benefits into monetary terms.

Cost benefit ratios are used as one of the criteria for selecting a project.*

4. THE PLANNING AGENCY

4.1 The Office of Educational Development

To facilitate the integrated planning activities the Office of Educational Development (BPP) was created, incorporating all planning and research units within the Ministry of Education the task of this unit is not only planning but also to insure that all activities relevant to planning, i.e. research and development are being carried out. In other words, the office is a coordinating agency for research, planning and development.

BPP is divided into a planning secretariat and six institutes. The institutes are for curriculum development, educational facilities, educational media, personnel development, research and evaluation and library development. The last institute may be converted into an institute for life-long education. The planning secretariat has to coordinate all planning activities with the institutes and with other units of the Ministry. At this stage of the development of the BPP, only the secretariat has been staffed rather well. Other institutes has no permanent staff and the responsibilities are carried out on an ad hoc basis (projects).

The planning secretariat has the responsibility of both annual plans and long term plans. The annual plans are plans of the Ministry of Education submitted to the Central Planning Board as an integral part of the overall five year plan. The long term plans are plans for the second five year plan and beyond. Due to the difference in nature of the two tasks, two separate groups were created within the Secretariat: The Annual Planning Team and the Assessment Project.

After the Assessment Project submits its final report, the work will be continual by all units of the BPP. A Presidential Commission may be needed to examine the report and submit it to the cabinet and the parliament for approval.

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* Other criteria being target priorities as defined in Phase I, availability of local funds, etc.

4.2 Supporting Activities of the Planning Process

There are various research and developmental activities underway which supports the planning process. Tentative-hypothetical decisions have been made to guide certain experimental-development activities. Examples are the comprehensive high schools and the reduction of six year primary education into five years. The experiments were carried out in several places, mostly by universities and teachers institutes.

Another activity is the creation of a data bank for planning. This activity is partly a result of the systems analysis efforts and partly due to a desire to update and upgrade educational statistics. As was indicated before, other kinds of data were needed, such as the attitude of students and parents toward schools, teachers methods of teaching, societal support of schools, etc. The latter activities are done by the assessment project.

Other activities concerns the relationships of the central and provincial authorities in educational planning. Pilot projects are conducted in two provinces.

Lack of qualified personnel for planning and related activities to be overcome. Scholarships were utilised to train groups of persons as a planning team. One group was trained in Indonesia by the Systems Analysis contractor and another in Australia. An intensive training programme is being contemplated in the country as well as abroad to have more qualified people involved in educational planning and related activities, not only in the center but also in the provinces.

UNESCO was active in sending several missions to help in the planning exercises especially in relation with technical assistance required from abroad. It is also helping with the institution building of BPP. Ford Foundation is sponsoring the Assessment Project. Other activities with or without help from abroad are supporting the planning process.

All of these indicates that Indonesia has already caught the "planning fever". Translating planning into implementation, evaluating results and feeding results back into the planning process were things which still need many improvements.

ANNEX VII/3

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN JAPAN

1. Japan is an industrialized country with her own unique history as an Asian country. A hundred years ago Japan started building a modern type of school education, following the example of European nations and the United States. Yet Japan strove to integrate the modern school system with her Oriental tradition. If looked at superficially, the educational problems of Japan may appear similar or common to those of other industrialized countries. However, ways to solve these problems needed to be developed through taking into account the context of Japan's unique social and cultural background.

2. Being faced with the social changes, people concerned had become aware that it was time to consider seriously how to reform the educational system over the coming years so that it could respond to the needed qualitative changes that have arisen as a result of the recent quantitative expansion of school education. The necessity to undertake overall long-range planning for the educational system was felt. The Minister of Education was aware of this fact, and thus requested the Central Council for Education, his highest advisory organ, to formulate goals for both quantitative and qualitative development of school education over a long term perspective of twenty or thirty years as well as the measures to implement them.

3. The quantitative expansion of Japanese education has been remarkable. Particularly higher education enrollments over the past twenty years have expanded nearly six times and the existing university system has begun to prove inadequate to provide the large numbers of students with effective education. To maintain the policy of "no control but no support" to private institutions which accommodate about three quarters of all students of higher education has become out of date. Diversification of upper secondary education is required since eighty per cent of the age group are now studying in upper secondary schools. It is also necessary to review once again the role and effect of pre-primary and elementary education for individual's growth and development as the total years the people receive school education increases. Furthermore the philosophy of the life-time education has prompted us to reexamine the proper role expected of school education.

4. The work of the Central Council for Education to make the overall plan for education can be divided into three steps. The first step has been to analyse and evaluate educational development in Japan from 1872 up to the present, and the

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Submitted by Mr. Kikuo Nishida,
Director,
Planning and Research Department,
Minister's Secretariat,
Ministry of Education, Japan

results of this study were published as an Interim Report last year. The first part of the Report including two chapters, "Matters relating to School Education in General" and "Matters referring to Specific School Levels" is shown in Appendix attached hereto.

5. The second step has been to clarify the objectives of educational reform for resolving the problems pointed out through the work of the first step and to meet the challanges anticipated in the future. Studies from this viewpoint were carried out from July last year up to October this year, and the results were made public as the Basic Guideline for Educational Reform.

6. The third step of the work of the Council was just started early this month. This task consists of studies on the political measures and the amount of resources necessary to implement the reforms. In addition to that the role of school education in the framework of the total educational system including families, schools and societies is under study.

7. A final report of the Council is expected to be submitted to the Minister of Education in May of next year. Not only the Minister of Education but also the Prime Minister is looking forward to seeing the conclusions. It is anticipated that educational reforms will be carried out steadily in Japan in the coming years.

Appendix

THE CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE CENTRAL COUNCIL FOR EDUCATION

Summarized below are the findings of Sub-committees XXI, XXII, and XXIII of the Central Council for Education of their investigations into the Japanese educational system. These findings are elaborated more fully in Part Two. Presented also, in outline, are those problems proposed by the Council for future study. These include, in particular, the effect of educational inputs upon educational outputs, a subject not thoroughly examined in previous investigations.

CHAPTER I. MATTERS RELATING TO SCHOOL EDUCATION IN GENERAL

I. National and Social Demand for School Education and Equality of Educational Opportunity

From the beginning of the Meiji Era, and starting at the primary level, school education in this country has been diffused and developed gradually. It has had to overcome many difficulties but, thanks to enthusiastic popular support and exceptional dedication on the part of all those individuals involved, it has advanced steadily through the years. A general survey of its development shows that it has grown apace with other socio-economic variables.

The expansion of upper secondary schools and universities during the post-war years, encouraged by such factors as the extension of the compulsory education period, the establishment of a single-track school system, the "baby boom", and so forth, is also continuation of the consistently upward trend of educational development since the Meiji Era. There are, nevertheless, problems still to be resolved on a qualitative level. In recent years, the people's demand for education has grown continuously. Although the tendency of society to evaluate a person superficially on the basis of his nominal school background is gradually changing, school education is generally regarded as useful both for acquiring social status and for developing one's abilities.

Many adults also now seek opportunities for further study, a fact which suggests that today's rapidly changing society calls for the institution of a new concept of "permanent education". In addition, society's demand for educated manpower has expanded along with the rapid economic development of recent years. This has made the shortage of a qualified labour force only more apparent. Scientific, technological and social progress on the present day scale calls for an ever-increasing qualitative level of manpower.

Given the circumstances, school graduates have been assimilated into employment fairly smoothly on the whole but this does not preclude potential disparities between their qualifications and the jobs they actually hold. We are still faced with the problem of combining an appropriate vocational training with an education qualitatively and culturally edifying.

In conclusion, whilst the growing demand for education accompanying the rising income levels of the people is held principally accountable for the quantitative propagation of education, there now remains a real need to coordinate the contents and qualitative aspects of education, taking into consideration both society's demand for educated manpower and its need of cultural standards as well.

Major Problems for Further Study:

(1) In planning future programmes for the diffusion and enrichment of education, the following matters require perspective and a definition of the policy goals involved:

(a) Advancement of the quantity and quality of popular demand for education in keeping with other socio-economic factors.

(b) Socio-economic demands on the standard and contents of education prompted by the growth of industry, science and culture.

(c) Social, economic and cultural effects that might results from the diffusion of education and the improvement of educational standards.

(2) So that individuals may acquire the knowledge, skill and social adaptability necessary for the rapid advancement of society, research should be carried out into the possibilities of providing people of all ages, professions and social levels with educational opportunities throughout their lives. This we would call "permanent education". In this context a reappraisal of the roles and limits of school education as well as of its relationship with social education and home education, is called for.

(3) An examination of measures aiming at the equalization of opportunity for higher education is necessary since, in the present situation, students are often influenced in their decisions for or against higher education by their economic situations and family backgrounds rather than by their scholastic standing in their upper secondary schools.

(4) The current tendency among leading employers who recruit employees only from graduates of specific universities not only obstructs the ideal of equal opportunity of employment but also constitutes a key factor responsible for the present inflexible social appraisal of universities and further intensifies competition for admission into those universities. It is necessary, therefore, to study measures enabling each university to raise its standards while maintaining its own personality and, at the same time, ensuring employment for graduates under the exclusive criteria of individual merit and aptitude.

(5) Bearing in mind the progress of urbanization and the changes in living environments throughout society it is now essential to make a comprehensive re-examination of

locations suitable for educational establishments and to study the systematic consolidation and development of educational establishments as an integral part of the overall national land development programme.

II. School Systems and the Contents and Methods of Education

School education in this country was developed early in the Meiji Era as a key factor in national expansion. Thus, an initial foundation was laid for the nation's growth in subsequent years. The post-war reform of the school system can also be said to have played a pioneering role in the advancement of this country. At the present time, Japan occupies a relatively high position among the advanced nations in terms of the nation-wide diffusion of school education and in terms of general scholastic standards. There is, nevertheless, a question of whether or not the present educational system is capable of keeping pace with the country's rapid social and economic progress. In school education, in the past, emphasis was placed on teaching students those rudiments of culture and technology necessary only for the economic advancement of the country. Such teaching did, indeed, play a significant social role, but, with this trend firmly entrenched in the school system, the general tendency to think of education solely in utilitarian terms has become evident. Moreover, with the major effort concentrated on achieving a rapid quantitative rise alone, it cannot be claimed that adequate consideration has been given to the need to develop the various potentialities of individual students.

