

EPPSL Educational Planning, Policy
Studies and Leadership

DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION II

Code No: 8237

Unit: 1-9



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ISLAMABAD**

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COURSE TEAM

Course Coordinator

Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi

Contributors

Dr. M. Athar Khan Koti

Tun Lwin

Nat Colleta

Abbul Razzaque Rukanuddin

Shaukat Ali Siddiqui

Dr. M. Arif Zia

Karel Jansen and Hans Reiff

Dr. Aisha Akbar

Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi

Syed Manzoor Hussain Shah

S. Nazre Hyder

G. M. Awan

Planning Commission Ministry of Education

PREFACE

The concept of modernization of education connotes adjustment to the changing world of education and implies re-adjustment of the roles of the teacher, the planner, and the educational administrator to the changing educational needs of the society in the global context of the world. The situation demands a redefinition of the role of education in the society. The concept of 'Development Education' which is a development of the recent past, is a natural outcome of the changing role of education in the world today.

By definition, 'Development Education' embodies a system of education which is concurrently linked with the overall development of the individual and the society, and in which education and development go together so that each contributes to the other.

Introduction of the course on Development Education as part of M.A. Educational Planning and Management Programme of the Allama Iqbal Open University, aims to:-

- (a) acquaint students with the background, meaning and scope of development education,
- (b) develop among students cognizance of fundamentals of development education,
- (c) provide students of educational planning and management a development education perspective to their jobs as educational planners and administrators,
- (d) make educational planning and administration development oriented.
- (e) Identify the problems of human resource development in Pakistan and to suggest corrective measures
- (f) Review different education projects launched by UNESCO and Government of Pakistan.

Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi

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I am also grateful to the course team members who wrote units of the course and contributed to the finalization of the concept of development education.

I am also grateful to all those who revised this course and assisted the department in updating this course.

Finally, I express my gratitude to Dr. M. Zafar Iqbal, Dean, Faculty of Education, Allama Iqbal Open University, who not only encouraged the team to revise this course but, also collaborated with them at all stages of the course development.

Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi

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UNIT No. 1

EDUCATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Dr. Muhammad Arif Zia
Revised by
Dr. Aisha Akbar

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OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to:

1. Elaborate what is "Rural Development"?
2. Describe the causes of the movement for rural development.
3. Identify the problems of rural living.
4. Appraise various programmes of rural development in Pakistan.
5. Appreciate the need of rural development in Pakistan.
6. List important strategies of rural development in World perspective.
7. Describe the strong and weak points of various strategies of rural development.

1. INTRODUCTION

- 1.1. You know that education has never been considered an important tool for development and it has been a major drawback of our planning. Probably, the cause is our political system which, in spite of prevalent illiteracy, believes in adult franchise and gives opportunity to big, but mostly illiterate or half literate, land owners to form government and make policies.
- 1.2. If you go through the literature on Economics of Education you will find that accumulated evidence is available to show the value of education in general uplift of the country. Education and development go hand in hand usually education precedes development — both economic and social. We have been planning for the economic and social development of country without first providing education to masses. The result is that the literacy rate is still below 53 per cent and only 85 per cent of the age group 5 – 9 get admission in schools.
- 1.3. Though we have achieved autarky in wheat and sugar but mostly it is at the cost of acute shortage of pulses of all kinds. We receive additional supply from the additional acreage brought under cultivation and create imbalance in the supply market. In spite of huge investment in agriculture there has not been a proportionate increase in yield per crop.
- 1.4. On the whole, abundant supply of water, use of chemical fertilizers, mechanization of farming, and surplus output of wheat have not resulted in any remarkable change in the socio-economic structure of the village life, which is and should be the aim of rural transformation. This is because education the basic ingredient of change – is lacking.
- 1.5. In the following pages the role of education as an agent of change and development — has been discussed in the light of available evidence

Explanation of Terms

Rural

- 1.6. Chunks of population with less than 5,000 people are generally termed as rural*. Usually the people have unique features; they belong to one family or caste; they have the same culture and language. Except for individual differences their living habits customs are more or less the same. With so many unique features, their housing is always unplanned; sometimes congested and sometimes thin, without proper sanitation facilities and ventilation.
- 1.7. Rural societies are closed societies with least links with the outward world. They resist change and rebel against innovations if they are not the outcome of their own meditations. Their outlook on life is regressive with a sharp bent of mind to follow the ways their forefathers had followed in

* Encyclopedia of Social Services.

the times gone by. While urban people are fond of change and innovations, the rural people are always hard to change; that is why we can find relics of thousand years old civilizations in the rural communities of today.

2. RURAL DEVELOPMENT

- 2.1. It has already been discussed in unit 1 of this course that development is a process. When this term is applied to rural areas it becomes a process for the change and modernization of the rural sector of a society. Being preoccupied with their professional obligations, different people have defined the term according to the needs of their own disciplines. M.A. Lund, 41 talking about the rural poor of Peru defines the term as "a process by which the rural poor are assisted in improving their levels of output and living on a self-sustaining basis through the method of mass participation". According to Aslam Chaudhry, 10 the concept of rural development implies the socio-economic transformation of the rural sector of an economy". If "socio" includes the ways of living and interaction, methods of participation in work, selection of leaders and leadership roles, it can be called a comprehensive definition of the term.
- 2.2. Generally speaking rural development is the exploitation and maximum utilization of material and human resources of the village for the betterment of community life. The main objectives of any rural development programme remain increased agricultural productivity and which popularization of modernized farming projects. It also envisages to harmonize the conflicting interests of the community groups and to develop cordial relations among the individuals and the groups for cooperative living and better understanding of each other for the attainment of social goals. It promotes a social environment which helps to achieve the objectives of the development plans.

3. RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN WORLD PERSPECTIVE

- 3.1. You may be aware that a few decades earlier, only a few people in Pakistan knew what 'Rural Development' was. It evolved with rapid industrialization of the Western world when the people living in scattered rural homes migrated towards cities for better income and more comforts. In the early twentieth century the rural life in the West was not an easy one as it badly lacked the basic amenities of the modern life. Both affluent and the poor rushed towards the cities, the former to enjoy life and the latter to find jobs.
- 3.2. With rapid industrial growth, the demand for labour was sharply increasing. Economists, like Lowis, 39 and Ranis 20 presented development models proposing mechanization of farming, first to derive

more income from the agricultural land for investment in industry and second to utilize the surplus labour force in factories.

- 3.3. Whenever a movement takes off it is never easy to check it instantly. Mechanization of farming in the West was a natural outcome of the industrial development. This squeezes the need of labour in farming. An alarming pace of urbanization was witnessed. Countless social, moral and health problems had to be faced by the governments and city organizations. It became imperative to take immediate steps to avoid this situation. This paved the way towards the concept of rural development and extension services.
- 3.4. By rural development they desired to provide such facilities in the rural areas as may check the flow of population towards the cities. By extension services they wanted to develop agriculture on modern lines so that it could be made productive enough to provide surplus capital for investment in industry.

4. RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN LDC'S

- 4.1. Now, as you have studied the last few pages, you may have a good grasp of the concept of 'Rural Development'. It is ripe time to see how this idea gained ground in the less developed countries (LDC's).
- 4.2. About the mid of twentieth century, when most of the third world countries achieved independence, the developed world came to know the misery of half starved millions living in the rural areas. Enhanced health facilities provided by the national governments, enlarged the span of life, and decreased the death rate. It could not be counterbalanced by a similar decrease in the birth rate consequently it accelerated the rate of population growth at an unprecedented pace. The economies of these new nations were already hard pressed as the resources had not been developed by the foreign rulers. They had actually been depleting their resources by exporting raw materials and imparting industrial products. Severeness of the problem enhanced with the coming years as the population continued to grow at a compound rate and the meager endeavour to increase farm production proved quite deficient to feed the growing mouths.
- 4.3. In L.D.C's more than 70 per cent population belonged to rural areas where the only source of income was agriculture, already beset with countless problems. This alarming situation spread the wave of fear in the Western countries and they began to visualize that their affluent living was to be seriously affected by the growing population and decreasing means of production. They wanted to take immediate steps to relieve this situation. World Bank reports brought to light the misery of the masses of these areas. Economists like Gunnar Myrdal 46 and Barbara Ward 64 warned about the unexpected rise in population growth. Alvin Toffler and others portrayed horrible pictures of uncertain future.

4.4. Third world countries also felt the pressure of increasing import of food stuffs. With steady rise in population the number of unemployed persons and others living in extreme poverty were increasing. Contrarily the industrial sector of these countries was not developing rapidly enough, either to absorb the growing manpower or to produce enough goods to purchase foodstuffs according to needs.

4.5. Brannon and Jessee 5 have summarized the causes of increasing concern and awareness about the rural sector of development countries into the following six points:-

1. Upward revision of estimates of population growth rates and thus the rate of increase in labour force;
2. Severe urban problems arising from rural to urban migration and the resultant pressures on public services as well as the increased visibility of openly unemployed;
3. Failure of the industrial development to absorb the increased flow of labour to the extent initially anticipated;
4. Rising food prices and concomitant urban unrest which have grown out of neglect of the agriculture sector, leading in some countries to increased food imports and an offsetting impact on the favourable balance of payments generated by industrial import substitution;
5. Success of the new high yielding varieties and the accompanying package of technological inputs strongly suggesting that the concept of industrialization as the leader and agriculture the following in development plans may not be entirely sound;
6. The search for a new and more satisfactory approach to development following the failure of the development decade.

4.6. A vast variety of literature came out suggesting means and ways for the development of the agriculture sector. Books like "This Hungry World" 61 "Hunger", 53 "How Will We Feed the Hungry Billions", 29 "World Without Hunger", 21 were published. Writers as Cookrane, John, Scott, Nigel Hey, Robert Selow, Arthur Lewis, Barbara Ward, Lester Brown, Norman Long, and A.T. Mosher suggested different strategies to develop the agriculture sector and ultimately to transform the rural society.

4.7. All these things were fine to follow, if possible, by the developing countries. But there was little stress on human resource development. The man — especially the man behind the plough — was completely ignored. The first important approach to this direction was made by Harbison and Myres. 27

- 4.8. They wrote: "In the final analysis, the wealth of a country is based upon its power to develop and to effectively utilize the innate capacities of its people. The economic development of nations, Therefore, is ultimately the result of human effort." They emphatically stated that "indeed if a country is unable to develop its human resources, it cannot build anything else, whether it be a modern political system, a sense of national unity, or a prosperous economy." Another remarkable endeavour was made by T.W. Schultz. 52 He stressed the need to develop human capabilities of farm people which counted most to increase farm productivity not only in the United States, but also in Japan, Israel and most of the developed countries.

5. RURAL MASSES PLIGHT IN PAKISTAN

- 5.1. You may have visited several times your neighboring rural area and known many of the problems faced by the rural people. About 74 per cent of our population belongs to these areas. A big majority of these people is poor and illiterate. Except for the big land owners, they depend upon subsistent farming. There is lack of zeal and zest to increase production or to adopt diversified means for additional income. This has resulted in a very low *per capita* income of Rs. 4000.00 (US \$ 350.00). According to the World Bank, it is almost extreme poverty and it has existed in Pakistan ever since its inception 1. An overwhelming majority of these poverty stricken people belong to rural areas of the country.
- 5.2. These people have meagre holdings of one hectare or less and many of them have no land at all. According to agricultural census of Pakistan, 1961, about 33 per cent of the farms were of 0-1 hectares and covered only 3.5 per cent of the arable land, while 7.4 per cent big farms of over 10 hectares covered 42.7 per cent of the cultivated area. Before the first land reforms of 1960, the situation in Sind and Punjab was worst. The big land owners constituted the most powerful pressure group in the country, therefore, the land reforms have not been able to change the pattern of land ownership substantially up to date in the country.
- 5.3. In Pakistan, unfortunately, the big landed class has never, been interested in the welfare of the masses. Contrarily they blocked the way to progress for the tenants, share-croppers and farm labourers of rural areas to get free labour for their farms. They often discouraged efforts to educate the rural poor. That is why a great disparity exists between the literacy rate of urban and rural areas.
- 5.4. Population in Pakistan has been growing rapidly. After first census of the country in 1951, there has been 240 per cent increase in 37 years upto 1981 and the population rose from 33.74 million to 83.7 million. The percent situation is also not satisfactory.

- 5.5. Population growth has been comparatively more rapid in educationally backward areas of North West Frontier Province, Sind and Baluchistan as compared to the Punjab.
- 5.6. The resultant outcome of this rapid growth was the increased density of population per square mile and per hectare of cultivated land. It has provided the rural sector with an abundant supply of labour. As there has been no programme of education and training for the growing rural population, it has deterred the pace of progress. If this redundant manpower was provided with education and training through some developmental programme, it could help redress the economic plight of the country. Similar observation was recorded by the National Commission on Education in 1959.
- 5.7. Over population on the farms has caused unemployment and underemployment. There is little hope of providing employment or work to this surplus farm labour force, unless the country arranges for their educational and training to make them useful for both agriculture and industry. In general, in Pakistan, on account of low level of education and prevailing illiteracy, the labour efficiency is very poor. But it may also be noted that in spite of low labour input, the labour intensity in agriculture is very low as compared to some other eastern countries. In this way, on the one hand, agriculture failed to keep pace with population growth, and on the other, it remained reluctant to absorb surplus labour as was actually required to increase production.
- 5.8. Though huge amounts are invested in agriculture each year yet there has been no increase in yield per acre per crop. Every year surplus production in one crop is counterbalanced by drastic decline in the other. Rise in production is achieved by additional acreage brought under cultivation. Sometimes additional acreage also proves futile as yield per acre declines and the production remains static.
- 5.9. The rural life in Pakistan is characterized by tradition, taboos and conservatism. Due to lack of education and exposure to the outside world the people have not been able to grow over their superstitious and mythical beliefs. An atmosphere of complacency prevails in the rural society. The fatalistic outlook has made the people contented with their income and there seems no desire to work for betterment. This attitude of the people has resulted in low levels of living.
- 5.10. On the whole the people of rural areas are afraid of change. Innovation disturbs the set pattern of their life. They feel secure with their present system. The overall picture of the rural people of this country is extremely dark and miserable. The lowest rate of literacy, low level of labour efficiency, large scale unemployment and under-employment, the lowest

level of agricultural output, immature urbanization, conservatism and fatalist outlook have perpetuated the centuries old traditionalism of the rural society. Low status of women, with almost the lowest rate of literacy and early marriage resulting in rapid population growth are serious problems for national development.

- 5.11. To upgrade the national economy on self-sustained bases, and to uplift the standard of living of rural people, a crash programme is needed for the education and training of the rural majority in Pakistan.

6. RURAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN PAKISTAN

Village Aid. – In the previous section of this unit you have read that rural development is relative a new concept. At first it was conceived as a part of community development.

- 6.1. During the 1940 – 50 decade, when depopulation of the rural areas became a national issue in the United States of America, the federal agencies especially the extension services, were deputed for the total development of the said sector. With the help of the United States and the Ford Foundation, a programme of the same kind was launched in Pakistan in 1953 with the name of Agricultural Industrial Development programme (Village AID). It was based on a principles of community development on self-help basis. It aimed at securing improvement in every aspect of the rural life through voluntary efforts of the villagers themselves. They were stimulated by a group of trained village workers. In spite of huge investment the programme failed and it was discontinued in 1960-61. The main causes of failure were the following:-

1. The staff was not properly trained.
2. There was lack of coordination among different departments related with the V-AID programme.
3. It expected too much from the villagers.
4. The leadership was imposed from outside.
5. On account of low level of education, the people were unable to understand the need and objectives of the programme.

Rural Works/People's Works Programme

- 6.2. You know that there is large scale unemployment in Pakistan. It is increasing with rapid mechanization of farming. The rate of unemployment is higher among the illiterate rural people. Feeling the large scale wastage of rural manpower resources a programme of rural works was started in 1961, The main objective of the programme was to convert the idle labour force into capital. For the financing of the programme, an agreement was signed with the United States of America

in October 1961 for the supply of surplus agricultural commodities under PL-480. A pilot project was started at Comila, Kotwali Thana in East Pakistan under the guidance of Pakistan Academy for Rural Development, Comila.

- 6.3. The programme was renamed as the People's Works Programme in November, 1972 by the Government of Pakistan. It was the part of socio-economic reforms introduced to accelerate the pace of progress and improve the living conditions of the people of rural areas. Major emphasis of the programme had been on the construction of link roads and 80.88 per cent of the programme's budget in 1975-76 and 93.76 per cent in 1976-77 was spent on communication sector. Important sectors as education, health and sanitation, social welfare, irrigation, agriculture, industries and purchase of machinery received the rest. In this way the total programme of people's works with high sounding aims was restricted to the construction of link roads. It did not provide enough for the education of the masses which is the base for all further development.

Integrated Rural Development Programme

- 6.4. Integrated Rural Development Programme is a recent term coined for the process of socio-economic transformation of the rural areas. It emphasizes the synchronization of development operations and includes all governmental and non-governmental actions to attract the rural people towards new technology. The programme is organized at five levels. Primary unit comprises a village. Markaz (centre) comprises 50 to 60 villages or primary units. It is the hub of the programme activities. Facilities of banking, credit machinery, workshops, storage, marketing agro-based industries, health, education and recreation are provided at the markaz. At district level, the selected District Council supervises and coordinates the implementation work. At provincial level, there are Rural Development Boards to coordinate and evaluate the work of various departments involved in the process. At federal level, the Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Rural Development provides policy guidelines and follow-up actions.
- 6.5. About 711 centres (Markaz) were to be established upto 1980 throughout the country to cover 35,000 to 40,000 villages by IRD Programme. But upto 1975 the number could not exceed 123. It is revealed by a report that the programme could not be expanded after 1973-74 because the concept and the requisite institutional framework for rural development were not clear and were under examination by the government.
- 6.6. The aims and objectives of the programme were quite high sounding but in actual practice the stress had been on the increased agricultural production. Rural development is a great deal more than abundant supply of food grains. Increased farm production can be achieved without

influencing the rural life. The dream of uplift can only be realized if the whole population of the area is considered for development. The rural society in Pakistan is highly stratified. Planning for the betterment of progressive farmer, consequently will broaden the gap between the rich and the poor and among different strata of population. It is already observed in most of the less-developed countries that big land owners receive the lion's share of all benefits provided under development programme. The same is being repeated in Pakistan as government itself has restricted the loan limit upto Rs. 2,000 farmers holding lease and usage rights against two credit sureties acceptable to banks which, in most of the cases, are not available to illiterate leasers and share-croppers. The amount is small enough to be of any use in the present price peak days. Contrarily, the landowners can get a loan equal to the price of their land so the larger the acreage, the greater the amount. Although it has resulted in expedient mechanization of farming, but illiteracy, lack of technical know-how and deficient repair facilities have made the land owners disgusted.

- 6.7. One of the main objectives of the programme was the coordination of the services and supplies of nation building departments at the centre level. But this proved to be the main flow of the programme.
- 6.8. The planning was made in vacuum with any knowledge of the operational level. Often the plans were least related to the social atmosphere of the areas concerned. It was mostly based on the theoretical constructs of Western Writers, ignoring the identity of political and social systems of two societies.
- 6.9. So far as the use of new technology in agriculture is concerned, as emphasized by the IRDP, it stands antagonistic to the claim of eliminating unemployment and underemployment. It is confirmed by the study of Swedish, Clark and Edwin,³ in Pakistan that mechanization reduces labour requirement.
- 6.10 In spite of high price incentives, subsidies and huge loans granted every year, the cause of agricultural failure is that the basic requirements for development which include educated and alert farm population have not been provided. In addition to the neglect of education, the present programme of rural development has all the drawbacks of the previous programmes. It absorbed large amounts of scarce public resources, but the relative outcome has been trivial.

National Rural Support Programme

The National Rural Support programme (NRSP) is also involved in rural development and poverty alleviation in rural areas. The main objectives of the programme are to foster a country-wide network of community organization at the grass root level and enable them to plan, manage and implement their

development plans on their own. This programme has five major field of operations: (i) Human Resource Development (ii) Rural Credit and Enterprise Development (iii) Natural Resource Management (iv) Physical infrastructure and Technology development, and (v) Social Sector services.

As of January 31, 2001, the NRSP has facilitated formation of 12,155 community organizational and 264,058 households have been organized. While the total credit disbursed up to January 2001 amounts to Rs. 2504.4 billion, the cumulative credit recovery rate was 93.0 percent during 1999-2000. Nearly 81,240 community activists (57,959 male & 23281 females) have been trained, some 2,394 infrastructure schemes have been completed with the total cost of Rs 152.5 million and 57,926 households have benefited from them. Almost 5.2 million animals and poultry were vaccinated and nearly 479,900 households have benefited from it. Nearly 6,499 million trees were planted through the NRSP and an amount of Rs. 3,992.2 million was distributed to purchase a pest control medicines. The NRSP in collaboration with the UNDP has initiated an urban poverty alleviation programme. The urban poverty alleviation programme.

Aga Khan Rural Support Programme (AKRSP)

The AKRSP is a private organization established in 1982 by Aga Khan Foundation funded by bilateral and multiple donors. This organization works in Northern Areas, with a mandate to focus on economic and institutional development. The main goal of this organization is to raise the income level of the villagers of Northern Areas and to develop a replicable model for rural development. The AKRSP works in various directions, like organizing village-level institutions, promoting natural resource management in agricultural, livestock and forestry; providing training for increasing employability, and marketing; and providing funding for the infrastructure projects. The poverty alleviation programme for the women were given high priority. The AKRSP acts as a catalyst for rural development, organizing resources so that local institutional structures are gradually developed to sustain to process of development. Its programme is spread over 74,200 square kilometers and its rural development approach has seven major component: (i) Institutional Development and Social Organisation, (ii) Women and Development, (iii) Mountain Infrastructure and Engineering Services, (iv) Natural Resource Management, (v) Human Resource Development, (iv) Credit and Saving; and (vii) Enterprise Development.

The last 18 years have witnessed significant changes and improvement in the economic and social lives of the people Northern Areas and Chitral. Per capita incomes have more than doubled in this period with an appreciable reduction in the level of absolute poverty. Increased economic growth has been accompanied by structural transformation of the economy following which, off-farm incomes as a proportion of total incomes are rising in the programmes area. Agriculture is the main source of livelihood of Northern Areas. The programme successfully brought vast arid area under cultivation and with active involvement

of the communities supporting construction of large number of irrigation channels, introducing new cropping varieties varieties and development of appropriate technology packages for the poor farmer. One of the most important developments has been the recognition by the government departments that organized communities are a valid partners for development. Different social sector programmes offered by the government are being largely implemented through an effective partnership between the communities, NGOs, and government departments.

As part of the Chief Executive's Programme for devolution of power to grass root level, the AKRSP-facilitated VOs/WOs (Village Organizations & Women Organizations) have been actively involved in this process and the representation of VOs/WOs in Dehi Councils in these formative stages have been impressive. By the end of 2000, a total of 2371 (VOs) and 1397 (WOs) had been formed in the programme area. Nearly 85 percent of the rural households are member of these organizations.

AKRSP also provides the opportunities to women to improve their managerial capacities and other necessary skills to increase their participation in the community development process. By the end of 2000, a total of 2219 infrastructure schemes have been initiated. Of which, 1917 projects have been completed. These projects have collectively benefited more than 166,735 households. Approximately, 103,981 hectares of new land have been brought under cultivation as a result of investment in irrigation schemes. In agriculture sector, more than 366,150 Kgs of improved cereal seed, 369,895 Kgs of fodder seed, 153,520 Kgs of vegetable seed, and over 200,000 Kgs of improved potato seed had been given to small farmers.

In the livestock sector, around 5648 crossbreed cattle, goats, and sheep had been supplied. A total of 5,202 male and female livestock and poultry specialists have been trained.

7. STRATEGIES OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT

- 7.1. When it was realized that the development of the rural sector of the less developed countries was the most urgent task of the time many writers proposed and suggested different strategies for their uplift and transformation. Some of the most important strategies were: (1) the use of foreign capital (2) population planning and (3) development of transportation facilities. They are briefly discussed below:—
- 7.2. *The use of foreign capital.* – Charles Wolfe, Barbara Ward, and Harrod Domar and many others suggested to use foreign capital for the uplift of the rural population of LDC's. They stressed the role of capital investment in the economy. These writers were mainly influenced by the success of capital transfer under the Marshall Plan to Western Europe after World War II and the remarkable growth of Israel. It is evident by the history of these countries that the writers partly over emphasized the

importance of capital and neglected the role of manpower. In both of the above situations, well-educated and competent individuals were available for distributing and using the external assistance. It is also to be noted that in Marshall Plan, the problem was, to a large extent, that of rebuilding. This lessened many of the problems faced by the LDC's attempting reform and transformation of existing structures.

- 7.3. One of the drawbacks of foreign aid for rural transformation was that it was never certain. Beforehand planning could not be made. Some years back India, Pakistan and Israel were receiving food imports from the United States under Public Law-480 (PL-480). This support was uncertain and instrumental in increasing domestic quantities of available food and in turn reducing the upward trend in prices. It was a short-run alleviation of any food problem for recipient countries. The uncertainty of programme continuation reduced reliance on PL-480 shipment.
- 7.4. Sometimes the aid, loan or grant was bound by such terms and conditions that could be called interference in the internal affairs. For example the Food for Peace Act of 1966, in addition to complementary roles that recipient countries had to play in stimulating domestic agricultural production, had some political bindings. In this way the scope and prospects of the programme were very limited in alleviating the problems of the recipient countries.

Population planning

- 7.5. Population explosion was one of the major causes which necessitated the programme of rural development in the less development countries. A wave of famines was generally felt approaching in the wake of demographic expansion. Writers as Barbara Ward, Cockrane, John Scott and many others pleaded population planning to control the birth rate. United Nations, World bank, United States of America provided grants-in-aid and loans to the LDC's for launching family planning programmes. Family Planning Centres were established throughout the countries. Huge investments were also made out of internal resources. As a big majority of the population was illiterate, therefore, the measures adopted by the family planning programme could not gain grounds. In Turkey, in the rural areas where the illiteracy rate is high, the average number of children per reproductive couple was six, while this average in the urban areas with a very high rate of education could not exceed two. In Pakistan the Family Planning Programme, as a government obligation started during first five-year plan of 1960 – 65, with an allocation of Rs. 30.3 million which was increased to Rs. 285 million in the second five-year Plan. Contrary to this investments, the population increased from 33 million in 1951 to 65 million in 1972. In about twenty years the net

growth of the population exceeded to 200 per cent increase rate. In Daudzai, a special project area of Pakistan Academy for Rural Development, Peshawar, population increased from 58,000 to 96,000 in a period of eleven years from 1960 to 1972. This unprecedented and alarming growth of population was actually the result of overwhelming majority of illiterate population in the country. Growth was comparatively more rapid in the educationally backward areas. As a result of this increase, the density of population per square mile and per hectare of cultivated land enhanced.

- 7.6. Advanced western countries have been successful in achieving almost zero growth rate. This is in spite of the fact that there is no high investment by the governments, but the people have sufficient knowledge about the need of squeezing the family size and the necessary techniques. They, by themselves, adopt the preventive measures. Japan was over populated before the second World War. It seemed difficult to them to feed the growing mouths. After the war they made the education compulsory and then utilized all the technological knowledge of family planning. Now they have no problem of population growth.

Transportation Facilities

- 7.7. Construction of link roads induces settlement of the previously inaccessible regions. It makes possible the utilization of untapped resources. If the area is already populated, the new facility offers opportunities for increased access to output, input, and consumer goods markets which are so important for resource mobility and production incentives.
- 7.8. Alongwith the link roads new culture and modern ways of living travel to the remote areas and the process of modernization starts. But there are two handicaps which check the development. First, only the educated people can make the best use of available new resources and the second, only the big land owners and the middlemen can benefit from the new output and input facilities as the subsistent farmers have little to market. Transportation facilities can go a long way towards the transformation of remote rural areas if they are supplemented by educational facilities.

Land Reforms

- 7.9. Land reforms provide rights of ownership to tenants and share- croppers after fixing a ceiling of land holding for the big landlords. After unexpected rise in the rate of population growth it became imperative for most of the developing and less developed countries to utilize land resources to the maximum. Rising food prices also made the land redistribution need of the hour as the big land owners were least interested

in either cultivating all their arable land or increasing production by its intensive use. In most of the cases they were absentee landowners. The land was used by the tenants who were not inclined to invest in land to get more production as they were not sure of the tenancy rights for the next year.

- 7.10. Land reforms were implemented throughout the third world countries. But it was an emotional issue and the governments could not take any effective action. In Columbia the agrarian reforms did not change the pattern of land distribution at all. The situation in the South East Asian countries also remained the same. The land reforms could not bring any revolutionary changes in the inequalities of the village structure and did not produce any favourable economic results. After an extensive study of the land reforms in eight countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America, Hung Chau Tai 57 concluded that there was no possibility of increasing production by adopting these programmes Saad M. Gaddala 22 commenting upon the land reforms in Egypt writes that the present results of land reforms did not raise the living standard of the farm people. According to Hung Chau Tai the main obstacle in the way of implementation of the land reforms has been the disinterest of the landed class, not willing to sacrifice its own interests for the benefit of the peasantry. He further says that in Pakistan the lack of such commitment has much reduced the scope of implementation.
- 7.11. In Philippines, Frair 1 land was redistributed in 1902. More than 165,000 hectares, were purchased by the government for sub-division and sale to approximately 60,000 tenants. But as Jacoby 33 writes, on account of illiteracy and lack of credit and marketing facilities, the new owners lost the land within one generation. The same writer citing an FAO report about land reforms in Korea says that they did not prove useful for the growth of small farmers and the community leadership is still in the hand of former landlords.

Land Tenure

- 7.12. The term "Land Tenure" refers to the institutional arrangements governing the ownership and utilization of agricultural land. In other words it is, the pattern of land distribution and of the rights and obligations of occupancy, ownership, and land use.
- 7.13. The purpose of land tenure reforms or land tenure acts has been to protect the rights of tenants against the oppressive landowners and to provide them security to work continuously for the modernization of agriculture. In India and Pakistan, usually these laws provide security of tenure for a span of years from eviction by landlords. All South Asian tenancy laws also provide protection against rack renting by fixing maximum rentals.

But just like the land reforms the tenure legislation also met with total failure on account of illiteracy of the peasants and political affiliations of the landlords who practically made the laws completely ineffective. Jacoby 33 citing a CIDA 1 report about Brazil's land tenure conditions and socio-economic development of the agricultural sectors writes that police force and judiciary play in the hands of haciendas² and the government does not interfere. The workers and tenants are changed every now and then. The situation in Ghana is also the same where the educated elite wants to maintain its controlling position within the tribal community. Gunnar Myrdal 45 mentions the failure of almost all the tenancy acts of the South East Asian countries. He gives the examples of Ceylon, Thailand, Malaya and India.¹

- 7.14. Tenancy rules wherever imposed proved more harmful to the tenants than to the landowners. Myrdal 4 mentions a report on Hyderabad act of 1951 which revealed that upto 1958 about two-thirds of the protected tenants had been evicted. Analysing the cause of the total failure of tenancy laws in almost all the South Asian countries he writes that the tenants lack the moral courage to oppose the landlords, and civil servants favour respected man of property over the poor and illiterate peasant. Almost the same observation has been made by Jacoby 33 about the natural outcome of tenancy laws in an illiterate society. He says, "Written leases are of little use in areas with a high rate of illiteracy and even the strict provisions against unjustified termination of leases can, and will, be evaded wherever the local judges side with the landowner in defending the *status quo*."

Credit Cooperatives

- 7.15. The main theme of the cooperative societies, community development programmes and the encouragement of local self-government was to persuade people to cooperate for their common interests. The poor masses need credit badly, not only to invest in agriculture, but mostly for consumption purposes, when they do not have good crops, and sometimes to meet unusual needs of the illness and funerals etc. Quite against the intent of these programmes, in most instances, it was the upper strata of population, who picked the fruits. It is revealed by studies that credit cooperatives have become mainly the preserves of the landed class in villages, including the money lenders who often acquire their funds from these resources.

¹. Church land.

1. Canadian International Development Agency.

2. Estate owners.

- 7.16. Data obtained from All India Rural Credit Survey, 1951-52 indicate that 58.6 per cent of the cultivators families and 38.6 cent of non-cultivators families took loans. It also indicates that there was a positive correlation between the size of the farming operation and the amount borrowed. Small cultivators borrow or are restricted to borrow small amounts.³⁰ Another study of the cooperatives in India concludes that the leadership of the cooperatives was monopolized by the people of the higher castes and higher income groups. The poor peasants were discouraged to take part in these societies.⁴⁰ Performance of credit cooperatives in Pakistan, has also been inadequate and ineffective. Saad M. Gaddala²² commenting upon the cooperative organizations in Egypt writes that there is little possibility of improving the economic position of peasants through this process. The main cause of the failure of cooperatives and other measures adopted for the betterment of the rural poor has been overwhelming illiteracy. Access to land and other productive resources tend to go hand in hand. Wealthy landowners not only receive a disproportionate share of technical advice and assistance provided by the government agencies and have favoured access to available credit but they also usurp education facilities provided at the cost of the poor masses.
- 7.17. In Columbia more than half of the credit goes to fewer than 10 per cent of the borrowers. A close relationship exists between the farmers' assets and the credit received.⁵ Studies by Vyas and by the National Council of Applied Economics Research in India, by Yu and Lee in Taiwan, by Rashtra Bank in Nepal, by Williams in West Malaysia and by Mahmood Hassan Khan in Pakistan bear the same results.⁵ In the absence of educational facilities, there seems no possibility of active participation of the poor section in the development process.

Cooperative Farming

- 7.18. The concept of cooperative farming mainly stems from ideology of Marxism which stresses the need of mass cooperation and decentralization of efforts for overall development of society. The immediate goal of cooperative farming in the developing countries was not limited to the economic growth of the rural sector, but it aimed at changing the economic outlook of the people. Specially in India, it also intended to eliminate class distinction or at least to bridge the gap between the landed class and the landless workers to make the society a bit homogenous against the highly stratified element prevalent in the rural life of the country. But as it is observed by Myrdal,⁴ it did not produce any change in the *status quo*; contrarily, under the lable of cooperation, the distinctions became more entrenched. Often it was used as device to convert share-croppers into wage labourers. After an extensive study of

the system in India, he concludes that, "this species of the cooperative farming exists more in theory than in practice"

- 7.19. In Tanzania, Ujamas¹ were established but they often resulted in increased centralization and state control. There could not be seen greater participation of peasants and workers in local decision making.⁴⁰ In Pakistan, the cooperative farming has less cooperation and more control with traditional malpractice's and scandals of misappropriation of funds resulting in losses of millions of rupees. Norman Long⁴⁰ writes that in Peru, cooperative farms were running in debt and there existed a wide disparity between the wages of permanent and seasonal workers, and between the workers and the management class. It had enhanced the existing socio-economic division in the zone and manifested itself in political tension. If education is not provided to the rural population, there seems no possibility of success of any developmental programme, K. M. Chaudhry¹¹ in the "Organization and Disintegration of a Collective Farming Society" gives an account of a newly established operative farming society in Ganeshpura, India. There was not a single educated person among the 75 members of 10 families who cooperated. The society was formed in June, 1959. It could not avail any loan or subsidy from any source. The members were unable to keep record of their product and the labour put in by them. The society could hardly last for one year, and before the beginning of the third year it had completely fizzled out.