The times, however, are changing rapidly. In a highly technological society, individuals are called upon to develop their abilities to the fullest extent. On the one hand, society demands maximum levels of learning, technical ingenuity and creativity; on the other hand, it requires the development of balanced, autonomous personalities capable of leading righteous lives in an affluent society. Moreover, with the growing proximity of nations there are more than a few aspects of development in which this country is looked to for guidance. Consequently it is, today, of vital importance to make a comprehensive survey of the merits and demerits of the current school system and lay the foundations for the social developments of the future.

Attention should be drawn to the fact that, in the past, reform of the educational system and the diversification of education was often undertaken in compliance with the needs of the times. Frequently, school courses were successfully adjusted to meet the needs of students' future careers but, just as frequently, the reforms, by creating impasses in students' school careers, created confusion and exacerbated class differences and animosities. Improvements in the goals and content of education have also been effected in the past without the benefit of prior, scientific research. Even where the selection system for student admission is concerned, it should be noted that, despite the frequent technical reforms carried out to this date, various requirements (namely, those for fair competition, propriety of selection results, the elimination of the stresses and strains

accompanying preparatory studies for entrance exams, etc.), failed to be met at the same time. The result is that the ideal direction for both improvements and progress is still to be established.

Major Problems for Further Study:

(1) For the qualitative improvement of education the following must be considered:

(a) To strive to have students not merely acquire learning and technical skills but also to develop their creative faculties. To permit them to achieve a balanced growth as human beings both mentally and physically so that they can become worthwhile, self-reliant individuals and valuable members of their society and nation.

(b) To increase the capabilities of the Japanese that they may participate in the international society.

(c) To achieve a balance between general education and technical education in the school system and to establish the ideal combination of learning and skills to be sought in school education, i.e. that which will be needed for the students' future professional and personal lives.

(2) With a view to understanding, comprehensively, the human elements involved and to achieving maximum results in the development of individual potential, it is necessary to study the means of diversifying the contents of school education and to determine whether or not there is any need to increase its structural flexibility. It would also be fitting to study the contents and methods of education aimed at developing different characteristics in men and women respectively.

(3) A study is called for of the following, with a view to providing students with education adapted to their individual abilities and aptitudes:

(a) The development of effective methods for assessing students' abilities and aptitudes and making the proper use of them.

(b) Necessary conditions for giving effective instruction by ability group.

(c) The time element involved in steering students into courses appropriate to their degree of maturity, personal stability, aptitudes and interests, and the manner of managing such courses.

(d) Effective methods of education and guidance for students endowed with exceptional talents and abilities.

(e) A systematic study of learning processes and the possibilities of applying new techniques in education.

(4) With regard to the organization of the school system, a comprehensive examination is needed to consider the following points in addition to the social demands on education. In this respect, an institutional consideration is necessary to allow for experimental studies aiming at reform within the framework of the present school system.

(a) Points that should be kept in mind in considering, from the viewpoint of human development, the present divisions in the school system:

(i) That it is not clearly defined, in relation to home education, when institutionalized group education of small children should begin.

(ii) That little correlation has been established in the educational system between the education of five year-olds and that of six and seven year-old children despite their similarities in terms of growth.

(iii) That there is a big discrepancy in growth between senior graders and junior graders in elementary schools.

(iv) That the structural subdivision of secondary education into the lower and upper stages carries with it the danger of undesirable influences being exerted on the younger ones.

(b) The practicability of offering a variety of courses into which pupils might be classified at the right time.

(c) The educational significance of a given school being composed of school children at different stages of growth.

(d) The completion of education at separate school levels and consistency throughout the whole course of study.

(e) The most propitious and effective way to introduce general educational subjects, specialist subjects and foreign languages all of which are included in the so-called general education programme in the university.

(f) Creating opportunities for special education and working out its proper place within the entire school system.

(g) The need of "permanent education" and the creation of flexibility in the school system.

(5) It is necessary to improve methods of student selection and to study measures for the alleviation of massive student application to certain specific universities. In this way we may prevent both educational imbalance and the creation of "Ronins" (unsuccessful examinees intending to try again) problems stemming from the excessively competitive situation inherent in the current admission system.

III. The Distribution of Expenditures and the Burden of the Costs of Education

On the basis of international comparisons, educational costs in this country have been relatively high since the Meiji Era in terms of percentages of total national expenditure and in terms of per capita income levels for each period studied. This reflects a consistent national enthusiasm for, and effort toward, educational advancement. Japan also ranks high in terms of the State's share in the total educational cost. It should be noted, however, that the rate of educational expenditure has been rather static

considering the nation's rapid economic growth whereas most foreign nations have been increasing their educational expenditure in recent years.

As for educational costs per student, which are related to the qualitative standard of education, increases have been seen in Japan at elementary and secondary school levels, along with the rise in per capita income levels. The rate of expenditure on higher education has not, however, risen proportionately, although the numbers involved in higher education have been substantially increased. In terms of facilities and equipment per student the lack of a higher rate of expenditure at this level is worthy of notice.

The rate of the State's share in overall educational costs has been on the increase in many countries in recent years. Therefore, from the viewpoint of the social significance of education and of educational investments and the effects thereof, it should be determined now whether or not it is advisable to adhere to the present concept of having the beneficiaries, that is, the students, bear the costs of their education. Differences in their financial situations have resulted in a variety of discrepancies between national and local public universities on the one hand and private universities on the other. Taken from a national standpoint, it is irrational that students attending private universities should be obliged to pay higher fees than those at national or local public universities. This occurs despite the similarity between the two groups of universities as institutions of higher learning, and despite the fact that an overwhelmingly larger percentage of students attend private universities.

The salary level of elementary school teachers has been kept at a certain percentage level in relation to per capita spending standards since the Meiji years. Salary levels of upper secondary school and university teachers have declined relatively, however, in an inverse proportion to the quantitative expansion of upper secondary and higher education. There has thus been a tendency for the salary differentials between groups of teachers to even out. Teachers' salaries have also been pegged at a lower level than the comparable salaries in private enterprize. It should be noted that there is a considerable difference in pay scales between national and local public universities and private universities. Moreover, the salary level of university teachers in Japan is lower than the international standard in relation to the per capita income level of the country as a whole.

Major Problems for Further Study:

(1) It should be ascertained what percentage of the national income should be set aside for education in order to maintain Japan's rate of progress, with a general perspective taken from social, economic and cultural development both at home and abroad. Within such a framework all expenses relating to all educational activities, including school education, should be considered.

(2) A reappraisal of the idea of making the students bear the costs of their education is now called for, bearing in mind the public nature of education, the effects of educational investments, etc.

(3) Possible improvements in the distribution of the burden of educational costs between national and local public authorities should also be considered. Here one must take into consideration the higher rate of educational expenditure needed by the less affluent local authorities. This could accentuate the various discrepancies between certain regions. Such improvements must be seen in the context of population mobility, with students moving from their homes to institutions of higher learning or to employment.

(4) The present policy concerning financial assistance to private schools should be re-examined as an integral part of overall development for all of the national, local, public and private educational institutions.

(5) A study should determine to what extent capital expenditure in school education should be increased, with a view to achieving a qualitative improvement of school education and the renovation of educational methods for the future.

(6) Studies should be made of the improvement of working conditions of teachers including pay levels, salary scales, etc., as a means of obtaining qualified teaching staffs better adapted to the school education of the future. This problem should be examined within the context of total educational expenditure.

CHAPTER II. MATTERS REFERRING TO SPECIFIC SCHOOL LEVELS

I. Pre-Primary Education

Pre-school education has spread rapidly since the war, and the demand for it will surely increase in the future. There is a considerable disparity between regions, however, particularly in the availability of kindergartens and nursery schools, but this disparity is not attributable to the difference in functions between these two types of establishment for pre-primary education. The spread of kindergartens is much slower in towns and villages with smaller populations and lower per capita income levels. There is also a considerable regional difference in the availability of public and private kindergartens.

Definitive conclusions cannot be reached at this point as to the value of pre-school education, but its general merits have been widely accepted. In view of the manifold changes in the living environments for small children due, in part, to the acceleration of urbanization, changes in family structure etc., it is essential to adjust and improve the pre-school educational system while, at the same time, giving proper attention to the role of home education, so that the protection and the education of small children can be carried out in confirmity with those changes. In addition, the need for early education to discover and develop special talents in small children is advocated in some circles at the present time. This problem cannot be taken up as an institutional one at this stage, however.

Major Problems for Future Study:

(1) To study measures for promoting a balanced development of pre-school education and home education from the standpoint of the protection and education of small children.

(2) As regards kindergartens and nursery schools which now play mutually complementary roles as institutions for pre-school education: to co-ordinate their functions rationally and ensure their systematic expansion and adjustment in conformity with their respective roles.

(3) To study the proper roles the national and local Governments should play in the diffusion and improvement of pre-school education in the future. This should take into account the wide regional disparity in the availability of pre-school education and the extreme financial burdens parents are now obliged to bear because their main reliance is on private kindergartens, even in urban areas.

II. Primary Education

Elementary education in this country was established as an essential part of Japan's development into a modern state. It was conceived as a unitary school system for all classes. It was created in response to several basic needs: for unification, for the development of a national consciousness, for national prosperity, strength, industrial development and productivity. Education was made available to the masses through "Terakoya", temple schools before the Meiji Era and elementary education spread rapidly throughout the country as a result of the establishment of a compulsory school system. This country now occupies a leading position in the world in terms of educational diffusion and its system of primary education is genuinely stable.