Market Mechanism and Price Incentives

- 7.20. Decisions to cultivate marketable products are not only affected by access and the costs of transportation's, but they are also influenced by tenurial arrangements and financial position of the cultivators. For subsistent farmers it is not possible to produce cash crops and to purchased food from the market. The poor farmer, due to financial constraint, is always excluded from the market and cannot share profits.
- 7.21. Price incentives and market mechanism affect the production decision of cultivators already out of vicious circle of subsistence farming. Traditional agriculturists are least moved by the price policies or market changes. The main aim of their lives is security and satisfaction. They have no interest in maximization of resources and assets.
- 7.22. Studies by Mathur and Ezekiel¹⁰ indicate that market prices have no effect on production decisions. Price support polices are applied to reduce uncertainty of incomes. The subsistent farmers and the landless workers who market to their debtors are not affected by these policies.

¹ Cooperative Farms

Irrigation

- 7.23. Soil and water are the basic requirement for cultivating land. There is no possibility of any type of growth if water is not available through any source natural or artificial. It is the dilemma of the eastern countries and especially the sub-continent of Indo-Pakistan that the big landowners usurp such means of production. They share the least with the petty landowners, share – croppers or tenants. Poverty and lack of education make the people coward and fearing. They regard the landowners with awe and reverence and find no courage to defend their own rights.
- 7.24. T. S. Epestein's ¹⁹ study of Wangala shows that the availability of irrigation facilities though, increased production, but it did not result in any real location of resource. The change was unilinear and all the other aspect of the social life remained the same. The economic growth produced by irrigation, could not give birth to market economy expected to take place with increased production. Even the entrepreneur character could not emerge. Some ten years later, she revisited the same village and found that the situation had possibly worsened and the large landowners had entrenched themselves more effectively in the economic system.
- 7.25. A study by Mohendas K. Samuel indicates that in Pakistan in 1972, more than 70 per cent of all private tube wells were located on farms of greater than 12.5 acres, though only 30 per cent of the country's farms are that large. It is clear that with the provision of extended facilities, the plight of the rural poor does not lessen, and the amelioratory concept of rural development remains unrealized.

Mechanization of Farming

- 7.26. Mechanization of farming includes the use of all mechanical device which replace labour force and animal draft power, and accelerate the speed of work. The use of these devices saves time and makes double cropping possible in But a country like Pakistan where rapid population growth, and acute shortage of employment opportunities are already at the peak, tractorization and the use of other mechanical devices have deep repercussions.
- 7.27. Mc Inerney and Donaldson ⁵ "Studies in Pakistan" show a reduction of 24 per cent to 8 per cent per cultivated acre in the use of labour force with tractorization In India , a study by Singh and Singh shows a reduction of 65 per cent in family labour use and 25 per cent in permanent hired labour. Studies by Amberchrombie ⁵ show that in Columbia, one tractor will reduce employment by an average of 5.7 man years, in Guate mala 6.8 man years, and in Chile 4.1 man years.

- 7.28. A study by Hiromitsu Kaneda 25 indicates that the use of tractor can increase intensity of cropping, but there is no possibility of increasing yield per acre per crop as compared to animal draft power.
- 7.29. The most important in the process of modernization of agriculture is the human factor. If it is illiterate, inactive, and irresponsible to new developments, it is not possible to introduce and to use new devices profitably. According to Leagans, 38 "Crucial in the task of proper utilization of modern technology is education of the ultimate utilizers. In this role education is a catalytic ingredient that modifies, relates, and activates the other elements, essential for agricultural development."
- 7.30. Deutsch¹⁸ has cited an incident of Indians who were provided tractor. They used it for one season and then put it in rain, where consequently, it turned into a heap of rusty metal. Provision of facilities without proper education and behavioural change can result only in disorders.
- 7.31. The use of new devices, without first providing education to the people of rural areas, will eventually sharpen the gap between the rich and the poor and give way to increased disparity among different strata of population.

Use of New Technology

- 7.32. Green revolution technology or new technology in agriculture includes new high yielding varieties of food grains, use of chemical fertilizers, herbicides and better control of irrigation water. So far as agricultural output is concerned, the use of new technology has become imperative. The traditional means of production are no longer efficient to meet the requirements of expanding population. One thing which is often ignored is that the adoption of new technology requires innovative behaviour which, the illiterate and tradition ridden peasants of developing countries badly lack. It has been brought to light by numerous studies that the educated big landowners are more inclined to adopt the new progressive techniques and technologies. When a government policy enforces the use of new inputs in agriculture, the existing inequalities of the social structure widen up. A study by Ladejinsky 5 in India indicates that the green revolution has tended to aggravate the pre-existing disadvantages of tenants, sharecroppers, and landless labourers. Robert S McNamara 43 commenting upon this situation says that the new technology which is available to richer farmers, will prove punitive to the poor section of rural society.
- 7.33. A study by Vyas 63 in central Gujrat, India, indicates the main indicator for the lack of investment in new factors of development on small farms is the level of literacy. Literacy rate for the whole area under study was 59.4 per cent while it was 84 per cent for the big farmers, and only 40 per cent

for small farmers, who attended the school, in most cases for one year or two. Due to this disparity in the level of education, the big highly educated farmers are always the early adopters. Another study of the same state reports that the younger and dedicated farmers of higher castes with large holdings and money resources gained the most from the use of new technologies. Farmers with small holdings and having no liquid capital could not obtain good results and in the end ceased to participate in the programme.

- 7.34. In the Indian state of Kerala, a development project was organized under an agreement between the Indian and Norwegian government, assuming that the benefits will be equally distributed among all the members of the community. But a marked difference was found in response to new fishing techniques, between the two fishing communities, the Latian Catholics and the Arayans, a low caste Hindu group. The Catholics did very well as they were better educated as compared to the Hindu group³⁷
- 7.35. Jacoby³³ has provided an interesting example of the use of pesticides in the UAR. Despite of heavy capital investment, the programme failed, because the illiterate peasants did not know the techniques of using the chemicals and the officials diluted the drugs and sold the surplus in the black market.

8. EDUCATION AND RURAL EDEVELOPMENT

- 8.1. So far you have studied several approaches of rural development and their outcome when the users were quite illiterate. Now you understand that the failure of new inputs for increased agricultural production was in one way or the other related to the illiteracy of the farm people. Education is not the basic ingredient for increasing land productivity, but it is the important tool for the user to understand techniques, to acquire skills, and to be motivated for more production. As education is the "great equalizer" of man's conditions, it can substantially reduce the hardships of the rural people and elevate them to a level where they can acquire the necessary skills for productive life. According to John S. Brubacher,⁷ "education cannot increase the amount of land or raw material but it is responsible for developing skills which consequently raise yield and production". It also promotes the qualities of thrift, industry and efficiency which are important to exploit natural resources. Education is a catalytic agent. It stimulates action to seek enrichment in life. As Schultz says,⁵¹ a person can have more skills knowledge and capabilities if he gets education. Brubacher⁷ sees in education a socializing force which guides people's behaviour toward authority. According to him, it develops values and practices of political behaviour. It contributes to the development of the

concept of good society. Education teaches adaptability, only an educated person can easily adjust himself with the new environment in society, in jobs and in professions Schultz⁵¹ commenting upon this aspect writes that education develop the qualities of adjustment to change necessity for economic well-being. Carlos P. Romulz² has attributed every change in society to the success or failure of the education system. According to him education is both cause and effect of any change in society.

- 8.2. The need for more and more education increases with the complexity of life. In the present age of computerized automation, where personal relations have broken off and warm emotions have sunk down beneath the artificial friendships, it is difficult to survive without continued education. For Friedrich Edding² the need of more and more education is unlimited. Insufficient education expresses itself inability to deal with personal and social problems. As the society advances and the complexity of life increases, the need for more education grows. Education itself increases appetite for education to enjoy life. Education is the only tool through which the ever expanding knowledge of today's world can be transmitted. To keep abreast of the changing requirements of modern technology, a system of universal education is imperative. A UNESCO⁵⁹ report analyzing the causes and outcomes of illiteracy reads that there was a connection between illiteracy and under-development, of which illiteracy is both cause and effect. According to this report extension of primary education and ignoring the adult population was a disastrous endeavour. It was resulting in the wastage of productive manpower causing delay in social development and creating intergenerational conflicts. Charles Jefferies³⁴ thinks that all miseries and conflicts of the mankind are attributable to the lack of education. He giving the opinion of some important disciplines writes:—

It has been reinforced by the zeal of the humanitarian to help men to conquer poverty and disease by first conquering ignorance; by the economists recognition that production and trade cannot expand so long as illiteracy handicaps the people of half the world; by the political thinkers realization the peace and international understanding cannot be achieved while nations are divided within themselves and among one another by the unbridged gulf separating the literate from the illiterate.

Government of Pakistan's Education Policy Report,⁴⁷ 1969, consider education as "a pre-condition for success in any sphere of development." The report adds that: —

New ideas and new practices cannot be efficiently communicated to minds which are not trained to receive and make use of them. The various efforts to organize community development programmes, agricultural extension, family

planning, cooperative movement, and self government are dependent for their success on considerable dissemination of functional education enabling adults to improve their productivity in their respective occupations and their usefulness as citizens.

- 8.3. Political instability in the country is also due to the lack of education. Illiterate masses are incapable of deciding efficiently. They do not form their own opinions, but follow the general way of thinking whether right or wrong; or they accept the dominance of family decision to favour certain candidate. The rate of casting vote increases with the rate of literacy. A study by Angus Cambell⁸ concludes that the percentage of persons who actually cast vote increase with educational attainment. V. O. Key, Jr³⁶ in "Public Opinion and American Democracy" mentions the same results. Attitude towards the importance of voting was measured on a five-level scale. Only 25 per cent of the grade school graduates were in the top level, while 50 per cent of high school and 60 per cent of the college graduates attained this level. No College graduate was in the bottom level.
- 8.4. Saad M. Gadalla²² reports an extremely high correlation of education with the number of children, size of the family and number of children in school. This has also been confirmed by I. N. Hassan.²⁸ She says that:-
A high rate of literacy is positively related with low rate of population, and whenever in the world a country has been able to educate its people, the rate of population growth has decreased.
- 8.5. In this way education encompasses all aspects of human life. It is the foundation stone of civilization. It provides impetus for development. It does not seem possible to transform a society without first preparing a base by educating its members.

Education and Economic Development

- 8.6. Education precedes economic development. Higher rate of literacy of the developed countries was the main cause of their economic independence. War against the misery of the poor masses can be fought by providing them useful education. The real revolution in a country begins with the establishment of education system as white and duker⁶⁶ write about United State of America.
- 8.7. The basic cause of early development of American economy lies in the fact that the education system was well established in the year 1835. Parents were legally obliged to send their children to schools.
- 8.8. Process of development and change is related with the process of education. According to Harbison,²⁶ Education develops the human

resource, which is the most important factor of national development. In this way education and training of the people contribute directly to national development. Education exploits and utilizes the innate capacities of the people. Economic development of a country is the result of human effort and not the outcome of accumulated resources, there is no possibility of its developing any other thing including economy, political system and national unity. There is accumulated evidence which supports the view that investment in education and economic growth go hand in hand. A study by Adam Curle ¹⁶ indicates that there was a close relationship between a country's attitude towards the education of its people and rate of its development. Another study conducted by the same author concludes that the countries investing more in education has a high rate of economic growth as compared to the countries spending less on education.

- 8.9. John Vaizey citing Pigon and Cannon writes that education is more productive than physical resources. Studies about the United States indicate that in 1939 urban males with seven to eight years of school education earned \$ 175 to 304 per year more than those who had only five to six years of schooling. In 1956 males aged 25-44 with eight years education earned over \$ 1,000 per year more than those who had comparatively less education. Studies made by Herman P. Miller ⁴⁴ about the United States, data for the years 1939, 1940, 1949 and 1956 about whites and non-whites life-time earning and earning from 25 years to 64 years of age, all confirm that there existed significant difference among the income of people with different levels of education. Income increases as the years of schooling increase. For 1949 the difference between the life-time income of elementary-school and high school graduates was 39 per cent of whites and 16 per cent for non-whites. The income difference between a high school graduate and a college graduate was 61 per cent for whites and 34 per cent for non-whites.
- 8.10. For the United Kingdom, Mark Blaug ⁵⁴ calculated the rate of return for upper secondary and university education for the year 1963. After making a cut of 40 per cent due to non-educational factors, he calculated the rate of return of 10 per cent per annum for three years of upper secondary level education and 14 per cent for university education. John Sheehan ⁵⁴ cites studies for Hawaii, Canada, Israel, India, Zambia, Uganda, Kenya, Mexico and Chile and writes that most of these studies indicate private rate of return in excess of 10 per cent.
- 8.11. W. Lee Hansen ²⁴ utilizing the data for 1949 prepared, a table of life-time earning for the people of 14 to 66 years and above with different levels of education. The table shows that a person at the age of 64 with no education earns \$ 2,000 while a college graduate of the same age has an

earning of \$ 7.655. It also shows marked difference in earning with different levels of education.

- 8.12. While and Dukker ⁶⁶ based their study of the data for the year 1969 and computed median income of the head of the family for whites and non-whites and confirmed the results obtained by other studies of this kind.
- 8.13. A study by Nadeem-ul-Haq, ²⁵ about Rawalpindi city shows that persons with primary education earn 13 per cent more than the uneducated. Earnings peak up at the age of 42.
- 8.14. Education provide entrance to better occupations and employment. According to Harbison, ²⁶ formal education is the only source through which people of low income groups get access to higher income groups. Studies by Noor, Lapuran, ⁶² indicate an important correlation between the level of education and occupation and employment. According to data provided by Von Der Mehden, ⁶² 36.5 per cent unemployment exists among illiterate people, while it is 6.7 per cent for form VI or more education. So long as the occupational side is concerned, there are only 7 per cent skilled workers among the illiterate group while the ratio reaches 91.0 per cent for form VI or more pre-university education.
- 8.15. Weisbrod ⁶⁵ made a similar study for the United States data of 1962. He compared income and unemployment with years of schooling. Unemployment rate goes down with ascending years of education, Unemployment rate for 8 years college education is 7.2 per cent while it is 1.5 per cent for 4 years college education. For the year 1960 the unemployment rate for incomplete primary education in Canada was 18.7 per cent while it was 8.0 per cent for incomplete secondary education and 2.7 per cent for secondary school graduates.
- 8.16. Connel and Dasgupta¹⁴ consider education a market able commodity. They write that schooling is used specifically to gain better employment for the child.
- 8.17. Illiterate and unskilled people leaving farms and seeking employment in urban areas, often fail to complete with their counterparts from the cities. The same happened with the non-white workers. The cause of this difference is the lack of education, as Schultz (51) observes that differentials earning closely correspond to differentials in education. In the united closely correspond to differentials in education. In the United States, workers in the Southern States on the average earn less than those in the North or West, and on the average they have less education. Schultz also gives the example of farm workers coming from other areas. They comparatively earn little as compared with urban workers and many of them have no schooling.

- 8.18. Education develops the habits of thrift and saving. Illiterate people with sufficient income spend more on feasts and traditional ceremonies and save very little for their own betterment or for the nation. A study of Bolivian Village reports ⁴ annual expenditure per family on food as 4,318 bolivianos, while 30 per cent of it about 1,250 bolivianos was spend on alcoholic beverage consumed on feasts. In Mexico the production of beer for the first ten months of 1953 stood at 380 (1933 = 100) while it was 145 for textile industry and 216 for food industry. ⁴ It reveals the fact that the people had not adopted the habits of saving necessary for national economic development.
- 8.19. Brand ⁴ remarks that underdeveloped countries can afford relatively less of such waste, but the illiterate people of the developing countries do not realize it.
- 8.20. Education is the foundation stone of all developments. A country lacking in education cannot develop the innate potential of its people necessary for economic and social development.

Education and Agricultural Development

- 8.21. Today every development depends upon skill and intelligence. Schooling provides opportunities to learn these skills and to use intellect. Learning of skills is the first step towards technical efficiency which consequently provides paying jobs. Centuries old practice of land cultivation have altogether changed. Now agriculture is largely a matter of skill and knowledge. As Brubacher says, now agriculture is not a mere art but it is a science too and with its mechanization, it requires more schooling.
- 8.22. The main drawback of the developing world is overwhelming illiteracy. Most of the efforts to transform agriculture failed because the people were not ready to accept change. They had not developed sufficient potential to deal with the new situation. According to Rene Dumont, ¹⁷ serious attempts to develop agriculture should include education which teaches people to accept change. A study by Bairoch ¹⁷ indicates that agricultural productivity in Africa and Asia is about 50 per cent *per capita* lower than the level reached by the developed countries when they entered the industrial revolution.
- 8.23. It is not possible to establish linear relationship between one factor and certain outcome. Technology is not the main cause of all developments of the advanced world. New technology is also the outcome of advance education. Transforming traditional societies requires innovative behaviour which is almost completely lacking in the illiterate world. Education is the only vehicle which can persuade the people to accept

change. In a study Rogers ⁴⁸ categorized the innovative behaviour of people into five categories:-

- (1) innovative (2.5 per cent).
- (2) early adopters (13.5 per cent).
- (3) early majority (34 per cent).
- (4) late majority (34 per cent).
- (5) laggard (16 per cent).

The demographic characteristics of these groups were recorded. In general, education, and number of contacts with the other and with government agencies were positively associated with early adoption of an innovation.

- 8.24. Another study conducted by Rogers and Neill ⁴⁹ indicates that the Need-Achievement is related to innovative behaviour. The major hypothesis of the study was that agricultural innovativeness scores vary directly with achievement motivation scores. The correlation between these two kinds of scores proved to arrange between 0.19 and 0.48 for the six communities. Two of the six correlation were significant, one at 0.05 and the other at 0.01 level. The range of scores in the most traditional villages was greater. It also appeared that achievement motivation was also related to (a) the amount of exposure to *mass-media*, (b) the amount of political knowledge, (c) the degree of cosmopolitanness (orientation towards external social system), (d) the level of literacy, (e) the years of the formal education, (f) the educational aspirations, (g) occupational aspirations, and (h) a positive attitude towards credit. It was also established that achievement motivation is inversely related to age and fatalism.
- 8.25. Introduction to change among the farmers depends upon the change of norms, values and aspirations. Tulley, Wilking and Presser ⁵⁸ in their study "Factors in Decision Making in Farming Problems" conclude that such factors (as norms, values and aspirations), have a direct influence on the adoption process.
- 8.26. But village society is a closed society. The people cannot leave easily their centuries old traditions. It is only through the process of education that people start breaking the shell and seem inclined to accept the change. It opens the way towards a wider world by developing new attitudes and by improving skills. Guy Hunter³¹ stressing the role of primary schools writes that if agricultural revolution is to succeed and if traditional society of the village is to be changed, the expansion and improvement of the feeding primary schools should be the first task of the process.

- 8.27. The villagers have started realizing the importance of education. They understand that it is necessary for their economic development. They can also use it as a weapon against unscrupulous exploitation. In all the processes of agricultural and rural development, the most important thing is the villager himself. It is futile to imagine or to plan a change without first changing the behaviour of the ultimate user. Most of the literature of agricultural development deals with new technology, new seeds, use of chemicals and economic incentives to increase production. But least importance has been attached to the man who is to be influenced by these changes, though he is the ultimate determinant of both speed and quality of the invocations.
- 8.28. There is no doubt that fertilizers, agricultural devices, fuel, electricity and improved seeds are all important factors of better agricultural production, but just like a worker in a factory who assembles different elements to produce a new thing, if the farm worker is illiterate and does not even know the function and proper place of these different variables, there is no possibility that he will perform the job of a good worker.
- 8.29. Comparative studies of agricultural production reveal the fact that farms with educated and skilled operators have been producing substantially more than their counterparts with illiterate and unskilled operators. Several comparisons of this kind have been made by W. schults⁵² in his "Transforming Traditional Agriculture." For example, in Israel, he writes, the ratio of population to arable land is high. The land is of low quality. But between 1932 and 1959 production increased more than doubled with only slight rise in farm employment. Giving the causes of this accelerated growth, he says that land was not an important source but these were the modern factors of production and the education of farm operators. Though the people were not skilled in farming but most of them had a good deal of schooling.
- 8.30. In Japan, agricultural production increased at the rate of 4.6 per cent. Comparative figures for India are 2.1 per cent. Schultz making comparison of both the countries writes that on a *per capita* basis, India has six times as much agricultural land as Japan. Arable land in India is also of good quality. India has three times as much irrigated area as Japan, on *per capita* basis, but per acre production in Japan is eight times as that of India. According to Schultz, though agricultural inputs used by Japan are of far better quality, but the more important factor of this difference is the high level of farming skills and the amount of schooling of farms people in Japan as compared to traditional farming techniques and general illiteracy of the rural people in India.

- 8.31. An astonishing example of misery and poverty with hard work and tiring labour has been presented by Sol Tox ⁵² in his "Penny Capitalism." The rural areas of Panajachel in Guatemala had no factories, no co-ops, or corporations. The people were hard working, thrifty, and keen on selling their products, renting land and buying things. It was not an isolated subsistent economy but closely integrated with the external market. But the traditional hoes, axes and hatches were not replaced by modern tools and equipments. The coffee leaves used as fertilizer were not replaced by chemical fertilizer. Traditional varieties of corn were not changed by new varieties of seeds. Traders and firms also did not offer the new things for sale.
- 8.32. Karl W. Deutsch ¹⁸ has cited the case of Coimbatore region in India. According to him the major reason of conspicuous Prosperity of the region was the establishment of an agricultural college. The farms were run by the sons of the first graduates, who themselves had more modern education than their parents.
- 8.33. Prior to the World War I, in the United States, the farmers of Iowa and Illinois moved to Lower Louisiana to grow rice. According to Schultz they achieved higher level of productivity as compared to the other farmers around them. He has also presented the examples of farm people of German stock who settled in the Sand Mountain area of Alabama and other enclaves of European and Japanese immigrants in part of South America. These people have been more productive on account of their finer skill and better education.
- 8.34. Denmark transformed its agriculture between 1870 and 1900. According to Schultz, it had not been possible without huge investment in the schooling of farm people.
- 8.35. Schultz has cited a study by Shoup and associates, "The Fiscal System of Venezuela." It indicates that incremental return to primary education in Venezuela was 130 per cent per annum based on the differences in the earning of illiterate agricultural workers and of those who had six years education.
- 8.36. J. Paul Leagans ³⁸ has provided concluding remarks about the role of education in increasing the farm output and in this way its contribution to the uplift of the rural people. He writes:—
- Studies of the agricultural development process increasingly recognize the contribution of general education as one of the essential elements. These studies indicate that economic growth, for example, cannot be explained in terms of

capital accumulation and growth of the labour force alone, but rather, the explanation for a large and possibly the major part of economic growth lies in investment in the development of human resource through education.

8.37. So long as illiteracy is not eradicated there can be no hope of stable development in the country. People in Pakistan have always been tradition-bound. They have been skeptical of all new things. If education does not open the door toward the new world of technology, the use of new inputs in agriculture on scientific basis will remain a dream. A study by ESSO Fertilizer Company of Pakistan ³² revealed that 45 per cent farmers interviewed, were hesitant to apply fertilizers because they thought that:-

1. Fertilizer depletes soil of all nutrients (22 per cent);
2. It causes salinity (11 per cent); and
3. It hardens soil (12 per cent).

Rural development present a colossal challenge. It is more than a simple issue of finding more money and using local institutions. It would involve changes in age-old attitudes and would require creating enthusiasm along-with a strong sense of responsibility. There would be need for considerable decentralisation and flexibility of choice at the local level to be combined with effective supervision, monitoring and safeguards. Above all, it would require that the traditional outflow of educated persons from the rural areas to the urban areas should be reversed. More of the doctors, engineers and other experts have to be induced to accept residence in rural areas. Teachers, doctors, agricultural extension workers, medical technicians and other similar professionals would create a new class within the rural communities and induce change from within. Some of them would come from outside. Others have to be mobilized from within and properly trained. In both cases, initial task is to create proper incentives to counter the lure of the city life. Later, with their help pressures would develop creating demand for change in the rural environment. More facilities would be created. It is on the success of moving educated personnel to the rural areas that the battle for rural development would be won.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- (1) Why is it important that the flow of rural population into cities should be checked? In your opinion what steps can be taken to check this flow?
- (2) Education or economy? Which is more important factor for social development? Does education precede economic development? Please discuss in the light of available evidence and give your opinion.
- (3) In what way does rapid population expansion affect rural farmers?
- (4) Why did the movement for rural development emerge? Please give a brief history of the movement in both developed countries and the developing countries.
- (5) Why have, in your opinion, the peasants of third world countries not developed socially and economically? How far have their governments succeeded in removing the prevalent impediments?
- (6) What have been the major causes of the failure of different rural development programmes in Pakistan?
- (7) Is legal production sufficient to safeguard the rights of peasants in the developing countries? Please explain your answer.

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UNIT No. 2

**EDUCATION AND ECONOMIC
DEVELOPMENT**

**Karel Jansen
And
Hans Reiff
Revised by
Dr. Aisha Akbar**

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PREFACE

The present cluster "Education and Economic Development" has been written as part of the EPM-506 course entitled "Development Education". Its authors are Karel Jansen (Institute of Social Studies, The Hague, Netherlands) and Hans Reiff (Division of Educational Policy and Planning, UNESCO, Paris).

The cluster consists of Five Sections:-

- Section 1: Basic principles of economics relevant to educational planning.
- Section 2: Economic context of education: education as an investment.
- Section 3: Development planning.
- Section 4: Internal efficiency of education.
- Section 5: Education structure of the labour force: Manpower Projections.

As far as possible, the items discussed have been illustrated (at the end of each section) with relevant quantitative tables on Pakistan. At the end of each section a number of major issues are raised to which the readers of the unit should be able to react in relating the text to the tables.

OBJECTIVES

On completion of this unit on Education and Economic Development, should be able to :-

1. Highlight the economic considerations in educational planning.
2. Describe relevance between the education and economic development.
3. Explain the concept of developmental planning with specific reference to the development education.
4. Evaluate the efficiency of an educational plan on the basis of economic development.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF ECONOMICS

RELEVANT TO

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

An educational planner must have some knowledge of economics because in planning education he has to use information obtained from economists about the economic facts of relevance to education. Therefore, the planner must be able to understand what the economist does. The work of an economist has three elements:-

1. Describing and analysing the economy.
2. Planning the social and economic development.
3. Checking that everything is done efficiently.

In this and the following section we will follow the economist in all his activities and see what concerns us.

Description of economy

For the description of the economy the economist uses some terms that are not familiar to all of us. We will define them.

Economy. – Total of economic activities of the country.

Production. – In every country people work. In working they produce goods on farms and plantations; they produce rice, rubber, coconut, sugar, tea, etc. In factories they produce iron, auto- mobiles, textiles, radios, etc. Other people do not produce tangible goods, but services. A service cannot be identified as a tangible product, but it is very useful. Examples are: insurance, banking, education, army and police, transport.

If we add all the goods and services produced in one year we come to the total production of the country. This total production can be divided by sector of origin (from agriculture, from industry, from services) or by the way in which it is used: some products are consumed, some invested, some exported.

Consumption. —This means the final use of goods and services. Consumption goods are goods, which do not re-enter in the production process.

Investment or Capital Formation. —Products used for capital formation are called investment goods. They are themselves results of a production process but they re-enter the production process to help in the production of new goods. Examples are buildings, machines, transportation means.

From these definitions it is clear that services are always consumption goods. In consumption the goods are used to satisfy directly the present needs of the consumer, while investment goods help to produce goods which will satisfy needs of consumers at a later point in time. So investment goods satisfy the needs of the consumers indirectly. We need investment goods for two reasons:-

- (i) They can help us to produce more and faster.
- (ii) They can help us to produce goods that cannot be produced without them.

Exports. – Some of the goods produced in our country are sold to other countries. The value of the total of these sales abroad is called the exports of our country. The money we earn by selling abroad can be used to buy goods from these foreign countries. The value of goods bought abroad is called imports.

Balance of payments¹. – For the imports from, say, USA our country has to pay in US dollars. We sell therefore our own money to buy US dollars. But who will buy our money? Only those people abroad who want to buy, with our money, our products. Therefore we are able to buy dollars (and other foreign currencies) for an amount equal to our exports. Thus, imports and exports must balance.

The balance of payments is the account on which transactions of our country with all other countries are represented.

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

Credit		Debit	
Exports of goods and services	800	Imports of goods and services	1,000
Import of capital	200		
	1,000		1,000

We said already that imports and exports must balance. If imports are greater than exports the country is said to have a balance of payments problem. The imports can only exceed our exports to the amount of money that foreign countries want to loan us, i.e. foreign capital assistance.

¹ See Table : Balance of Payments Pakistan, 2 and 3 from 1990 to 2003.

Factors of Production. — We saw already where the production takes place (on farms, in factories etc). Now our problem is *who* produce. In the production process several factors work together:-

- (a) natural resources (land for the farmer, minerals etc.)
- (b) human resources (quantity and quality of the labour force).
- (c) capital resources (machines, buildings).

These three are called the basic factors of production. They always work together. A farmer works on the land and uses machines. In a factory man and machines are combined to process natural resources.

Sometimes a fourth factor of production is mentioned: organization. This entrepreneurs and managers, who are organizing the other three production factors together in the production process.

Production Function. — The production function is a formal statement of how inputs (factors of production) are related to outputs (products). If we say that we have to combine 3 men with 1 machine to produce 5 pairs of shoes, then we are describing a production function .

Employment and Manpower. — The total of men (and women) able to work are called the manpower of the economy. If they actually work then they are employed, if not they are unemployed.

The total number of (employment) can be distributed according to the sectors in which they are working (agriculture ,industry, government).

Productivity. — If we have the total production of a sector, say agriculture, for a year and we divide it by the number of men employed in that sector for that year we arrive at the production per worker for that sector, also called the productivity of labour.

Income. — The production factors earn an income for their contribution to the production .For land this income is called rent, for labour it is called wages or salaries, profits. All these income added together is called National Income .

Income Distribution. — If we see how the total income of a country is distributed over its inhabitants we see that a few persons have a very high income and the majority of the people have low income.

We have given some concepts with which the economist describes the economy.

Planning

The second task of an economist is planning. Planning is the designing of a programme of action for the government so that within the possibilities of the country maximum development is obtained. We shall discuss this further in development planning.

Efficiency

The third task of the economist is promoting efficiency. Efficiency means that, given the aims and objectives for overall development of the country, all efforts in all sectors by every man are directed to attaining these aims. As far as education is concerned we distinguish: —

- (i) *External Efficiency of Education:*— Is the educational system producing number and type of students required for the development of the country. The smooth functioning of the economy requires a certain number of men with adequate schooling and also the type of schooling must be such that the students has the type of knowledge and skills required for actual work.
- (ii) *Internal Efficiency of Education:*— Education can be regarded as an enterprise. Labour (teachers) and capital (School buildings and equipment) are used together to produce a service “ education” Just as in other enterprises we cannot allow money to be wasted. Problems here are wastage and stagnation, (utilization of school buildings, teacher’s salaries, management, etc.)

National Accounts

The economist tries to describe the level of economic activity and development of a country with the concepts of National Income (N.I) or Gross National Product (G.N.P.). The progress of economic development is reflected in the growth percentages of N.I., G.N.P., or G.D.P. (Gross Domestic Product).¹

In very country people work. They work as a farmer, in a factory, in an office, etc. these people do three things:-

- (1) They produce goods.
- (2) They earn an income.

¹See Table 1 for growth of G.D.P. by sector in Pakistan, 1980's to 2002.

- (3) They spend this income.
- (4) They save.

All four activities offer possibilities of measurement. All four reflect aspects of the economic activity in the country. We can measure: —

- (a) The value of all goods produced.
- (b) The total of all income.
- (c) The total of expenditures.
- (d) The total of savings.

These four measurements must necessarily correspond since people can only spend as much as they earn and they can buy only as much as is produced. And on the other hand the proceeds of the selling of products is distributed over the factors of production as income.

We will now give some definitions:-

- (1) *Domestic Product*. – Total values of what is produced in the country.
- (2) *National Product*. – Total value of what is produced by national factors of production.

The difference with domestic product is, that a part of production is produced in the country but with the help of foreign factors of production. These foreign production factors transfer their income to their home country (e.g. profit transfers of foreign enterprises). Also national production factors help the production abroad and send their income to the country. The national product is the domestic product corrected for the net payment to foreign production factors.

- (3) *Gross Product*. – Total value of production.
- (4) *Net product*. – Total value of production *minus* value of fixed capital used up in production.

We saw already that in the process of production, capital (machines and buildings) is used. Because they are used, these machines etc. wear out and decline in value. An allowance to pay for this loss is included in the price of the products which the machines help to produce. The sum of these depreciation allowances over the years of use of the machine should be enough to replace the machine at the end of its lifetime. However, in the year that the machine itself is produced and sold it enters in the measurement of production. So the value of the machine enters twice, first in the year in which the machine is produced and secondly as depreciation allowances in the years in which the machine is used. This is double-counting. Therefore we have to correct the Gross Product for the value of these allowances.

- (5) *Product at Market Prices* — Total value of products, valued at market prices.
- (6) *Product at Factor Cost* — Total value of products, valued at payments to the production factors used in the production.

The price paid for goods in the market is used for payments of wages, profits, interest to the production factors used in the production of the goods. The price of goods can, however, exceed the payment to production factors there is an indirect tax on the goods. The proceeds of this tax go to the government and not to the factors of production.

The difference between product at market prices and at factor costs is therefore equal to the amount of indirect taxes. So it is clear what we mean by: —

Gross National Product at market prices = GNP at m.p. = total value of production:-

- (i) by national production factors;
- (ii) including depreciation allowances; and
- (iii) including indirect taxes.

National Income = NI value of production:

- (i) by national production factors;
- (ii) excluding depreciation allowances ;and
- (iii) excluding indirect taxes .

So we see that NI = Net National Product at factor cost. NI *per capita* is the total NI divided by the number of population giving NI per head of population. Now we want to analyze the aggregate data of GNP or NI in more detail. In every economy there are three basic sectors:-

- (1) Households : this includes all individuals.
- (2) Enterprises : all public and private corporations.
- (3) Government : at all levels.

These sectors interact. An individual lives in a household, works in an enterprise, earns his wage or profit, pays taxes to the government and spends his income on products of enterprises. The enterprise sector can be further divided into industries like agriculture, (rubber, tea, etc.), manufacture (metal, electricity, textiles, etc.), trade and services (banks, insurance, transport).

If we look at the households we see that its income is in the form of wages and profits, income from land rented and money loaned. The households spend money on purchase of consumption goods, on paying taxes and they can save a part of their income.

The enterprises receive money from the sale of their products and they use this money for payment of wages, for purchase of investment goods and for payments of profits and taxes.

The government receives taxes and uses this to provide government services to the population (health, education, etc.) and public investment (roads, dams, buildings, etc.). So we have a household, an enterprise and a government account. These accounts are used to measure quantities like GNP, NI, consumption, investment, etc. However, here we run into problems for the less-developed countries, because the three sectors are not so clearly separated. Most households work on their own farms, they consume a large part of their own production. Payment of rent for the land or of taxes is sometimes also in kind. In this kind of unmonitored society the measurement of NI or total consumption presents problems. We can therefore, say that the estimates of these aggregates in developing countries are not too reliable.

Some additional definitions: —

- (1) *Private Consumption Expenditures*:- Value of final expenditures by households. This includes all expenditures for goods and services, irrespective of durability, except land and buildings.
- (2) *Government Consumption Expenditures*¹:- this includes:-
 - (a) Wages for government employees.
 - (b) Purchases by government from enterprises *minus* the sales to households and enterprises by the government.
- (3) *Gross Domestic Capital Formation*:- Value of purchases and own-account construction of fixed assets by all sectors.

Consumption and investment are very important indexes of economic activity of a country, because they give a rough indication how the product of the country is used.

The production by sectors of origin (households, enterprises, government) enables planners to study the structure of production and to assess the future prospects.

The government expenditures are important, because they are the major source of finance for education.

What is the relevance of these National Accounts for the educational planner? He will be mainly interested in future developments, *e.g.* what will the growth of GNP be, what will be the increase in government expenditures.

¹See Table IV: Consolidated Current Expenditures in Pakistan, 1977-78-1981-82.

The National Accounts give us the production by sector of origin for the base year. The planner estimates the growth potential in each sector. This growth potential depends on export opportunities, available investment funds. We saw already that investments help to produce more and faster. Therefore, investments play an essential role in the process of growth. From these considerations follows our estimate of the growth rate of GNP.

Issues: —

- (i) From table 2 you can see that Pakistan imports in 2001-02 are worth \$ 6626 million while imports for the same period are worth \$ 6914 million. What does it show about the economic condition of Pakistan?
- (ii) Figure 1 shows remittances of Pakistanis working abroad worth \$ 1865 million in 2001-02. Do you think these remittances reduce the defect in balance of payment?
- (iii) Table 4 shows shares of various sectors in GDP. How do you interpret this situation?

Table 5 contains GDP growth of different countries. How do you read the situation in respect to Pakistan?

Table -1

Growth Performance of Components of Gross National Product

(% Growth at Constant Factor Cost)

	1980's	1990's	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06
Commodity Producing Sector						
1. Agriculture	6.5	4.6	4.3	9.2	9.2	4.3
- Major Crops	5.4	4.4	4.3	2.3	6.7	2.5
- Minor Crops	3.4	3.5	6.7	1.9	17.8	-3.6
- Livestock	4.1	4.6	1.8	4.0	3.0	1.6
- Fishing	5.3	6.4	3.0	2.5	2.3	8.0
- Forestry	7.3	3.6	3.4	2.0	2.2	1.9
2. Mining & Quarrying	6.4	-5.2	11.1	-3.2	-30.4	-9.7
3. Manufacturing	9.5	2.7	6.6	15.6	9.6	3.8
- Large Scale	8.2	4.8	6.9	14.0	12.6	8.6
- Small Scale	8.2	3.6	7.2	18.1	15.6	9.0
4. Construction	8.4	7.8	7.5	7.5	7.5	9.3
5. Electricity & Gas Distribution	4.7	2.6	4.0	-10.7	18.6	9.2
Services Sector	10.1	7.4	-11.7	56.8	3.5	-8.4
6. Transport, Storage and Communications	6.6	4.6	5.2	5.9	8.0	8.8
7. Wholesale & Retail Trade	6.2	5.1	4.3	3.5	3.6	7.2
8. Finance & Insurance	7.2	3.7	5.9	8.4	11.1	9.9
9. Ownership of Dwellings	6.0	5.8	-1.3	9.0	29.7	23.0
10. Public Administration	7.9	5.3	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.5
11. Services	5.4	2.8	7.7	3.2	0.6	4.7
12. GDP (Constant Factor Cost)	6.5	6.5	6.1	5.6	5.9	6.5
13. GNP (Constant Factor Cost)	6.1	4.6	4.7	7.5	8.6	6.6
	5.5	4.0	6.3	7.3	8.3	6.4

Source: Federal Bureau of Statistics and Economic Adviser's Wing.

Table-2
Balance of Payments

Components	2003-04	2004-05	July-March	
			2004-05	2005-06 (P)
Trade balance	1208	-4352	-3202	-6104
Exports (fob)	12396	10641	10641	11854
Imports (fob)	-13604	-13843	-13841	-17958
Services (net)	-3584	-4230	-4230	-5393
Private transfers (net)	6116	6251	6251	6801
Workers remittances	3871	3050	3050	3228
Current account balance	1314	-1181	-1181	4696
Excluding official transfers				
Long term capital (net)	-201	1633	1633	3905
Changes in reserves (- = Increase)	-826	-510	-510	-124

P: Provisional

Source: State Bank of Pakistan

Table -3
Unit Value Indices and Terms of Trade
(Base year 1990-91 = 100)

Year	Unit Value Indices		Terms of Trade
	Exports	Imports	
1991-92	119.9	131.9	90.9
1993-94	142.9	141.2	101.2
1995-96	185.4	185.5	99.9
1997-98	245.6	198.9	123.5
1998-99	258.4	223.3	115.7
99-2000	253.8	259.0	98.0
2000-01	271.5	298.4	91.0
2001-02	271.2	298.6	90.8
2002-03	254.0	309.5	82.1
2003-04	279.6	355.4	78.7
July-December			
2004-05	285.2	372.8	76.5
2005-06	296.1	446.0	66.4

*Provisional.

Source: Federal Bureau of Statistics

Table -4
Workers Remittances (\$ Million)

Monthly Cash Flow	2004-05	2005-06	% Changes
July	330.5	313.1	-5.3
August	330.7	348.4	2.6
September	312.9	341.1	9.0
October	334.8	372.5	11.3
November	291.8	308.9	5.9
December	336.4	371.2	10.3
January	321.4	391.3	21.7
February	339.3	358.1	5.5
March	443.7	423.6	-4.5
April	401.0	401.5	0.1
July-April	3451.5	3629.7	5.2
Monthly Average	345.2	363.0	5.2

*Including FEBCs and FCBCs

Source: State Bank of Pakistan

Table -5
Sectoral Share of Various Sectors in GDP (At Constant Factor Cost)

Sector	199-2000	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06
					R	P	P
COMMODITY PROD. SECTOR							
1. Agriculture	49.3	48.7	47.9	47.7	48.4	48.7	47.7
Major Crops	25.9	24.9	24.1	24.0	22.9	22.5	21.6
Minor Crops	9.6	8.5	8.0	8.2	7.8	8.4	7.6
Livestock	3.5	3.3	3.1	3.0	2.9	2.8	2.7
Fishing	11.7	11.9	12.0	11.8	11.2	10.6	10.7
Forestry	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.3
A1. INDUSTRIAL SECTOR	23.3	23.8	23.7	23.6	25.5	26.2	26.0
2. Mining & Quarrying	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.6
3. Manufacturing	14.7	15.7	15.9	16.3	17.3	17.9	18.2
Large Scale	9.5	10.3	10.4	10.6	11.7	12.4	12.7
Small & Household	3.7	3.9	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.3
Slaughtering	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2
4. Construction	2.54	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.0	2.1	2.2
5. Electricity and Gas Distribution	3.9	3.3	3.0	2.5	3.7	3.5	3.0
SERVICES SECTOR	50.7	51.3	52.1	52.3	51.6	51.3	52.3
6. Transport, Storage & Communication	11.3	11.6	11.4	11.4	10.9	10.4	10.5
7. Wholesale & Re-tail Trade	17.5	17.9	17.8	18.0	18.2	18.6	19.2
8. Finance & Insurance	3.7	3.1	3.5	3.3	3.4	4.0	4.6
9. Ownership of Dwellings	3.1	3.2	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.9	2.8
10. Public Administration & Defence	6.2	6.2	6.4	6.6	6.3	5.9	5.8
11. Services	9.0	9.3	9.8	9.9	9.7	9.5	9.5
12. GDP (fc)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

R: Revised
Provisional

Sources: Federal Bureau of Statistics P:

Table 6
Regional Growth Performance (Real GDP (%))

Region/Country	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06
World GDP	4.1	5.3	4.8
Euro Area	0.7	2.1	1.3
United States	2.7	4.2	3.5
Japan	1.8	2.3	2.7
Germany	-0.2	1.6	0.9
Canada	2.0	2.9	2.9
Developing Countries	8.4	8.8	8.6
China	10.0	10.1	9.9
Hong Kong SAR	3.2	8.6	7.3
Korea	3.1	4.6	4.0
Singapore	2.9	8.7	6.4
Vietnam	7.3	7.7	7.5
	ASEAN		
Indonesia	4.7	5.1	5.6
Malaysia	5.4	7.1	5.3
Thailand	7.0	6.2	4.4
Philippines	4.5	6.0	5.1
	SOUTH ASIA		
India	7.2	8.1	8.0
Bangladesh	5.8	5.9	5.8
Sri Lanka	6.0	5.4	5.9
Pakistan	7.5	8.6	6.6

SECTION 2

ECONOMIC CONTEXT OF EDUCATION

EDUCATION AS AN INVESTMENT

Most of the countries of Asia are developing countries. Some characteristics of these countries are:-

- (1) the people are poor,
- (2) the majority of the population do farming,
- (3) majority of people do not have much schooling, large parts of the population are still illiterate.

To develop the country it is necessary to:-

- (1) make agriculture more modern and productive,
- (2) industrialize.

For both it is necessary to have men, who can understand new and modern methods of production. In agriculture the farmer should be educated enough to be able to read and understand articles about new seeds and new fertilizers; he should be able to make calculations about the volume of water needed etc. In industry, men should be able to work with delicate and sophisticated machines, there are foremen needed to supervise the work. General economic development requires educated people:

e.g. a new factory needs: —

- (1) one business economist to be commercial director,
- (2) one engineer to be technical director,
- (3) one engineer to be production manager,
- (4) fifteen foremen,
- (5) five skilled workers.

For the working of this factory, and thus for economic development these men are essential and the school system should provide such men. This is the first link between the economy and education. The second link is the following:-

Education is expensive; schools must be
built and maintained, teachers be paid, etc.

In most countries the government pays most of the cost of education. The parents also contribute in the form of tuition fees, clothing and school books for their children etc. Most governments are short of money. If the country, is to develop the government must build roads, bridges, promote agriculture and

industrialization etc, and they must provide education. The government provides education, because:—

- (a) education is human right. Everyone who wants to be educated should be able to get education,
- (b) the country needs educated people for its development. Therefore, education can be called an investment: the government spends money to educate people and the people, after they leave school, help with their knowledge to develop the country. This form of investment is called investment in human resources.

We find this in the development plans of most of the Asian countries. The objectives of the government for education are; i. entitled, and ii to produce enough men with necessary knowledge and skills for the development of the country.

Let us take a look at the government expenditure for education. The Karachi conference set as a target for the Asian countries to use up till 5% of GNP for education. At present not many countries reach this target.

We saw that the government can consider their expenditures for education as an investment. Therefore we defined investment as an expenditure now (on machines, buildings) in order to have more and better products later. This goes also for education ; expenditure now for education gives us persons with knowledge and skills some years later. These people will then be more productive and contribute more to the development of the country. We can even try to measure this; by calculating the so-called rate of return on education investment. In this calculation we compare cost and returns of investment in education.

Returns:- Compare person A with B. A only has primary education and B has followed secondary school. They are of the same age. A earns \$ 500 per year and B \$ 700. B gets more because he can do more difficult jobs. In economics we say, because he is more productive, This extra \$ 200 of B can be attributed to his extra schooling. If we calculate this extra earning of B over A for their whole lifetime we can say that this total is the return of the expenditures on education of B.

Cost:- The school which B attended spent money. Also, because B went to school he forewent the opportunity of earning a salary. These costs are called opportunity costs. They should be taken into account if you compare two alternative decisions:-

- (3) go to school;
- (4) not to go to school and start working.

If you choose i. then you forego the salary you would have earned if you had chosen ii. we call these earnings foregone. So there are two types of costs:-

- (a) direct costs of school: teachers salaries, books, fees etc., depreciation, rent etc.
- (b) indirect costs, earnings foregone by the decision to attend school.

If we compare costs with returns we arrive at the so called rate-of-return. If the quotient Returns/Cost is more than one then the investment in education is worth considering.

We can call this the rate-of-return or the Benefit-Cost Ratio.

We can compare the rate-of-return of investment in education with the rate-of-return of investment in other direction (e.g. investment in roads, factories, houses). The type of investment with the highest rate-of-return should have priority on economic grounds. But there are other grounds than economic ones for expenditures on education. Education is also a human right and can also serve to make the life of people more meaningful and this has nothing to do with rates of returns.

We highlighted two aspects of the economic context of education:-

- (a) The inputs. How much money is spent on education;
- (b) The outputs. How many graduates are produced by the educational system for the furthering of the development of the country.

However, the economic context influences education in many respects. The poverty of the people and the malnutrition of the children cause the high rates of drop-outs in some countries. The scarcity of textbooks affects the quality of teaching. Stagnation of economic development sometimes makes it impossible for graduates to find profitable employment.

In the following sections we will have the opportunity to point out many links between the economy and the educational system.

Integration of Educational National Development

The problem we will discuss in this section is not so much the integrating of education plan with national development plan, but more the integration of educational development and general development.

This integration takes place at several levels. The first level is that of the objectives of development, economic growth is not an end of development, it is a mean. The ultimate end of development is more happiness for all people. But given the situation in the Asian countries at this moment the promotion of economic growth is the most pressing need. If large parts of the population are very poor or even hungry it is a first necessity to raise their incomes. Therefore, the primary objective of development in this region will, be and must be the increase in income and more equal distribution of the income in the population. Also, education has to be subjected to this objective. If we try to translate this

general objective in more specific objective for education we come to the following objectives for education:-

- (4) Rational allocation of resources;
- (5) Meeting manpower requirements;
- (6) Adequate content of curricula.

Under the first objective we deal with the question: how much money to spend on education? Does money spent on education contribute more in the growth of income than more spent elsewhere. Of course this question is very difficult to answer. A Cost-Benefit Analysis can give us some idea, but this method has its shortcomings. Many of the contributions of education to development cannot be quantified. Some examples are:-

- (a) People might live happier just by being more educated;
- (b) Educational level of parents stimulates the success at school of their children;
- (c) Better educated are more likely to invent and innovate.

All these factors have to be taken into account. A part of the educational expenditures will be done on social and humanitarian grounds, like the expansion of primary education. But another part of the expenditures on education should be considered as an investment, because the scarcity of resources does not allow the governments to expand education as far as they would like to. If we consider this part of the expenditures as an investment, then there should be returns to justify this investment. And these returns should be higher than returns in other ways of investment. This is what the economist calls a rational allocation of resources. Resources should be so allocated over different alternatives as to give a maximum result. A problem is that so many costs and benefits cannot be measured and quantified.

Another way is to find out if we spend enough on education is, to make comparisons with the past experience of others, now developed, countries. How much did they spend on education in the corresponding stage of their development and how much did education contribute to their development? Studies on the past economic growth of rich countries show that factors like technical progress, better organization of production, educational levels of population do explain an important part of total economic growth. However, the methods used to estimate the contribution of education to economic growth are theoretically doubtful and require detailed statistics and, therefore, are not applicable in Asian countries. And the out-come of these methods are too uncertain to form a basis for decision on investment in education:-

- (1) Number of high-level(educated) manpower per 10,000 population;
- (2) Enrolment ratios at all levels of education.

This index reflects the present high-level manpower situation and its future development. On the other hand it reflects the past and present educational development. The index was calculated for 75 countries, developed and under-developed. After that this index was correlated with percentage of active population engaged in agriculture. The correlation co-efficients were significant. But an aim is questionable if this provides us with a base to decide on our investment in education. For this the analysis is too superficial. The whole educational development is put together into one fact or and there are only two indicators of economic developments.

As a conclusion we can say that the rational allocation of resources to education is a very difficult problem with no satisfactory solution. The whole idea of education as investment implies that education is a cause of economic growth. Now, of course, more education and a higher per capita GNP are correlated, but the causal relationship goes also the other way. If GNP *per capita* is higher we can spend more on education. So the concept of education as investment is not an unambiguous one, the returns of investment are difficult to measure and, therefore, the national allocation of funds to education is very difficult.

A second level for integration of educational and general development is the level of the outputs of the educational system. These outputs are the graduates of the different types of schools, and also the pupils, who left school before graduation.

Here there are two questions. First, is the number of graduates adequate? And second, do they possess the right knowledge and attitudes?

The number of output must be in accordance with the manpower needs and the employment possibilities. From the national development plan we will have some idea about number and type of manpower needed and it is the task of the educational system to produce them.

But more important is what they learnt at school. Special skills required for a specific occupation can be taught on-the-job. But it is essential that the content of the curricula at the schools provides the children with basic knowledge and attitudes required to promote development. Some aspects of these attitudes are:-

- (i) The social and cultural environments changes in the process of development. Many men, who were used to work on a farm, will have to work in factories and in offices. This requires the development of new ways of thinking and new attitudes. The schools should help to develop these.
- (ii) These attitudes should be related to the promotion of development. They must include a sense of efficiency and a spirit of innovation.

- (iii) These attitudes should promote more equality among people.

The output in the form of drop-out is a great problem. Many of these drop-outs have left the school after a short time. Most probably they will forget what they have learnt. They might be even become illiterate again. For these dropouts it might be necessary to create out-of-school possibilities to acquire at least the basic skills of reading and writing.

The third level of integration between educational and overall development is the level of the inputs into education. These inputs take two forms: money and men. The input in men is mainly in the form of teachers. However, these teachers are produced by the educational system itself and it is the internal planning of the educational system that can solve this problem. As far as the input in the form of money is concerned much of what has been said on the allocation of resources is relevant here. But now we want to expand little more on the relationship between inputs and outputs: The country needs certain outputs of the educational system for its development, and therefore, the educational system needs the money to produce them. This is a question of consistency in planning. The inputs should be such that the outputs can be produced. This raises the question of efficiency. We have seen that the education system in developing countries is not efficient. The wastage is very high. An idea of the costs of wastage can be obtained by comparing the actual and the theoretically minimal cost per graduate. A more successful integration of educational and national development may depend to a large extent on the solution of this problem of wastage. Wastage is incompatible with development because:-

- (i) it is an inefficient use of money;
- (ii) it is an inefficient way of selecting pupils. The poor pupils drop-out, not the bade ones;
- (iii) it presents the attainment of the objectives of educational development.

Table 7 and 8 show the budgetary allocation for Education.

Table 7
Public Sector Budgetary Allocation for Education 2005-06

(Rs. In billion)

Federal Government	Current	Development	Total
Ministry of Education	2282.713	4520.522	6803.335
Higher Education Commissions	10493.412	11700.000	22193.412
Federal Government Education Institution in Cantonment and Garrisons	1027.697	32.862	1060.559
Federally Administered Tribal Areas	2079.491	1300.000	3379.491
Federally Administered Northern Areas	656.482	323.480	980.322
AJ&K	3362.400	390.000	3752.400
Federal Government Special Education Institutions	238.271	782.596	1021.561
Other Federal Ministries/Divisions/Organizations	5443.312	454.379	5897.691
Total (Federal)	25584.578	19504.199	45088.777

Provincial Governments	Current	Development	Total
Government of Punjab	48513.249	12242.719	60755.968
Government of Sindh	27792.037	2659.280	30451.317
Government of NWFP	14781.856	3453.979	18235.835
Government of Balochistan	6692.333	2167.821	8860.154
Total (Provinces)	97779.475	2523.799	118303.274
Grand Total	123364.053	40027.988	163392.051

Source :Ministry of Education

Table 8
Literacy Rate - population and GDP Growth
(Percent)

Year	Literacy Rate	Change by percentage	Population Growth	GDP growth
1991	34.9	-	2.63	5.4
1992	36.0	1.1	2.60	7.6
1993	37.2	1.2	2.56	2.1
1994	38.4	1.2	2.51	4.4
1995	39.6	1.2	2.47	5.1
1996	40.9	1.3	2.43	6.6
1997	42.2	1.3	2.38	1.7
1998	43.6	1.4	2.34	3.5
1999	45.0	1.4	2.29	4.2
2000	47.1	2.1	2.24	3.9
2001	49.0	1.9	2.22	2.4
2002	50.5	1.5	2.16	3.6
2005	53.0	2.5	1.9	7.5

Source : Federal Bureau of Statistics Ministry of Education

SECTION 3

DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

Some years ago economists thought that development of a country only meant the increase of its production. By experience they found out that this is not so. Development includes both quantitative growth and structural change. We can mention some aspects of development:-

- (i) Increase in production *per capita*;
- (ii) Change in structure of production (declining importance of agricultural sector);
- (iii) Change in social relations;
- (iv) Changes in attitudes and behavior of men;
- (v) Changes in political and cultural institutions.

Because development has so many aspects, it is difficult to say what exactly development is? It is certainly not only a growth in production or income. National income *per capita* is not so meaningful if the distribution of income is not taken into account. It can very well be that the whole increase in income goes to only 5 – 10 % of the population. In his statement for UNCTAD, Mr. McNamara, Former President of the World Bank, gave the following example of Brazil : —

In the last decade Brazil's GNP *per capita*, in real terms, grew by 2.5% per year, and yet the share of NI received by the poorest 40% of the population declined from 10% in 1960 to 8% in 1970, whereas the share of the richest 5% grew from 29% to 38% during the same period.

On the basis of these figures we can make the rough approximation that the income per head for the poorest 40% grew with 0.25% per year and for the richest 5% with 5.25% annually.

So, it is clear that an overall growth figure does not say much. This raises the question: What is development? Some say: development is a value-free concept. It just means change. If the NI decreases, we can still call this a development, because it is a change compared to an initial situation. I do not consider this as useful concept. In my opinion people give a positive value to development and we should make this explicit. Therefore, for me development means:-

1. increase in income *per capita*;
2. change to more modern sectors of production;
3. movement to a more equal distribution of income;
4. more rationality in the behaviour of men;
5. more stable and democratic, political and cultural institutions.

This means that non-economic factors, like social justice, are integrated parts of development.

Still, in our planning of development we will often concentrate on the economic factors. That is for the following reasons:-

- (i) these factors can best be planned;
- (ii) growth in income is a pre-requisite for the other elements of development, Equalizing distribution of income is often only possible through growth of income.

If you would ask the government of a country: How fast do you want your production to grow?. the most likely answer will be: well, let us triple GNP in next year (i.e. a growth rate of 300%). But we know, that this is impossible. There are constraints. To produce you need production factors:-

1. *Labour:-* The number of workers is in most countries not such a constraint. But the quality of the labour force is to improve the quality of workers; more education and training is needed and education is a time and money-consuming process. This low quality of the labour force causes the productivity to be low. And this is serious constraint in the growth of production.
2. *National Resources:-* The most important factor here is the fertility of the soil for agricultural purposes. A second consideration is the availability of unoccupied areas for expansion of the agricultural areas. Another aspect is minerals and raw materials for export or for processing in industry. All these forms of natural resources can be restricted in quantity or in quality and this can restrict the growth of production.
3. *Capital Formation:-* Money is scarce in poor countries and so possibilities to buy machines and buildings are limited.

Economic growth means more production per worker or higher labour productivity. How is labour productivity increased in the real world:-

- (i) more education and training of workers;
- (ii) use of more and modern machines;
- (iii) better organization of production and further specialization of labour.

Machines increase productivity because a man working with a machine can produce more than a man working only with his hands. This holds true both in agriculture and in industry. Investment (money spent on machines) in poor countries cannot be very high, because much of the income is needed for immediate consumption. In most countries the savings the richest part of the population can be increased (i.e. their consumption can be restricted), but the effect on investment might be not too big. Another lacks the technical knowledge needed, Thus, the machines must be imported. The import possibilities, however, are limited by the available foreign currencies, earned without exports.

However, the exports of developing countries grow slowly, because:

1. The major part of exports are agricultural products, for which
 - (a) demand abroad is growing very slowly;
 - (b) there is competition of synthetics;
 - (c) the prices are declining.
2. The industrialized countries have import-restrictions to protect their own agriculture and industries.

Because there are so many restrictions to development, we need to plan in such a way, that within the restricted possibilities maximum development is reached. So, the urgent need for development and the restricted means create the necessity for planning.

In the beginning we concentrate on two aspects:-

- (a) to use the available factors of production as efficiently as possible;
- (b) to improve quantity and quality of these factors.

For this second aspect educational planning is of extreme importance. Education must improve the quality of labour. It can also influence the attitudes of men. The content of the curriculum and the methods of teaching should be such that they form the pupils into development minded citizens. Further the educational system should be structured in such a way that its output fits into the needs of the country.

How do we plan for development? Given the expected export earnings (which are dependent on demand factors abroad) and the expected available investment funds, we can estimate how much we can invest.

In agriculture these investments will be in irrigation projects, new high-yielding seeds, fertilizers, machines etc. Given all these investments we can estimate what the resultant increase in productivity will be.

For manufacturing and services we know how many new machines can be bought, how many new factories will be built, etc. Given these new investment we can estimate the increase in productivity.

If we have the estimated productivity – increases for all sectors, we can calculate the expected growth in productivity for the whole economy which gives us the expected growth rate of production.

We should, however, be careful that this way of planning does not raise the idea that investments is all we need. We need to educate the people to work with the machines, to change the attitudes of the people as well. Otherwise we will end with a situation in which there are machines, but no one to use them properly. Therefore, educational planning is an essential part of development planning. The objectives of overall development and planning should be coordinated.

Issue

- (1) Look at Table 7 and 8 to see if there is any relationship between literacy, population growth and GDP growth.
- (2) Table 9 reflects growth in per capita income. How do you interpret this situation?

Table 9
Growth in Per capita Income

	Per Capita Income at 1980-81 prices (Rs)	% Growth	Per Capita Income at current MP (Rs)	% Growth
1991-92	4326	3.9	10853	14.3
1992-93	4303	-0.5	11672	7.5
1993-94	4367	1.5	13271	13.7
1994-95	4505	3.2	15552	17.3
1995-96	4644	3.1	17059	9.7
1996-97	4601	-1.0	18983	11.3
1997-98	4575	-0.6	20415	7.5
1998-99	4662	1.9	21899	7.3
1999-2000	4719	1.2	22811	4.2
2000-2001	4730	0.2	24198	6.1
2001-2002	4881	3.2	26413	9.2

Source :1) Federal Bureau Statistics
2) Economic Advisor Wing

Note : FC. Means factor cost and M Represents market prices

SECTION 4

INTERNAL EFFICIENCY OF EDUCATION

Promotion efficiency is a major task for the economists. Efficiency is a relationship between goals and means. The educational system has certain goals, such as:-

- (ii) preparing of skilled manpower;
- (iii) imparting literacy to the population ;
- (iv) providing everybody with at least elementary education.

To attain the goals education has means, such as:-

- (a) money;
- (b) teachers;
- (c) school-buildings etc.

Because the means are scarce, it is absolutely necessary to try to attain the goals with the minimum use of means. Or to put it the other way, given the scarce means for education, try to attain the goals as far as possible. If that is done then education is said to be efficient.

Efficiency has two aspects:-

1. External efficiency of education. Does the educational system produce the number and type of manpower required for the economic development? Do the schools reach their goals in term of their output?
2. Internal efficiency of education. This deals with the relation between Inputs (money, teachers, buildings) and outputs (graduates) of the educational system. Given shortage of inputs (both men and money.) we should try to reach the goals as far as possible, without replacing quality for quantity. This problem is very urgent in the Asian countries.

There are several problems related to the internal efficiency of the school system. We will mention some of them:-

- (a) *Distribution of expenditure over types of schools.* Money used for primary schools cannot be used for universities. For secondary education there is the problem of distribution of funds over general and vocational system. Most Asian countries try to stress vocational education, because it serves the purpose of required manpower better. But also, in most countries the general, academic secondary schools have a higher prestige with the population. This prestige is an inheritance of the colonial past. We find this also at the university where the faculties of arts, law, history etc. enjoy a popularity far beyond their usefulness to the country. These preferences of the people are inefficient from the point of view of manpower

requirements. The output targets for secondary and higher education are generally determined by the manpower requirements. The money that is left over after that can be used for the expansion of primary education.

- (b) *Size of schools.* – A school with only one pupil will be very expensive. But a school with more than say 2,000 pupils might be too big to be run efficiently. Between these extremes there might be an optimum size of school. Optimum size means the one at which the average cost per pupil is lowest.

However, in rural areas the size of the school is determined by the size of the village.

Related to this problem is the question of the size of the classes. What is the maximum number of pupils one teacher can handle without deterioration in the quality of education. This depends, of course, on several factors like the use of teaching aids, availability of textbooks, use of audio-visual aids, educational broadcasting etc. In most Asian countries the availability of teaching aids etc., is very low. In that case a high pupil – teacher ratio may affect the quality of instruction. On the other hand a low pupil teacher ratio is very expensive.

- (c) *Wastage and stagnation.* – This is a major form of inefficiency in education in developing countries. It takes the following forms:-

1. repeating of grades;
2. drop-out, i.e. leaving the school before finishing the cycle.

Repeating is inefficient, because the pupil takes two years to finish one grade. Drop-out, especially at primary level, is inefficient because the goal of providing the child with primary education is not attained. Both forms mean a wastage of educational resources. The pupil who drops-out might soon forget what he has learnt and fall back to illiteracy. The causes for wastage can be divided into:

(i) *Internal factors:*

1. Low quality of instruction:-
 - 1.1. many unqualified teachers;
 - 1.2. overcrowded classrooms;
 - 1.3. no teaching aids and equipments;
 - 1.4. no textbooks;
 - 1.5. no supervision.
2. Unattractiveness of the school:
 - 2.1. curriculum not related to daily life of pupils.
 - 2.2. education very bookish.

(ii) *External factors:*

1. Poverty;
2. Illness;
3. Employment of children in agriculture;
4. Parental indifference to education;
5. Distance between school and house.

The factors mentioned are only a few among a multitude of factors influencing wastage.

In many Asian countries wastage has taken enormous proportions. In some countries, of the 100 pupils starting in grade 1 of primary schools only 40 reach the final grade. Thus, 60% drop out before finishing primary education. They will, of course, have learnt something in the short time they spent at school but they are bound to forget most of it because they will not use it.

Repeating cannot be considered just as drop-out. It is normal that the speed of learning differs from pupil to pupil. So, some of the pupils will not be able to learn everything within one year. The problem is, however, if it is useful for such a pupil, to do the same grade twice. It is doubtful whether he will add very-much to his knowledge during his second year in the grade. Therefore, repeating itself is inefficient. And repeating can be caused by the poor quality of instruction. In that case repeating is a symptom of the inefficiency of the educational system.

What to do? Several studies in different countries showed that poverty is the single most important cause of drop-out. Now the answer to that problem is economic development. But that is a long-term answer. What can we do now. Some measures that can be taken immediately are the following:-

- (a) make content of education more relevant;
- (b) upgrade teachers;
- (c) provide mid-day-meals;
- (d) provide free textbooks;
- (e) provide transport;
- (f) for rural areas: synchronize vacations with peak working periods to avoid as much as possible absenteeism due to assistance in work of family;
- (g) improve supervision;
- (h) influence attitude of parents on education by developing a school community relations.

We must realize that the success of these measures will mean that more pupils stay in the school till the grade. For them more teachers, classrooms, textbooks, etc. will be needed. It is questionable if the developing countries can bear, in financial terms, the cost of successful programmes for the reduction in wastage.

The measures mentioned will reduce both repeating and dropout. It has to be noticed that repeating can be abolished by a simple administrative measure, namely the introduction of automatic promotion. The problem with automatic promotion is that the difference between the good and the bad pupils in a class becomes greater with the years. Therefore, instruction in the class becomes more and more difficult. On the other hand automatic promotion means no useless repeating and more places in the schools, because the places which were before occupied with repeaters are now free.

SECTION 5

EDUCATION STRUCTURE OF THE LABOUR FORCE

Education as human resource development;

Education in relation to production and productivity;

To start with some definitions:-

Human resources —Total population of a country. In analogy with natural resources (fertility of the soil, minerals, etc.) the population of a country can be called its human resources.

Human resource development. – Improvement of the quality of the population. This can be done by education in and outside schools, by providing health services to improve the health and by providing other social services.

Labour force. – Economically active population part of population that is actually working or would like to work.

Manpower. – Actively working labour force.

Before we start developing the human resources we would like to know what the present situation of these resources is, and especially for educational planning purposes, we are interested in the characteristics of the present labour force:-

- (i) Present size of labour force, distribution over economic sectors, distribution by age and sex, labour force as percentage of total population.
- (ii) Proportion of labour force which is unemployed by sector, by occupation, by education.
- (iii) Educational attainment of labour force by sector.
- (iv) Labour force by occupational group.
- (v) Productivity of labour by sector.
- (vi) Projections of a labour force. The future growth is dependent on:-
 - (a) population growth;
 - (b) participation ratios:-
 - 1. how many women participate;
 - 2. which part of population attends school.

We see that education, as human resource development, comes in at several points. In the schools the pupils gain in knowledge and in skills, and their attitudes change. Therefore, schooling can make students ready to take up more difficult jobs and occupations outside the traditional patterns of life.

We have seen already that development is only possible, if modern techniques of production are introduced in agriculture and industry. For a farmer to produce more needs fertilizers, good seed, some simple machines. In industry, better organization of the work and some machines will increase production per worker. But in order to be able to use these new seeds, fertilizers, machines the farmer needs education. He must be able to read and to make calculations. And to organize the factory better you need educated managers and foremen and to use the machines you need skilled labourers.

So we see that the increase in productivity per worker, which is the essence of economic development, comes about as a resultant of 3 forces:-

- (i) new and better machines, seeds fertilizers, etc.
- (ii) better organization of production;
- (iii) better educated farmers, managers, foremen, workers, etc.

It is also that you cannot install new machines etc, unless you also provide men with enough schooling to handle the machines. That means you need all three at the same time, and that the human resource development is an integral part of an overall development policy.

The link between productivity and education is fairly close. If we take data from different countries for production per worker and educational level of the labour force, we will see that there is a close relationship.

The increase in productivity is essential for development. It is clear that an increase in income *per capita* can only come about on a country-wide basis if the production *per capita* increases, because it is in producing that the income is earned and this income again is spent in buying the goods and services that are produced. Production *per capita* is not exactly the same as production per worker (productivity of labour), but they are close enough to say that income *per capita* can only increase if productivity of labour increases.

There is a close relationship between productivity and education. Therefore, a classification of the labour force by levels of education is very important. The increase in productivity which forms the basis of economic growth will take place only if the educational levels of the labour force increase. This link between productivity and education forms an important basis for the planning of education.

There are three factors influencing productivity:-

- (i) better machines, seeds etc,
- (ii) better organizations;
- (iii) better educated manpower.