Nevertheless, a number of educational problems still remain to be solved within the context of children's growth. For example: the correlation of kindergartens with elementary schools; the individual differences in the growth of the junior and senior graders in elementary school, and so forth. And, while elementary education teaching programmes have been expanded, reflecting the complexities and the advancement of society, it is still essential to consider the development of school children's various potentials without leaning toward an education in which learning is imparted in too general a manner.

Major Problems for Future Study:

(1) To study measures for institutional and managerial improvements, which are necessary for developing the various potentials of school children in harmony with their growth.

(2) To study the role the national Government should play in the improvement and natural advancement of basic popular education while giving adequate consideration to the more effective application of school teachers' creativity and judgement.

III. Secondary Education

Since the Meiji Era secondary education in this country has been faced with the problem of how to place general and vocational education within the school system and curricula. In the pre-war period a dual system was developed dividing general educational schools from vocational training schools but, at the end of the last war, all schools were streamlined into a single-track system of lower and upper secondary levels. Under the current system steps have been taken to provide in the upper secondary schools a general course of study and a vocational course; also, within a general course, students are now able to take vocational subjects as well. This method was adopted because about 40 per cent of the general course graduates takes up employment on leaving school.

As it turns out, however, even those students who enter school with the intention of taking jobs after graduation are prone to prefer the general course of study for a variety of reasons, including their own difficulty in deciding on a career, the general tendency for employers to give priority to general course graduates and, not the least, the fact that their chances of going on to advanced schools are virtually nil if they opt for the vocational course. There is a clear indication that the choice of either course is made not on the basis of the student's ability, aptitude and future career; rather, it is based on the need to obtain adequate entrance qualifications for further education.

In pre-war years, enrolment rates in secondary schools were merely 20 per cent or thereabouts whereas today the rate of advancement to upper secondary schools has exceeded 70 per cent. Therefore, the upper secondary school has turned out to be an educational institution for the majority of the population. The need for further diversification of upper secondary school education is expected to increase, along with a rise in the rate of advancement to upper secondary schools; students possessing varied levels of ability and aptitude are enrolled and it is imperative to provide vocational training for the greater part of the student body, which enters the labour market immediately upon graduation. There are various other problems inherent in the secondary education system: a lack of consistency in curricula, with adverse effects on the pupil's growth during adolescence, results from the sub-division of secondary education into junior and senior stages of only three years' duration each.

Major Problems for Future Study:

(1) To study the merits and demerits of the present system of sub-dividing secondary education.

(2) To organize courses in such a way that the choice of a vocational course cannot exclude students from progressing to higher education. At the same time to study the most propitious moments for classifying students into different courses and thus obtaining a more flexible method of managing the classified courses.

(3) To re-examine the organization of general education and technical education in

upper secondary schools, forecasting the trends of social demands and taking into account the students' future goals and their ramifications within the diversified senior secondary education programme as a whole.

IV. Higher Education

With higher education expanding at a pace in keeping with socio-economic growth, about half the population hopes to benefit from higher education already. It is evident that this widespread demand for higher education is accentuated by the general tendency to ascribe high social status to nominal school backgrounds. Judging from the development of the knowledge industries and the prospects before us of a future information society, demand for and entry into higher education can only be expected to go on increasing.

It is essential, however, to effect qualitative improvements in higher education in keeping with its quantitative expansion. In reality, the universities are inclined to remain satisfied with their traditional organization and reforms to bring the universities up to date have not been carried out. These factors, coupled with others, have given rise to various problems. For example, the following issues can be pin-pointed:

(a) Universities frequently fail to encompass their dual functions of education and research.

(b) Their objectives and the contents of their education remain uniform although the demands upon the system are varied.

(c) Little change has been evoked in the perception of teachers on the demands now made on them, nor in the system of student guidance, despite the considerable changes in the types of students enrolled.

(d) General education, though loftily conceived, still fails to display adequate results.

(e) The continuous expansion of the university is inadequately handled because of a lack of reformatory zeal and inefficient administration.

(f) It is very difficult to secure capable, talented teachers and administrators and thus to renovate the presently exclusive personnel in universities.

Furthermore, the research structure within the university is far from being responsible to today's need for ever more advanced studies. This is evident in its failure to adapt to new academic fields.

Private institutions account for 75 per cent of all students in higher education. They thus meet a major part of the educational demands of the people. There has been little difference in the social function of the private and national and public institutions, but a gap has arisen between them in terms of the qualitative standards and the burdens of tuition because of the weaker financial position of the private institution.

There has also been a visible trend in this country to concentrate educational institutions in large cities and the humanities departments predominate over all the other specialized fields in those institutions. This is not unrelated to the current practice of approving the universities' establishment and to the financial position of private universities and colleges.

Major Problems for Future Study:

(1) To re-examine the best way of categorizing and effectively organizing institutions of higher education in general, as well as organizing research agencies attached to institutions of higher education, with a view to rendering both the educational and research functions of universities more effective while, at the same time, taking into consideration the ideal social role they should play in the future.

(2) To study, judging from the past achievements of general education in the university, whether its educational goals can be attained through an improvement of present conditions and the enforcement of present methods or only after the introduction of more drastic structural reforms.

(3) To study under what management structure within the university voluntary reforms can be promoted in harmony with social advancements, and more efficient administration, management and renovation of personnel administration can be undertaken.

(4) To study how investment in education may raise the quality of higher education as a whole, and to study the following points designed to achieve a rational and systematic expansion and enrichment of institutions of higher education:

(a) The significance of classifying universities by establishment into national, local public and private universities.

(b) Methods for establishing a sound financial basis for national, public and private universities.

(c) Future social demand in specialized fields.

(d) Regional distribution of these institutions in connection with the overall national development plans.

V. Special Education

The approach to special education should be positive, aimed at developing all the abilities and aptitudes of handicapped pupils, given their mental and physical disorders, instead of passively attempting to compensate for their defects. It is pointed out, through the results of previous studies and educational practices, that flexible educational treatment, conforming to the type and degree of disorder, is essential, that early education proves more effective and that it is also necessary to have handicapped pupils study together with normal pupils whenever possible. Comprehensive joint studies

combining the special ialist skills and knowledge of pedagogy, psychology. medical science, engineering etc. are vital to the furtherance of special education in the future.

With regard to the availability of special education there are differences in the type of disorder treated and there are wide differences among regions.

Major Problems for Future Study:

(1) With the hope of achieving a qualitative improvement and an advancement of special education at the same time. comprehensive research is needed into the many problems involved in the study of physically and mentally handicapped children, including those of diagnosis, differentiation and treatment of disorders, education and training, social independence and so forth. Methods for the dissemination of the results of such research should be studied as well. Furthermore, study should be made of the relations between measures for the promotion of special education and measure. concerning child welfare.

(2) To study the question of early special education, of special schools and vocational education beyond the school-leaving age limit as well as the provision of institutions for special training for each type of disorder and for each national region. Guidelines should be established, also, concerning the establishing bodies of such schools.

VI. Teacher Training

A major task for any educational system is to recruit and train able teachers. Such teachers must be endowed with a sense of vocation as well as an affection for their pupils. These are basic points and lie behind any kind of teacher training envisaged.

In the training of teachers in pre-war years a strong emphasis was placed upon the building of a high moral standard among teachers. In the post-war years, however, teachers began to be trained in universities and stress was laid on teaching as a profession calling for specific knowledge and capabilities. A wide cultural background was sought for teachers in addition to their specialized professional requirements. Now, developing the ideal even further, it is argued that teachers should be well-rounded personalities equipped with an extensive cultural background and a high degree of professional training and skill. Yet the education available in teacher training faculties or in teacher training courses in other faculties in the new university system (as inaugurated after the last war) cannot be said to have attained its original objectives. Moreover, there is a clear tendency among particularly talented young people to seek outlets other than in the teaching profession.

A call has come from the schools themselves for the type of teacher who really understands his charges, who would take a keen interest in the fostering of their creativity and who, himself, would possess both the ability and the personality needed to give student guidance. A further study of the present teacher training system should be made in the light of these requirements.

Moreover, it has become increasingly difficult to adjust the supply and demand situation of teachers on a prefectural level alone as a result of the recent concentration of population in large cities.

Major Problems for Future Study:

In view of the key importance involved in recruiting top quality talents into the teaching profession, it is urgent that improvements in the scholarship system for teacher candidates be made in addition to improving current working conditions. Examination of the following issues is suggested:

(a) An improvement in teachers' training to develop the capabilities which a professional teacher is called upon to have, and the expansion of systematic programmes for the in-service training and education of practising teachers.

(b) Possibility of introducing departmentalization into the senior grades of elementary schools. and measures for the training of teachers capable of adapting themselves to the new educational methods consequent on the development of teaching aids.

(c) Measures to develop further the capabilities and the training and recruitment of upper secondary school teachers in line with the diffusion of senior secondary education.

(d) Measures for wide-range readjustments of interregional imbalances in the supply and demand position of teachers.

(e) The most suitable organization for the attached school as an establishment where various educational experiments can be conducted for the elevation of educational standards and for institutional improvements as well.

VII. Compulsory School Attendance

This country visualized the eight-year compulsory education period as a long-range plan early in the Meiji Era. It put it into action gradually as national resources developed, adopting a flexible formula in its enforcement in conformity with the needs of the times. Indeed, compulsory education aimed in the beginning at teaching children the basic knowledge and techniques needed by everyone. But, along with the diffusion of education and the extension of the compulsory education age, more importance has been attached to providing children with equal and appropriate opportunities for education according to their mental and physical growth.

There has been a great deal of argument recently concerning the feasibility of extending the school-leaving age even further in the light of the predicted needs of the future. This should also be reviewed in the context of the idea of "permanent education". Moreover, looking back at the rapid progress of the recent past it would be valuable to consider, in terms of a long-range plan, the gradual future extension of the compulsory education period and the adoption of a more flexible formula concerning compulsory

school attendance.

Major Problems for Future Study:

(1) To study the need and possibility of extending compulsory education to include pre-school education.