How can we project the future development of productivity per sector?
There are several possibilities:-

- (a) *Inter-firm comparisons:-* Compare the most modern enterprise in a sector with less modern and assume that in, say, 5 years the average firm in the sector will be as efficient and productive as now the most modern is.
- (b) *Expert advice:-* on development to be expected.
- (c) *International comparison:-* Compare your country with a comparable country which is already more developed. Or use regression analysis done for a wide range of countries.

It is clear that none of the methods is very satisfactory. The first method poses problems, because the most modern firm is often a foreign-owned firm, which has on problems in acquiring capital or highly qualified manpower. While the not so-modern-firms are domestic firms. And there is no guarantee that the average firm will become more productive, and how fast that will go. International comparisons suffer from the fact that no two countries are alike and that often the differences between countries are so wide that a comparison is nearly impossible.

Experts' advice is based on one or the other two methods and can not take into account unforeseen events. But due to their expertise they can take into account many factors. So they may be the best basis, but there are not so many experts.

As an overall conclusion we can state that productivity projections are very difficult. They form one of the weakest links in the whole process of planning. The resultant projected productivity increases are rather unreliable and it would not be wise to base planning of education exclusively on this basis.

Manpower Requirements as a Basis for Selective Expansion of Education.

In all the Asian countries the school system will be expended to allow a larger proportion of the school-age population to attend a school. How should this expansion take place? There are several possibilities:-

1. Priority to primary education. Only if primary education is universal we will start expansion of secondary and higher education.
2. No priority, enrolments at all levels will increase with the same percentage.
3. Expansion of schools will follow the demand of the population for schooling.

All three approaches do not take in to account manpower requirements and employment possibilities considerations. Therefore, the consequence can be that the types of manpower required for development are not produced by the school system, and on the other hand, that the kind of graduates that are produced

will not be able to find profitable employment in accordance with their education; either he finds no job at all or not the job he wants. So the country does not get the manpower it needs and the students do not find the jobs they want. The money for this kind of expansion of education is misused. Education at the secondary and higher level is too expensive to let it go like that. This means that we need a selective expansion based on chosen priorities.

There is one aspect in which the educational systems of the Asian countries are very selective. That is that they provide schooling for as small group of the population. Especially at secondary and higher level. This small group are the rich people living in urban areas. This kind of selectivity is undesirable. All children should have access to schools. If there are no places, then the best students should enter, not the richest. In this connection it can be pointed out that drop-out is also a form of selection, but an undesirable one, because it is the poor who drops out not the bad students. The education system of a country can be selective in the following respects:-

1. *In content:-* (a) to impart useful knowledge and skills. Not too , because that would limit employment possibilities:
(b) to impart attitudes conducive to development and change.
2. *In structure:-* (a) At secondary level there is in general, a choice between academic stream and vocational/technical stream. Problem is that vocational schools are often so specialized that they limit the employment possibilities of their graduates. Another problem is that these vocational schools are expensive, because they need laboratories and workshops. It is now generally felt that vocational schools should only teach basic skills and general knowledge and that the specialization should be obtained by training on-the-job. In many countries experiments with comprehensive schools are initiated. These schools will combine the academic and the vocational stream into one, which will offer the basic general and academic courses and will also teach basic technical skills. It is widely felt that the secondary level is too early for specialization.
(b) At the third level, specialization by subject is necessary. Since this type of education is very expensive, its expansion should be in directions useful to the social, economic and cultural development of the country.
3. *In number:-* Money is scarce in Asian countries. Therefore, we cannot expand education as fast as we would like to. In most countries we have to limit the number of entrants to the school.
(a) At primary level, most countries want to have universal primary education. However, they cannot spend all their money on that,

because they also need to have graduates from secondary schools and universities. Therefore, the expansion towards universal primary education is seen as a gradual process of which the speed depends on available men and money and on the required expansion of secondary and higher education to satisfy the manpower needs for economic development.

- (b) At second level. At this level the needs of the country will ask for the output of graduates who can take up useful, productive employment or process to the university. It might be necessary at this level to curb the social demand, because the resources are limited.
- (c) At third level. This type of education is so expensive to the community that entrants should be allowed, in numbers and fields of study, only according to the manpower needs of the country. The poor countries are at present not in a position to provide university education to everyone who wants it.

4. *In region:-* In most countries the education system is better developed, in terms of quality and number, in urban than in rural areas. This is an undesirable selectivity and should be cured.

The conclusion can be that the shortage of funds forces the governments to restrict the expansion of education. And therefore, the expansion has to be selective in terms of levels and types of schools to be expanded, in regional distribution of expansion and in number of enrolments.

Primary education should be expanded as fast as possible, because everybody needs the basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic and a greater number of primary school leavers broadens the basis for selection of secondary schools entrants. Also basic education is considered as a human right in most countries.

At the present level of their development, however, the Asian countries cannot provided everyone with secondary or higher education, because:-

- (a) there is no money for that;
- (b) there would be no appropriate jobs for the graduates.

Thus the expansion of primary education is only restricted by shortage of money, but for secondary and higher education there is also the shortage of employment opportunities. Therefore the expansion of these types of types of education should take into consideration also the job opportunities and manpower needs.

A problem is: can we use forecasts about the manpower required for the development of the country as a basis for a selective expansion of education? There are the following problems:-

1. Manpower forecasts are based on productivity projections. And as we have seen these projections are not very reliable.
2. Manpower forecasts suppose a detailed knowledge of the present labour force by occupation, sector of economic activity, educational attainment. For many countries these data are not available.

Therefore, will it be impossible and unwise to make manpower projection in too much detail and over too long a period (not longer than 5 years). For the secondary school level the manpower forecast should be in general terms and the school types should not be too much differentiated. These schools should offer courses in which the students acquire general knowledge and basic skills. Training for a special job can better take place on-the-job. Such a system would increase the flexibility of the school system.

Higher education will always be specialized and here the manpower requirements are essential. Fortunately projections are better possible at this level, because universities keep the students for 4, 5 or 6 years and for such a range of years the manpower forecasts can have some relevance and reliability.

There are two sectors for which detailed manpower forecasting is possible:-

- (a) the public sector;
- (b) the education sector.

The government should have a detailed manpower plan for the years to come. It should know how many specialists it will need at the ministries, in public enterprises and other government controlled services. Since, in general, the government employs a large proportion of the university graduates, this factor will facilitate selective expansion of university enrolment.

However, in Asia and elsewhere only a few governments do have long-term manpower plans. The manpower needed in education is dependent on the development of the education sector. Number of teachers, supervisors, administrators etc., is directly dependent on the growth of enrolments at the different levels.

The Brain Drain.:- Pakistan now faces two kinds of emigration of labour: the emigration of professionals doctors, engineers, and scientists and the emigration of skilled and semi-skilled workers. The emigration of professional has gone on for a number of years, mainly to the developed countries such as Great Britain, Canada and the United States. The emigration to the Middle East, of skilled and semi-skilled labour, is a more recent phenomenon, resulting from the rapid economic expansion of that region since 1973. These migration patterns raise important policy issues relevant to the education of both the professional and skilled labour groups.

The emigration of both types of labour has ambiguous effects on the Pakistan economy. Analysis of the effects is made doubly difficult by the lack of data on the numbers that leave the country, as well as the numbers that return.

The analysis of the net effect on emigration has often centered on the trade-offs between the effects of the loss of manpower and the gain in remittances sent back by the emigrants.

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- (1) What should be the economic considerations in planning for education and why?
- (2) From the point of view of economic development why should education be considered an investment?
- (3) What is development planning?
- (4) What are internal and external efficiencies of education?
- (5) Referring to the present state of affairs in Pakistan, what should be the relationship between educational planning and manpower planning?
- (6) In view of the present practices and policies of education, assess the role of education in the economic development of the country?

UNIT No.3

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

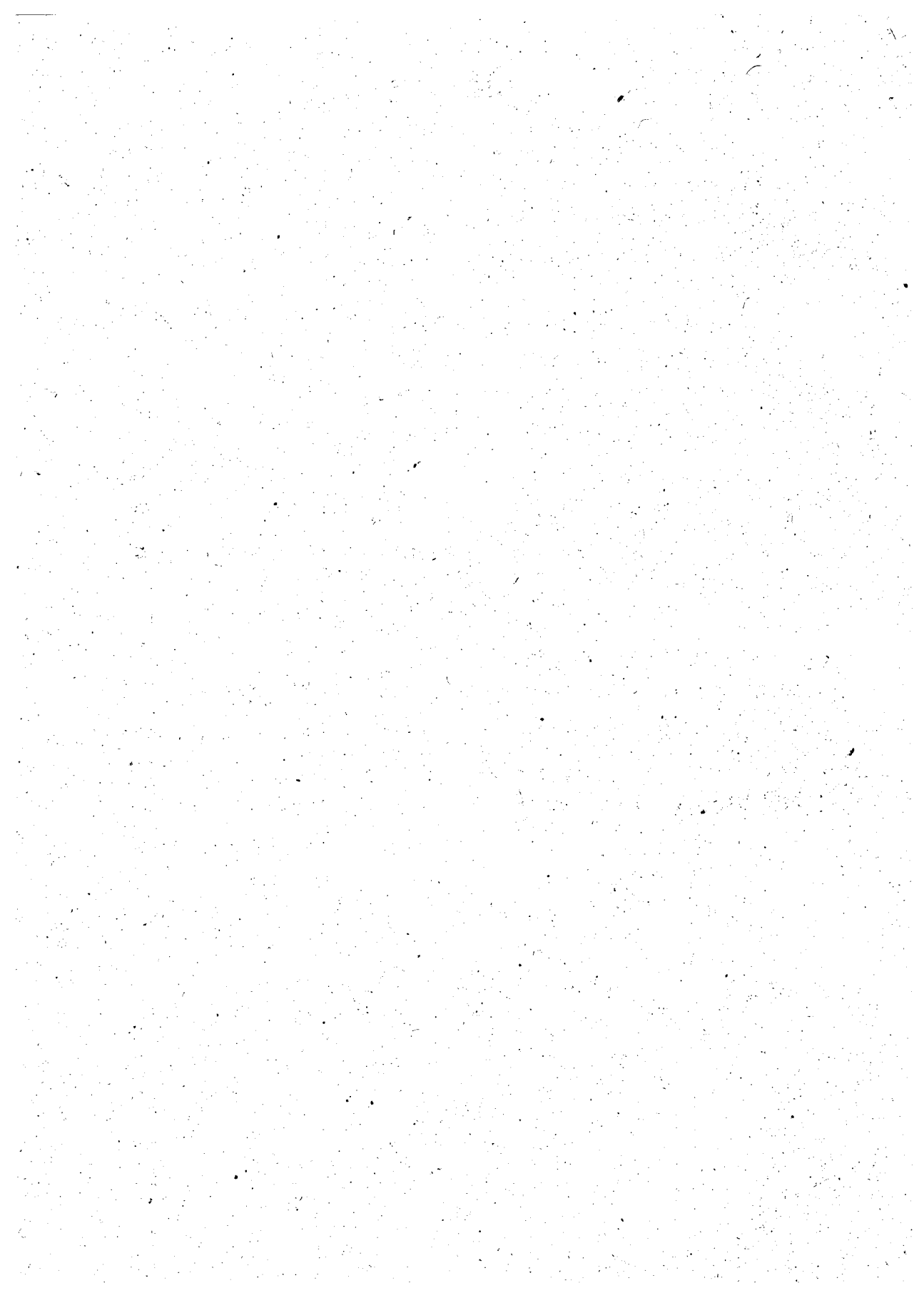
Dr. S. Nazir-i-Haider

Revised by

Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi

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OBJECTIVES

After you have studied this unit you should be able to:-

- (a) Explain the meaning of human resource development.**
- (b) Relate the human resource development to economic planning.**
- (c) Translate the concept of human resource development into quantitative terms.**
- (d) Identify the problems of human resource development in Pakistan.**
- (e) Formulate strategies of human resource development.**

HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Concepts of Human Resource Development

In any economic system, the human resources is as much a significant factor for economic growth and social development as there are physical endowments. The human resource development may be defined as the "process of increasing the knowledge, the skills and capacities of all the people in the society"¹ In strictly economic terms, it may be described as the accumulation of human capital and its effective investment in the development of human capital and its effective investment in the development of the economy. On the other hand in political terms, the human resource development refers to the process of preparing people for participation in nation-building activities. When we look at it from social point of view it is considered as a means for achieving fuller and socially rich lives to the people in the society. In brief, the processes of human resource development unlock the door to modernization.²

Place of Human Resource Development in Economic Planning

The economic development in the past has been typically seen in terms of sufficiently high rate of economic growth, automatically generating as by-product the absorption of available human resources into productive activities, provided that the human resources or manpower available possessed the necessary skill and educational qualifications. The prosperity, growth and level of development of national were therefore, judged in terms of income or more precisely by Gross National Product (GNP) or Gross Domestic Production (GDP) *per capita*. Consequently the development programme of all the nations were aimed at maximizing the annual increments in the national income or product expressed in monetary terms.³ The development objectives based on this traditional model merely offered casual reference to the development of human resources and their gainful absorption in the economy. As a result of it, development planning, particularly in Third World Countries, has widened disparities between the rich, the poor, between those in modern sector and those still in low productivity activities of the traditional sectors, despite rapid rates of economic growth.

¹Harbison, F., & Myers, C.A. *Education, Manpower and Economic Growth*, (Mc Graw Hill, London, 1964) P. 2.

²Harbison, F.H., & Myers, C.A., *op. cit.*, P. 2.

³International Labour Office, *Employment, Income and Equity. A Strategy for Increasing Productive Employment in Kenya* (Geneva, 1972) Towards Full Employment: A Programme for Columbia, (Geneva, 1970).

It is now rightly contended that the questions to ask about a country's development should, therefore, primarily be : what has been happening to highly under-utilized and under-developed state of human resources? If these have declined from high level, even then, beyond doubt, this is considered as the period of development. In almost all the developing countries, therefore, the traditional approach has now been rejected and there is growing awareness for adopting a strategy which places human resource development as an indiscernible complement to development planning.¹

It shall not be out of context to state here that human capital, or human resource approach to economic growth is partly based on the principles developed by classical economists like Adam Smith and Alfred Marshall. Adam Smith who is considered to be the Father of Economics argued for 'acquiring useful abilities' of members of society in his concept of 'wealth'.² Alfred Marshall regarded 'education' as a 'national investment' and he opined that the 'most valuable of all capital is that invested in human beings'.³ Among the relatively modern economists, the Russian economist, S.G. Strumilin, writing in 1925, was perhaps the first economist to estimate rate of return for various levels of education. But the modern literature is indebted primarily to the works of T.W. Schultz in the sixties for defining and developing the concept of 'investment in man'. Gray Becher and number of many other economists have refined and quantified Schultz's basic ideas to the problem of growth in developing countries. Federick Harbison and Charles Myers are among the leading modern economists who proposed that, since ultimately a nation's wealth stems from its development and productive utilization of human resources, development is best expressed in terms of skill, knowledge and capacities of people. Human resource development, in their view, may therefore, be a more realistic and reliable indicator of modernization or development than any other single measure.⁴

In order to formulate any policy approach for the human resource development, the planners are supposed to indentify some indicators to gauge the level of human resources and the rate at which the human capital formation is taking place in any country. It is being discussed in the following paragraphs:

¹There is plenty of work in economic literature dealing with the aspect of integrating human resource development with development planning. For example, see: Meir, G.M., *Leading Issues in Economic Development* (Oxford University, Press New York, 1976) & Harbison, F. & Myers, C.A., *op. cit.*, PP. 3 - 5.

²Smith, A., *An Enquiry into the Nature and Causes of Wealth of Nations*, (Random House, Inc. 1937) book II, PP. 265 - 265.

³For a survey of literature, reference may be made of the work done by Harbison, F. & Myes, c., *op. cit.*, PP. 3 - 5.

⁴ Harbison, F. "Human Resource Development Planning in Modernising Economics" *International Labour Review*, Vol. 85, No. 5, May, 1962.

Indicators of Human Resource Development

Harbison and Myers in their famous work "Education, Manpower and Economic Growth", while making a comparative quantitative analysis of the levels of human resource development of seventy five countries, have identified basic types of human resource indicators. These fall into two categories (i) those which measure a country's stock of human capital, and (ii) those which measure the gross or net addition to this stock, or in other words, the rate of human capital formation over a given period.

Ideally, the indicators of stock of human capital may be expressed firstly, in terms of number of persons in the population who completed different levels of education (primary, secondary and higher education), specially the proportions of scientific and technical manpower. Secondly, this should also express the number of persons in strategic occupation like scientists, managers, engineers, technicians and skilled workers category in relation to population.

On the other hand, the rate of human capital formation may be represented in terms of net addition to the number of persons in the above stated high level occupational groups and also the net addition to the stock of persons by educational attainments at all levels.

Due to limited statistical information available in most of the developing countries, Harbison and Myers suggested the following seven measures which may serve as indicators of human resource development.

1. Number of teachers (first and second levels) per 10,000 population.
2. Engineers and scientists per 10,000 population.
3. Physicians and dentists per 10,000 population.
4. Pupils enrolled at first level (primary), education as a percentage of the estimated.
5. Population aged to 14 inclusive.
6. The adjusted school enrolment ratios for first and second levels combined.
7. Pupils enrolled at second level (secondary) education as the percentage of estimated population aged 15 to 19 inclusive, adjusted for length of schooling.
8. Enrolment in third level (higher) education as percentage of the age group 20 to 24.

Among these, the first three indicators, Harbison and Myers developed a fairly simple composite index to measure the levels of human resource

development in some selected countries within four broad level groups, Identified as : Level I, underdeveloped, Level II, partially developed, Level III, semi-advanced, and Level IV, advanced. According to this exercise, Pakistan was placed in Level II i.e., among the partially developed countries, having 43rd rank from above, out of selected 75 countries. The countries like Mexico, Thailand, Egypt, Iraq, Turkey and India among the developing countries were better placed in terms of level of human resource development. India had been placed in Level III (Semi-advanced) having 34th rank from above among 75 selected countries.

Problems and Issues

Most of the developing countries are confronted with the problems of human resource development falling into two broad, seemingly diverse, categories:

(1) *The Shortages of Persons with Critical Skills*:- in the modern sector and surplus labour in both the modern and traditional sectors. Thus, the approach to human resource development should be concerned with the two-fold objective of building skills and providing productive employment for un-utilized or under-utilized manpower. In order to have a full comprehension of the problem with a view to examine suitable policy approach for the less developed economies, the major issues falling within these two categories are discussed below:

(i) *Low Level of Labour Force Participation*:- The level of labour force participation reflects the state of development of economy's productive potential and the opportunities to participate in the economy. The low level of activity rate in any economy is indicative of a situation where exists under-utilized human capital referring ultimately the under-developed state of manpower resources.

In the past four decades or so, most of the developing countries have experienced historically rapid rates of population growth which have been associated with the rapid rates of labour force growth and urbanization. Most of these developing countries failed in planning to absorb the increased supply of labour resulting into rising un-employment and low level of participation rate. According to ILO, Egypt, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Iran, India, Mexico, Iraq and Afghanistan had a very low participation at the rate of 30.2 % in 1976, 28.7 % in 1974, 29.5 % in 1980, 29 % in 1979, 32 % in 1979, 27.1 % in 1980, 26.1 % in 1977 and 30.2% in 1979 respectively. While on the other hand, advanced countries from the point of view of human resource development, like United Kingdom, U.S.A., U.S.S.R., Canada had the participation rate of 47.1 %, 47.7 %, 51.4% and 47.7 % respectively in the year 1979. The highly industrialized countries as a whole had a participation level at the rate of about 44.8% in 1979, while the countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America had 38 %, 39 % and 32 % respectively.¹

¹ International Labour Office, *Year Book of Labour Statistics*, 1981 (Geneva, 1981).

Experience of Pakistan-As the objective of this unit is also to examine the situation in our country in the context of the nature of problems in developing countries, we shall like to devote some space to state down the facts regarding Pakistan. The labour force of Pakistan increased from 9.8 million in 1951 to 22.22 million in 1977-78 and it is estimated to increase to 26.06 million by the end of 1983. It formed 30.7 %, 32.49 %, 29.86 % and 31.02% participation rate in the years 1951, 1961, 1972 and 1979 respectively.

The data indicates a fluctuation in the participation rate at the low level during these years. This reflects a state of gross underutilization of manpower in the economy demanding suitable policy measures for the development of human resources.

(ii) *Rigidity in the Occupational Structure*:- The secular growth of an economy reveals a progressive decline in the importance of primary sector in terms of its contribution to employment.¹ As against this, one of the noticeable feature of the economy of these countries, having poor state of development of human resources and in general the low level of economic development, is that the distribution of working force among three major industrial sectors (primary, secondary and tertiary), which is highly un-balanced, did not change appreciably during the last several decades

On the other hand, the countries having scientific development programmes to achieve the manpower development targets, have successfully transformed their occupational structure in favour of high income and productivity occupations falling in the secondary and tertiary sectors.² This situation has enabled these countries to engage most productively their human resources.

Experience of Pakistan:- Notwithstanding the relative constancy of the proportion of the workers in agriculture in Pakistan, there was constant increase in their number from 6.12 million in 1951 to 7.57 million in 1961 and is estimated to have further risen to 13.64, million in 1981. On the other side the number engaged in air non-agricultural occupations moved upward very marginally. The detailed distribution of employed labour force by major industry division in terms of percentage has been given in the next page

¹ For detailed study see, Clark, Colin, *The Conditions of Economic Progress*. (London, 1957).

² From 1900 to 1960, the share of agricultural employment in the total employment of the developed countries fell from 48.1 to 22.9 per cent. The United State, for example, though it is a major farm producer, has not much more than 5 per cent of its labour force in agriculture. For detailed study see - ILO's *Essays on Employment*. (International Labour Office, Geneva, 1971) PP. 4-5.

Table 1
Employed Labour Force by Sectors

Sector	1898	2003	2005
	% Share	% Share	% Share
Agriculture	47.25	48.42	44.8
Manufacturing & Mining	10.15	11.55	13.6
Construction	6.26	5.78	5.9
Wholesale & Retail Trade	13.87	13.50	14.1
Transport	5.48	5.03	5.8
Finance, Insurance, Community & Social Services	16.23	15.02	13.8
Others	0.76	0.70	2.0
Total	100.00	100.00	100

Source: Labor Force Survey 2005-06

It is evident from the above table that the employment in primary sector accounted for 57.15 percent as a whole in 1969-70 which marginally declined by 4 per cent at the end of 1978-79. The employment in the secondary sector, however, did not show any improvement. There has not, thus, been a substantial change in the pattern of occupational distribution. The stability of occupational pattern in a country where the total population is increasing rapidly means that the new population is being distributed among the occupations practically according to the old pattern. This leads to urgent planned efforts to open the new avenues of employment in secondary and tertiary sectors.¹

Underutilization of Human Resources:- The under-development of human resources in less developed economies has its manifestations in the form of open un-employment and under-employment. Although the concepts of unemployment, employment and underemployment in these economies are ambiguous and the statistics are inadequate, the problem of under-utilization is obvious.

The open un-employment rates expressed as a proportions of a country's total labour force are relatively low, ranging from 2 to 6 per cent (In a few exceptional cases, for example, Sri Lanka, it was as high as 13.2 % in 1970). But as a proportion of urban labour force, the rates are more likely to be from 10 to 20 per cent. In nearly all the less developed countries, these rates appear to be rising and will continue to increase unless counter-influencing trends appear.

¹We find a very firmly established generalization that a high average level of real income per head is always associated with a high proportion of the working population engaged in secondary and tertiary occupations and low percentage in primary production (Clark, Coin, op.cit., PP. 35-45.

Open un-employment in the urban areas, however, is only the exposed portion of the total volume of under-utilization. In fact, in the primary and tertiary sectors, the problems of under-employment and poverty are too intensive and wide. For this group, the true measure of under-utilization is quite difficult. In reasonable definitions, the under-employment approximates 20-25 per cent in most of these countries. Human resource development policy in such type of countries must direct itself not only to open un-employment but also to this group of population belonging to low productive and low income occupations.

The Experience of Pakistan.-The 1961 census indicated a crude open un-employment rate of 1 per cent of the population. In relation to actual labour force this implied an open unemployment of about 4.6 per cent. In fact the unemployment rate was even higher than this. Expert Group on Employment and Manpower appointed by the government, estimated that 15 per cent of the labour force suffered from unemployment in 1971. The open un-employment rate has been traditionally reported around 2 per cent in almost all the rounds of labour force surveys. As reported by labour force survey for 1974-75 and 1978-79 open unemployment and sex and area wise break-up is given in the following table :

Table 2
Unemployed Labour Force by Rural / Urban Area (No in Million)

Year	Unemployed Labour Force			Unemployment Rate (%)		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
1995	1.80	1.12	0.68	5.37	4.80	6.90
1996	1.85	1.14	0.71	5.37	4.80	6.90
1997	2.25	1.44	0.81	6.12	5.56	7.17
1998	2.29	1.36	0.93	5.89	4.98	7.95
1999	2.34	1.39	0.95	5.89	4.98	7.95
2000	3.14	1.93	1.21	7.82	6.94	9.92
2001	3.21	1.98	1.23	7.82	6.94	9.92
2002	3.27	2.02	1.25	7.82	6.94	9.92
2003	3.62	2.25	1.37	8.27	7.55	9.80
2004	3.52	2.09	1.43	7.69	6.74	9.70
2005	3.52	2.09	1.43	7.69	6.74	9.70
2006	3.32	2.00	1.32	6.50	5.70	8.40

Source: Labour Force Surveys of the respective years

The above table reveals a rise in the rate of open un-employment from 1.71 in 1974-75 to 3.55 in 1978-79. In the rural areas, it registered a rise from 1.33 per cent to 3.01 as compared to an increase from 2.73 to 5.23 in urban areas during the

same years. The increase in the incidence of un-employment among females is very high as it rose from 0.56 per cent to 6.54 per cent in rural areas and from 1.21 per cent to 14.71 per cent in the urban areas during the above mentioned period.

One of the features of open un-employment in Pakistan like many other developing countries is the high incidence of educated unemployment,¹ particularly among the high school leavers. There is lack of up-to-date and accurate information concerning the incidence of unemployment in this category. According to the estimate made by Rado,² the number of educated unemployed was estimated to be around 52,000 in 1971-72. The Labour Force Survey, 1974-75 registered number of educated persons as unemployed at 74,000. This was about 40 % more than the figure derived from the 1971-72 LFS. The Fifth Five year Manpower Plan³ estimated the educated unemployment at 101,000 which according to it may be expected to rise to a level of 118,000 by the end of 1982-83. It was also estimated that persons having qualification of 'matric but less than degree' will constitute 100,000 and 18 thousand persons will belong to the graduate and post-graduate degree, levels.

Under-employment is predominantly in rural areas and in the urban informal sector. Its measurement presents more difficult problems particularly because of seasonal variations. According to an estimate, made in ILO Report "Employment Strategy for Employment", about 35 per cent persons in the rural areas and 23 per cent in the urban areas live on an income below poverty line in Pakistan. The Labour Force Survey 1974-75 and 1978-79 report about visible under-employment consisting of those who worked less than 35 hours a week reveals that they constituted 4.79 per cent and 13.00 per cent of the total employed during these years.

The information available concerning un-employment and under-employment in Pakistan does not give a clear picture. So in the words of Manpower Plan (1978-83), "If realistic estimates are to be made, bold but correct statement about the conditions of poverty and unemployment and under-employment will have to be made. It is estimated that the number of unemployed and under-employed is almost 20 per cent of the labour force in the country". Based on this assumption about 4.44 million persons in the labour force are expected to be affected by un-employment and under-employment by the end of 1982-83. This reveals gross under-utilization of country's productive potential and demands immediate short term and long term operational programmes for the development and utilization of manpower.

¹ Educated unemployment has normally been defined as a special group who are matriculate and above and are not able to get gainful employment.

² Rado, E.R., Unemployment among the Educated in Pakistan. (Geneva 1976).

³ Manpower Division, *The Fifth Year Manpower Plan Five* (1979 - 83) (Islamabad.).

Shortages of Strategic Skills:- Paradoxically, the shortage of persons with critical skills is also a prominent feature in the countries having under-developed state of human resources which is one of the contributing causes of surplus labour force. In all these countries there is shortage of highly educated professional manpower such as, scientists, agronomists, engineers and doctors. The shortage of technicians, technical supervisors and sub-professional personnel is generally even more critical than the shortage of highly qualified professionals. Moreover, the shortage of top level managerial and administrative personnel and teachers is almost universal. In addition there are, usually, several other miscellaneous categories of personnel in short supply for example, accountants, statisticians, and stenographers. The shortage of strategic human capital has its roots in the changes which are inherent in the development process and in part to education and training. The shortage in rural areas is due to relative immobility of the persons belonging to these categories of skills from urban areas to rural areas.

Experience of Pakistan. - Like all labour surplus developing countries Pakistan has also faced similar kind of shortages in strategic skills. A latest study¹ conducted by the Manpower Division in collaboration with a Dutch team is a notable exception to the dearth of data in this field. The study analyses the employment situation within the frame-work of the Fifth Five Year Plan on the basis of projections of manpower demand and supply in the categories of 105 occupations. Although, the data presented suffers from certain limitations, the projections, at least, indicate the order of magnitude of imbalances. In general, the results show a shortage of about 231,000 persons in 45 occupations, mainly, in the categories of professional, technical and related workers, 'production and related workers' and 'construction workers' by the end of 1983. It has been estimated that the largest number belongs to 'plumbers and pipe fitters', 'welders and pine cutters', 'bricklayers, stone masons and file setters', 'carpenters', 'crane operators', 'black-smiths', 'stenographer s'. Among the categories of highly professional technical personnel, architects and town planners, civil engineers, electrical and electronic engineers, surveyors, and technicians in these occupational groups are expected to be in short supply.² The shortages of persons in these categories are mainly due to defective and inadequate education and training system in the country.

Poor allocations and Un-scientific Planning of Education and Training Programmes

The role of education and training in human capital formation is now widely recognized both in developed and the developing countries. The

¹ Government of Pakistan, Manpower Division, *A Study of the Occupational and Educational Manpower Requirements and Supply of the Fifth Five Year Plan. 1978-83* (Islamabad, 1981).

² Refer appendix 2.

relationship between them is so positive and direct that the degree of soundness and attainments in this sector serve as indicator of human resource development in any country. The developed countries, no doubt, spend large sum of money on education and training keeping in view the requirements of the economy. Some of the developed countries like U.S.A., U.S.S. R., Canada and U.K. allocate as high as 8-10 % of their national income on education and training. Some countries spend as much as 30 per cent of their total budget on education.

On the other hand, the countries having already a poor state of development of human resources are not yet able to adequately finance and plan scientifically their educational and training programmes. According to World Bank Surveys, a typical Asian country was spending only around 3.04 % of its G.N.P. while an average developing country was spending only around 4.40 % of its G.N.P. on education. The following table shows trends in financing of education as studied by World Bank.¹

TABLE No. 3-Investment in Education as Percentage of cross National Product and National Budget in Developed and Less Developed Regions.

Region	Percentage of gross national product (NGP)				Percentage of national Budget			
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1960	1965	1970	1975
More development regions	4.0	5.2	5.7	5.7	11.3	15.2	16.1	15.6
Less developed regions	2.3	3.0	3.4	3.9	11.7	13.1	13.8	15.1

Experience of Pakistan

Education : Since independence, Pakistan has made substantial investments in education. However, the system is deficient in several major respects and with rapid growth of population, is facing increasing *difficulty* in maintaining programmes at their present inadequate levels. The recent trends of investment in education show a constant and sometimes decreasing allocation in terms of G.N.P. and total budget expenditure during the last one decade.

¹ Quoted from World Bank, *Education Sector policy Paper*, Washington in Siddiqui, S.A., *Education and Human Resource Development*, (A. Back-ground paper for a training course hold in Pakistan Manpower institute).

Table 11.3
Financial Requirements for Education Sector Reforms
Action Plan 2001-05*

Programmes	2001.02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	Total	%
Literacy Campaign	0.8	2.0	2.5	3.0	8.3	8.3
Elementary Education	4.0	9.0	10.0	11.0	34.0	34
Secondary Education	1.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	10.0	10
Technical Education	0	3.0	5.0	7.0	15.0	15
College/Higher education	1.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	10.0	10
Mainstreaming Madaris	0	5.0	5.0	4.0	14.0	14
Public-private partnership	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.7
Quality Assurance	1.0	0.2	0.2	0.2	07	0.7
Total	7.9	27.2	30.7	34.2	100	100

* Education Sector Reforms, Action Plan 2001-05

Source: Ministry of Education

Moreover, there is little evidence that the participation in education has significantly risen. The rate of increase in enrolment at primary level had been only at the average rate of 5 % during 1974-80. The enrolment at primary level is, although, expected to reach around 9.07 million by the end 1985-86 whereas the total school age population is estimated to reach a figure of 14 million. It means that 67 % of the total age group is likely to be brought under schooling and 113 may still remain out of school even by the end of 1985-86. The high dropout rate has also contributed significantly to the low level of literacy. The out of school literacy programmes have not successfully reached the masses. As a result of this, the literacy rate in the country is only 24 % which is much lower than in most of the developing countries.

In addition, undue emphasis has been given to higher education. A large share of the total expenditure is going to higher education and low share is being received by the primary sector. During 1973-80, the primary education could receive, on average, 18% of the education budget as compared to about 34% of higher education. The university system tends to be exclusive and to serve upper and middle class families. Despite reforms, the content of education in many cases has been inappropriate for the country's need. All these have resulted in under-developed human resources and poor rate of human capital formation in the country. Given the crucial role that

education could play in promoting development of human resources, it is vital that it should be given greater priority than in the past and that emphasis should be on those aspects which contribute most to achieving the country's objectives.

Training.-Outside the formal education stream, a modest net work of vocational training exists both in the private and public sectors. It is estimated that the whole vocational training system turns but about 10,000 skilled workers per year. " This output is well short of demand for skilled technical manpower. The entire governmental training system meets only 10 per cent of the requirements for trained manpower. Skilled component of the existing labour force is already low and as such what the formal training system is doing by way of adding to the post of trained manpower is rather insignificant in the face of our 700,000 net additions to the labour force every year, not to speak of the skill inadequacies in the older labour force. "¹

Policy Measures for human Resource Development

The above analysis clearly reveals that the labour surplus developing countries are confronted with critical shortages in strategic skills and burdensome surpluses mainly among the unskilled manpower. It indicates that the human resource development institutions of these countries are not producing the number and kind of persons which these economies demand. Some broad policy guidelines for building the strategy of human resource development are identified below :

(i) Scientific Analysis of Human Resources:

Before implementing any policy measures for the development of human resources in any kind of economy, the exercise must start with a systematic assessment of the human resources. The assessment which is also termed 'manpower analysis' has three essential steps as stated below :

Firstly, it requires a scientific assessment of total human stock by levels of skills and education in a country.

Secondly, the planners should also identify the size of shortages and surpluses of skills in each major sector of the economy along with the reasons of such shortages and surpluses.

Thirdly, another essential component of the manpower analysis concerns with the estimates about the future trends in manpower requirements and supply depending on the growth rate and pattern likely to take place. On this basis the planners should set future targets of human resource

¹ Butt, M. R., *Human Resource Planning in Pakistan -An Application of Alternative Strategies*, (An un-published Mater's Thesis of Institute of Social Studies, The Hague, 1981) P. 40.

development by assessing, scientifically, the specific manpower requirements at various levels of skill by different sectors of the economy. The value and capacity of the existing educational and training facilities should be assessed and on the basis of such assessment, the approximate amount for investment in education and training needs to be estimated. This is necessary because a wrong allocation or misdirection of resources for the acquisition of unwanted or excessive skill-formation of certain type would simply mean the creation of a class of new unemployed trained people. On the other hand, otherwise, some of the skills required might remain unexploited.

(ii) Rational Development of Educational System

The educational outlays in developing countries compete for resources that have alternative use, it is essential to determine what proportion of national income or public budget should be devoted to education. And within the education system itself, it is necessary to determine priorities for the various possible levels and forms of education.

In the proceeding sections, it has been revealed that a low level of investment in education sector could do only little to develop the human resources in most of the developing countries. In this regard UNESCO recommends that these countries should spend at least 4 % of their G.N.P. on education.

In view of the meager quantity and poor quality of primary education, it is strongly felt that an increase in the educational budget should be made for the development of primary education as apposed to higher education. According to UNESCO, there are three important dimensions of the development of primary education : (i) Universal education, (ii) Universal enrolment, and (iii) Universal retention. The universal education should be aimed at providing schools, equipped with qualitative teaching material and manned with qualified teachers. With easy access to every child books in rural as well as in urban areas. The universal enrolment requires an effort to bring every child to school by making the population education minded by providing adequate incentive for education and enforcing compulsion. The universal retention demands for eliminating the wastages by preventing dropping-out of large number or primary students.

More immediately serious than the lack of universal primary education is the deficiency in secondary education. The expansion and reform of secondary education should be the top priority as the most critical manpower requirement tends to be for people with a secondary education. The orientation of secondary education should be changed and it should provide a fundamental and broad education for students planning to go to jobs directly or to enter the universities.

Most of the developing countries, although, relatively more advanced in higher education than in either primary or secondary suffer from some deficiencies even in this level of education. There is over-emphasis on faculties of humanities, law, arts and under-emphasis on science, medicine and engineering. There is also the problem of low quality of education as a result of poorly qualified teachers, ill equipped laboratories etc. These factors have resulted into qualitative and quantitative imbalances in the supply of high level manpower. In the area of higher education, the strategy should be to give priority to investment in scientific and engineering faculties. But this does not mean that the production of liberally educated persons should be neglected.

It is felt that due to the high magnitude of the problem in the wake of limited resources in the developing countries, it does not seem possible to meet the critical gaps in education exclusively by formal system of education which requires heavy investment and long time. It is, therefore, needed that developing countries should also strengthen the non-formal system of education for all the levels of post-literacy stage.

(iii) Development of Technical and Vocational Training

To meet the growing demand of various skills, a chain of vocational institutions should be established at a large scale. The vocational training should be coordinated with the general education programme. Apart from government actions, effective measures need to be devised to encourage and assist the efforts of private enterprises to organize training facilities by them individually or collectively. It is necessary that every concern should share the responsibility of training at least, a minimum number of apprentices.

With resources available for investment in training, the question of priority assumes importance. In view of the on-going programmes of industrial development and employment creation, the main priority should be to break the specific bottlenecks in the education of teachers, supervisors and instructors deserves a high priority, as the present shortages of personnel of this category appears to be a limiting factor in the expansion of vocational training programme itself.

(iv) Development of Employed Manpower

The system of on-the-job training of professional and sub-professional personnel is not well developed or utilized in these countries. Sound institutions for on-the-job training should be an essential component of the strategy. The building of incentives and the training of employed manpower are essential both as a means of economizing on formal education and as a means of making the investment in it productive.

The above stated essential components of the strategy are inter dependent and call for a well designed and integrated attack simultaneously,

on all these fronts. Moreover, it is also essential that the strategy of manpower development and its utilization should be an integral part of a country's national development programmes.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Before you go over to the next unit, you should know the answers to the following questions :

1. What is the meaning of the term 'human resource development'?
2. What is the place of human resource development in economic planning of a country?
3. What are the indicators of human resource development.
4. What do you suggest to overcome the problems of human resource development in Pakistan?
5. What policy measures would you adopt for human resource development in the country?
6. What is the relationship between human resource development and educational planning?

**EXPLANATORY NOTES ABOUT THE CONCEPTS USED IN
THE UNIT**

1. ***Labour Force.-Civilian*** -labour force is defined as non-institutional civilian population of 10 years age and above who are found employed or un-employed during the reference period. In case of some countries, the minimum age limit may be different than in case of Pakistan.
2. ***Employed.-It*** includes all persons who are, working for pay or profit (either in cash or kind) including unpaid family helpers (who worked for any period of time during the reference week) or had a job but did not work.
3. ***Un-employed. - Normally,*** it includes all persons who, during a reference period, were either looking for work, or not looking for work due to illness or not looking for work believing job not available, or temporarily or indefinitely laid-off , or waiting to report to new job, or willing to work if job is provided.
4. **Industrial Classification. -** According to standard industrial classification, being used by almost all the countries, there are nine broad industrial categories as stated below :
 - (i) Agriculture, Forestry, Hunting and Fishing
 - (ii) Mining and Quarrying
 - (iii) Manufacturing
 - (iv) Electricity, Gas and Water
 - (v) Construction
 - (vi) Wholesale and Retail Trade and Restaurants and Hotels
 - (vii) Transport, Storage and Communication
 - (viii) Finance, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services
 - (ix) Community, Social and Personal Services
 - (x) Activities not Adequately Defined.
5. **Occupational Classification.-Based on International Standard Classification of Occupations,** most of the countries classify their occupations into nine major occupational groups which are stated below:
 - (i) Professional Technical and Related Workers
 - (ii) Administrative and Managerial Workers
 - (iii) Clerical and Related Workers

- (iv) Sales Workers
 - (v) Service Workers
 - (vi) Agricultural, Animal Husbandary and Forestry Workers, Fishermen and Hunters
 - (vii) Production and Related Workers, Transport
 - (viii) Equipment Operators and Labourers
 - (ix) Workers not Classified Elsewhere.
6. Primary Sector.-It includes the broad industrial categories of 'Agriculture, Forestry, Hunting and Fishing' and 'Mining and Quarrying'.
 7. Secondary Sector.-It includes the broad industrial category of 'Manufacturing' comprising of large scale, medium scale, small scale and cottage industries.
 8. Tertiary Sector.-This sector comprises 'whole-sale and Retail Trade, Restaurants and Hotels', 'Transport, Storage and Communication', 'Services', 'Commerce and Business' and Construction.

UNIT No. 4

**PROCESS OF DEVELOPMENT
PLANNING IN PAKISTAN**

M. Athar Khan Koti

Revised by

Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi

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OBJECTIVES

This Unit is designed to acquaint the reader with the process of development planning in Pakistan. On completion of this Unit it is expected that the reader will:

- (1) Know the organizational structure and functions of the Planning Division.
- (2) Visualize and differentiate between the functions of the Planning Division and Provincial Planning and Development Departments;
- (3) Ascertain differences between various types of development plans;
- (4) Appreciate problems of plan formulation and implementation;
- (5) Be familiar with the system and process of development planning in the country.

PROCESS OF DEVELOPMENT PLANNING IN PAKISTAN

Introduction

The process of development planning in Pakistan may be conveniently described in reference to economic development planning in the country. The economic development plans are prepared for five years period. The job of planning is carried out by the planning commission which is a professional organization. The plans are prepared in consultation with the Federal Ministries, Divisions of Ministries, Autonomous Bodies, Public Sector Enterprises of the Provincial Governments. The development planning in Pakistan is done at the national level and the planning Commission is the main instrument in this connection.

The economic development planning in Pakistan began in early 50's. Since that time the changes which took place in the process of planning could very well be traced in the process though which the Planning Commission has passed in terms of its functions and responsibilities.

The growth in the functions of Planning Commission over the years could be understood by a comparison of its functions as outlined by Mahboob-ul-Haq⁽¹⁾ in 1964 and by G.M. Awan⁽²⁾ in 1984.

According to Mahboob-ul-Haq the Major functions of the planning commission included:

- (i) Formulation of five-year plans ;
- (ii) Formulation of the annual development programmes within the frame-work of the five year-plan;
- (iii) Evaluation of economic progress ;
- (iv) Advice on economic policies ;
- (v) Planning for the private sector ;

To this list of the functions of Planning Commission in 1979 Veitch⁽³⁾ had added the following:-

⁽¹⁾ Mahboob-ul-Haq, *Planning machinery in Pakistan*, a paper presented at a seminar organized by the OECD in Paris, October, 1994.

⁽²⁾ G.M.Awan, *Role of Planning Commission in the process of planning for economic development*, un-published paper distributed at a workshop on education planning and management organized by the Allama Iqbal Open University in October, 1984.

⁽³⁾ M.D. Veitch, *Project Planning Process in Pakistan* (draft working paper) a report of the Planning Commission. Project Planning Centre University of Bradford U.K, April, 1997.

- (vi) Formulation of the annual planning within the framework of the Five-Year Plan, which itself forms the framework of the annual development programme.
- (vii) The scrutiny and appraisal of projects, the chairing of the central Development Working Parties (as the secretary Planning Commission is the Chairman of the CDWP) for the approval of development projects within stated cost limit, and the preparation of policy paper concerning major projects for consideration by the Executive Committee of the National Economic Council.

G.M. Awan lists the following functions of the planning commission:

- (a) To prepare national plans at periodic intervals for the economic and social development of the country.
- (b) To make assessments from time to time of the human and material resources of the country.
- (c) To recommend such adjustments in the national plan as may be necessary in view of the changing economic situation.
- (d) To stimulate and, where necessary, initiate the preparation of development programmes and projects; to examine and advise on all such programmes and projects with a view to deciding whether they conform to national objectives and, in general, whether they provide for the most efficient use of the most efficient use of available resources.
- (e) To coordinate the examination of development programmes and projects in consultation with the appropriate authorities and to secure the approval of the Central Government to acceptable programmes and projects.
- (f) To prepare the annual development programme within the framework of the national plan and on determination of priorities, to propose the allocation of resources.
- (g) To analyse and make recommendations on important economic policies and programmes.
- (h) To advise the Central and Provincial Governments, whenever so required, on economic policies and problems.
- (i) To prepare data for the use of aid-giving countries, economic appraisements and evaluation.
- (j) To undertake and promote economic research ; and to initiate surveys and investigations needed to support effective planning and development.

- (k) To progress the implementation of approved development projects, particularly aided projects.
- (l) To devise, obtain, collate and distribute to all concerned reports on the progress of projects, and to prepare periodic digests of these reports for the information of the Government.
- (m) To measure performance against promise, especially by comparing actual with estimated costs of projects.
- (n) To identify the causes of delays and difficulties, if any, in the implementation of projects and to propose specific solutions.
- (o) To advise on the nature of the machinery for securing the efficient execution of the national plan.
- (p) Processing and approval of Re-appropriation of Development Funds.
- (q) Ensure implementation of President's Directives relating to socio-economic development.

Organizational Structure of the Manpower and Overseas Pakistanis Division

i) Administration and Emigration Wing.

ii) Research and Welfare Wing

Consisting of : (Part of the Division)

- Manpower Demand Section;
- Manpower Supply Section;
- Employment Promotion Section; and
- Research and Statistics Section.

iii) Overseas Pakistanis Wing (Part of the Division)

iv) Bureau of Emigration and Overseas Employment (BE&OE) (Attached Department of the Division).

v) National Talent Pool (NTP) -do-

vi) National Training Bureau (NTB) -do-

vii) Overseas Pakistanis Foundation (OPF) (Registered as Corporation of the Division)

viii) Overseas Employment Corporation (OEC) -do-

Manpower and Overseas Pakistanis Division

1. The Manpower and Overseas Pakistanis Division (MD) is one of two divisions within the Ministry of Labour, Manpower and Overseas Pakistanis, the other being the Labour Division. It was established in 1973 and in the late seventies an Overseas Pakistanis Wing was attached to it, in the wake of the large scale labour migration to the Middle East. A main responsibility of the MD is to formulate, monitor and evaluate policies related to the development and utilization of human resources including overseas migration (details on its function are given in Annex XIII.1). The MD is divided into a number of wings and sections (for details see Annex XIII.2). With regard to human resource development planning, the most important of these are (i) the Research and Welfare Wing, (ii) the Overseas Pakistanis Wing and (iii) the Pakistan Manpower Institute.
2. The Research and Welfare Wing is by far the most important instrument of the MD in discharging its functions of HRD planning. It has four sections (i) employment promotion, (ii) manpower supply, (iii) manpower demand, and (iv) research and statistics. The Employment Promotion Section is responsible for monitoring the employment situation and analysing trends in employment, unemployment and under-employment and changes in the characteristics of the labour force. It is also required to assess the employment impact of various ongoing or proposed sectoral programmes and projects and assist in policy formulation for employment promotion. Lastly, its functions include supervision and assistance to the employment exchanges, employment information bureaux, vocational guidance and youth employment officers, and national employment programmes and projects.
3. The Manpower supply section is responsible for making detailed projections of the growth of the labour force and changes in its socio-economic, educational, gender and other characteristics for the short, medium and long term future. It is required to monitor and assess the supply of high level manpower from educational and training institutions and advise on the development of policies and programmes in the fields of education and training.
4. The manpower Demand Section is responsible for monitoring and analysing the demand for manpower by sex, occupations, skill and educational levels. It is required to undertake studies of the occupational patterns in various industries and of labour requirements in big industries. Its functions are also to identify gaps, bottlenecks and shortfalls in development programmes, which may be attributable to manpower

shortages, assistance in improving labour statistics through liaison with statistical agencies at the federal and provincial level and sponsoring and promoting of ad-hoc surveys and research on employment issues.

5. The Overseas Pakistanis Wing, which was added to the MD in 1978, has the overall responsibility for all issues related to overseas labour migration. It is required to monitor overseas migration and carry out studies on various aspects of labour migration, including the welfare of migrants while abroad and their reintegration into the domestic labour market upon return. Its functions include advice on matters related to labour migration and prepares proposals for promoting a productive utilization of remittances and assistance to return migrants and their own business upon return, providing information to prospective migrants and initiating action on complaints and appeals from overseas Pakistanis.
6. The Pakistan Manpower Institute (PMI) was established in 1976 as a semi-autonomous research organ of the MD. It is responsible for undertaking research on a wide range of issues related to human resource development, cooperating with a number of international agencies in this field, disseminating research results and other information on HRD issues through publication of research paper and books and through organization of conferences and symposia. It also carries out a wide range of training activities, including training in manpower planning and administration (for details of its functions, see Annex XIII. 3).
7. Several other sections of the MD are also engaged in activities related to HRD.
 - i) The Administration and Emigration wing is responsible for the formulation of policies and regulation of issues regarding emigration.
 - ii) The National Talent Pool is responsible for making inventories of high level manpower.
 - iii) The Bureau of Emigration and Overseas Employment is required to monitor labour migration and the labour market conditions in the labour importing countries. It is also responsible for regulating employment abroad.
 - iv) The Overseas Employment Corporation acts as an intermediary in the recruitment of labour for overseas employment.
 - v) The Overseas Pakistanis Foundation was set up in 1979 to promote the welfare of overseas Pakistanis and their families at home.
 - vi) The National Training Bureau is responsible for skill development.

The Planning Commission

8. All development schemes emanating from various provincial and federal government agencies come to the attention of the Planning Commission. The provincial authorities have the right to approve projects with a total budget line up to 200 million rupees. Provinces can approve projects with a total budget up to 1000 million rupees, if they are funding through their own sources. For federal ministries this right is confined to projects costing less than 20 million rupees. Information on all approved schemes are sent to the Planning Commission, the Ministry of Finance and other concerned Federal Government agencies for information. The Planning commission retains the right to veto schemes approved by provincial or other federal authorities under exceptional, explicitly defined, circumstances

ECNEC	More than 500 million rupees
CDWP	Up to 500 million rupees
Provincial	Up to 200 million rupees
DDWP	1000 million in case of their own funding 40 million if funds are provided by federal government.

9. The development schemes costing over Rs. 60 million of the provincial governments and costing over Rs. 20 million of the Federal Government are invariably processed by the Planning Commission and approved either by the Central Development Working Party (CDWP), headed by the Deputy Chairman, Planning Commission or by the ECNEC, headed by the Minister of Finance (presently, the ECNEC is chaired by the Prime Minister). All such schemes are submitted, on the prescribed PC-I forms, to the Development Authorization Section of the Planning Commission. These schemes are subsequently sent for detailed scrutiny to the following sections.

- i) The Concerned technical section(s);
- ii) The Manpower Section;
- iii) The Appraisal section; and
- iv) The Housing & Physical Planning section.

After approval the projects/schemes are sent to the Projects Wing. This wing is required to monitor and evaluate public sector projects. Presently, as reported by the staff of the Projects Wing, only about ten percent of such projects are monitored and evaluated due to financial and technical constraints.

10. The PC-I form is divided in three parts, A, B and Part-C deals with employment and manpower development considerations. Sponsoring agencies are required to state clearly the manpower requirements by skill categories (professional, technical, skilled and unskilled), separately for

project construction/execution and project operation. This part also requires information on (i) likely shortages by categories, (ii) steps required to make available the manpower, (iii) personnel required to be trained to be trained locally and abroad by trades/skills/occupations, and (iv) the cost of mobilizing workers. This information should always be assessed by the Manpower Section (MS) of the Planning Commission. Hence, the employment implications of all development programmes can be ascertained, if this information is adequately reflected in PC-I forms and carefully evaluated and compiled by the MS of the Planning Commission.

11. A number of important employment and manpower related functions are assigned to the Manpower Section (MS) of the Planning Commission. These are:
 - i) Preparation, processing and evaluation of plans, projects/schemes in the manpower sector;
 - ii) Formulation of annual plans and annual development plans for manpower development within the framework of the national plans;
 - iii) Examination of development programmes related to the development of manpower in the economy;
 - iv) Review and evaluation of progress in implementation of national plans in consultation with appropriate authorities and agencies;
 - v) Monitoring of development projects of federal ministries and provincial government with regard to their manpower and employment aspects; and
 - vi) Identification of problems and bottlenecks and remedial measures in the development of manpower resources and the functioning of the labour market.
12. The main function of the Education Section of the Planning Commission is to appraise schemes and projects emanating mainly from the provincial education departments. This section also undertakes appraisal of all those schemes which have an education and training component. It is also required to prepare sectoral annual development plans and the country's mid- and long- term education plans.

Other Government Agencies Involved in HRD

13. The ministry of Education is charged with responsibilities for educational planning, scholarships and overseas studies, grants and providing development educational expenditures to the provinces. It discharges its functions through its technical wings/sections and a number of

autonomous bodies. Its wings, besides administration, are (i) Planning and Development, (ii) Primary and Non-Formal Education, (iii) Institutions, (iv) Supports and Welfare, (v) Curriculum, and (v) Children Literature Cell. Some of the important autonomous/attached organizations of the Ministry of Education are (i) the University Grants Commission, (ii) the National Education Council, (iii) the National Bureau of Curriculum and Text Books, (iv) the Academy for Educational Planning and Management, and (v) the Central Bureau of Education. All of these undertake activities related to human resource development.

14. The Ministry of women Development was first established in 1979 as a Division and is responsible for (i) formulation of public policies and laws to meet the special needs of women, (ii) registration and assistance to women's organizations, and (iii) undertaking and promoting projects for providing special facilities for women. It is performing these functions with the help of five wings' namely: (i) Administration, (ii) Women's Rights, (iii) Programmes, (iv) Special Women's Action Programme (SWAP), and (v) Research. In addition, there are three organizations attached to this Ministry (i) The Implementation Cell for the Pakistan Commission on the status of Women, (ii) The Pakistan Academy for Women's Development' and (ii) The National Evaluation and Monitoring Cell.
15. The Statistics Divisions is responsible for the production of statistics on employment and manpower and other human resource related issues. To this end it undertakes censuses and field surveys and collects data from other organizations. The statistics Division performs its function through three attached technical departments: (i) The Federal bureau of statistics (FBS), (ii) The population Census Organizations (PCO), and (iii) The Agricultural Census Organization (ACO). A number of enquiries and Surveys on related manpower and employment variables are conducted regularly by the FBS, e.g. the labour force survey, the annual established enquiry, the census of manufacturing industries, the survey of small scale household and cottage industries and the housing, income and expenditure surveys. Decennial population and agricultural censuses are conducted by the PCO and the ACO, respectively The FBS also brings out an annual statistical yearbook.
16. The provincial Directorates of Manpower and Training in Punjab and Sindh and the Manpower and Employment Wings of the Directorate of Labour welfare in the other provinces are the main government agencies responsible for implementing government policies in the field of GRD at the provincial level. Their wide ranging field of activities include collection, processing and dissemination of labour market statistics, employment promotion through employment counseling, training and apprenticeship schemes administration, supervision and control of a

number organizations in the field of training and employment promotion (for a detailed list see annex XIII.4) The Directorates of Manpower and Training are comprised of two wings: a manpower and employment wing and a training wing. The employment exchanges and the manpower and statistics units, both of them with field offices in most district centres, and vocational guidance fall under the purview of the manpower wing, while the various types of training and apprenticeship centres some under the training wing.

17. The Provincial Planning and Development Department/Board are responsible for appraising the feasibility of all development schemes emanating from different provincial departments and organizations. Subsequent to appraisal, the schemes may be approved by the Provincial Development Working Party or forwarded to the Planning Commission for approval in cases where their cost is over 60 million rupees.

Government Communications

It is perhaps worth stressing the vital position which the provincial P&D Developments occupy at the centre of communications. The limited extend of direct communication between Federal Ministries and Provincial Departments was noted curlier. Apart from purely sctoral business, a major proportion of communications between Provincial and Federal levels are handled by the P&D Departments and by the Planning Commission; this is particularly the case in so far as projects are concerned. P&D Departments also stand at the centre of inter-Provincial Government communications, possibility to an even greater extent than stands the Planning Communication in Federal affairs. Moreover the vertical strength of the Line Departments is such that inter-Departmental communication at the District level may well have to be conducted at eh Provincial level and thus may involve the P&D Department.

Planning Cells

Some of the Departments of the provincial governments have their own Planning Cells. They are placed in Ministries or Departments. Their specific functions are determined by the nature of the sector in which they operate. However, the following are known to be the functions of a typical cell:

- (a) Receiving proposed schemes from various departments either at provincial or district levels.
- (b) Scrutinizing them and, where necessary, requesting further information prior to passing them to P&D Department.
- (c) Dealing with all relating correspondence.
- (d) Writing appropriate briefs, memoranda, etc.

THE PLANNING PROCESS

Five-Year Plan or Medium-term Plan

The process of development planning in Pakistan includes preparation of Five-Year Plan, or Medium-term Plan, the Annual Plan, the Sectoral Plan, the Regional and Local Plan. The Five-Year Plan formally outlines the framework of macro economic projections. The projections are in part determined by a number of strategies which forms an essential part of the plan. The strategies are also based on the study of the achievements and problems of the previous plan or plans. The major part of the Five-Year Plan consists of sectoral chapters which vary from plan to plan according to the needs and priorities of the country. The sectoral plans contain general policies, strategic and specific targets. They are prepared by the technical sections of the Planning Commission, in consultation with the appropriate Ministries and Departments and with P&D. In certain institutions representative from outside the government including private sector are also brought into sit on working groups. The economic sections of the Planning commission consider the draft sectoral plans to ensure overall consistency.

The Annual Plan

The annual Plan is a broad ranging document. It was first launched during the period 1972 – 78, it was the only published macro economic plan and served in place of the Five-Year Plan. Which was first introduced in the country in 1955.

The Annual Plan is intended to be the operational or implementation instrument of a Five-Year Plan. It is in effect of the means of achieving Five-Year Plan target on a yearly basis. It also provides a more processed economic framework within which discussions regarding the size of the Annual Budget and development programme take place. The Annual Plans are used to evaluate the performance of the Five-year Plan on a yearly basis. It means that through an annual plan, the years of success and failure of the implementation of the five-Year Plan are analysed which provide bases for remedial actions.

Annual Development Programme (ADP)

As the Annual Plan is frequently regarded as the implementation side of the five year plan so the annual development programme (ADP) is the implementation side of the annual plan. The ADP is the operational side of the five year and annual plan. The ADP contains the lists of projects which have already received approval from the normal machinery of government. It may also be noted that while the Five Year and Annual plans are concerned primarily with physical targets whereas the ADP concerns with the financial implementation of projects in practice. The preparation of both the plans proceeds simultaneously.

SECTORAL PLANNING

The Five Year and Annual Plans as stated elsewhere comprise sectoral plans such as: agriculture, water, industry, mineral, energy, transport and communication, mass media, physical planning and housing, tourism, education and training, science and technology, health, population planning, social welfare, urban development, rural development, development of backward areas, public administration, works programme, manpower and employment, village electrification, individual provincial development, woman's development and agricultural development, etc. depending upon the policies and priorities of the government, the number of sectors included in a plan may vary from plan to plan.

The sectoral plans are produced by various Governments, Ministries and such other agencies as might be assigned this job by the Government.

ANNUAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

As the ADP deals with the implementation of the plan it seems essential that is introduced to the reader in somewhat greater details. The preparation of ADP begins with the issuance of a circular letter (appendix 'A') by the Planning Division (programming section), in October-November each year. The letter provides guide-line and time schedule for the formulation of ADP to all Provincial Governments and Federal Ministries including autonomous agencies/Corporations. This letter incorporates apart from guide lines priorities and the tentative size with proformas and the time schedule commencing from October / November to June for preparing and submitting of data to the Planning Division for processing their demands for inclusion in the ADP. Similarly finance Division issues a letter to tall the above-mentioned agencies laying down the procedure for submission of revised estimates for the out going year and budget estimates for the ensuing year.

Resource estimation in the Planning Division and Finance Division:—

Almost with the issuance of these letters the detailed exercises are carried out simultaneously but independently by the Planning and Development Division and Finance Division in consultation with Economic Affairs Division (EAD) and Provincial Finance Departments on resource estimation for the ensuing year which are kept tentative till the announcement of the budget.

Determination of Tentative Sectoral Allocations:— During the interregnum between the issue of circular letter by the programming section and the fixation of tentative size of ADP various internal exercises are carried out in consultation with the Technical sections to formulate various sectoral allocations both for the Federal and Provincial Governments as per approved formula. After approval these tentative sectoral allocations are transmitted to the Federal Ministries/Divisions and the provincial P&D and Finance Departments respectively.

Scrutiny of ADP Proposals: — The ADP proposals received from the Federal Ministries/Divisions and autonomous agencies/corporations are scrutinized by the Technical sections. After necessary scrutiny, they recommend project-wise allocations and send them to the programming section along with other relevant project filled in the prescribed proforma for the Inter Ministerial Priorities Committee. It may be stated that before the transmission of the agency Proposals to the Planning Division these are subjected to detailed scrutiny by the Financial Advisers attached with each Ministry and autonomous corporations.

Meeting of the Inter Ministerial Priorities Committee:— On the basis of project-wise allocations recommended by the technical sections a detailed agenda is prepared by the programming section and transmitted to the Ministry of Finance and there after that Division used to circulate the schedule of meetings of the priorities committee, now this job has been taken over by the Planning Division and these meetings are held in April for a period of two weeks under the Co-chairmanship of Additional Secretaries Planning & Finance Divisions. This meeting is attended by the Finance Division including FA's and Economic Affairs Division. The sponsoring agencies are given full opportunity to advocate their point of view backed with full facts and figures. Final decision in each case is made by the Chairman of the Committee after taking into account all aspects of the project e.g. whether it is ongoing or new, its status of approval, aided or non aided, the stage of financial and physical implementations. Its priority within the sub-sector or the agency and its overall contribution to other linked projects/sectors.

Inter-Ministerial Foreign Exchange Committee:— Immediately after priorities committee meetings, the meeting of this committee is held to finalise foreign exchange budget to be met from own cash resources in the light of priorities committee decisions. It is attended by the Planning Division, Finance Division EAD, Federal Ministries, Provincial P&D and Finance Departments.

Annual Plan Coordination Committee:— Within three to four weeks after the end of priorities committee the meeting of APCC is held under the chairmanship of Finance Minister. This meeting is attended by the Federal Secretaries of Planning, Finance, EAD as well as all the other Ministries concerned with development programme and the Additional Chief Secretaries Planning & Development Departments, the secretaries of the Finance Departments of all the Provincial Governments and the Governor State Bank of Pakistan.*

The agenda consisting of five working paper can be divided into two parts "The Basic Features of the Annual Plan" and the Annual Development

* Since The writing of this Unit first, there have been Some Changes in the membership and functions of the APCC. See appendix 'B' for the present (1985) membership and functions of APCC.

Programme. The Annual Plan includes the review of the economy in the out going year, the macro economic framework for the ensuing year and major sectoral targets. The annual development programme includes the review of the progress of the ADP during the out going year, the preview of the next year's programme, the sectoral analysis of the programme and the identification of issues requiring decision by the APCC. After consideration of all the agenda items and hearing the relevant representatives the APCC approves the Macro-economic framework and the size of the annual plan both in the public and private sectors, the size and sectoral allocation of the Federal ADP and the APP allocations for the provinces.

National Economic Council:— The NEC is the highest body for taking decisions on the economic matters relating to the ADP, the Annual Plan and the Five Year Plans. After clearance of the drafts of Annual Plan and the ADP by the APCC two summaries (one on the Basic features of the Annual Plan and the other on the ADP) are put up before the NEC in the last week of May or early June each year for its approval. The NEC is presided over by the Chief Executive and represented by Federal Ministers, Incharge of Economic Ministries, the Deputy Chairman Planning Commission, the Governor State Bank of Pakistan, the Governors and Finance Ministers of the provinces. For Details of membership and functions of NEC (see appendix 'C')

Executive Committee of the National Economic Council (ECNEC):— The Executive Committee of the National Economic Council (ECNEC) is a subsidiary of the NEC and represents the highest project authorization body in the country. It is a ministerial level committee chaired by the Minister for Finance and Economic Affairs. The membership of the ECNEC comprises the Federal Ministers ; Provincial Ministers for Planning and Finance ; Chief Secretaries of the provinces and Chairmen of the Provincial Planning and Development Boards (see Appendix 'D' for constitution and functions of the ECNEC).

Reconciliation Team for Budget – Plan Coordination:— After this there is a constant vigil and close liaison between the programming section of Planning Division and the budget-wing of Finance Division. Reconciliation team is usually set up every year to ensure consistency of project wise allocations as reflected in the ADP and the budget including foreign exchange component financed from foreign aid/loan and own cash resources.

Simultaneous Printing of the ADP and the Budget Documents:— The programming section of Planning Division and the Budget of Finance Division set up their offices in the press not only to check the proofs and ensure coordination but also to expedite the printing of all the documents just before the date of announcement of budget.

Formulation of the Consolidated Development Programme:— After the announcement of Federal and Provincial budgets and the development programmes in June, every year the copies of budgets and the ADP's are collected through special arrangements by the programming section with the following two main objectives.

(viii) Preparation of consolidated development programmes for the country as a whole by integrating the federal and provincial programmes into one document on a standard proforma and classification.

(ii) Preparation of detailed Annual Plan document including the public and private sectors investment programmes, the macro economic framework, the policy packages the sectoral allocations and physical targets besides the review of the economy.

The consolidated development programme is prepared by the programming section within two:— three months and its documentation is done in a very meticulous manner. The integrated version of the *federal and provincial programmes* for a particular year is printed as a separate document and sent to all the federal and provincial department concerned, and Pakistan Embassies abroad, and other international agencies including research and educational institutions of repute. This document is used as reference book at all levels.

Preparation & Finalization of Three - Year Sector Development programme:— Over the last three years the conclusion of the EFF arrangement with IMF has contributed to provide an opportunity for a resumption of serious planning of development expenditures. The first three year FSD (1981 - 84) was prepared within the comprehensive economic policy framework of the Fifth Five Year Plan aiming primarily at consolidation, reinforcement and reorientation of the public sector priorities laid down in the Fifth Plan strategy. This was necessary due to creating adverse developments which deviated the plan from its original targets, as well as in response to the indications given in the plan strategy towards certain sectors. The revised three year programme was drawn up to coordinate the development efforts of the Federal and Provincial Governments and all public sector corporation during 1982 - 85 and to ensure that planned expenditure were be consistent with the available resources. A careful screening of new projects was made during the towards high yielding short gestation projects.

Processing and Approval of Reappropriation of Development Funds:— In the past the Federal Ministries/Division were fully empowered within their ADPs. This led to a lot of distortion and financial indiscipline, which came to the notice of Ministry of Finance and the Planning Commission at the time of the preparation of ADP and budget for the next year. This problem was examined in depth and it was decided by the ECNEC in December 1979 to withdraw these

powers from all the Federal Ministries and Divisions. However the reappropriation from one development scheme to another included in the ADP of the particular year pertaining to the same demand was allowed, in decision has created consciousness amongst the executing agencies to allocate funds more realistically and not for resort to reappropriation at will. In addition, this has also helped in avoiding the distortion of priorities as reflected in the ADP and any change approved by the Planning & Development Division takes into account the likely repercussion on interproject relationships and priorities.

Formulation of Throw Forward in respect of on-going Project/ Programmes and Schemes:— Another responsibility of programming section is the formulation of Throw Forward document in respect of on-going schemes/programmes in the government financed sector, which process involves the working out of the amount already incurred on various development schemes and estimated expenditure/spill over expenditure of various development schemes to be incurred during the remaining period of the five year plans. This exercise is carried out before the preparation of five year plan. It consists of an exhaustive list of on-going schemes both at national and provincial levels. The Programming and Evaluation Section is greatly assisted by the Technical section about the future expenditure relating to on-going schemes.

Evaluation of Annual / Five Year Plans and the Economy's Progress:— Evaluation of country's economy in relation to the plan programmes on a regular basis is an important adjunct to the process of effective planning. The Planning commission not only prepares the Medium Term/Annual Plans but also evaluates progress achieved under them. Infact it acts as a watch-guard of the plan implementation. At the moment planning commission carries out periodic evaluation of the progress of plan in a variety of forms *e.g.* Mid/Annual review for the preparation of next year plan, which is submitted before the APCC and NEC every year. Review of the economy as part of the memorandum for the World Bank Consortium and for holding discussions with the IMF and World Bank Mission is also being done every year.

Major Problems and Handicaps which cause delay in the Implementation of various Programmes and Plans:— The analysis of the special reviews carried out by the Planning Commission indicates that the implementation of development programmes/projects usually suffers from the problems and handicaps which can be grouped under four major heads viz. financial, administrative political and general. These are briefly mentioned below:

(a) Financial Constraints

- (i) Lack of resources, both rupee and in terms of foreign exchange is almost quite a substantial problem in a number of cases. Availability of foreign exchange is even more uncertain. This

disturbs the portfolio of viable projects for ADP induction and their subsequent schedule of completion.