(2) Inasmuch as upper secondary education is soon to be diversified in accordance with the students' abilities, aptitudes and choice of future courses in life, a study is suggested of the possibility of gradually making this level of education compulsory.

(3) To study effective measures for dealing with un-enrolled children or long-term absentees within the compulsory age group, considering that there still exist considerable numbers of such children, though their frequency differs from province to province, and also that many of these un-enrolled or chronically absent children could be made the object of specialized education.

ANNEX VII/4

PRESENT STATUS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN REPUBLIC OF KOREA

In this latter half of the 20th Century, every nation of the world is undergoing rapid change and development, heading toward an affluent but uncertain future. Amidst these circumstances, Korea has been expanding her dreams for a well-planned future, while laying a solid foundation for modernization of the country – the historic mission to regenerate the country.

What kind of future lies ahead depends on how man designed his future. Under the great national plan for development and a concept of National Education Charter promulgated in 1968, Long-range and Comprehensive Educational Plan has been designed to firmly set the position of education in Korea by the Ministry of Educati- a from the beginning of 1968 and the draft plan was settled.

1. Objectives of the Plan

The ultimate objective of this plan is to help develop the educational system, which is the driving force for national development and mainstay of the mentality of the people.

Immediate goals of this plan are as follows:

1) To raise the internal efficiency of education by modernizing study and teaching activities.

2) To raise the external productivity of education by satisfying the manpower demand as well as educational demand of the nation.

3) To increase the efficiency of educational supporting structures, such as educational administration and finance.

4) To realize a "well-planned educational system by strengthening the planning ability in education.

2. Scope of Plan

This plan covers a 15-years period, from 1972 to 1986. This period is divided into three five-year periods to establish "five-year educational development plans," each for the respective period. 1970 and 1971 are set aside as the years for preparation.

This plan has been formulated in the following way:

Submitted by Mr. Choi Dong Yul,
Chief, International Education Section,
Ministry of Education, Korea.

1) By educational function: This covers students, faculty members, educational courses, schooi facilities, educational administration. and educational finances.

2) By educational sector: Educational fields are divided into primary, middle and high schools, teachers schools, vocational schools, and extracurricular education.

3) By educational content: Subjects such as Korean languages, mathematics, science, social science, and physical education, are left to each five-year educational development plan.

This plan, incorporating both public and private schools, has been formulated as a national educational plan. Provincial educational plans will be handled separately from this national plan.

3. Premises in the Plan

In this plan, the basic premises are based on the following major perspectives of overall national development in the fields of national economy, population and manpower, social and cultural development, science and technology, and government and administration, in the coming 15 years.

1) Economic Development

2) Population and Manpower

3) Social and Cultural Changes

4) Development of Government and Administration

5) Meaning of Education for National Development

4. Major Directions of the Plan

This plan is designed to intensively fulfill education in the following 10 different directions during the plan period:

1) Expansion of Middle School and College Education:
Priority Order by School:
Emphasis in the plan is placed in the expansion of middle school education and college education; particularly in the former during the first half of the plan period and in the latter during the latter half.

2) Reform of Graduate School Education:
Beginning in the early part of the plan period, intensive efforts will be made to reform and strengthen graduate school education particularly of college education.

3) Increase of Incentives for Teaching Profession:
During the plan period, the structure of incentives for teachers will be gradually strengthened, giving priority to it, together with the development

of school courses and the science of education, over the expansion of school facilities.

4) Development and Dissemination of Methods of Educational Science:
Efforts will be made to study, develop, disseminate, and utilize various modern teaching tools, teaching methods, and administrative tools which employ principles accomplished in natural science and behavioral science, in order to maximize the results of teaching and learning as well as to ensure the qualitative development of education.

5) Strengthening of Educational Research and Development:
Research and development efforts on behalf of education itself will be strengthened to build up the system of supplying fundamental ideals for continued educational reforms and development.

6) Reform and Development of Scientific and Technical Education:
A well-balanced development of all the contents of education will be programmed, with particular emphasis placed on scientific and technical education at all levels of school.

7) Intellectural Study Ability, Sense of Values in Development, and Moral Principles:
Throughout all school courses, all aspects of educational objectives are incorporated in the plan in a balanced way; emphasis is placed particularly on the development of the intellectual study ability, sense of values in development, and social moral principles.

8) Specialization and Cooperation in Academic-Industrial Education Functions:
In order to ensure the smooth supply of industrial manpower, school functions in vocational education and the vocational training functions of industrial enterprises will be specialized; and they will be strengthened together, thus establishing the academic-industrial cooperative system.

9) Education in Preparation of Territorial Unification:
The educational system for the pre-unification period will be strengthened with a view to cultivating a spirit and ability for achievement of territorial unification of the nation; and studies of a educational system adaptable after the achievement of territorial unification will be promoted to prepare for various educational problems that we anticipated will arise following unification.

10) Securing of an Educational Budget on an Appropriate Scale:
All contents of the plan have close relations to the budgetary and financial support. Efforts will be made to secure the required budget for educational expenses at least for the minimum essential scale, with institutional measures prepared to make strategic investments.

5. Consolidation of Planning

1) Necessity of Continued Planning:
No plan can be perfect because it is restricted by various factors; namely, the limit of forecasting ability of planning officials, the lack of sufficient and reliable data which serve as a basis of plans, the variable nature of hypothesis on the future, and the limited time and financial sources available for formulation and implementation of a plan. It is inevitable to modify and supplement a plan after it has been formulated, through continued evaluation and studies depending on the time passed and development of situations.

2) Consolidation of Planning Organizations:
In order to maintain the continuity of this Long-range Comprehensive Educational Plan and ensure the successful management of it, it is essential to seek close coordination and cooperation among the existing planning organizations at various levels. In addition, the following will be desirable:

1) To institutionally retain the Long-Range Comprehensive Educational Planning Council.

2) To assign planning officials for education to the Office of Planning and Control, and the Economic Planning Board.

3) Training of Planning Officials:
The effect of the formulation and implementation of plans largely depends on ability of the planning officials and those in charge of implementing the plans. A specialized training system should be established to help improve the ability of planning officials.

Appendix

NATIONAL EDUCATION CHARTER OF THE REPUBLIC OF KOREA

We who were born into this land are charged with the historic mission of regenerating our nation. Now is the time for us to establish a self-reliant posture and contribute to the common prosperity of mankind, by revitalizing the illustrious spirit of our forefathers in order to accomplish the principles and aims of education for our nation.

With sincere mind and strong body, improving ourselves in learning and technology, developing our innate faculties, and overcoming all existing hindrances to the rapid progress of our nation, we will cultivate our creative powers and pioneering spirit. We will give foremost consideration to public good and order, value efficiency and quality, and, in the tradition of mutual assistance rooted in love, respect and faithfulness, we will promote the spirit of fair and warm cooperation. Realizing that every nation develops through the creative and co-operative activities of its citizens and that national prosperity is the ground for individual growth, we will do our best to fulfill the responsibilities and obligations attendant upon our freedom and rights, and encourage all our people to participate and serve willingly in building the nation.

Love of country and fellow countrymen together with a firm belief in democracy and anti-Communism is the path to our survival and the basis for realizing the ideals of the free world. Looking forward to the day when our beloved fatherland will be unified for the everlasting good of posterity, we, as an industrious people filled with confidence and pride, pledge ourselves to open a new chapter in our history with untiring effort and the collective wisdom of the whole nation.

December 5, 1968

Park Chung Hee
President of the Republic of Korea

ANNEX VII/5

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN MALAYSIA

I. Background and Approaches to Educational Planning

1. The objective of this paper is to identify some of the central problems with which educational planners in Malaysia will be preoccupied during the next few years. To see clearly ahead then we must begin by looking back, for these problems would have had their genesis in the recent past and the present.

2. The history of educational planning in Malaysia is still a short and recent one. The incentive to find new ways and means to improve standards, to implement a national system of education that would satisfy the needs and aspirations of a multi-racial and multi-lingual society, and to harness all available resources in as effective a way as possible was created by the attainment of independence in 1957.

3. In the last decade there has been a spectacular expansion in education in Malaysia. It has surpassed the goals of the Karachi Plan with regard to enrolment. Ninety-five percent of the age cohort enters primary education and, since the introduction of the automatic promotion system and free primary education in 1965, approximately 80 percent of the cohorts complete the primary cycle. Automatic promotion extends through nine years of education and approximately 50 percent of each cohort completes grade nine. The pupils at the end of grade nine and eleven sit for public examinations which restrict entry into upper secondary and post-secondary levels respectively. Approximately 25 percent of the cohort enter grade ten and 4 percent Form VI.

4. During the last decade education expenditure had increased considerably. The total educational expenditure in 1970 was $547 million (US $183 million) or 5 percent of the G.N.P. Many factors have contributed to this expansion, among them is the explosive increase in population. As a result, the school system had to run fast, first to take care of the increase in population itself, and then to raise the proportion of the school-age population at school.

5. Along with this quantitative growth there have also been changes of educational structures, curriculum content and teaching method. In 1966, comprehensive education was introduced at the lower secondary school level, whereby all students take one practical elective subject in addition to a number of core subjects. But by and large these

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Submitted by Mr. Murad bin Mohd. Noor,
Director, Planning and Research,
Ministry of Education, Malaysia.

internal changes have been overshadowed by quantitative expansion.

6. Although modern educational planning in Malaysia began to take shape during this period, when the Educational Planning and Research Division (EPRD) of the Ministry was established in 1963, most of this quantitative expansion in education occured without the benefit of systematic planning. It does not, however, mean that changes in the system were introduced without much thought or study. Considerable use was made of special commissions and committees to study the education system. Among them were:-

(i) The Razak Committee on Education (1956)

(ii) The Rahman Talib Review Committee (1960)

(iii) The Higher Education Planning Committee (1967)

(iv) The Royal Commission on Education (1969)

II. Planning Problems

7. Given this background, this section of the paper will review a number of major problems and policy questions affecting the education system and the role of planning.

(i) Rising Demand for Education

The first problem that will have to be faced by Malaysia is the continued rapid growth of population, combined with the rising demand by parents and their children for equal educational opportunity. Demand for education is already heavy, and is likely to increase still further. At present in Malaysia there is a strong public pressure for more upper secondary and higher education. During the Second Malaysia Plan period (1971 - 1975) the enrolment in school is expected to increase from 1.9 million in 1970 to 2.3 million in 1975. This is an increase of approximately 21 percent. During the same period, the enrolment in the universities is projected to increase by 81 percent. The total number of universities by the end of the period is expected to be five. Today there are three universities; two years ago there was only one. Despite the substantial increases in enrolment, social demand still greatly exceeds the number of secondary and higher-level places. The gap between this popular demand and what we in Malaysia can do at the moment in providing educational opportunity constitutes a major social and political problem.

(ii) Financial Constraint Facing Education

The second great problem is the inevitable financial constraints which education development must face. Public expenditure upon education as a share of the national income has risen in the past decade from 3.3 percent to just over 5 percent. In 1971 the Malaysian Government is expected to spend in excess of $600 million on education or more than 5 percent of G.N.P. Short-term projection of educational expenditure suggest an increase of 7.5 percent annually through 1972,

while the national income is likely to grow at a somewhat slower rate of 5 percent or less. Education's share of the budget is already close to its upper limit, and further increases will present the government with severe financial strains. This financial constraint is likely to become more severe simply because the proportion of national economic effort that is now going to education is so large that it is beginning to compete severely with other important demands, such as health, housing, industry and defence. We in the Ministry cannot expect education's proportion of the total national budget to keep going up as rapidly as it has been in the last ten years.

This, however, means one thing: that though the Ministry must continue to fight hard to get bigger budgets, it will at the same time have to give more attention on getting better results out of the resources it already has.

Despite heavy expenditures on education, there is still a problem of educational wastage students drop out before completing their education. At present, this rate is significant at the primary level where nearly 15 percent of the initial enrolment are lost during the first six-year period of school, and approximately another 30 percent before completion of the lower secondary school level. Attempts to increase educational incentives are being made, but the methods employed and inducements given have not yet proved very effective.

(iii) The Manpower Imbalance

The third problem, however, is that of manpower balance. The manpower output projection for the years 1971 - 1980 indicate that there will be a substantial over-production from existing general secondary schools. At present approximately 2 percent of upper secondary enrolment is in vocational schools and another 2 percent in technical schools. Of the remainder, well over 60 percent are enrolled in the arts course, and the rest in science streams. On completing Form V, the vast majority of the arts and science graduates must enter the labour force. Employment of these predominantly "white collar" workers is dependent upon the growth of the economy which, inter alia, depends on the adequate supply of skilled and technical workers which is likely to fall substantially below needs. According to the 1965 Manpower Survey, about 19,000 skilled technical workers with secondary level education would be needed annually by 1975. But plans for technical and vocational schools when fully developed, would only produce 8,000 students for entry into industry each year. The balance of the need for skilled technical workers could only be met if vigorous action is taken to expand training facilities. This imbalance has become so conspicuous a problem that it is a source of grave concern for educators and political leaders.

(iv) Rural and Urban Imbalance

The fourth problem, equally difficult and closely associated with the employment problem, is the rural-urban imbalance. This economic imbalance is

paralleled by a similar one in school enrolment. This quantitative gap is further exacerbated by a qualitative one in the form of a concentration of scientific-technical facilities in the urban areas. Education has an important role to play in redressing this imbalance, principally by galvanizing the development process in the countryside and by equipping at least some rural dwellers to function efficiently in modern sector activities there and elsewhere.

Besides industrial development which has largely been confined to highly developed urban areas, more emphasis is being placed on rural areas. This is where most of the people and national resources are: The Ministries of Education and Agriculture are now thinking of the role of education in agricultural development and in so doing it is visualizing education not only in schools, and the proposed Agriculture University, but more broadly to include the many kinds of training and education that go on outside the formal system.

(v) Training Outside the Formal System

The other important problem is the training and education provided by bodies outside the Ministry of Education. Though considerable progress has been made in developing methodologies for planning the formal system, a lot more has yet been devoted to planning and coordinating the vital training and educational activities that go on outside the formal system, through other public institutions and the private sector. This is an important frontier for educational planners in this country.

(vi) Teacher Supply and Demand

The problem of teacher supply and demand is going to remain a crucial topic for educational planners in Malaysia as the problem is likely to change its character somewhat in the coming years. As secondary and university level education output expands, the schools in Malaysia would soon find it easier to recruit graduate teachers. If, for example, some arts graduates over the next few years, find that there is no longer a job in the administrative field waiting for them, they will have to look for other choices, and until now teaching has not been their choice.

This means schools could now become more selective in employing teachers than during the earlier period of rushed expansion. But on the other hand, there is the problem of upgrading the teachers already in the job, some of whom did not even complete the secondary level. These teachers will now need further education and training if the quality of the whole system is to be raised.

Another aspect related to the question of in-service training is improving the proficiency of teachers in the National Language. This is the direct result of the Government's new policy of making the National Language the main medium of instruction in schools.

Thus, in-service training will become more important, and we in Malaysia have much to learn about the most efficient and effective forms of in-service training, particularly in the field of language training.

Another teacher supply problem which will probably become bigger in the next few years concerns specialized teachers, particularly for technical and science education at the upper and post-secondary levels.

(vii) Educational Productivity and Innovation

Then there is the problem of raising the productibity and quality of the education system.

In other words, how can educational planning help to get the maximum results, both in quantity and in quality, from the existing educational resources.

In this connection, one has to differentiate between internal and external efficiency. Internal efficiency is measured by the relationship between learning results achieved and the costs of achieving them. This is particularly relevant to the technical and vocational schools, where per pupil cost is several times that of general secondary education. It is felt that major improvements in the productivity and costs in this field of education could be very desirable, and this calls for far-reaching changes and innovations and for devices permitting fuller utilization of facilities.

Related to this problem is the question of gearing the educational system in this country to meet the changes that the taking place all around it. This, of course, does not mean that the educational system in this country does not respond to the changes that are taking place, but it is rather sluggish and in some fields rather backward. It is, therefore, felt that if the educational system does not keep pace with the changes, and if it lags behind, then it will fail to make the contribution it must to national and individual development. Here is, therefore, another challenge to the ingenuity of the educational planners.

(viii) Social Consequence of Education

The last and probably the most important problem as far as Malaysia is concerned is the question of what can education do to hasten the social and political development of the country. Malaysia, as you are already aware, is a multi-racial and multi-lingual country. One main objective of the education system is to foster a national consciousness and unity among the various races and at all levels of society, and to redress imbalances in income and opportunities for Malaysians in less favourable positions.

The question for us in Malaysia, therefore, is: What can education do to hasten the social and political development of the nation and the institutions that provide the infrastructure of the nation? This presumably is one of the cardinal contributions which education can make to Malaysia but there is much still to be learnt about this process, and about the kind of education that is best suited to this purpose.

III. The Implications for Educational Planning

8. The problems outlined above have vast implications for educational planning in Malaysia.

9. The newer concepts and methodologies of educational planning which have evolved during the recent years (such as seeking to relate educational development to social demand, manpower requirements, financial flows, economic growth, and future benefits) have secured the attention of the Ministry and will continue to be explored. But these methods, as far as I can see, will be far from sufficient to cope with the planning problems dealt with here because they are confined largely to the outer shell and the broad aggregate dimensions of the educational system. They do not get at the innercircle. What is therefore essential is that educational planning should pay close attention not merely to growth but also to educational change, and to the qualitative and not merely to the quantitative aspects of education.

10. The first need, therefore, for planning to be effective is for more information and statistical data, and in this sphere there is much room for improvement in the country. This imposes severe limitations on educational planning in Malaysia. Some examples are:-

(i) At present, the Ministry concentrates mainly on formal education in schools, colleges, and universities to the exclusion of part-time vocational and professional training under-taken after formal education has ceased and all other systems outside the formal school system.

(ii) Then, of course, the statistical data collected by the Ministry have a number of limitations, some of which are:-

(a) The basic descriptive data series, while extensive, do not provide all the information needed for planning purposes. Where there are gaps in our information, reasonable assumptions can sometimes, but not always, be made. There is a need then, to improve our data gathering and analysis procedures.

(b) Historical data on trends moreover, are not always an adequate basis for projections into the future, particularly for education levels experiencing rapid change, such as the higher branches of our education system now. Better projections, more responsive to changing supply possibilities, social preferences, etc. are needed.

(c) Available statistical data tend to be highly aggregated and do not permit analysis of the effects and effectiveness of specific programmes. A change to an individualized data system, which would permit grouping student data by a variety of variables, may be the most desirable basis for education planning and research. Such a change, however, would require a fundamental readjustment in our data-gathering and management information systems.

(d) Data relating to educational performance of one sort - examinations performance - are available. There is, however, a need for other indicators of programme performance such as wastage rates, perhaps longitudinal performance data, and other means of assessing the effects of existing educational programmes and new innovations. There is also a need to make better use of available performance data by relating educational "outputs" to better measures of "input" variables. Information of this sort is invaluable for planning and sound policy decisions.

11. Effective planning requires that the aims and goals of education be clear. Many aims are uncertain, and defined in only the broadest terms, sufficient for public addresses but not for practical planning. This is partly because we know relatively little about social, economic and educational dynamics. But it is also true that the goals of education are not single but multiple (qualitative as well as quantitative goals, equity as well as efficiency, thinking ability and innovativeness as well as factual knowledge, and many other combinations). Also, there are sometimes conflicts between educational goals (as between equity and pure efficiency in the system). A great deal of thought needs to be devoted to what our goals really are, to the "trade offs" between multiple goals, and to measurements of how well they are being achieved.