- (ii) Uncertainly in release of allocations and hence their in adequacy for implementation. Releases of funds were delayed/withheld at both the Ministries and the holding corporations level. Cuts made at the source effect more adversely those projects were investments are to be made in bulk.
- (iii) Fluctuations in exchange rates effect the procurement of imported inputs. The efforts of having additional funds over the above the budgeted amounts was time-consuming and not always successful.
- (iv) Price escalation of certain inputs coupled with fixed amount of loan in terms of foreign exchange sanctioned by the lending agencies and their general reluctance to increase the amount of loan already negotiated/sanctioned, also disturbed the completion schedule. In most cases, loans are of tied nature and, therefore, costly. This increases the cost of the project and delays its completion.
- (v) Wrong assumptions are also made by the implementing agencies while estimating costs. Moreover, prices of various inputs in the project are not visualized keeping in view their schedule of occurrence; and
- (vi) Difficult procedure adopted by the State Bank of Pakistan for giving guarantees for import of machinery and equipment by various executing agencies. Certain suppliers ask for a specific type of guarantee, which State Bank authorities are reluctant to sign.

(b) *Administrative Difficulties*

- (i) Lack of expertise at both the Ministry and the Corporation/Project Director levels to conceive and prepare the scheme on realistic basis. Delays have, as a result, occurred in obtaining approval of schemes.
- (ii) Sometimes implementing agencies assume that all their needs will automatically be catered to by other agencies; subsequently it is revealed that important key inputs are not ready by the time the main plant is ready for commissioning.
- (iii) Pakistan is short of highly qualified manpower in fields like chemical, electrical, cements and engineering, when all the fertilizer plants, cement factories and other chemical units re completed by 1983-84.

- (iv) Lack of delegation of financial powers to the appropriate levels in the field. Decisions for acceptance of tenders or for purchase of certain key inputs are delayed due to lack of delegation of power to Project Directors ; and
- (v) Absence, or at least, lack of appropriate progress monitoring system based on modern lines in both the Ministries/Division and at project level. Due to this, problems anticipated cannot be forecasted in time and remedial measures taken.

(C) Political Factors

- (i) Approval of economically/financially non-viable projects for political reasons:
- (ii) Over-staffing in certain projects. Extra staff recruited under political pressures at a certain point of time cannot be subsequently removed and becomes a burden on the projects;
- (iii) Wrong location of project under pressures. The Dir Forest Industries Complex and Textile Mill at Shahzad Kot could easily be cited as examples of this nature ; and
- (iv) Award of contracts to non-deserving parties under political influences ; Firms with meager resources at their disposal were able to get the contracts for significant amounts and were subsequently unable to complete the jobs on schedule.

(d) General handicaps

- (i) There is a general shortage of skilled manpower in the country. Skills of particular type such as welders, qualified masons, pipe fitters, etc., were not available in requisite magnitude for projects like fertilizers, cement and chemicals;
- (ii) Shortage of cement and certain other key inputs, imported or local;
- (iii) Heavy rains/floods in 1973, in 1979, and consequent disruption of various services and the schedules of the projects ; and
- (iv) Lack of long-term planning in the country for both financial and physical inputs, and of the working out of inter-relationship between the various projects.

Proposed Corrective Measures of Policy and Procedural Nature:— In the light of the foregoing analysis, the following corrective measures of policy and procedural nature are suggested which can help in improving the project implementation;

- (i) *Distribution of Monitoring Responsibility:*— The Planning and Development Division should monitor only selected large projects of national importance. Legitimately it could perhaps monitor all projects falling within the Federal Government's sanctioning power, viz., Provincial projects costing Rs. 30 million (non-recurring) and or Rs. 3 million (recurring). This would, however, entail monitoring of too many projects and heavily over-burden the Planning and Development Division besides giving an exaggerated impression about the Division's encroachment upon Provincial domain. The Division may, therefore, ordinarily monitor projects costing over Rs. 50 million as already contemplated, leaving other projects to the Provincial Governments and Federal Ministries concerned. Monitoring may be done carefully so as to avoid being construed as inspection.
- (ii) *Progressing/monitoring expertise:*— To build up indigenous progressing and monitoring expertise, the training programmes in project planning now being conducted by the Planning and development Division and the Punjab Government may be accelerated, mutually coordinated, and their scope broadened to include in-depth coverage of modern progressing and monitoring techniques.
- (iii) *Data Base:*— No meaningful monitoring is possible without the study of relevant data. The most essential requirement, therefore, is the compilation, up-to-date maintenance, and timely productions of data on progress of projects by the executing agencies. The data should be based primarily on the proformas prescribed for progress-reporting, which, in turn, should be synchronized with other relevant proformas as suggested below. The data base should be strengthened preferably in the context of the overall management information systems of various agencies, but if this is likely to take time it should be done in Isolation for individual projects.
- (iv) *Integrated approach:*— To ensure optimal plan implementation, an integrated or "system" approach can be useful in at least three main areas;
 - (a) Individual projects;
 - (b) Inter-related projects ; and
 - (c) Availability of infrastructural inputs, e.g., power and transport.

In regard to (a), the entire projects cycle, comprising formulation, appraisal, progressing / monitoring, management and evaluation should be treated as an integrated whole, and institutional arrangements established accordingly,

this would call, *inter-alia* for the synchronization of proformae used for various phases of the cycle ; incorporation of detailed but realistic implementation schedules, based on network analysis and allied modern techniques, in the original projects to permit accurate monitoring of execution ; development of standard unit costs for various types and phases of projects ; and installation of a comprehensive reporting system from field to the highest levels.

With respect to (b) and (c), it may be useful to prepare integrated regional and national plans for infrastructural inputs such as power and transport, so that the optimal techno-economic options can be highlighted and projects prepared and located accordingly.

- (v) *Problem-identification*.— An in-depth study of progress reports on selected major projects may be made in the Planning and Development division, if not already done, to identify the most common problems and constraints and devise solutions thereto.
- (vi) *Application of Modern Techniques*. — In order to ensure effective implementation of development projects proper guidelines/manuals may be circulated to all the executing agencies concerned to prepare the required charts based on either CPM or PERT for the projects which are on different stages of implementation. It is also suggested that a beginning should be made by the adoption of the above techniques on trial basis to the major projects with an estimated cost of Rs. 100 million and above.

Needless to reiterate that the prime objective, ultimately, should be to develop effective project monitoring capacity at the sponsoring agency level *i.e.*, in the Provincial Governments, Federal Ministries and semi-autonomous organizations. The arrangements for inspection and supervision of Development Projects by the sponsoring agencies themselves should be particularly strengthened. In this behalf the Planning and Development Division should try to play an effective catalytic role because the ultimate success of the process of planning depends upon the strengthening of all activities of the project cycle.

SELF-ASSESSED QUESTIONS

As you have read this Unit on 'Process of Development Planning in Pakistan' see if you can answer the following questions:-

- (1) What are major functions of the Planning Division?
 - (2) What are major functions of the P & D Developments?
 - (3) What is the organizational structure of the Planning Division, and what are the functions of its various Wings?
 - (4) What are various type of development plans and what purpose do they serve in national development?
 - (5) What is the process of plan formulation in Pakistan?
 - (6) What are the problems of plan formulation and implementation in Pakistan?
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**GOVERNMENT OF PAKISTAN
PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT DIVISION**

No. 4 (35) PS/PC 84.

Islamabad, the 11th November, 1984

To

1. The Acting Chairman,
Planning and Development Board,
Government of the Punjab, LAHORE.
2. The Additional Chief Secretary (Dev.)
Planning and Development department,
Government of Sind, KARACHI.
3. The Additional Chief Secretary (Dev.)
Planning and Development Department,
Government of N.W.F.P. PESHAWAR.
4. The Additional Chief Secretary (Dev.)
Planning and Development Department,
Government of Baluchistan, QUETTA.

SUBJECT:- *Public Sector Development Programme, 1985-86.*

Sir.

1. I am directed to enclose the time-schedule (Appendix I) for the preparation of the Public Sector Development Programme for 1985-86 and to request that action may kindly be initiated for the formulation of the Development Programme in accordance with this schedule with a view to enabling the Planning and Development Division to complete the work in time for submission to the National Economic Council.
2. The preparation of Annual Development Programme for 1985-86 being the third year of the Sixth Plan should be undertaken well in advance so that the long and detailed process for the scrutiny of development schemes can be completed in time. The sponsoring agencies under your administrative control may, therefore, kindly be requested to accelerate the preparation of projects within the framework of policy decisions taken by the Government from time to time so that an adequate portfolio of viable approved projects is ready and available for the ADP as well as for foreign aid negotiations.
3. The exact size of the Programme cannot be indicated at this stage since the overall availability of resources and the basis of allocation among various agencies will have to be discussed at a later stage. However, keeping in view the size of the ADP 1984-85 and the likely phasing of the

Sixth Plan, an overall size for 1985-86 ADP (Federal and Provincial Programme Combined) may be about Rs. 36 billion.

4. In drawing up the development programme special attention may kindly be given to the following:-

- (i) The programme should be worked out on the net basis and information supplied in the proforma at Appendix-II. All figures in relevant columns of proforma to be indicated in million rupees.
- (ii) The schemes proposed for inclusion in the programme should be arranged in order of priority within each sector/sub-sector so that if resources fall short of requirements, low priority schemes may either be dropped or allocations for such schemes reduced.
- (iii) Priority should be given to such foreign aided projects with high national priority. Some of aid giving agencies have observed that a number of aided projects included in the ADP 1984-85 were not adequately provided for to utilized the aid available in full. This may please be kept in view.
- (iv) On-going projects which have reached a fairly advanced level of implementation should be adequately provided with objective of completing them within 1985-86 fiscal year.
- (v) No provision should be made for new un-approved schemes. When a departure from this rule is considered essential, full justification should be furnished.
- (vi) Special attention may please be given to "Estimated expenditure during 1986-87" which may be indicated in the relevant column of the proforma after some thoughtful consideration. This will help facilitate decision-making and phasing for the subsequent years of the Sixth Plan.
- (vii) Some additional details are also required in respect of the projects whose rupee costs are being partially financed from foreign aid on a reimbursable basis. This information may please be supplied in column 11 of proforma at Appendix-II.
- (viii) Some of the aided projects included in the ADP 1984-85 are still un-approved. Even the PC-Is have not been submitted so far. The ADP allocation was made on the condition that PC-I would be prepared expeditiously for the approval of competent authority. The delay in obtaining approval might adversely affect the ADP allocation for 1985-86 and consequently aid disbursement during the year. Immediate action, to have the PC-I approved by the competent authority without loss of time, may please be taken.

- (ix) As per NEC's decision, increase in recurring expenditure of education above 1982-83 level should in future be classified as development expenditure for the purpose of ADP. Estimates for 1985-86 may please be worked out and shown separately.
5. The proposals for the Public Sector Development Programme (Outside ADP) 1985-86 may also be submitted on the proforma at Appendix III in cases where funds are to be provided to the Public Sector Enterprises outside the Government Budget from sources like foreign loan/equity, bank credit and self-financing.
6. It is further requested that in order to avoid un-necessary delay in processing the ADP demands by Planning and Development Division the requisite material should be supplied on time in triplicate.

Your obedient servant,
GHULAM MUSTAFA AWAN,
Chief
Tele. No. 811984

Encl: As Stated.

Copy is forwarded to all Ministries/Division of the Federal Government for similar action in respect of sectoral programmes/projects of the Federal Government with which they are concerned respectively.

Copy together with enclosures, is forwarded to :

1. Joint Secretary (Budget), Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad.
2. Joint Secretary (Development), Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad.
3. Joint Secretary (Internal Finance), Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad.
4. Joint secretary (External Finance), Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Finance, Islamabad.
5. Chief, research and Statistics Cell, Economic Affairs Division, Islamabad.
6. Secretary to the Government of the Punjab, Finance Department, Lahore.
7. Secretary to the Government of Sind, Finance Department, Karachi.
8. Secretary to the Government of N.W.F.P. Finance Department, Peshawar.
9. Secreatry to the Government of Baluchistan, Finance Department, Quetta.
10. Inspector General of Projects, Quetta, Baluchistan.

Copy also forwarded for information:

Senior Chiefs/Chiefs and Heads of Sections of the Planning and Development Division for information. It is requested that during their visits to the Provincial Headquarters they may kindly assist and guide their counterparts, wherever possible, in formulating the programme in time.

Copy is also forwarded for information to:-

1. Secretary General, Planning and Development Division, Islamabad.
2. Secretary, Planning and Development Division Islamabad.
3. Member I, Planning Commission, Islamabad.
4. Member (Projects), Planning and development Division, Islamabad.
5. Member II, Planning Commission, Islamabad.
6. Additional Secretary (Aid Programming), Planning and Development division , Islamabad.
7. Chief Economist, Planning and Development Division, Islamabad.
8. Joint Chief Economists and Joint Secretaries, Planning and Development Division, Islamabad.
9. Special Assistant to the Minister for Planning and Development, Planning and Development Division, Islamabad.

**TIME-SCHEDULE FOR THE PREPARATION OF PUBLIC
SECTOR DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME 1985-86.**

Last Date	Action
1	2
1. 11 th November, 1984	Circulation of time-schedule for the preparation of the development programme to the Provincial Governments and the Federal Ministries/Division.
2. 20th December, 1984	Submission of new projects which do not fall within the sanctioning competence of the Federal Ministries/Provincial Governments to the Planning and Development Division for approval by CDWP/ECNEC.
3. 27th December, 1984	Submission of preliminary indication of resources for Annual Development Programme 1985-86 to the Planning and Development Division by the Ministry of Finance, Economic Affairs Division and the Provincial Finance Departments.
4. 3rd January, 1985	Intimation by the Planning and Development Division to the Provincial Government and the Federal Ministries/Divisions of the size of their programmes and the sectoral break-up. The allocation for the Federal Government to be shown not only by sectors but also by Administrative Ministries/Divisions.
5. 17th January, 1985	Submission of the sectoral programmes by the Federal Ministries/Division to the Planning and Development Division after consultation with their Financial Advisers for inclusion in the Public Sector Development Programme.
6. 24th February, 1985	Preparation of the tentative Development Programme for the Federal Government by the Planning and Development Division and its communication to the Ministry of Finance and the Federal Ministries/Agencies.
7. 28th February, 1985	Transmission of the tentative Development Programme by the Provincial Governments to the Planning and Development Division.

8. 14th March, 1985 to 4th April, 1985
 - (i) Finalization of the Federal Development Programme by the Inter-Ministerial Priorities Committee represented by the Planning and Development Division, Economic Affairs Division, the Ministry of Finance and the Administrative Ministries/Divisions and Autonomous Corporations concerned and the Provincial Government.
 - (ii) Within two day of the finalization of the Development Programme of each Ministry by the Inter-Ministerial Priorities Committee. The Federal Ministries/Divisions concerned should submit to Planning and Development Division scheme-wise break-up of their allocations along-with other details as per proforma at Appendix II.
9. 14th April, 1985 Finalization of the Provincial Development Programme by the Planning and Development Division in consultation with the Provincial Governments and Ministry of Finance.
10. 21st April, 1985 Incorporation of the Development Programme in the Annual Plan for 1985-86 and its submission to the Annual Plan Coordination Committee for Approval.
11. 5th May, 1985 Submission of the Development Programme and the Annual Plan to the National Economic council for approval.
12. 15th May, 1985 Last date for incorporation of the modification, if any, in the Programme in the light of the NFC's decision in the Federal and Provincial budgets.
13. 23rd May, 1985 Announcment of the Budget and Development Programme for 1985-86.

Appendix II

PUBLIC SECTOR DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME 1985-86

(ADP)

Name of the Sector/Sub-Sector _____

Name of the Ministry/Division _____

(Million Rupees)

Sl. No.	Name with location and status of the Scheme	Estimated Cost	Estimated Exp. Upto June, 1984	Revised Estimates for 1984-85	Estimated Physical implementation upto June, 1985 in quantitative/ percentage terms	Proposed Provision for 1985-86	Foreign Exchange Required for 1985-86	Rupee Expenditure to be met by reimbursement from Foreign Aid	Physical Targets envisaged upto June, 1986 in quantitative / percentage terms	Expenditure during 1986-87	Expenditure beyond 1986-87		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
								Own Resources	Foreign Aid with source				

**SEMI-PUBLIC SECTOR INVESTMENT PROGRAMME 1985-86
(OUTSIDE ADP)**

Name of the Sector _____
Name of the Agency _____

(Million Rupees)

Sl. No.	Name with location and status of the scheme	Estimated Cost	Estimated Exp. Upto June, 1984	Revised Estimates for 1984-85	Estimated Physical implementation upto June, 1985	Total allocation outside ADP	Proposed provision for 1985-86						Physical Targets Envisaged upto June, 1986 in	Expenditure during 1986-87	Expenditure beyond 1986-87		
							Local Component		Foreign Component		Total Foreign Credit (with source)					Total bank NDFC Self-Financing (Local) Credit	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18

ANNUAL PLAN COORDINATION COMMITTEE APCC

Centre

- | | |
|--|------------------|
| 1. Minister for Finance, Commerce, and coordination,
Government of Pakistan, Islamabad. | <i>Chairman.</i> |
| 2. Minister for Planning & Development. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 3. Governor State Bank of Pakistan, Islamabad. | <i>Member</i> |
| 4. Federal Secretaries (Concerned Ministries). | <i>Member.</i> |
| 5. Chairman of autonomous bodies/Railways P.I.D.C.
WAPDA and P.A.E.C. | <i>Member.</i> |

Provinces

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| 1. Chairman / Addl. Chief Secretaries (Dev.) | <i>Member.</i> |
| 2. Secretaries, Finance Departments | <i>Member.</i> |

CHARTER

1. To review the economy in relation to previous year's targets (both in respect of macro-economic framework and major sectoral targets) in consultation with the Federal and Provincial Governments representatives as well as the Governor. State Bank of Pakistan.
2. To examine in-depth with a view to coordinate the:-
 - (a) macro-economic framework for the next year's Annual Plan prepared by Planning Commission; and
 - (b) Size, sectoral composition and priorities as well as Federal and Provincial allocations envisaged in the Public Sector Development Programme in relation to the resource availability both internal and processed formulated by the Planning Commission and processed by Inter Ministerial Priorities Committee; and
 - (c) Make recommendations about next Year's Annual Plan and the Public Sector Development Programme to the National Economic Council for approval.

Note. – The above functions have been defined on the basis of actual functioning of the APPCC.

NATIONAL ECONOMIC COUNCIL COMPOSITION

Centre

- | | | |
|-----|---|-------------------------|
| 1. | The Prime Minister of Pakistan. | <i>Chairman.</i> |
| 2. | Minister for Finance and Economic Affairs | <i>Member.</i> |
| 3. | Minister for Commerce. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 4. | Minister for Communications. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 5. | Minister for Education. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 6. | Minister for Food, Agriculture and Cooperatives. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 7. | Minister for Health & Social Welfare. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 8. | Minister for Housing & Works. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 9. | Minster for Industries. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 10. | Minister for Information & Broadcasting | <i>Member.</i> |
| 11. | Minister for Labour, Manpower and Overseas Pakistan. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 12. | Minister for Local Government and Rural Development. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 13. | Minister for Petroleum & Natural Resources. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 14. | Minister for Production and National Logistics Board. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 15. | Minister for Kashmir Affair and Northern Affairs. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 16. | Minister for Water and Power. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 17. | Minister for Railways | <i>Member.</i> |
| 18. | Minister for Planning & Development, and Deputy
Chairman, Planning Commission. | <i>Member.</i> |

Provinces

- | | | |
|----|--|-----------------------|
| 1. | Governments and Martial Law Administrators. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 2. | Provincial Finance Ministers | <i>Member.</i> |
| 3. | Chairman, Planning & Development Boards/ Addl. Chief ,
Secretaries (Dev.) of the Provinces. | <i>Member.</i> |

CHARTER

The functions of Council will be :-

- 1. To review the overall economic position of Pakistan.**
- 2. To formulate plans with respect to financial, Commercial and economic policies and the economic development of Pakistan.**
- 3. To approve:**
 - (i) The Five-Year Plan.**
 - (ii) The Annual Development Programme.**
 - (iii) The provincial development schemes in the public sector costing above 20 million (non-recurring).**
 - (iv) The central development schemes in the public sector costing more than Rs. 5 million (non-recurring).**
 - (v) All non-plan schemes.**
 - (vi) Schemes in the private sector.**

**EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL
ECONOMIC COUNCIL (ECNEC)**

Centre

- | | | |
|-----|--|-------------------------|
| 1. | Minister of Finance and Economic Affairs | <i>Chairman.</i> |
| 2. | Minister for Commerce | <i>Member.</i> |
| 3. | Minister for Communications | <i>Member.</i> |
| 4. | Minister for Education | <i>Member.</i> |
| 5. | Minister for Food & Agriculture and Cooperatives | <i>Member.</i> |
| 6. | Minister for Housing & Works | <i>Member.</i> |
| 7. | Minister for Industries | <i>Member.</i> |
| 8. | Minister for Information | <i>Member.</i> |
| 9. | Minister for Petroleum and Natural Resources | <i>Member.</i> |
| 10. | Minister for Minister for Production and National Logistic Board | <i>Member.</i> |
| 11. | Minister for Water & Power | <i>Member.</i> |
| 12. | Minister for Science & Technology | <i>Member.</i> |
| 13. | Minister for Planning and Development and Deputy Chairman, Planning Commission | <i>Member.</i> |
| 14. | Secretary General Defence | <i>Member.</i> |

Province

- | | | |
|----|---|-----------------------|
| 1. | Provincial Ministers for Planning | <i>Member.</i> |
| 2. | Provincial Ministers for Finance | <i>Member.</i> |
| 3. | Chief Secretaries to the Provincial Governments. | <i>Member.</i> |
| 4. | Chairman, Planning & Development Boards / Addl. Chief Secretaries (Dev.) of the Provinces | <i>Member.</i> |

CHARTER

The functions of committee shall be :-

- 1. To sanction all development schemes costing above Rs. 20,000 million (non-recurring) pending their submission to the National Economic Council.**
- 2. To allow moderate changes in the plan and sectoral re-adjustments within the over-all plan allocation.**
- 3. To supervise the implementation of the economic policies laid down by the Cabinet and the National Economic Council.**
- 4. To ensure that disparities between the provinces, and between different areas within a province, in relation to income *per capita* are removed and that the resources of Pakistan including resources in (foreign exchange) are used and allocated in such manner as to remove that disparity in the shortest possible time.**
- 5. To appoint such committees or bodies of experts as may be necessary to assist the Council in the performance of its functions.**
- 6. To submit every year to the National Assembly under Articles 145(8) of the Constitution a report on the results obtained and the progress made in the achievement of the object referred to at item 4 above. A copy of the report shall also be laid before each Provincial Assembly.**
- 7. The meeting of the council shall be convened by the Cabinet Secretary. Memoranda for the meetings shall be prepared by the Planning Commission or the Divisions concerned in consultation with the Planning Commission.**

UNIT No. 5

**REVIEW OF EDUCATION PROJECTS
IN PAKISTAN**

**Edited by
Syed Manzoor Hussain Shah**

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OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit the students should be able to:

1. Describe how different components contribute to the overall achievements of the project.
2. Highlight differences and similarities of the projects included in this unit.
3. Determine if the outputs of the projects were in accordance with the objectives of the projects.
4. Analyze the projects in respect of their effectiveness and cost effective
5. Understand the role of projects in education.

REVIEW OF IN-SERVICE TEACHERS TRAINING PROJECT

1. TEACHER EDUCATION

The system of training teachers is fundamental in the development of education in any country. Teacher training programs are indispensable element in perpetuating innovation and reform. As far as the history of teacher education is concerned, it has gained more and more prominence. Since the end of the world war-II teachers in schools seek opportunities continuously to improve their knowledge and competence by attending in-service course. There is constant effort to find new ways of improving instruction.

With the advancement in science and technology, change has occurred in every phase of life. Teacher education has also experienced new trends with the resultant change in the methods of training. The teachers have to acquire new role by using modern means of communication so that the teaching learning process becomes effective.

Teacher is the focal point in the system of education. Any change or innovation in the field of education depends upon change in the teacher. For this purpose, need of in service teacher training increases. An experienced teacher may also need to have additional in-service training specially when some change comes in his/her classes.

2. IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINING

In order to have qualitative improvement in pupil leaning and achievement, instructional methods and materials, teacher preparation and performance, there is a need for having a system of regular in-service training programme. The pre-service courses, no doubt, have their impact and influence on the performance of teacher, but the periodic orientation through in-service programmes is also considered essential in preparing teachers for the expected role. Education and training are not confined to certain proper qualification rather it is a life long process in which a person continuously acquires new capabilities which may take the form of knowledge, skills, attitude and values or combination of these capabilities.

As a result of massive exercise of curriculum reforms during 1970's the concept of in-service training of teachers emerged as a reality. It was felt that the entire force of working teachers needed short-term training for being able to teach the new concepts introduced in curriculum. The federal and provincial government designed different strategies, developed curricula and set on the training to all teachers in schools.

There are very usual, established methodologies, which are employed for imparting in-service training. The curriculum for the training is arbitrarily designed. The trainers are selected and programme is chalked out and

implemented. In this entire exercise, the difficulties and problems of teachers are not measured and after the termination of training steps are not taken to gauge the effectiveness of training in actual classroom teaching.

In-service training of teachers at all levels has evolved an unalterable tradition of its own. The evidence that is available suggests that in its present form, the training is actually not paying the expected dividends for the teaching learning process. It is the type of practice, which satisfies the planners, when it becomes a part of any developmental activity, irrespective of its utility. Teachers are generally supposed to get in-service training every five years. but in practice, many never get it and some get more than one chance of training during a five-year term.

In our education system, one year pre-service training after ten years of schooling is required for a primary school teacher. But this one -year training is not sufficient. In order to make up this deficiency, in service training for primary school teachers is necessary. This has been provided (a) through Education Extension Centers of each province, (b) through the Government college of Elementary education (c) through some non-government organizations (NGOs) and also, (d) through Allama Iqbal open university, Islamabad. Realizing the importance of in service training of Primary Teachers in Pakistan, the Ministry of Education (1979) again recommended that every teacher should under-go at least a four-week training course after every five years.

There have been weaknesses in the areas of the teacher training. The curriculum area has also subject to so many shortcomings and similar is the case with the content and method parts of in-service teacher training programmes. Besides these weaknesses, one of the bottlenecks has been the main emphasis on pre-service training of teachers and less or no attention towards the in-service teacher training. The situation in some of the provinces was that even the trained teachers were not available for the school and the untrained teachers had to be employed. Under the circumstances Distance Education System came for the rescue and it introduced in service training for the primary school teacher in Pakistan.

3. PRIMARY TEACHERS REORIENTATION COURSE (PTOC)

The in-service training programme for training school teachers under the title of PTOC started in 1976 with the aim of updating the knowledge and skills of primary school teachers in accordance with the new and modernized primary school curriculum which was introduced in the country in 1974. At that time there were about 1,55,000 primary school teachers who were to be familiarized with the new curricular contents and teaching methods. The Allama Iqbal open university was entrusted to offer a course for reorientation of these teachers because the institutional facilities for in service training of teachers in the country were quite inadequate.

Allama Iqbal Open University started old PTOC programme in 1975 and it continued upto 1986. It was a full semester programme i.e of 18 weeks duration. The study material consisted of 18 study units of 30 to 40 pages each on average i.e 500 to 600 pages of study material. Supported with its tutorial system, it provided at least, eight to nine contact sessions for the students with their tutor. The requisite for entry to this course was matriculation (i.e 10 years of schooling) and experience as working untrained teachers in a primary school with nomination from the provincial government departments of education.

It was through old PTOC that AIOU registered 83,658 primary school teachers (54,733 males and 28,925 females) during the year 1976 to 1986. As the nominees to this course were untrained teachers in government schools and old PTOC along with one of additional course of PTOC was helpful in preparing them as trained teachers and getting them regularized in their school, the nominees used to be quite motivated and they were even ready to pay the fee for the course which covered almost all the recurring expenditures and the cost on the part of the University used to be almost zero. There were four assignments for the students on PTOC(old) and the students had to go through a formal examination at the end. The AIOU managed to provide a long in-service training to 83,658 teachers upto 1986 and thus approximately 20 percent of the then primary school teachers in Pakistan were the graduates of AIOU with financial burden neither on the university nor on the Government of Pakistan.

However this OLD PTOC like other pre – service and in service training courses of the country was characterized by:

- a heavy theory oriented curriculum for primary school teachers; and
- an academic bias in the training

Hence it was observed that it had a limited impact on the overall primary education structure in Pakistan. A need was felt to launch such a course with necessary practical component so that primary education in the country could be further improved. After necessary process the PTOC was planned to be offered through joint collaboration of AIOU and Royal Norwegian Government.

4. CASE STUDY-1

1. New Primary Teachers Orientation Project (N- PTOC)

Allama Iqbal open University ventured to play a fresh role in this important filed of education by introducing a new primary teachers orientation course with the assistance of Norwegian Agency for Development (NORAD) emphasizing on practical component through workshops, micro-teaching and intensive tutorial. The new PTOC Programming was Planned for the Period 1991-92 to 1998-99. The capital cost of the project was 97,346 million. For this purpose the Allama Iqbal open university, Islamabad initiated its implementation in 1992.

The main objective of the project was to enhance the quality of working primary school teachers with respect to selected training competencies supported with media i.e. TV, Radio, Video or Micro teaching and thus to improve their teaching skills. Through this project those in-service primary teachers were to be nominated and trained who had no previous orientation in the new methodologies and teaching skills.

This project was unique in nature as it directly related with the objectives of primary education curriculum, which was an integral part of the teachers training at the primary level. It emphasized both the content and the methodology of primary level programme, which was deemed to essential for the qualitative improvement or primary education in Pakistan. The main objectives of New PTOC were as under.

4.1. Objectives of N-PTOC

1. Up-dating 50000 primary teachers to the current strategies and methodology and relate them to cognitive development with special emphasis-on reading, guidance and counseling.
2. Integrating the teaching techniques with the current curriculum and textbook.
3. Enriching the New PTOC by adding a practical component of two workshops, one in the middle of semester and another at the end.
4. Enriching the New PTOC course work with media support, TV, Radio and Video.
5. Monitoring the tutoring and supervision aspects of the course.

The N-PTOC Project aimed at providing an intensive in-service trained teachers of primary schools, having at least three years of practical experience of teaching in the primary schools after their ten years of schooling and one year of pre-service teacher-training at their credit. The project aimed at adopting innovative approaches to make up the deficiency on the basis of the experience in the other pre-service and in-service teacher training programs. The main emphasis of the N-PTOC project was on improving practical skills of the teachers with the use of video recording system and enhancing selected teaching competencies of teachers with the use of micro-teaching techniques.

AIOU managed to avail the collective wisdom of teacher training experts of Pakistan and managed to bring in its N-PTOC programme with various features related to practical skills and teaching practice. Moreover this programme was not limited to one city or one stratum of primary school teachers but it aimed at providing skill oriented in-service teacher training to trained and working primary school teacher at large. The Project aimed at retraining of 50,000/ Primary School Teachers who were approximately ten Percent of the

Primary school Teachers at that time including females, males, rural, urban, senior and junior teachers from all the four provinces of Pakistan, AJK, FANA and FATA.

Main and innovative features of N-PTOC are discussed in coming pages under the following headings:

4.2. INPUTS

4.2.1. Print Media/Study Material

Block No. 1 expository block (3 units)

1. Primary Education: Trends and issues
2. Primary School Management
3. School and community

Block No. 2 Pedagogy Block (3 units)

1. Learning process
2. Lesson planning. A.V aids and teaching kit

Block No. 3 Teaching of science (3 units)

1. Plants and animals
2. Matter and energy
3. Earth and universe

Block No.4 Teaching of Mathematics (2 units)

1. Teaching of Mathematics I (Number)
2. Teaching of Mathematics II (Geometry)

Block No.5 Language/Humanities Block (5 units)

1. Principles of Language learning
2. Teaching of reading
3. Teaching of writing
4. Teaching of Social Studies
5. Teaching of Islamiyat

Alternate language block on teaching of sindhi for rural sindh (2 units in sindhi + 1 unit in Urdu)

Block No. 6 Teaching of Physical Education & Arts and Crafts

1. Teaching of Physical Education
2. Teaching of Art and Craft

All the study material was developed in consultation with the local and foreign consultants. The study material has been revised in three cycles involving trained pre-testers/evaluators in the revision process. The final revision took place in 1995. The study material was supplied to the trainees in the shape of study

units/learning modules, each unit having 40 printed pages on the average. The study material was well designed and illustrated and post-tested with the assistance of trained teams of pre-testers and improved with the consultancies of the best available experts in the field of primary and distance education and on the basis of the feedback from students and tutors. The study material had self assessment questions (SAQs) exercises and self-learning activities within the text. The study material was developed according to the basic requirements of open learning system and was interlinked with radio and TV programs.

4.2.2 Electronic Media (TV & Radio)

Use of electronic media was the most innovative feature and main innovation in the project. Supported with two TV. Programs, five radio programs and one audio cassette, this in-service programme of 18 weeks duration was distinct from other in-service teacher training programs in Pakistan.

i. 2 TV Programs

Length of the prorates

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------|
| 1. Role of primary teacher | 30 minutes |
| 2. Single school teacher | 30 minutes |

ii. 5 radio programs (15 minutes each)

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Counseling | 2. Testing |
| 3. Story telling | 4. Teaching of Islamiyat |
| 5. Teaching of Geography | |

iii. Audio Cassette i. Teaching of Urdu ii) Teaching of English

Schedule for the broadcast of TV and radio programs was sent to the students/trainees alongwith the study material and the students managed to avail this facility. Audio cassettes were also sent to them with the study material. These radio and TV programs had also been pre-tested and revised on the basis of the feedback from the students, tutors and senior tutors. Inter linked with the print media, the radio and TV programs had beautiful mix of print and electronic media and extremely beneficial input in the teacher training.

4.2.3. Tutors and Senior Tutors

For a group of 20 to 30 trainees, a tutor used to be appointed for their guidance. There were regular fortnightly tutorials and attendance to these tutorial was compulsory for the students. Tutors listened to the academic problems of the students and conducted discussions in such a way that the students had an understanding of the main concepts. The tutorials were not lecture sessions but discussion sessions for the comprehension of the main problems felt by the students during the study of their learning units. The discussion was held with the involvement of the students. Some tutorials took the shape of seminars. In some courses there were workshops at the end of the course and the students used to

make their presentations, followed by discussions. For the supervision and guidance of tutors. Senior tutors were appointed at the ratio of 10:1 (i.e. for ten tutors, one senior tutor). The Project visualized the training of 2500 tutors and 250 senior tutors. The selection of tutors and senior tutors was highly on merit. Continuous supervision and guidance with the network of properly trained tutors and senior tutors was one of the main feature and special input of the project. Senior tutors were trained at Islamabad during five days workshops and tutors were trained in the workshops conducted at the Regional Offices of the AIOU.

4.2.4. Development of Teaching Competencies, Through Micro Teaching

This was an innovative feature of N-PTOC programme. Eight teaching competencies i.e. (induction of lesson, presentation, effective questioning, listening, participation, recapitulation, teacher liveliness and closing of the lesson) were developed through micro teaching which used to become the most lively activity in the programme. Micro teaching with the use of camera developed great interest in the trainees. They presented the lesson, got themselves video recorded, viewed their own performance on the TV screen, identified their weaknesses, improved their performance, re-taught the same lessons, recorded, reviewed and noted their own improvement in their teaching practice and skills.

4.2.5. Provision of incentives

The project had a novelty of giving certain incentive as inputs. Travelling allowance was one such incentives. This worked as a monetary incentive. Besides, certificates medals and scholarships were given to those who complete this programme with distinction. Scholarship of Rs. 200/- per month (maximum Rs.2400) was given for a period of one year to those who stood first second and third in the province. In case the trainees did not go for higher education, they could avail this scholarship for their sons and daughters. Gold medals were given to the first position holders in Pakistan every year and silver medals were given to those who stand first in four provinces and AJK. The graduate were given a weightage of one credit at intermediate level, in case the PTOC graduates intended to complete their intermediate from the AIOU.

4.2.6. Regional Centers and study centers

Allama Iqbal Open University had a network of 33 regional offices 16 coordination offices and more than five hundreds study centers through out the country in order to facilitate the students in the programme. This was a special input in this teacher training programme and special innovation of distance education system. The students got the advice and educational facilities through these centers. The tutorials were mostly held in these centers.

4.3 PROCESS

The process have the following innovative features:

- a. Workshops
- b. Tutorials
- c. Assignments and continuous assessment system
- d. Examination system
- e. Monitoring system
- f. Feedback system
- g. Enrolments
- h. Evaluation

4.3.1. Workshops

In order to develop skills, the trainees were made to attend two in-depth workshops, one of three days in the middle of the semester for the preparation of instructional material and for lesson planning, whereas the second workshop of six days was held at the end of the semester for the practical demonstration of the teaching skills and class room management, providing practical and specially selected competencies.

4.3.2. Tutorials

Besides two workshops of full nine days, four nightly compulsory tutorials provided eight to nine opportunities for face to face contacts of the trainees and tutors and the activities in these tutorials were all students centered. The students come ready with their programs and the tutors were available to them for their assistance in their studies. Attendance in the tutorials used to be compulsory for the PTOC students whereas for the students in other programs of AIOU the attendance was not compulsory. This was a special feature in the PTOC programme managed for the effective training of the trainees.

4.3.3. Assignments and continuous assessment system

Continuous assessment of the students performance was a special feature of this programme. The students were desired to complete their four assignments during the period of 18 months with the result that they had to submit one assignment at the end of each month. These assignments were sent to the tutors on scheduled dates and tutors sent back the assignments to the students after proper marking. The students get the feedback from the tutors remarks and from the guidance provided by the tutors for improving the next assignments. These assignments carried a weight age of 30 percent in the overall result and kept the students alert with their study.

4.3.4. Examination system

Unlike other in-service training an examination was conducted at the end of the semester in the traditional examination hall atmosphere. Those who did not pass the last examination were declared fail. However, the students get re-appear

and again re-appear (two) chances for passing the examination. Those who passed the PTOC examination might claim one credit for their intermediate if they decide to continue their intermediate programme with the University.

4.3.5. Monitoring system

Continuous monitoring system was also a special feature of the PTOC Project. There were trained senior tutors who provided guidance to the tutors in their routine work but they also monitored the work of the tutors. Similarly the university had built a continuous system of monitoring the activities of the tutors in their tutorials through its network of regional offices. The work of tutors in the workshop was also monitored through special team of experts deputed by project authorities. Examination activity was also specially supervised by the teams deputed by the controller of examination of AIU.

4.3.6. Feedback system

The project had developed a special feedback system for the improvement of

- i. The courses and allied material.
- ii. Tutorials guides and
- iii. Radio and TV Programme.

The feedback was received from the students, tutors and senior tutors through specially trained post-testing teams designed to improve the quality of teaching training. The quality was also controlled with the feedback system and having a cautious look on different aspects of the project and making relevant research students.

4.3.7. Enrolment

The N-PTOC enrolled the following number of the students, during its different cycles.

Cycle No.	Year	Enrolment
Pilot	1992	00454
Phase I	1993	04315
Phase II	1994	07326
Phase III	1995	08409
Phase IV	1996	09755
Phase V	1997	12508
Phase VI	1998	08261
Total		51119

4.4. PRODUCT OF THE PROJECT (IMPACT)

Product of an educational project shows its impact on the education system of a country. The main indicators of the educational producer to outputs are as under:-

quantitative achievement

- efficiency
- effectiveness with respect to quality and education and
- cost effectiveness

4.4.1 Quantitative Achievements

As already mentioned, quantitative target of the project was the provision of an in-service training of 18 weeks duration to 51000 primary school teacher.

The following table shows the details of these enrollments.

Table: Showing gender wise break-up of PTOC enrolments

<u>Year</u>	<u>Male &</u>	<u>Female &</u>	<u>Total & %</u>
1992	267 (49.04)	278 (50.96)	545 (100)
1993	2558 (59.28)	1757 (40.72)	4315 (100)
1994	4393 (59.96)	2933 (40.04)	7326 (100)
1995	5264 (62.60)	3145 (37.40)	8409 (100)
1996	6349 (65.08)	3406 (34.92)	9755 (100)
1997	7903 (63.18)	4605 (36.82)	12508 (100)
1998	5600 (67.79)	2661 (32.31)	8261 (100)
Total:	32334 (63.25)	18785 (36.74)	51119 (100)

Table: Showing province wise break-up of the PTOC enrolments

	<u>1992</u>	<u>1993</u>	<u>1994</u>	<u>1995</u>	<u>1996</u>	<u>1997</u>	<u>1998</u>	<u>G.Total</u>	<u>%</u>
Punjab	545	1698	3497	4485	4354	4614	2995	22188	34.40
NWFP	-	596	1208	988	1801	3763	1939	10295	20.14
Sindh	-	1450	1627	1697	2363	3208	2608	12953	25.35
Baluchistan	-	198	269	374	625	311	376	2153	4.21
A.J.K.	-	181	455	424	394	479	245	2178	4.26
Fed.Ar-ea	-	33	12	53	01	78	69	273	0.53
Northe-Rn	-	159	258	388	217	55	02	1079	2.11
Areas									
Total	545	4315	7326	8409	9755	12508	8261	51119	100%

It is clear from the data presented in these tables that 37% of the overall enrolments were females whereas 63% were male teachers in this PTOC programme. As regards enrolments in the provinces, the percentages of enrolments in Punjab, Sindh, NWFP and Baluchistan were 43.40% 25.35% 20.14% and 4.21% respectively and their shares were approximately in line with the national policy of quota system 50 percent, i.e. 19 percent 11.5 percent 3.5 percent). The remaining part being on merit (10% for AJK federal and northern areas and minorities). The enrolments in the smaller provinces were a bit more than their national shares for the purpose of providing more facilities to the smaller provinces.

4.4.2. Efficiency

Efficiency of the process can be determined by having a look at the flow of the students in the project. The following table shows the flow of the students enrolled during the years 1993-98.

Table: showing the flow of enrollment:

Year	Enrolment	Completers	Percentage
1993	4315	<u>2736</u>	<u>63.4</u>
1994	7326	<u>4455</u>	<u>6.08</u>
1995	8409	<u>6021</u>	<u>71.60</u>
1996	9755	<u>6200</u>	<u>63.58</u>
1997	12508	<u>10300</u>	<u>82.34</u>
1998	8261	<u>7231</u>	<u>87.53</u>
Total	51119	<u>37443</u>	<u>70%</u>

The table shows that on average 70 percent of the students completed this in-service training programme in all respect except final examination. Although the table showed a wastage of 30 percentage, but in a long duration in-service teacher training of this type 70 percent completion rate was very much on high side. Moreover out of the 30% non-completes, all did not dropout because, some of them completed the programme in the coming semester. At the same time, an effort was also made to increase the retention rate during the year 1995 onwards by providing certain incentives like preferential treatment for the PTOC graduates in the admission to the CT and B. Ed programs of AIOU and by giving popularity to the PTOC programme through annual convocation.

4.4.3. Effectiveness

The programme aimed at reaching primary school students i.e. student of classless I to V through the training of primary school teachers. The main objective was to improve the quality of students learning through this

programme. There have been so many questions on the effectiveness of this in-service programme. For this purpose, a number of research studies were designed to evaluate the effectiveness of this N-PTOC programme and to evaluate the development of these teaching skills in the graduates of N-PTOC. These studies have shown positive results. The students of M.Ed, M. Phil and Ph.D programmes in education conducted some research studies. It was felt that the research project should itself plan to conduct one such research study. Hence Dr. M. A. Bukhari Project Director and S. Manzoor Hussain Shah coordinator of the Project undertook the research study. Objectives of the project evaluation were as following:

1. To pick up the PTOC graduates and Non-PTOC graduates working in the primary schools of different regions of Pakistan.
2. To make observations of classroom teaching of PTOC and Non-PTOC teachers with respect to the teaching skills.
3. To investigate as to who are more effective teacher with respect to these teaching skills, PTOC graduates or Non-PTOC teachers.
4. To find out the effectiveness of the PTOC programme.
5. Make recommendations for the future in service programme of primary school teachers in Pakistan.

For the purpose of observing the performance of primary teachers trained through this project, about 11 main regions of Pakistan were visited by the researchers. The performance of about 578 trained teachers with those about 571 untrained teachers was observed through field visits in main eleven regions of Pakistan. The data was tabulated and effectiveness of the project was noticed in the conclusion of the study.

The findings of the evaluation study revealed that the class room performance of the trained teachers was much better and effective in comparison with untrained teachers. The project was quite able to improve the teaching skills of teachers of most of the area. Thus the N-PTOC project of AIOU has been extremely effective in the development of desired teaching skills in its graduates in all the regions.

4.4.4 Cost Effectiveness

Originally the total cost of this project was 57 million rupees with a target of providing in-service training to 42000 teachers. Thus on the average, per student cost comes to Rs. 1500/-. In the second phase the cost was Rs. 40 million with an addition of 8000 enrolment upto December, 1999. Thus the total cost of the project was Rs. 97 million with an enrolment of 50,000 with the resultant cost per student being Rs. 2000/-. Keeping in view the 18 weeks duration of the programme and extremely useful inputs of the project, this per pupil cost was very low and effective as compared to in-service teacher training programs conducted by the formal institutions. A one week (six days) in-service teacher training programme conducted by provincially administered in-service

institutions costs between Rs. 2000 to Rs. 3000 per pupil whereas the per pupil cost of the A.D.B. sponsored and federally administered one week (six days) in-service teacher training programme rises upto Rs. 6000. On the other hand the per pupil cost of the New PTOC programme for the period of 18 weeks is less than Rs. 2000. Thus the PTOC programme was clearly cost effective.

2. Cast Study-ii Population Education

Population education is an educational response to various aspects of demographic social, cultural, economic and environmental problems. It helps learners to understand interrelationships between population dynamics, environment and sustainable development with the purpose of promoting rational attitudes and behaviour for improving the quality of life at the family, community and national level. Population education is an interdisciplinary programme. It is a life long process of learning, training and action.

Population education is basically an educational process whereby individuals learn the causes and consequences of population phenomenon for themselves, communities and environment. Through population education, it is possible to provide basic information and create awareness of possible and effective means by which the society as a whole and individuals in particular can respond to population implications and eventually make rational decisions in order to enhance the quality of life.

It is the education to make people aware of the processes and consequences of population change on the quality of life and the micro and macro levels so that they may be in a position to make rational alternative choices in conformity with the developmental goals. Population education was identified as an educational program, which provides for the study of the population situation in the family, country, nation and the world with the purpose of developing in the students a rational and responsible attitude and behavior towards that situation.

3. Population Education in Pakistan

The Government of Pakistan has recognized the importance of Population Education in motivations and persuasions of the people in the acceptance of small family norm by initiating population education activities in the middle of 1970's. With financial support from Population Welfare Division, (PWD) population education messages had been systematically and specifically developed and integrated in the formal population education programme in the Curriculum Wing, through Population Education Cell.

Population Education is considered as main complimentary effort in the overall Population Welfare Programme. It is expected to contribute towards the realization of the country's population goals by creating awareness, develop critical thinking and responsible attitude among the student, youth and adult learners. Decision making abilities towards population problems faced by

Pakistan is considered to be the ultimate goal of population education, which will contribute to the achievement of population's policy set by the Government.

Population Education Programme in the formal education was introduced in the year 1983. Main focus of the project was on the revision and development of curriculum and materials for the secondary schools. Training was also conducted for about 10,000 teachers. The second phase (1986-88) and the third phase (1993-98) focused on the extension of the first phase. The following detail is given of three phases programme.

3.1 Phase-I (1983-86)

1. The curricula for classes VI-X was revised and a comprehensive report of interventions relating to population education was developed.
2. In close collaboration with the textbook boards of the provinces, the textbook for classes VI-X in the subject of languages, Social Studies, Pakistan Studies, General Science and Home Economics were got included.
3. About thousand teachers of middle and secondary school of all the provinces were trained through three days workshops. For this purpose, the Master Trainers were oriented properly and brochure entitled "Guide Lines for Master Trainers for the organization of workshops" was developed printed and distributed.
4. The Teachers Guide on population education for middle and secondary school teachers was got developed, printed and distributed to ten thousand teachers to whom training in population education was imparted.
5. A set of 20 charts was developed, printed and distributed to ten thousand middle and secondary schools. The purpose of this exercise was to enable the teachers to communicate population education concepts in classrooms situation.
6. Allama Iqbal Open Universities also trained about six thousand primary school teachers till April, 1988 through correspondence courses.
7. Allama Iqbal Open University also developed training materials for distribution to teachers as provided in the project.

3.2 Phase – II (1986-88)

3.2.1 Revision of PTC/CT and B. Ed curricula and Development of Learning Materials.

Under the provisions for the extended projects on population education through formal schools system for 1986-88, the first and the foremost activity was to revise the pre-service teacher training curricula. For this purpose, seminar was organized during November 1987 in which thirty

experts participated to propose interventions relating population implications to be incorporated in the PTC/CT and B. Ed Curricula. The outcome of the seminar was the manuscript of revised curricula. The learning materials was in the line with the revised PTC/CT and B.Ed curricula where also developed so as to enable the author to update the text books.

3.2.2. The PTC/CT curricula could not be got implemented as the authorities conceived that rudiments of environmental education, drug education and traffic education may also be included in the PTC/CT curricula for which a long exercise needs to be undertaken by the respective agencies. However, the task had been finalized in consultation with the respective agencies. The B.Ed curricula was submitted to University Grant Commission for approval and implementation.

3.2.3. Development of learning modules and translation of UNESCO publications; A set of twelve learning modules was developed and distributed. This served as a useful supplementary reading materials for the resource person and teachers so as to promote individualized learning. The set of learning modules was distributed to the Bureau of curriculum Development, Education Extension Centers and to individuals who were engaged to undertake training programs and also participate in different programs relating to population education. The materials substantially enriched their communicative performance. Selective UNESCO publications also were translated and disseminated to keep the experts abreast with the global situation of population growth, its implications, approaches and methodologies. A brochure of demography published by the UNESCO Regional Offices, Bangkok was also translated and duplicated by the teachers. Different curriculum/educational experts from all over the country developed self learning modules before the execution of the project.

3.2.4 Training of Middle & Secondary School Teachers in Population Education.

The training of middle and secondary school teachers had been an important feature of this programme. Twelve workshops were organized in the provinces. About five hundred fifty middle and secondary school teachers were trained during May-September, 1998. New inputs in terms of supply of teachers' guide, supplementary learning materials were provided to the schools to promote population education.

3.2.5 Training of administrative personnel

To acquaint the administrative personnel of provinces, four national orientation programs for the district education officer and heads secondary school were organized. About 120 participates were oriented.

They were helpful for seeking consensus for implementation of this programme.

3.2.6 Essay competition on population education

In collaboration with the UNFPA and the population welfare division, an essay competition amongst secondary children classes (IV – X) was organized to assess achievements level of population education concepts available in the textbooks. The activity was finalized by February 1989.

3.3 Phase – III (1988 – 93)

The population education programme has been extended with appropriate converge in the 7th Five Year Plan. The component has been accorded continuous status both by population welfare division and the Ministry of Education for the tenure of 7th Five Year Plan. The objectives of the project were almost the same as that of the previous projects. However the activities to be undertaken were expanded with the view to cover a greater number of recipients and areas. The list of activities is as follows:

1. Development of separate teachers guide for middle school teachers and revision of supplementary reading materials for secondary teachers.
2. Development of Audio Visual Aids and teaching kits on population education for teachers of classes VI-X.
3. Development of 10 learning modules, 6 synchronized set of slides and six activity oriented teaching aids including video lessons.
4. Training of 100 Master Trainers.
5. Training of 3,000 middle and secondary school teachers.
6. Orientation of key personnel in population education.
7. Procurement and supply of population education publications to provincial bureau of curriculum development.

However many of these activities could not be implemented, due to funding constraints faced by the Government. The Ministry of Education conducted an evaluation of this phase. This included sections on attitudes of teachers and students to population issues. The Government of Pakistan considered population growth rate as one of the serious problems in the country. The National education Policy 1998-2010 clearly indicated the commitment of the GOP to include the latest emerging trends in Education. Political commitment for population education in the public school system was strongly endorsed in August, 1991, when the Prime Minister issued a directive for the intensification of population activities in the country through a coordinated multiple approach.

3.4 Objectives of Population Education

3.4.1 Objectives of Population Education at Primary Level

- To develop awareness among students about different demographic concepts including human population, population size and population growth etc.
- To develop appreciation among students about the population as an important factor effecting personal, family, community, and national development.

The family and social life

- To develop awareness among students about family as a basic social institution, its composition, types, and functions of different members with special reference to family size and welfare.

Gender role and responsibilities

- To develop understanding among students about gender roles and responsibilities, socio-cultural values, and beliefs related to marriage family life and to correct misconceptions about discriminating limited role of girls in the society.

Environment and Eco-system

- To develop basic understanding among students about the relationships between population and environment.

Health and nutrition

- To develop awareness among students about the relationships between population size and quality of life aspects, specially health, food and, nutrition, housing, education, employment, etc.

3.4.2 Objectives of Population Education at Elementary Level.

Specific Objectives

- To create an understanding of the population structure of Pakistan, its distribution and composition in terms of gender, rural-urban-literacy, age group, technical know-how and to relate the size of population with the quality of life.
- To develop an understanding of various environments and their relationship with natural resources and population in Pakistan.
- To enhance awareness about exploitation of natural resources and ecological balance.

- To create better understanding about role of different foods in daily life, nutritional requirement of specific population groups and their relationship with the quality of family life in general and the health of individuals in particular.
- To develop awareness about the family structure and the prevalent cum expected roles and responsibilities of men-women and boys girls in the family, community and society.

3.4.3 objectives of population Education at Secondary Level

Specific Objectives:

- To know about facts and figures, information regarding human resources. Population growth rate in Pakistan and its dynamics over a span of 100 year.
- To create an awareness of comparative growth in population in development countries and its implications for Pakistan.
- To enhance awareness and develop an understanding about the environment, types of population and suggest measures for supporting a sustainable environment.
- To create awareness amongst student regarding rights responsibilities and commitment of individuals and community in conserving the environment.
- To develop better understanding about different concepts such as balanced diet, mal-nourishment and under nourishment, etc.
- To create an awareness about relationship between rapid population growth, scarcity of financial resources, mal- nutrition and common disease.
- To develop a better understanding and rational attitude with respect to population and gender issue

4. Evaluation

Different studies have been carried out to see the efficiency and effectiveness of these government launched programs. Some of the findings are given below:

1. Pakistan is an Islamic state, the aims and objectives of education must be inspired by Islamic ideology. Quranic verses and Hadiths were used to draw Islamic standpoint. Analysis shows that Islam completely favors the Environmental and drug education. Whereas equal number of both Quranic verses and Hadith were in favor and against the population

education. Further more curriculum experts also considered population education as a controversial issue.

2. Specific objectives of population education were properly translated except a few where as only thirty percent objectives of drug education were translated into the school content and seventy percent were totally ignored.
3. Integrated approaches: infusion, sub unit and separate unit approaches were used to infuse the concepts of population education. Infusion approach was the leading one whereas separate unit approach was least among the integration of these concepts.
4. Number of pictures, activities and daily life examples in school content were discouraging which are very essential to create interest among students. Demographic data of population education presented in school content was out dated.
5. Concepts about population education in Islamiat were contradictory as compared to other subjects of school content.
6. The significant change in knowledge was observed amongst students whereas attitude domains did not improved except population education.
7. The significant change in knowledge of teachers was observed whereas attitude domain remains stagnant.
8. Question at the end of every unit are generally used for student evaluation. Almost negligible questions about population, environmental education and rare for drug education were present in the school content.
9. Only six percent marks were awarded to population education in the different Board from 1996 – 2000 which were least as compared to fifteen percent standard fixed by Government of Pakistan.

5. Population Education Project

In August 1991, directives of effective implementation population welfare programme was issued by prime Minister which stated:

- a. It is imperative the population growth is brought down with in manageable limits.
- b. The education sector should play effective role in population welfare programme and intensify its activities.

The directive provides sound rationale for the evolvement of object on population education programme though formal school system of intensification of population welfare programs in the country, the project entitled "population education programme through formal school system was prepared and coincided with the time frame of 8th Five year plan to be implemented from July, 1993.

The theme and concept of the project was presented and discussed thoroughly in the 2nd Inter-Ministerial Meeting held on 9th October, 1991 and was approved in principle with the direction to negotiate it with UNFPA for partial sponsorship. Who agreed to sponsor the project partially allocating a sum of US \$ 1,769,637 for the plan period.

The project in fact is an intensification of population Education programmer which was introduced during 1983. With the implementation of phased projects on population education through formal school system, the desired objectives and targets were achieved. This project aimed to introduce population concepts into the curricula, orientate curriculum developers and educational administrators and provide short training courses to a total of 20,500 school teachers in Pakistan.

Although it was a pilot project, it succeeded in triggering a change by adding new population related contents into the textbooks, transforming the opinions of senior education and sensitizing the school teachers. The feedback from the training courses in the field transpire that rigid views of even the highly educated people in the cities and conservatism of the rural teachers can be softened and molded through an effective training package, built on logic and hard facts.

Though limited in quantitative coverage, the Project has penetrated deeply into the print materials and minds of the people associated with the school system in Pakistan. The materials developed and strategies evolved under the project were the foundation for extension of population education in Pakistan on a larger scale. The directive provides sound rationale for evolvement of object on population education programmes through formal school system for intensification of population welfare programme in the country. The project entitled population education programme was prepared and coincided with the time of 8th Five year plan implemented from July, 1993.

5.1 Objectives of Population Education Project

5.1.1 Long term objectives

To have contributed to the achievement of national population goals by;

- a. Creating awareness of the negative effects of rapid population growth in the country
- b. Fostering the formation of socially responsible attitudes about the size and gender composition of families
- c. Encouraging an emphasizing on the quality of family life.
- d. Promoting the development of a culture of rational decision making in the formal education system.

- e. Institutionalizing population education as an integral part of the formal education system.

5.1.2 Immediate objectives

1. Developing and implementing population education curricula in primary, middle and secondary schools
2. Strengthening the management training capacities of the curriculum wing of the Ministry of Education and its counterparts in the provinces.
3. Training a pilot group of 20,500 school teachers all over the country.
4. Setting up population education cells and documentation units at the federal, provincial and regional levels.

The UNFPA provided 80% of the project budget whereas GOP provided 20%.

The Curriculum Wing, Minister of Education, Government of Pakistan implemented this project with the assistance of UNESCO and UNFPA. A project national advisory committee (NAC) was established to provide policy guidelines, assess progress and take steps to facilitate the effective functioning of the project. At the provincial level, population education centers (PECs) were established in the bureau of the curriculum Development (BCD) staffed to carry out curriculum development, and training of expert trainers and teachers.

The following activities were mainly focused during the implementation of the project.

1. Development of Curriculum for Primary Level.
2. Revision of Textbooks (Primary Level)
3. Development of curriculum for Middle & Secondary Levels
4. Revision of Textbooks (Middle & Secondary Levels)
5. Orientation of Textbooks Writers
6. Teacher Guidebooks (3) Primary, Middle & Secondary Levels.
7. Instruction Chats (22)
8. Self-Learning Modules (12)
9. Transparencies & Slides (50+60 = 110 x 50 sets)
10. Video-taped Lessons (2)
11. National Orientation Seminar (1)

12. Provincial Orientation Seminar (6)
13. International Study visits to Indonesia and Bangladesh
14. Translation of International Material
15. Training of Head Trainers (Primary level) (125)
16. Training of Head Trainers (Middle & Secondary Levels)
17. Training of Primary School Teachers (12,500 teachers through 250 three days sessions)
18. Training of Middle and Secondary School teachers (8000 teachers through 160 three days sessions)
19. Equipment for National PEC
20. Meetings of TPR. National Advisory Committee, etc. and monitoring visits by National Project Adviser
21. Mid-term and Final Evaluation
22. Development of Curricula and Textual Material for primary level
23. Revision of curriculum for classes VI-X (Middle and secondary levels)
24. Adaptation of POPED Curriculum and writing of textual materials for Primary levels
25. Development and production of training package

5.2 Targets

Through the implementation of the above activities the following work has been possible under this project.

5.2.1 School Textbooks

Five main message of population education were logically incorporated into the textbooks of Pakistan studies, and languages at primary, middle and secondary levels. All the provinces have successfully incorporated these messages into their textbooks of primary, middle and secondary levels. The following core areas provided the base for population education curriculum

1. Demography
2. Family and social life
3. Environment and ecological system, health and nutrition
4. Health and nutrition
5. Gender roles and responsibilities

5.2.2 Multi Media Training Package

A comprehensive teacher training package comprising of 12 self learning modules, three teachers guide books, one video-taped lesson and a set of 22 instructional charts was developed. It was effectively utilized during the training courses for Head trainers and school teachers organized in all provinces, FATA and FANA

5.2.3 Teacher Training Courses

539 lead trainers, 11480 primary school teachers and 2561 middle and secondary school teachers were provided with the training by 31st December, 1999-2000. They have shown keen interest in developing and implementing the population education curriculum and also in promoting attitudinal changes in their students, colleagues and families.

3.2.4 Provincial Orientation Seminars:

Before launching the teachers training, five Provincial Orientation Seminars were organized under this project to orientate the key officials in the education sector. A total of 100 educational administrators including 40 females attended these seminars. These trained officials have significantly facilitated the teacher training programmes in their respective regions/districts.

5.2.5 National Orientation Seminar:

National Orientation Seminar was held on 22nd October 1998. Representatives of UNFPA, UNESCO, NGOs and project officials participated in this seminar. The main objective of this seminar was to apprise the senior officials about the likely implications of rapid population growth on the overall development of the country. The results of this seminar are encouraging.

This was a type of training owned by all the employees of department alike, the trainers, the trainees, the supervisors and the advisors all will have involvement in one way or the other. All will take the activities seriously as these are parts and parcels of the main system and no escape from the programme is possible.

6. Achievements of the Project

The latest concepts and issues have been integrated into the text books of primary, middle and secondary levels. Moreover, a multi media package comprising teacher guides, self learning modules and charts have been produced and provided to teachers involved in the training course. A video taped lesson and photo slides have also been effectively utilized during the training course.

The results of the project have been encouraging in bringing attitudinal change in teachers and other participants regarding the issues of the population growth rate.

A corps of 539 Head trainers has been developed to impart training to school teachers drawn throughout the country. These lead trainers are available for the extension and replication of successful approaches in the field of population education in the country.

11,480 primary school teachers and 2561 middle and secondary school teachers were trained upto 31st December, 1999. These teachers were drawn from all provinces, FATA, FANA. 2000 teachers were provided with the training during the bridging gap project upto 30th Jun, 2000. These teachers served as key agents for reforming the entire education system of Pakistan, through which the dream of controlling population explosion can become a reality.

7. Impact of the Project

The project has impact on the general masses in the following two ways.

7.1 Cognitive Domain:

1. The project has provided the lead trainers and trainee teachers the data on population at national and international levels.
2. This has introduced theories and trends of population change
3. Under this project concepts of population has been incorporated in the curricula of languages, sciences and Pakistan studies at primary middle and secondary level.
4. It has developed a relationship among the population education resources and the quality of life
5. It has created awareness about the gender discrimination and the effective role of women in the development of Pakistan

7.2 Effective Domain

1. This project has brought attitudinal changes in every individual towards the population growth rate and its impact on overall development of the country.
2. It has changed the attitude and opinion of the people about quality of life and basic human rights
3. It has enabled the people to softened the rigidity about their role and responsibilities.

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Just in a way to recapitulate what you have read in this particular unit, see if you can answer the following questions;

1. Critically review different components of N-PTOC Project. How have these been contributing in achieving overall targets of the said projects.
2. Identify some of the gaps/problems in the implementation of the N-PTOC Project.
3. Discuss the importance of population education in Pakistan. What measures do you suggest as an educational planner to implement this project at post secondary level.
4. Differentiate between objectives of old PTOC and N-PTOC Project.
5. Critically review the objectives of population education programme with reference to their achievements in Pakistan.
6. Analyze long term and immediate objectives of population project.
7. Comments on the integration of core messages of population education at primary, middle and secondary level in Pakistan.

UNIT No. 6

**7TH FIVE YEARS PLAN AND
8TH FIVE YEARS PLAN**

**Adopted by
S. Manzoor Hussain Shah**

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OBJECTIVES

After you have studied this unit, you are expected to:

- 1. analyze the targets and the benchmarks for different level of education in the 7th five years plan**
- 2. highlight different schemes and incentives for the promotion of higher education in Pakistan.**
- 3. Compare the provision of different types of education in the 7th five years plan and eight five years plan**
- 4. Describe the scope and dimensions of the jobs of educational administrators and planners for the present and for the years to come.**

INTRODUCTION

Although the achievements of the sixth five years plan were lower than the targets, considerable progress was made in the education sector. Afterwards the seventh five years plan was introduced with provisions in different areas in education. The target set in this plan were based on current need and to overcome the past deficiency. As a whole the plan continued the targets and provisions of the sixth five years plan. Its overall performance was satisfactory. The provisions of the plan with respect to different areas of the education sector are discussed in the coming pages. The strategy of the seventh year plan was to increase the literacy rate through improvement and expansion of primary education as well as to motivate the private sector for its active role. The literacy rate was estimated to about 40 per cent by 1992-98. The plan was expected to yield a literacy rate of 90 per cent by the end of the century.

The objectives of the seventh plan in the education and training are as follows:

- (i) Broaden the resource base for education
- (ii) Universalize access to primary education
- (iii) Substantially improve technical and vocational training facilities
- (iv) Improve the quality of education at all levels and in particular of university education

In order to broaden the resource base, it was decided to re-organize the Iqra fund. The proceeds of the Iqra surcharge, which was imposed in 1985 on imports was to be credited directly to the Iqra fund. The feasibility of imposing an estate duty with exemptions to donations for educational institutions was also examined. The private sector was encouraged to set up educational and training institutions with government support. Primary education was adopted as the main instrument for achieving mass literacy. The seventh plan therefore recommended primary education facilities to all children in the age group of 5 to 9 years. The plan provided that school facilities would be given to every child within a radius of 1.5 km so that no child is deprived of basic education due to non availability of a school within a reachable distance. The plan provided almost 100 per cent of the needed infrastructure facilities. This included buildings for about 75 per cent of the shelter less schools, opening of new schools and addition of classes in existing schools. The plan recommended to make efforts to reduce disparity in the availability of school facilities for boys and girls in both rural and urban areas.

In order to improve the efficiency and supervision of school education, local bodies were allowed to raise funds to meet the growing recurring expenditure. It was recommended to place the schools under the administrative

control of the district education authorities. A management committee was proposed to consider the involvement of the local community in day-to-day management.

With the universalization of primary school facilities, secondary level education was to be expanded so as to absorb the larger output from the primary schools. To provide quality education, each district would have one model school each for boys and girls. For this purpose, selected secondary schools were to be upgraded to model schools in districts where such schools did not exist.

The seventh plan attempted to increase the share of students going to technical and vocational institutions to over 33 per cent. For this purpose, the public sector set up 42 poly and mono-technics, 4 commercial colleges and 50 vocational trained centres, 2 elementary teacher training colleges and one agriculture extension institute. The private sector was encouraged to set up technical schools and was provided some incentives, including tax exemption on donations, income from these institutions and credit facilities from the Small Business Finance Corporation (SBFC). In addition, one year on-the-job training of graduates from polytechnics and the engineering universities was made compulsory before award of diplomas and degrees in order to improve their employability.

Special efforts were recommended to improve the quality of education in the universities through a series of reforms i.e. improvement of the financial position of the universities by eliminating their deficits by raising the fees gradually from the present one per cent of recurring expenditure to 10 per cent, providing them 20-25 per cent of funds collected from the Iqra fund, encouraging endowment funds and making donations to these funds tax free without any limit. The universities were permitted to acquire industrial and agricultural assets to generate income as well as employment and training opportunities for students.

The plan allowed that the universities may negotiate foreign assistance and create private chairs. The policy package for private universities included tax-free donations to endowment funds, access to foreign assistance and support from the non-government organizations (NGOS) fund. Talented but indigent students were provided access to university education through scholarships from the zakat fund.

The administration of the universities was streamlined. Keeping in view the existing dual control by the federal and provincial government and its negative consequences, the plan recommended the university education with the concerned province.

Different measures were proposed to improve the quality of education in the universities. Admission in universities and colleges were recommended on

selective basis and on merit only. Research capabilities of the universities were to be enhanced through provision of improved physical facilities, staff development, teacher exchange programmes, linkages with foreign universities and encouragement of research. The plan recommended to make the universities as the focal point of research in science and technology. The plan provided for an institute of science and technology in the private sector.

The detailed programme of various sub-sectors is given in subsequent paragraphs.

Primary Education

The seventh plan strategy emphasized provision of at least basic primary education to every boy and girl in the country. By 1992-93 almost every child of age 5 years and above would have access to a primary or mosque school. Participation rate of girls was ensured.

PRIMARY EDUCATION BENCHMARK AND TARGETS OF THE SEVENTH PLAN

	Enrolment (in 000)		Enrolment Ratio (%)	
	Benchmark 1987-00	Target 1992-93	Benchmark 1987-878	Target 1992-93
Total	9310	13876	63.5	79.7
Boys	6123	7951	79.5	88.5
Girls	3187	5925	45.7	70.3
Total Urban	3100	4155	77.4	86.7
Boys	1800	2300	85.7	93.1
Girls	1300	1855	68.3	80.0
Total Rural	6210	9721	58.2	77.0
Boys	4323	5651	77.2	86.8
Girls	1887	4070	37.2	66.6

Note: Target and benchmark figures exclude kachi (nursery).

Secondary Education

The Seventh Plan recommended to expand the secondary education facilities to absorb the increased output from primary schools. The curriculum at secondary level was to be changed so that students leaving the system after classes VIII or X possessed some useful skills to enable them to earn a living. In classes VI, VII and VIII, students were required to opt for one skill-oriented subject such as agriculture, home economics, metal work, electricity, woodwork or furniture making, etc. this will enable a class VIII graduate to practice that skill or enroll in a vocational school for further training.