12. Allied to this problem is the question of priorities. There are many goals and clearly they cannot all be realized at once. Often the tendency is to have a kind of democracy among goals which treats them all equally, with the result that little progress is made towards any of them. In the long run, the aim is to attain all the goals, but meanwhile, it is essential to determine a logical, feasible sequence for getting there.

13. Another important question for planning concerns the relationship between planning, administration and control. Planning seeks to provide a flow of policy-relevant information to administrators, who, in turn make decisions based on this information and institute procedures for control. Satisfactory articulation between planning and administration is only beginning to be realized in Malaysia. Much needs to be done to improve the flow of management information in the Ministry and its effective use. More information and work is needed to develop workable control variables for the educational system.

14. What is therefore required is that educational planning must include administrative planning and management analysis. Clearly then high priority must be given to improving the administrative aspects of the over-all educational planning and decision-making process and research and training directed towards this end. If the relationship between the planning and policy-making bodies is not clearly understood it would severely limit the effectiveness of educational planning. We are aware of this and always strive to improve this vital relationship between planning and policy making.

15. Satisfactory solutions to the above problems will, therefore, require heavy emphasis on new researches, improvement of analytical techniques, and the flow of information, a vastly greater emphasis on experimentation and innovation ar greater attention to evaluation.

16. To sum up then, educational planners in Malaysia will face a series of major problems in the next few years. The central problem that marked the past decade was one of quantitative expansion, and though this trend will continue, the most important and difficult problem lie in the realms of changing the education system, to fit it more realistically and productively to the changing needs of society and individuals, and to raise its efficiency and productivity so that it could contribute the most to national development withint the limited resources available.

17. And if educational planning is to cope effectively with this challenge, it will require greatly strengthened research and training. And not last of all, it will require a rich and extensive interchange of experiences and knowledge among nations, so that each can benefit from and contribute to the progress of all others.

ANNEX VII/6

A REPORT ON STATE OF EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

The Philippines is currently undertaking a very important work in the field of education. The Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education was established late in 1969 and started operating in February, 1970. It was formed for the purpose of assessing various aspects of the educational system. The creation of the Commission as an answer to the growing wariness and recently observed vocal criticisms of the educational system which has produced an over-supply of poorly educated and trained college leavers. This over-supply of poor quality graduates was a symptom of other problems in Philippine educational system.

Ultimately the Commission aims to formulate education policies and to establish a planning machinery.

The Commission undertook a comprehensive study of the educational system. It analyzed the system's performance in terms of its relevance to national development goals and its own aims. It ascertained and recommended ways and means of improving the efficiency of its operation within the limits of the available resources. In the study critical areas were identified and examined. Those which required a more thorough study than the time the Survey period would permit, were recommended as projects to be undertaken through a study team to be created immediately after the Survey is completed.

The Survey emphasized the assessment of the educational systems capacity to meet human resources development needs, including the manpower requirements of national development. An examination of the extent to which current educational aims and content are supportive of development requirements had to be done also.

This emphasis required a review of the following:

1. The objectives and content of the system for the purpose of integrating a definite development orientation into Philippine education;

2. The methods currently employed in the educational process, with a view to identifying areas for innovation and improvement;

3. The logistics of the system, with a view to imporving efficiency;

4. The financing of the system, in order to arrive at a cost analysis that would provide a basis for the introduction of cost effectiveness system; and

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Submitted by Dr. Edita A. Tan,
Associate Professor, University of the Philippines,
Diliman, Quezon City, Philippines

5. The administration and staffing of the system, including the decision-making process, degree of centralization, and the distribution of authority over educational matters among the various government agencies.

Nine research groups were formed to study the following areas:

Manpower and Human Resources
Curriculum
Higher Education
Vocational-Technical Education
Educational Administration
Educational Finance
Educational Logistics
Teacher Education
Science Education

The area groups have by now completed the collection and analysis of information on the aspects of education listed above. The Group Reports included information on the administrative machinery: on financing education by private and public sector, and by individuals: on the size, mix and quality of school-leavers; present and projected industrial requirement for manpower of various educational attainment; quality and orientation of curricula; and finally the language issue in education. The studies generated policy, programme and project recommendations which the Commission considered. Some of these were revised, new recommendations were added, and others excluded from the set adopted by the Commission.

In the following sections, the basic findings are presented. These are followed by policy recommendations on the major issues on Philippine education.

This Report is hoped to shed some light and elicit advice on the planning process in a system of private education.

Section 1. The Size and Mix of School Leavers and Enrollment

The Filipinos response to educational opportunities is probably unprecended in the world. This strong response is to be observed from the very rapid and continuous growth of enrollment at all levels and by the fact that it is private enterprise that accommodated the larger bulk of enrollment beyond elementary level. At the same time, the allocation of government budget to education has remained the largest portion of the budget. Expenditure on education at the national level is about one-third the size of gross domestic investment. This rapid growth of enrollment has also required a very large administrative body. However, this growing enrollment occurred in a virtual absence of a coherent set of policies and a planning machinery. As a consequence, education production is over-expanded. This over-expansion is most notable among college graduates where there is very poor utilization.

The Philippines ranks with the United States and Japan in enrollment at elementary, secondary and college levels per 100,000 population. The school participation rate for the corresponding age groups are given below and also shows the relative size of the educational responsibility.

	Elementary as % of 7-12 years old	Secondary as % of 13-16 years old	Collegiate as % of 17-20 years old
1960-61	91.6	26.6	13.1
1961-62	93.9	27.6	14.3
1962-63	99.3	30.5	16.3
1963-64	104.2	33.8	16.3
1964-65	108.6	35.4	17.5

p. 38, PCSE Commission Draft Report, November, 1970

The employment status by educational level will indicate the absolute and relative sites of employment or degree of utilization of Philippine manpower.

Since there is a very large agricultural sector of primitive labor market structure and a high unemployment rate with possibly some disguised unemployed, it is not meaningful to simply use the reported unemployment rates. A more detailed accounting of the stock of manpower will be more instructive as will be shown in the large size of unaccounted unemployed in an underdeveloped situation.

The total stock of manpower is counted according to their main activity: employed, unemployed, enrolled in school, unaccounted or unexplained portion. The proportion of employed to total increases with educational attainment. Of the employed, the ratio of wage earners to total employed also increases substantially with educational attainment. 68% of those with elementary education are either self-employed or unpaid worker of the family, with 32 per cent wage earners. Of those with college education, 18 per cent are self-employed and unpaid family worker with 82 per cent wage earners. It can be argued that there is probably a significant number of disguised unemployed among the unaccounted portion or among the self-employed and unpaid family workers.

If the rate of growth of college enrollment of about 10 per cent per annum is not checked, the rate of unemployment is likely to worsen for this classification of the labor force.

The composition of collegiate enrollment and graduates has undergone significant changes in the past decade and a half as may be gathered from the following figures.

Distribution of College Graduates by Field of Specialization[1]

	1950	1960	1966
Natural Sciences	1.19	4.08	2.16
Medical Sciences	10.54	10.49	5.08
Engineering	7.56	8.98	13.23
Business	23.87	33.42	16.77
Education	24.88	21.92	51.36
Law	5.84	5.60	1.74

Students seemed to have been attracted in fields where employment opportunities were relatively better as in Engineering or in those which could absorb large numbers of graduates as in Business and Education. However, the supply of college graduates each year has always exceeded the increment in employment[2].

Resources have been spent in the education of the college school leavers, in many cases to improve the productivity of the labor units. When there is substantial unemployment rate among those with higher education, the social rate of return to the unemployed is negative. However, they may be counted as a potential productive power as the country develops.

Section 2. Public Responsibility in Providing Education

The responsibility of the government in educating its people is reflected in the following set of data:

a) Distribution of enrollment in public and in private institutions

b) School participation rate at the elementary level

c) Proportion of the budget allocated to education.

There is a constitutional commitment to provide universal elementary education. This commitment has been substantially met by the Philippine government as shown by the high participation of those aged 7-12 years given in Section 1 above.

Though about one third of the budget is spent on education, only about 7% of this was allocated to higher education. The government commitment to elementary education has exhausted its education effort and resources that 90% of higher education and more than fifty per cent of high school education is provided by the private sector. This sector is composed mostly of profit-making institutions and church-supported schools. These schools rely primarily on students fees to defray total education cost.

1. Commission Draft Report
2. E.A. Tan, Philippine Market for Educated Labor, National Science Development Board. Monograph Series on Manpower Policy.

Private donations to private institutions have been negligible. Since 90% of enrollment in college is provided by privat schools, the ability of students to pay for their education determine to a large extent the quality and fields of specialization offered by these schools.

The average cost per student year in college in private institutions in 1966 was ₱294. The average cost in public universities and in different levels are given below:

	State	Private
Primary	₱ 113	₱ 100
Intermediate	113	100
Secondary	335	134
Vocational	442	381
College (teacher education)	355	288
Other College	1,311	294

Even if teacher and other education inputs are relatively cheap in the Philippines, the per student cost cannot buy good quality education. In fact there is a tremendous difference between the facilities in the reputedly "good" schools including the University of the Philippines and the national average. The average cost corresponds to the quality of facilities in these schools.

With few exceptions, there is no admission requirement for entry into college. Accreditation is limited to an insignificant proportion of schools. One could argue that the role of the government in raising quality is nil since the state university system accommodates a very small portion of total enrollment and the administrative agency has neither the staff nor the policy instruments to enforce quality standards.

There is also a need for labor information service and for placement services, since the information service especially for the student decision-making is probably of critical importance.

Section 3. Administration of the System

The Department of Education headed by the Secretary is the biggest single administrative unit in the Philippines. The bulk of administrators are fieldmen - supervisors and principals. However, the public schools system is highly centralized. The Central Office has to approve minute decisions at the local level including the appointment of each teacher and the procurement of materials. It is natural unless the Secretary's Office is staffed adequately, its other functions such as planning, research and systematic evaluation of the system's operation will find no room in the administrative set-up. The Central Office is relatively small and it has been occupied with the routine administration of the public schools.

The Central Office is divided into the Bureau of Private Schools and the Bureau of Public Schools, rather than by function such as by level of education, or into say planning and research, administration, curriculum development, etc.

Private institutions are under the authority of the Bureau of Private Schools. Suprevision of the private sector involves enforcement of minimum standards such as minimum library books per student, maximum teaching load (of 21 its), inclusion of required courses and similar regulations. Enforcement of these regulations requires inspection which is impossible to accomplish under the present size of staffing of the Department. These regulations are probably not the most effective way of raising quality.

The Secretary is given the responsibility over the minuter administrative decisions of the public schools. But his power is profoundly hampered by other branches of the government. Congress can legislate curricular requirement like 12 units of Spanish, the reading of a history book, the establishment of schools and such matters. Professional associations can dictate indirectly curricular changes by including or excluding in board examinations specific topics in a fields. Procurement of materials has to believe through a national procurement office.

In brief, the Department of Education administers the less important functions of a most important branch of government.

Section 4. The Language Issue

English was adopted as the medium of instruction in the public schools by the American government in the Philippines in the early 1900. It was pragmatic for this government to choose English when it was establishing the public schools system in the Philippines as they had to import both-teachers and materials. English was also adopted by the other institutions and it gradually replaced Spanish in the mass media and as another official language in government and in business. Since English has become so institutionalized, the problem becomes more complex also. There is a stock of teachers trained in English and materials in English. Public and private offices use English as the language of business.

Aside from the political and cultural implication of using a country's own language, the relative effectiveness of using it as a medium of instruction should be weighed against the cost of translation and disruptions in the operation of existing institutions. However, these are shorter-run problems that will be encountered in changing from English to Pilipino. The long-run advantages of using Pilipino are clear unless the country's economic development increases to a level-that would allow majority of the population to have college education. For those with higher education, bilingual education is very useful. But where the majority of the young population reach the elementary grades, 50%, using a foreign language as a medium of instruction is highly inefficient. For a transition, bilingual instruction where this is possible might lead to a more informed and possible solution of the language problem.

Section 5. Vocational/Technical Education

The Survey found that in practice education of the elementary and secondary levels primarily prepares students for the next higher year of schooling instead of preparing him for a worthwhile place in society. Vocational and technical training which are usually provided in high school or in special technical institutes has been neglected. Attention has been focused mainly on elementary education on the part of the government and on higher education by the private sector. There has been no attempt to develop elementary and secondary education as terminal education, which it is for majority of students, geared to initiate innovation and changes in the way of life and in production. The technical education currently provided in a few public schools and in private institutes are sadly flawed with inadequate planning and coordination with industrial demand, and staffing and equipping with experimental tools and machines. People have looked up to college education almost solely and at the neglect of other forms of training.

Major Policy Recommendations

After considering the reports and recommendations of the study groups, the Commission adopted policy and programme recommendation involving specification of new education aims, reorganization of the system, and a serious commitment to education planning. A summary of the major recommendations is found in the introduction of the Draft Report of the Commission and reproduced below.

"A. New Educational Aims. The new aims are premised on the continuance of a free and democratic society in the Philippines. They can be translated into achievable targets of the contribution that education can make to national development. They are to govern educational policy-making as well as education administration, from the national down to institutional level. For the purpose of relating educational operations meaningfully, the aims are each related to a specific level of the educational ladder.

"B. Educational Policy-Making. The formulation of long-term educational policies and the adoption of educational plans are proposed to be vested in a National Board of Education, to be established by Constitutional provision. Its membership includes two representatives from the legislature. A crucial part of this recommendation provides that: "No law on education shall be passed by Congress without the endorsement of the National Board of Education."

"C. New Educational Ladder. The proposed new educational ladder consists of six years for the First Level (elementary), five years for the Second Level (secondary), and four or more years for the Third Level (higher education). The preparatory phase (nursery, kindergarten) will be the subject of study for eventual formal integration into the educational ladder. Special one, two, and three-year programmes beyond the secondary level for training technicians and technologists are provided for.

"D. First Level of Education. In order to provide the first phase of general education for all citizens, and the basis for the formation of trained manpower, the first six years of schooling will be compulsory.

"E. Second Level Education. The second phase of general education will last five years. The first three years will be a single stream, which will be divided into two streams in the fourth and fifth years. The first of these two will offer vocational training, which will be either terminal at the end of the fifth year, or prepare the graduate for further training as a technician or technologists. The second will be academic, to prepare students for higher education.

This second level will be conducted in comprehensive high schools. All existing secondary schools, public and private, will be transformed into the new comprehensive high schools.

"F. Middle-Level Manpower Training. The establishment of special technical institutes beyond the second level to offer training, retraining, and in-service programmes for the formation of skilled technicians is recommended. Beyond this, high technician and technological training will be provided in higher education institutions. A scheme of close and regular liaison among these institutes, labor offices, and industry is recommended in order to insure the relevance of training to actual requirements, and to maximize employment of graduates through placement services.

"G. Higher Education. This level is to be strengthened principally through: regular review and coordination procedures for the development of higher education programmes; a national accreditation scheme; a coherent system of public universities with corresponding satellite colleges; national college admission tests; and grants-in-aid and other incentive schemes to selected and important programmes in private education.

"H. Financing Education. It is recommended that, as a general rule, the national government shall be primarily responsible for financing public education other than elementary and secondary, except that vocational programmes in the new comprehensive high schools should continue to receive national financial assistance in the first phase of the long-run implementation period. National assistance shall likewise be available for the vocational programmes in private comprehensive high schools. Primary responsibility for financing public elementary and academic secondary education should be substantially assumed by the local governments. A scheme for providing local governments with corresponding income sources must be formulated and adopted. Finally, a national equalization fund for education must be established to assist local governments with insufficient funds.

"I. Reorganization of Administration. (selected portions)

a) A Bureau of General Education will replace the present Bureau of Public Schools and Bureau of Vocational Education, to administer and coordinate

elementary and secondary education programmes, both public and private. This will do away with the dichotomy of public-private in the first two levels, and facilitate coordination and direction.

b) A Bureau of Higher Education will replace the present Bureau of Private Schools. The new Bureau will directly administer only the private sector of higher education. However, a mechanism is provided for review, coordination, and development of both government and private sectors in higher education. Government higher education institutions will be coordinated through a State Colleges and Universities Board (SCUB) with links to the Bureau of Higher Education and the National Board of Education.

c) The Office of the Secretary will be strengthened with technical staff offices for dealing with continuing problems of educational logistics, planning, research, and evaluation.

"J. Language of Instruction. The Commission believes that bilingualism in Pilipino and English is both a fact of Philippine national life today, as well as a desirable condition in the contemporary world. The choice is not either Pilipino or English, to the exclusion of the other in our educational system. It is recommended that Pilipino be the main language of instruction at the elementary level, with the main vernacular as the medium of instruction in the first two grades. At the secondary and higher education levels, it is recommended that Pilipino or English, whenever practicable, be the instructional medium

"K. Implementation. The implementation of the Commission's recommendations will require the formulation of extensive and detailed programme designs and project plans of operation (including costing and schedules). The organization of an expert implementation group to undertake this task, and also to facilitate the strengthening of the Department of Planning and research office, is recommended as a project of immediate approval.

It is to be noted that planning requires the kind of Survey that the Philippines has just undertaken and which reviewed the system from its aims to decision-making by students. The Commission recommendations included further studies, experiments (with the new comprehensive high schools and special technical institutes, bilingual media of instruction) and the creation of a continuing group of experts to link the Commission's work with the reorganized system, especially with the Planning Office of the Department. Planning in the Philippines which relies heavily on the market system even in the field of education must be quite different from planning in a socialist or centrally planned countries.

ANNEX VII/7

A REPORT ON STATUS OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN THAILAND

Introduction

1. Systematic Educational Planning has been of quite a recent development in Thailand with the establishment of the Educational Planning Office within the Ministry of Education in 1963. The Educational Planning Office has the task of coordinating planning activities with various educational departments in the Ministry of Education on one hand and the National Education Council and the National Economic Development Board on the others in arriving at and overall educational development plan that forms a part in the National Economic and Social Development Plan.

2. Planning activities at a departmental level are largely concerned with expansion and improvement of educational facilities, teachers' quality and curriculum to meet the demand in their respective responsibilities and jurisdiction, while planning at a national level concerns itself with balanced improvements and expansion of educational facilities and personnel both quantitatively and qualitatively in harmony with the national demand and financial ability of the nation.

3. The Educational Planning Office is now working in close cooperation with the National Education Council in formulating a Five-year Educational Development Plan for the years 1972-1976 to be incorporated with the Third National Economic and Social Development Plan.

4. As of this moment adjustments are being made with development figures in order to keep in tune with national target and the expected financing abilities and economic resource of the country.

5. The present trend of manpower demand lies in middle-level manpower as the country is now entering a phase of industrialization. Major emphasis in educational development planning will be on vocational and technical education at secondary and technical institute levels.

The Present National Scheme of Education

6. The present National Scheme of Education was introduced in 1960. By virtue of

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Submitted by Mr. Rabil Sitasuwana,
Deputy Director-General,
Vocational Education Department,
Ministry of Education, Thailand

the new scheme, the educational ladder of the country comprises 12 or 13 years. Elementary education consists of 7 years; and children are encouraged to stay in school at least until they are fully 15 years of age. Secondary education has 5 years in the academic or general stream, and 6 years in the vocational stream.

7. In compliance with the new scheme, the former 4 year compulsory elementary education is to be gradually extended to 7 years, depending upon the economic ability of the country. Furthermore, secondary education will be geared more to meet the personal-social needs of youth, and will be closely associated with the economic development plan of the nation, thus setting a stage for secondary schools with comprehensive programs designed to serve both the college-bound, and the employment-bound youth.

8. To achieve the changes as proposed by the new scheme, very careful educational planning is highly necessary. Educational policies and strategies will have to be re-determined.

The Five-Year Plan in Education Development

9. In 1960, the Six-Year National Economic Development was drawn up by the Government, covering the periods between 1961-1963 and 1964-1966. In conjunction with, and as an integral part of the said economic development plan, the Six-Year Plan in Education Development was accordingly devised and put into effect.

10. At about the same time, in accordance with the recommendation made by a UNESCO regional conference held in Karachi, an educational development plan for expansion of elementary education from four to seven years in all schools within two decades was also drawn up. The plan, widely known as the Karachi Plan, was later modified to include all phases of education, and thus was prominently reflected in the Six-Year Plan.

11. With the Six-Year Plan rapidly coming to close in 1966, a new development plan was adopted. It is the Five-Year Plan covering the period between 1967 and 1971.

12. This plan was drawn up in close association with the new five-year economic development plan of the nation. According to the Five-Year Economic and Social Development Plan, a very great demand in the middle-level manpower is emphasized. This implies that a considerable number of youth of secondary-school age must be trained vocationally for various occupations as envisaged in the economic plan.

13. The projected enrollment in the Five-Year Plan calls for an overall increase of 19.53 percent, using 1966 as a base year. The enrollment in lower elementary (Grades 1-4) is projected to increase from 4,231,000 in 1966 to 4,753,000 in 1971, an increase of 12.34 percent; in upper elementary (Grades 5-7) from 537,000 to 751,000, an increase of 39.85 per cent; lower secondary (Grades 8-10) from 306,000 to 503,000, an

increase of 64.38 per cent; upper secondary in both general and vocational streams (Grades 11-12 or 13) from 96,600 to 151,300, an increase of 56.63 per cent; junior college for teacher training and technical education (Grades 13-14 or 14-15) from 11,833 to 24,286, an increase of 105.15 per cent; and university and teacher-training at degree's level from 37,170 to 56,300, an increase of 51.46 per cent.

14. As a consequence, a special budget for development purposes is needed on top of the regular annual appropriations for recurrent expenditures. Expenditures estimated for development projects in education alone during the years 1967-1971 are US$M313.63*, of which US$M258.03 is to be financed from the national budget, US$M14.35 from foreign loans, US$M14.50 from loans from the Bank of Thailand, and US$M26.75 from foreign aids. It should be noted here that the above figures do not include regular annual budget for recurrent costs in education. The 1966 regular budget for recurrent costs in education was US$M141.39, representing 16.81 per cent of the total national budget.

15. In effect, there are altogether 58 projects in the Five-Year Plan, seventeen of which are new, while the rest are continuations of the on-going plans. Followings are summaries of all projects now under the implementation:

15.01 Kindergartens and Infant Class. Thirteen new kindergartens will be opened in thirteen more provinces, completing the target to provide one school of this type in each of the seventy-one provinces.

15.02 Lower Elementary Education. The Plan calls for an increase of 550,000 pupils during the five-year period. By 1971, the total will be 4,753,000 pupils, of whom 4,227,000 will be enrolled in the various government schools. The rest will go to private schools. New classes will be added to many of the existing schools, and it is also planned that 650 schools will be built. Currently there are already 23,200 lower elementary schools. It is estimated that 18,333 new teachers will be needed, and 3,150 more teachers will also be employed in understaffed schools.

15.03 Upper Elementary Education. It is expected that 252,600 more pupils will be enrolled, making a total of 751,000 upper elementary pupils at the end of the Five-Year Plan, about four-fifths of whom will be in government schools. Seven-year compulsory education will be enforced in 200 more villages, and 500 more schools will open upper elementary classes.

15.04 Secondary Education. The Five-Year Plan calls for diversification of secondary education. A comprehensive type of curriculum will be encoraged, aiming at providing educational opportunities for youth entering an occupation. A total of 569,100 secondary school students will be enrolled during the five-year period, representing 13.95 per cent of the age-group. Of this number, 252,330 are expected to attend government schools.

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* $M = Million dollars

15.05 Vocational Secondary Education. A great emphasis will be given to vocational secondary education. The projection calls for 46,900 students in the upper vocational secondary schools (Grades 11-13), with 24,400 in trade and industry, 7,500 in agriculture, 7,500 in commerce and business, and 7,500 in home economics. It is estimated that a sum of USSM37 will be involved in this big project. Loans from the World Bank and the Bank of Thailand for USSM6 and USSM8 respectively have been secured. Included in this Project teachers training programs for technical and agriculture teachers. The Project calls for an annual graduation of 250 trade and industrial and 150 agricultural teachers.

15.06 Technical Institutes. There are presently 15 vocational institutes offering courses on the so-called technical level (Grades 14-15 and 16). The Five-Year Plan calls for an enrollment of 18,100. almost three times as much when the Plan started in 1966.

15.07 Teacher Training. In order to cope with the rapid increase in school population, the teacher training programs must accordingly be expanded. The target calls for enrolling 22,200 students at elementary teaching certificate level (Grade 12). 5,200 students at secondary teaching certificate level (Grade 14), and 4,300 students at Bachelor's and Master's degree level.

15.08 It is found that there is a great need for trained personnel in the following fields: engineering, agriculture. medicine, science and mathematics, business, and some branches of social sciences. The Five-Year Plan calls for an enrollment of 52,000 students in 1971. Expenditure for expansion of universities is estimated at USSM29. In addition to the two regional universities in the North and in the North-East, one more regional university is being established in the South. to make a total of eight universities in Thailand. Also during the Plan period, the so-called specialized universities, such as Fine Arts University, University of Medical Sciences, and University of Agriculture, will add more faculties, thus attaining a university status in a real sense.

Problems and Difficulties Encountered in the Implementation of the Plan

16. Despite every effort has been given in the planning with due respect to the national need and economic ability of the nation, the implementation of the educational planning has encountered some major problems which have become real obstacles to the planned development.

17. Elementary education in Thailand being compulsory and free, enormous resources in men, money and materials are needed. Currently, many shortages and difficulties have occurred, significant of which are:

17.01 Elementary school teachers in remote areas are seriously lacking due to limited budget and poor living conditions. A great number of prospective teachers

with elementary and secondary teaching certificates are willing to stay in the cities and take whatever jobs they can find even they are underpaid. Many of them are employed in non-teaching positions, for example, in clerical jobs.

17.02 Being teachers in the rural communities is deprived of an opportunity to further education, while being teachers in the cities gives them better opportunity to acquire further education by attending evening classes.

17.03 Lack of proper school buildings in numerous rural communities is another problem. Out of 24,000 government and municipal elementary schools throughout the country, 42.78 per cent have permanent buildings, 10.62 per cent semi-permanent buildings and 46.60 per cent have only temporary buildings or mere sheds on temple ground.

17.04 Lack of interest among parents in rural communities in taking trouble to send their children to schools and to provide even basic school supplies due to their poverty and need of labor from their children in making a living for the family.

17.05 A great need is also felt as regards trained personnel to give leadership in the various phase of elementary education.

18. It has been found that approximately 700,000 out of the total of about 4.000,000 lower elementary school children, or about 22 per cent, repeated their grades each year. Three-fifths of the repeaters actually failed in their examinations. The rest were absentees. There were several causes for the failure and the absence, namely, poverty, illness, insufficient attendance, and moving to other localities without proper notification. The figure represented quite serious educational lost and wastage.

19. Experiments are now being made to promote pupils in elementary schools to upper grades without taking examination in each grade. But they are required to take examination in every other two to three grades. However, this will have to be done gradually so that to ensure the required standard of education.

20. In secondary education, problems lie in the shortages of teachers both qualitatively and quantitatively, administrative personnel to provide adequate educational services to meet the rapidly expanded programs at this level of education.

21. In vocational secondary and technical education, there are serious shortages of trade or technical teachers both qualitatively and quantitatively. Better offer by the industry has drawn more and more technical teachers into industry, thus further aggravating the situation.

22. Furthermore, trade teachers in most vocational schools lack actual industrial experience, since most of them were trained by government technical institutes and technical teacher college to meet the demand for technical teachers in government vocational schools. These teachers came straight from schools without going into

industry for actual industrial experience.

23. A series of workshops has been held for technical teachers during the year for a number of years in order to upgrade their skill competency.

24. Expansion of higher education is limited by the ability to finance the expansion and serious shortages of university instructors, particularly in science and technology.

ANNEX VIII

LIST OF PARTICIPANTS

REPUBLIC OF CHINA	Prof. Chun-Fu LU, Professor, Education and Psychology, National Chengchi University, Taipei
INDONESIA	Dr. SETIJADI, Secretary, Office of Educational Development, Ministry of Education and Culture, Djakarta
JAPAN	Mr. Kikuo NISHIDA, Director, Planning and Research Department, Minister's Secretariat, Ministry of Education, Tokyo
	Prof. Shigeo MASUI, Director, Research Department II, National Institute for Educational Research, Tokyo
	Mr. Toshio TOYODA, Director, Economic Growth Division, Institute of Developing Economies, Tokyo
REPUBLIC OF KOREA	Mr. Dong Yul CHOI, Chief, International Education Section, Ministry of Education, Seoul

MALAYSIA	Mr. MURAD bin Mohd. Noor, Director of Research and Planning, Ministry of Education, Jalan Davidson, Kuala Lumpur
PHILIPPINES	Dr. Edita A. TAN, Associate Professor, University of the Philippines, Diliman, Quezon City
THAILAND	Mr. Rabil SITASUWANA, Deputy Director-General, Vocational Education Department, Ministry of Education, Bangkok
NEW ZEALAND	Dr. C. Edward BEEBY, Educational Consultant, New Zealand Council for Educational Research, Education House, 178-182 Willis Street, Wellington, 1
COLOMBIA	Dr. Gabriel BETANCUR-MEJIA, Ambassador, Permanent Delegate of Colombia to Unesco, 1, rue Miollis, Paris 15
UNESCO	Dr. Jerry B. BOLIBAUGH, Division of Educational Financing, Department of Planning and Financing of Education, Unesco
REGIONAL INSTITUTE	Prof. M.V. MATHUR, Director, Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, Indraprastha Estate, New Delhi 1