During the Seventh Plan the participation rate was estimated to increase from 30.4 per cent to 41.6 per cent at the middle stage and from 17.2 per cent to

24.1 per cent at the high stage. Overall participation rate for classes VI to X was ensured from 25.7 per cent to 35.3 per cent. It is was expected that girls' enrolment will increase more rapidly than that of boys.

The Seventh plan reoriented the educational structure as follows:

Classes 0, I, II, III,	Lower Elementary
Classes IV, V, VI, VII, VIII	Upper Elementary
Classes IX, X, XI, XII	Secondary
Classes XIII, XIV, XV	College
Classes XVI of above	University

B.A and BSc. Courses were recommended of two-year duration. For admission to MA./MSC. classes, it was essential to possess B.A. (Hons.)/ B.Sc/ (Hons) degree which would be a three-year course after grade 12. MA. and MSC courses would be of two years duration. The Seventh Plan did not recommend any new intermediate college. Instead classes XI and XII were to be added to selected high schools wherever justified. Similarly, all intermediate colleges were asked to gradually start classes IX and X as well.

Under the Seventh Plan a programme was recommended to provide at least one model or comprehensive school for boys and one for girls in each district so that quality education to talented children could be insured. Under this plan forty selected high schools were to be upgraded to model or comprehensive school level in districts where no such schools existed. Ultimately all secondary schools were to be converted into institutions of quality education through provision of better qualified teachers and physical facilities.

Technical and Vocational Education

The Seventh Plan took necessary measures to reverse present trends and increase the share of enrollment in technical and professional education. For this purpose, the public sector was allowed to set up 42 ploy and mono-techniques, 4 commercial colleges and 50 vocational training centres. Moreover, the private sector was encouraged to set up technical and vocational institutions. The share of students going to technical and vocational training programmes after passing the matriculation examination was ensured from 24 to 33 per cent of those who continue education. The Plan also recommended for the constitution of a Council of Technical Education for coordinating the activities of institutions under different set up. 150 vocational institutes with an intake capacity of about 12,500 were functioning under the administrative control of the provincial education departments during the planned period. The existed vocational institutes controlled by the education departments were to be consolidated and some new institutes (10 for men and 40 for women) were recommended to be established under the Manpower Division.

Commercial Education

Commercial Education was offered at certificate, diploma, degree and postgraduate level in 13 commerce colleges and 104 commercial training institutes in the public sector. A fairly large number of commercial training institutes existed in the private sector. Annual output of public sector, commercial sector commercial education institutions at degree and diploma level was 23,000 and 11,200 respectively. The plan recommended to consolidate the existing institutions rather than opening new institutions in the area. Four new commerce colleges were recommended to be established and 6 government commercial training institutes were proposed for up-gradation as degree colleges of commerce. The National Technical Teachers Training College (NTTC), Islamabad was recommended to be established with assistance of the Asian Development Bank (ADB) was to be commissioned during the Seventh Plan.

Teacher Education

Most teachers lacked enthusiasm, motivation, dedication and preparedness. Unattractive salary scales, limited prospects of promotion and a low social status proved a deterrent to high-caliber teachers.

The shortcomings of the teacher training programme were identified as following;

- (i) The curriculum was not relevant to actual class room situations and teachers were not trained to apply the principles to the actual teaching-learning process
- (ii) Teachers had poor academic knowledge in the subject matter they teach.
- (iii) 100 per cent internal evaluation by institutions in the award of CT and PTC both in theory and practice had lowered the standard in most cases
- (iv) The training period was inadequate for a comprehensive training course
- (v) The arrangements for in-service training and continuing education are inadequate and
- (vi) Good students were not attracted to the teaching profession due to lack of good career prospects.

The plan therefore recommended the;

- (i) gradually raising the minimum qualifications of fresh entrants
- (ii) revitalizing the teacher curricular changes and curricular changes and improved management of teacher training institution and
- (iii) providing better career prospects and continuous weeding out inefficient persons and providing performance in the form of increments/awards, etc.

Number of Additional Teachers to be Trained During The Seventh Plan

(IN OOO'S)

Level	No. of addl. teachers required in 7 th Plan	PTC	CT	B.ED	M.ED
Primary level	100	00	20	-	-
Middle level	56	-	42	14	-
Classes IX & X	25	-	-	20	5

HIGHER EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

College Education

In the existing degree colleges, majority of the students belonged to intermediate classes. If these classes were delinked with the introduction of Honours classes these colleges would have a three-years programme. There would be need for establishing any new degree colleges. Efforts were therefore proposed to channelized higher percentage of secondary school graduates towards vocational and skill-oriented education. Use of computers in various courses and evening classes in colleges would be allowed, where feasible. Some of the well-established and reputed colleges would be allowed to award degrees. Private sector was encouraged with various incentives to open quality institutions.

Universities

During the Seventh Plan, administration of universities was streamlined by transferring the responsibility of university education entirely to the provincial government. Management capabilities was given special consideration in selection of new administrators' of the universities. The university heads were provided necessary training and orientation. Some of the reforms regarding the quality education in the university included; improvement of financial position of the Universities, encouragement of the private sector to open new Universities, enhancement of the research capabilities of the universities through better provision of physical facilities, completion of ongoing programmes, provision of separate and non transferable funds, establishment of guidance and placement centre for students, improvement of the teachers, revision of curricula, quality research and imparting quality University education.

Scholarships

A number of provincial and federal scholarship schemes for encouraging talented and equalizing educational opportunities for the poor were in operation. Zakat and Usher funds were also used for awarding stipends. The existing programmes of scholarships was recommended to be continued. The number of foreign scholarships however were gradually decreased as local M.Phil/Ph.D. facilities.

Library Services

The Seventh Plan recommended adequate funds for the development of both public and institutional libraries. The public libraries system envisaged in the sixth plan was given greater priority in the seven plan. The new building of National Library of Pakistan was estimated to complete and commission during the plan period. The scheme for improvement of public libraries maintained by local bodies was recommended to be improved.

Testing and Evaluation

Too much importance was given to scores in academic examinations. As result, there was enormous corruption in the examination system. Students, teacher, parents and heads of institutions were equally responsible for this situation. The Seventh Plan provided for the establishment of Educational Testing and Measurement Services, which would develop standardized tests of intelligence, aptitude, scholastic ability, etc. these test scores would be used in conjunction with the traditional examination scores and cumulative record of the students achievements. At the same time, measures were recommended to improve the conduct of examination and evaluation of scripts.

Curriculum and Textbook Development

Curriculum and textbook development is a continuous process. The objective of the plan was to strengthen faith in Islam and the Pakistani nationhood together with an enlightened approach to life. It must inculcate self-esteem, concern and love for others. Curriculum was recommended to be related to immediate needs and environment so that education is more meaningful to students. Seventh Plan made efforts to rationalize the curricula to achieve these objectives.

Financial Allocations

On a self-financing basis, communities and NGOs were encouraged to set up primary, middle, high, college and technical institutions using Urdu or a regional language as medium of instruction. Government was asked to provide, by way of development grants, 50 per cent of the cost of building constructed or donated for opening a school. The capital grant was placed in an education fund to be used on educational facilities by the community of NGO.

The eight five year plan has been translated into some specific actions in each of the priority areas of the plan. The following is a brief description of the actions envisaged in each specific sub sector. The overall expenditure on the public sector development programme in the education sector was estimated at Rs.69.031 billion (including Rs.309.319 billion for the Social Action Programme in education). Of this Rs.7.534 billion is included in the Federal PSDP (Statistical appendix table-III-9.3). Sub sector wise break up may be seen at statistical appendix tables III-9.1 and 9.2. In addition Rs.159 billion will be required to meet the cost of recurring expenditure for the eight plan period.

The detailed programme of various sub sectors is given in subsequent paragraphs.

Primary Education

Universalization of primary education will be given the highest priority during the Eighth Plan. By the end of the Plan period, almost all boys and girls of 5.9 age group will be enrolled in primary or mosque schools. To achieve this objective, necessary infrastructure and school places will be created at reachable distance. Policy measures will be implemented to enroll and retain the children in the primary schools. Bench mark estimates and enrolment targets for the Eighth Plan at primary education level are given in Table 9.1

Table 9.1

Benchmark and Target of Enrolment at Primary Level

	Benchmark (000) 1992-93	Target (000) 1997-98	Addl. Enroll. (000)	Participation 1992-93	RATE (%) 1997-98
Total	12414	17962	5548	68.9	87.7
Boys	7792	9944	2152	84.8	95.5
Girls	4622	8018	3396	53.7	81.6

(Major physical targets are in Statistical Appendix Tables III-9.4 & 9.5)

1. One of the major reasons for low participation rate at the primary level is high drop out rate. Many children who enroll in the primary schools drop-out because they do not find the school environment congenial to their basic needs. Some of them drop out due to uninteresting curricula and harsh attitude of the teachers. Others leave on account of poverty to become earning members of the family or to extend help to the family. During the Eighth Plan, the facilities in the primary schools will be improved by providing adequate shelter, furniture, potable water, latrines, teaching aids etc. Activity oriented instructional material will be

developed and provided to teachers to make the learning process interesting. Quality of teachers will be improved through better pre-service and in-service training. A strong motivational campaign will be launched to persuade the parents to send their children (both male and female) to the school. This will be accompanied with a legislation for compulsory enrolment of children of 5-9 years age in primary schools, wherever primary education facilities become available within reachable distance. To increase the girls participation, textbooks will be provided free of cost to all girls of grade I in the rural areas.

2. For universalization of primary education, it is necessary to spread the facilities of primary education to the reachable distances. It is estimated that almost every village has a boys school but only about 50% of villages have the girls schools. To remove this imbalance, higher priority will be given to opening of girls primary schools in all such villages where there is boys school but no girls school.
3. During the recent years, there has been substantial migration of population in the agricultural areas from the main villages to scattered and distant settlements outside the villages. This is making the access of the children from these settlements to the primary school of the village more difficult. To identify the localities where access to primary educational facilities does not exist, a detailed school mapping exercise will be undertaken. A primary school will be established for a settlement of more than 300 population (1981 census), whereas a mosque school will be opened for a smaller settlement having minimum of 25 primary school age children. Wherever a separate school for boys and girls is not feasible, a co-educational primary school will be opened where female teachers will be appointed.
4. In urban areas, Municipal Committees/Corporations and Cantonment Boards have the responsibility of providing educational facilities for primary education. However, with large migration of population to the cities, the local bodies have not been able to provide primary education facilities to the ever increasing urban population. Private sector has come forward to provide facilities for the children of upper-middle and higher income groups. The children from the lower income groups have no option but to seek admission in the Local Body schools, which has resulted in over-crowding and poor quality of education. The Cantonment Boards have almost withdrawn their participation in opening of schools since the take over of the Cantonment schools by the Federal Government in 1977. During the Eighth Plan all Local Bodies including the Cantonment Boards will be revitalized to share the responsibility of providing primary education facilities in the urban areas. The Provincial governments will extend matching grants to the local bodies for this

purpose from the funds to become available from Social Action Programme. Stipends will be provided on basis of merit to the students from low income families who had to get enrolled in private schools due to non-availability of seats in public schools or in quest of access to quality education.

5. At present, provision of free land for opening of primary school is the responsibility of the local community. Due to sharp increase in the cost of land, particularly in the urban areas, it has become difficult to obtain free land for schools from the local community. During the Eighth Plan, funds will also be provided for purchase of land/buildings in big cities in exceptional circumstances where land could not be made available free of cost. Moreover, in planning of all future housing Schemes (both in public and non-profit private sectors), provision of land for the educational institutions at primary level free of cost will be made obligatory. A registration will also be enacted for this purpose.

Secondary Education

6. Facilities for secondary education will be expanded to absorb the increased output from primary schools. For this purpose, about 2.4 million additional seats in classes VI to X will be created by upgrading primary and middle schools, establishment of new high schools and adding classrooms in the existing schools. Construction of additional classrooms and improvement of the existing buildings of the schools will also be carried out. In urban areas, second shift will be introduced in selected secondary wherever feasible. During the Plan period, the participation rate at the secondary level will be raised from 50% in 1992-93 to 55% for boys and from about 26% to 30% for girls. (Details are given in Table-9.2). Private sector is estimated to accommodate about 15% of the target enrolment at secondary level.
7. For qualitative improvement, the existing curricula will be reviewed and reformed, particularly that of science and mathematics. Facilities for teaching of science subjects will be improved by provision of additional laboratories and equipment and better trained teachers. In addition, a parallel system of vocational high schools will be established for imparting employable skills on experimental basis and expanded if found successful. Skills such as basic accountancy, typing, industrial arts and agricultural skills etc. will be introduced in selected secondary schools according to the requirements of the local market. Wherever regular technical teachers do not become available, local artisans/skilled persons will be engaged on a part time basis.

Table – 9.2
Benchmark and targets of Enrolment at Secondary Level
(Classes VI-X)

	Enrolment (000)		Addl. Enroll. (000)	Enrolment Ratios (%)	
	Benchmark 1992-93	Target 1997-98		Benchmark 1992-93	Target 1997-98
Total	5110	7515	2405	38.1	42.7
Boys:	3463	4906	1443	49.7	54.5
Girls:	1647	2609	962	25.6	30.2

(Major physical targets are in Statistical Appendix Table III-9.4)

8. The policy of adding classes XI and XII to the existing secondary schools was implemented during the last two Plans. Performance of classes XI and XII in the existing higher secondary schools will be evaluated and remedial measures will be adopted wherever necessary. Priority will be given to adding classes 11 and 12 in secondary schools instead of establishing new intermediate colleges.
9. The eighth Plan will encourage spread of quality education institutions to remote areas of the country. By the end of the eighth Plan, each district will have model school for boys and each Division will have such an institution for girls in the Public or Private Sector will be encouraged to established the quality education institutions. Government will established model school only in districts where such institutions do not exist under public or private sector. Efforts will be made to upgrade the quality of all secondary schools through provision of better qualified teachers and physical facilities.

Technical and Vocational Education

Engineering Education

10. At present, there are 4 engineering universities and 2 Engineering Colleges in addition to a few specialized engineering institutions. Their existing intake capacity is about 4,500. Most of the Engineering Education institutions function on single shift basis. During the Eighth Plan, steps will be taken to improved their utilization as well as quality of their training. The curricula of engineering education will be reviewed and newly emerging technologies will be introduced. Environmental aspects will be incorporated in all engineering courses. To broaden their

resource. base, the Engineering Universities will undertake contract research projects and training programmes for the private sector.

11. There is a common complaint that the fresh graduates of engineering institutions do not have sufficient practical training during their studies. The curricula and instructional methodology of the engineering institutions will contain sufficient elements of project/case study approach for which these institutions will establish linkages with industries training of engineers and technical graduates shall be regulated by registration.
12. Taxila Campus of the University of Engineering and Technology and Lahore will be upgraded to a model University for promoting research in high technology and for preparing high level engineering manpower. Private sector will be encouraged to established specialized institutes of engineering education in the newly emerging fields of high demand. Work on establishment of Institute of Science and Technology of Pakistan (ISATOP) on the Pattern of MTI will be revitalized through collaborative investments of both Private and Public sectors. GIK Institute of Service and Technology has already begun to function. Its performance will be monitored for feed back into future planning. The intake capacity of engineering education will be increased from 4,500 at present to 5,500 during the Plan Period through better utilization and expansion of existing institutions.
13. The existing engineering universities are mostly producing under – graduate engineers. The post – graduate facilities of engineering universities are mostly under- utilized mainly due to lack of incentives for B.Sc. engineering to undertake post-graduate studies. Furthermore, the post-graduate department of the engineering universities lack proper linkages with the industry and have been unable to seek R&D projects from the industry. This has resulted in degeneration of the most of the engineering universities to engineering college level. Necessary incentives will be provided for revitalization of Post – graduate programmes of the engineering universities and for promotion of research in engineering and technology with private sector.

Post Secondary Technical and Vocational Education

14. Post-secondary Technical Training institutions in the Education Sector fall under the following categories:
 - (a) Polytechnics/Mono-technics offering 3-year diploma course of Associate Engineers.
 - (b) Vocational training institutions offering certificate courses.
 - (c) Commercial Training Institutes offering D.Com/C.Com courses.

In addition there are technical and vocational training Centres under other Ministries/Departments such as Labour, Health, Industries, WAPDA and Women Division. Furthermore, a large number of matriculates receive technical and commercial training in the private and non-formal sector. It is estimated that, at present, the share of enrolment in technical and vocational training programmes in relation to those entering general education streams is about 30%.

15. At present general education system in Pakistan is producing graduates without functional and marketable skills which is resulting in accumulation of a large number of unemployable youths. The Eighth plan will take necessary measure to reverse this trend and to increase the share of enrolment in technical and vocational streams from existing level of about 30% to 38%. To achieve this objective, efforts will be made to establish technical and vocational training institutions upto Tehsil level in public or private sector. The private sector will be provided incentives through Education Foundations to establish and operate technical training institutions / centres. Establishment of vocational training centres will be declared as a small business activity and will be made eligible for loans from small Business Finance Corporations well. In order to attract more students to technical and vocational training programmes, the status and career opportunities for technicians will be improved. The curricula of all technical and commercial training institutions will be kept under constant review and will be made responsive to the market needs, particularly in relation to the newly emerging technologies. Trade school will be started, (particularly in the rural areas) as evening shifts in the existing school buildings for imparting income generating skills such as poultry, nursery, mechanical skills, embroidery, silk – worm rearing, carpet weaving etc. More opportunities will be provided for technical and vocational education for women. The technical and vocational training programme will also be linked to the recently announced Prime Minister employment Programme. For promotion and coordination of technical training programmes, Councils of Technical Education will be constituted at various levels.

(a) Middle Supervisory Level Technical Education

16. At present there are 60 polytechnics and college technology offering three – year diploma courses in about 25 technologies. Total intake capacity of these institutions is about 12,000. The graduate of polytechnics serve as middle level supervisor and technicians. This level of training has also the potential of self employment if the existing training programmes are properly modified. During the Eighth plan the curricula of the polytechnics will be diversified to make it more relevant to the needs of the economy and entrepreneurship. The number of polytechnics will be increased so as to have, at least, a boys' polytechnic /

mono-technic in each District and a women's polytechnic in each Division. During the Eighth Plan 30 mono/polytechnics (25 in public sector and 5 in private sector) will be established. The choice of technologies in these polytechnics will be made on the basis of local and national needs. Wherever feasible, selected polytechnics will be encouraged to generate some of their resources by adding production units. Computer education will be made a compulsory part of the programme. One year on-the-job training will be made compulsory, before award of diplomas.

(b) Vocational Training of Skilled Workers.

17. Vocational Training Institutes offer a variety of courses. Ranging from 3 months to one year, for middle and high school graduates. At present, about 200 vocational institutes with intake capacity of about 20,000 are functioning under the administrative control of Provincial Education Departments. In addition, vocational / technical training centres are also operating under National Training Bureau, Provincial Labour Departments, Semi-autonomous and private organizations. These institutions provide pre-service and in-service training in variety of trades. During the Eighth Plan, the existing vocational training institutes will be consolidated and about 100 new institutes will be established under the Provincial Education Departments. In addition Trade Schools in demand oriented local skills will be started in the existing school buildings, in evening shift. Wherever trained teachers are not available, skilled technicians or artisans will be engaged on part time basis.

Commercial Education

18. With the expansion of economic and commercial activities in the country, demand for personnel trained in commercial skills is expected to increase, both for wage-employment and for self-owned entrepreneurs. At present commercial education is offered at certificate, diploma, degree and post-graduate levels in 20 Commerce Colleges and 110 Commercial training institutes in the public sector. A large number of commercial training institutes also exists in private sector. However, demand for the professional as well as middle level commercial education is expected to increase with enlargement of the services sector. During the Eighth Plan, the commercial training facilities will be expanded by introducing commerce courses in schools and colleges. Annual output of public sector commercial education institutions will be increased by introduction of evening shifts, wherever necessary. Private sector will be extended by incentives for establishment of commercial training institutes.
19. The curricula and training programmes of commercial training institutions will be modernized and will be made demand-oriented and training in the

use of computers will be made integral part of the commercial education. Selected colleges of commerce will be encouraged to develop linkages with counter-part commercial training institutions abroad. Commercial training institutions will also be encouraged to offer short courses oriented towards the immediate needs of the local community on self-financing basis. Commerce colleges and Business Education Departments of the universities will be encouraged to develop linkages with the private sector industrial and commercial establishments for placement of their students for practical training and for undertaking research projects relating their specific problems.

Teacher Education

20. Teacher has a pivotal role in improving the quality and efficiency of education system, for which pre-service and in-service training programmes of high quality are essential. The quality of pre-service training for most of the teacher training institutions is out-moded and low as compared to international standards. There is urgent need to update the knowledge and skills of master trainers engaged in teachers training. The Eighth Plan programmes will review and reform the curricula and training methodology of the teacher training institutions at all levels. The teacher training programmes will emphasize the acquisition of practical skills that can be applied in actual classroom situation instead of the present emphasis on theory. To achieve these objectives, 8 existing Colleges of Elementary School Teachers will be upgraded as model institutions which will offer and disseminate modernized teacher training curricula and techniques. In addition 66 teacher training out-posts will be established at the premises of rural girls high schools to facilitate the training of female teachers in rural areas.
21. At present there are 110 institutions for training of primary school teachers and 11 colleges for training of secondary school teachers. In addition, there are about 100 teacher training units attached to secondary schools. A large number of primary and secondary school teachers complete teacher training as private candidates or through the programmes of Allama Iqbal Open University. The quality of these teacher training programmes will be evaluated during the Plan period and necessary policy changes will be made. To upgrade the quality of teachers, the entry qualification for all teacher training programmes will be enhanced. Duration of the training will also be increased wherever feasible. Pay scales of the teachers will be linked with their qualifications.
22. It is estimated that about 200,000 additional primary school teachers, 50,000 middle school teachers and 35,000 high school teachers will be required during the Eighth Plan period. The requirements of middle and

secondary school teachers can be met fully from the output of the existing system. The annual training capacity of the existing primary teacher training institutions is about 27,000 which will produce about 135,000 teachers during the Plan period. It is estimated that at present there are about 50,000 unemployed trained primary school teachers, mostly in Punjab. In order to meet the remaining requirements of teachers at primary level, about 5,000 new teacher training places will have to be created. Additional requirements of the teachers will be met by opening of 18 new elementary Teachers Training Institutions and increasing the capacity of the existing institutions through expansion of their physical facilities.

23. To improve the quality of existing teaches, a variety of approaches will be adopted for their in-service training. These approaches will include distance learning through non formal education, establishment of teacher resource centres at selected places, mobile teacher training programmes particularly for the female teachers in rural areas and on the job training through learning coordinators etc. The existing Education Extension Centres will be developed as Centres of mobile teachers training. Innovative Programme of teachers training such as modular approach and audio-video cassettes containing training lessons will also be used. A system of incentives in the form of awards and recognition will be introduced by linking the career of teachers will their periodical in service training and efficiency.

Literacy and Non-Formal Education

24. Low participation rate at primary level in the past, combined with high drop out rate and rapid population growth, has accumulated a large stock of illiterates in the population. If universal enrolment at the primary level is not achieved at the earliest and drop out of children from the primary school is not checked, multitude of illiterates will be further added to our population every year. Even the new-literates relapse into illiteracy due to non-availability of post literacy reading materials. Furthermore, it is quite difficult to attract the earning and grown up adults to the literacy programmes without economic incentives. Thus the illiteracy has multitude of dimensions and needs multi-pronged approach to tackle this problem. Therefore the Eighth Plan will adopt following approaches for increasing the literacy profile of the country;

- i) Scaling the new additions to illiteracy by universalisation of primary education and eliminating the early drop out through various measures including legislation for compulsory primary education wherever it is accessible and launching strong motivational campaign.

- ii) Encouraging the NGOs to develop and launch community-based literacy programmes on the basis of local demand, to be created by them through motivational campaign and by linking the literacy programmes with the socio-economic development of the learners.
 - iii) Including the literacy component in integrated rural development and urban community development programmes of various departments and organizations.
 - iv) Encouraging publication and circulation of special news-papers and reading material for neo-literates.
25. The public sector programmes for increasing literacy rate will rely mainly on universalization of compulsory primary education and efforts of NGOs is launching functional literacy and adult education on demand basis. The NGOs will be given grants on the basis of their performance. It is estimated that the stock of literates in 1992-93 was 29.65 million while the population of 10 years and above was 83.77 million. This gives a literacy rate of about 35 percent. By 1997-98, the population of 10+ age group will rise to 96.69 million. The addition to the literate population during the five year period will be 9.83 million (10.78 million through primary education and 8.05 million through non-formal system and through the efforts of adult literacy programmes of NGOs) minus 1.97 million deaths. This implies that 46.51 million persons will be literate in 1997-98, giving literacy rate of about 48%.

Testing and Evaluation

26. A comprehensive and scientific evaluation system makes the teaching-learning process more rational and efficient. Our examination system is excessively flawed with serious weaknesses in the structure of tests and malpractices. Neither the semester system nor and annual system have been able to overcome the wide spread corruption in the examinations. This has caused serious damage to our educational standards and has made it very difficult to identify the talent for advanced training in professional institutions. During the Eighth Plan period concerted efforts will be made to establish a National Education Testing Service on sound footing, preferably through a private sector or NGO. Necessary expert services will also be acquired for this purpose. The work of the test development and research will be carried out by National Education Testing Service in collaboration with agencies and individual experts available within or outside Pakistan. Gradually, the admission to higher education institutions will be made on the basis of performance of the students on educational tests developed and standardized by the National Education Testing Service. Other steps for reforming the examination

system and eliminating malpractices in the examinations will also be taken.

Scholarships

27. A number of Federal and Provincial scholarship schemes are in operation for encouraging talent and equalizing access of the poor but talented students to the educational opportunities. Zakat and Ushr funds are used for awarding stipends to 'Mustahkeen'. The existing programmes of scholarships will be continued during the Eighth Plan. However, due to extremely high cost of foreign training, the number of foreign scholarships will be gradually decreased in areas where local M. Phil/Ph. D. facilities are developed. Since cost of foreign training has rapidly increased during the previous years, concerted efforts will be made to develop selected Departments of the universities to such a level that they can offer M. Phil/Ph. D. courses within the country. In order to economize the cost of foreign training, the scholars selected for foreign training will be required to complete M. Phil. course in a Pakistani university before proceeding abroad for Ph. D. in foreign universities. No foreign scholarship for M. Sc. Courses will be provided from the domestic resources. Cost of foreign training will be recovered from all those who do not complete Ph.D.

Curricula and Textbooks.

28. The quality of the existing curricula and textbooks is far from the satisfactory. In order to make the curricula more relevant to the learners needs, a new curriculum development cycle will be initiated to encourage enquiry, creativity and analytical thinking through project oriented and problem solving approaches in teaching. The curricula of technical and vocational institutions will be related to the employment market and self-employment. New concepts of immediate importance such as environmental education, health education and population education shall be integrated into the school curricula. The textbooks will be revised and updated to incorporate new knowledge using graded vocabulary and pedagogical approach compatible to the age level of the learners. Incentives will be provided for development and productions of good textbooks by renowned educators. For each course multiple textbooks, to be produced on competitive basis, shall be approved, while institutions will select any of these textbooks.

Education, Supervision and Administration

29. In order to improve the efficiency of our education system, decentralization of its administration, planning and implementation is necessary. Planning and management of primary, middle and high schools

will be decentralized to encourage greater grass-root participation. Educational supervision will be further strengthened by appointment of more supervisors and by setting up of Local Education Committees upto the village level. Management training will be made mandatory for all categories of educational administrators from school education to higher education. Project planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation will be made essential components of these training courses.

Library Services

30. During the Eighth Plan, adequate funds will be provided for development of both public and institutional libraries. It will be ensured that all the development schemes of educational institutions provide adequate funds for purchase of upto date professional books and journals. The libraries will provide sufficient reading material on new branches of knowledge to the students. Development of quality books in science and technology will be encouraged and selected books in these fields will be translated into Urdu and made available to the libraries at reasonable cost. Necessary measures (including allocation of adequate funds) will be adopted to improve the utilization of the libraries.

Media in Education

31. New knowledge is changing so fast that rapid communications of the new developments in science and technology to the students through the textbooks alone is becoming difficult. Availability of electronic technology more widely and at cheaper costs has made it possible to disseminate the new knowledge rapidly through the electronic media. During the Eighth Plan, special programmes of video lessons based on school and college curricula, particularly on complicated topics of science and technology will be produced and disseminated through electronic media. Copies of these video lessons will also be made available to libraries and individuals on non-profit basis for use through VCR etc. Special enrichment programmes of new scientific disciplines will be made accessible to the learners both through electronic media and video cassettes. Besides intensive use of studio facilities available under the Second Educational TV Channel, the production facilities at AIOU will also be updated.

Higher Education and Research

College Education

32. Majority of the Students in the existing degree colleges are enrolled in intermediate (or higher secondary) classes, with the result that degree level courses do not receive adequate focus and resources. In order to raise the standards of degree level education, the intermediate classes need to be gradually delinked from the degree college and the existing two-year degree courses need to be converted into three-year honours degree courses. During the Eighth Plan, degree level education will be re-structured by offering 3-year honours courses in selected colleges in order to enhance employability of the graduates.
33. The college curricula will be diversified and made demand-oriented. Emphasis will be on improvement of quality of instruction and introduction of courses of the areas of high demand in the employment market. These may include courses related to commerce, trade, accounting establishment and management of entrepreneurship, marketing cooperative, farm management etc. in the recurring budgets of colleges provision will be made for employment of part time teachers from the local market for such courses. Efforts will be made to channelize higher percentage of students in job-oriented courses.
34. During the Eight Plan selected intermediate colleges will be upgraded to degree level. For optimum utilization of available facilities, evening shifts will be introduced in colleges wherever feasible. Private sector will be encouraged to establish new colleges with focus on demand-oriented areas. Colleges of high repute will be given autonomous status for developing them as models of quality education institutions at degree level.
35. At present teachers of college education are recruited without any pre-service training in pedagogy and have rare opportunities of in-service training. In order to improve the quality of classroom teaching, in-service training courses will be arranged for the college teachers during summer vacations.
36. In order to improve the efficiency of college education, an effective system of accountability, both for the teachers and students, will be devised and introduced. Campus discipline committees comprising of parents, teachers, administrators and notables of the areas will be set up to deal with problems of indiscipline and campus violence. Adequate provision will be made in the recurring budget of the colleges for consumable, library books and sports.

University Education

37. Our university education is characterized by low quality, lack of relevance to the needs of 21st century, indiscipline, campus closures due to violence, budget deficits, faulty examination system, absence of effective accountability system and insignificant output of quality research. The courses are outmoded and supply – oriented rather than demand-oriented. There is little emphasis on the application aspect. The university graduates lack employable skills. The universities have been unable keep pace with recent advances of knowledge in science and technology as well as in social sciences. In view of this, the university education needs a new look and complete overhauling. The Eighth Plan will focus mainly on improving quality and increasing the external and internal efficiency of the university education. The Eighth Plan will also upgrade quality of research through staff development and provision of better physical facilities, scientific equipment, library books and upto-date journals.
38. At least two potential departments in each university will be upgraded as Centres of Advanced Studies to make them capable of conducting quality research and offering M. Phil and Ph. D. courses. The universities will be encouraged to establish linkages with the industry and commercial organizations through contract research on specific problems. The universities will also be encouraged to develop linkages with counter-part foreign universities of repute to undertake combined research projects and teacher exchange programmes. Special efforts will be made to promote new linkages with the universities of Central Asian Muslim Countries. Facilities of National Institute of Modern Languages will be used to overcome language barriers.
39. At present the universities have serious administrative, financial and disciplinary problems. Some of the problems have been attributed to the out-moded university Acts in vogue. Other problems arise due to duality of control (Administrative control by the Provincial Governments and financial control by the Federal Government), highly subsidized user charges, politicized campuses, out-moded curricula, lack of adequate devotion on the part of teachers and defective examination system. During the Eighth Plan period the university Acts will be revised to facilitate their effective financial and administrative management. The duality of the control of the universities will be removed. The University Grants Commission will be given more powers to oversee the academic standards. For this purpose a National Council of Academic Awards and Accreditation will be established. The university departments that have become obsolete will be closed down in a phased manner and their physical facilities will be used for starting newly emerging disciplines.

Courses offered by the university, most of which are presently supply oriented, will be made demand-oriented.

40. One of the reasons for financial deficits and mis-use of the campus facilities is highly subsidized rates of user charges. At present the university fees constitute only about 1 %. The maintenance cost of hostel facilities will be fully recovered from the users. The financial position of the universities will be improved by eliminating their budget deficits through increased allocations and better financial control, creating endowment funds, encouraging them, to undertake correct research programmes and other income generating activities.
41. Out of 20 existing universities, 12 universities were started after 1970. Due to less funding the campuses of 10 universities are still to be completed. In view of the resource constraints, highest priority will be given to completion of essential facilities of the existing campuses. The enrolment capacity of the existing universities will be expanded through inter departmental utilization and integration of various departments at the same campus. No new University will be established in the public sector. Private sector will be encouraged to establish universities or graduate schools in the newly emerging fields.
42. To promote research, provision of separate non-transferable funds will be made in the recurring budget of the universities for purchase of consumable materials, library books and journals for research. During 8th Plan, Rs. 1 billion will be earmarked for this purpose out of Iqra fund. The university departments will be encouraged to generate funds for promotion of research activities of that department by undertaking research projects etc. These funds will be kept under a separate revolving fund which will be at the disposal of that department. The curricula of the university courses will be revised and updated keeping in view their relevance to the needs of the country and the employability of the skills. Special emphasis will be laid on application of the theoretical knowledge imparted in various disciplines and more courses will be offered in applied sciences.
43. The quality of university education among other things also depends upon the quality of students admitted. Admission in the universities will be selective and purely based on merit. Every student will be required to take standardized test in the relevant discipline. The National Education Testing Service will play a pivotal role in development and administration of the standardized tests. In educational evaluation, emphasis will be shifted from the existing practice of testing the capabilities of reproducing the subject to testing the ability to apply the theoretical knowledge in the problem situations. All possible steps will be taken to eradicate cheating in the examinations.

Financial Allocation and Resource Generation

44. The proposed Eighth Plan development programmes in the public sector are estimated to cost Rs 69.031 billion (including Rs. 39.319 billion for Social Action Programme in education). Of this Rs 7.534 billion (Rs 0.584 billion for SAP and Rs 6.950 billion for non-SAP) is included in the Federal PSDP (Statistical Appendix Table-III-9.2). Sub-sector-wise break up may be seen at Statistical Appendix Table-III-9.1. In addition, about Rs. 159 billion will be required to meet the cost of recurring expenditure for the Eighth Plan period (Rs. 139 billion for the existing programmes and 20 billion for the new programmes). This level of expenditure will necessitate strong measures for the cost recovery and resource generation. Following measures will be taken for this purpose:-

- i) Public sector allocation for education will be increased. Allocation for basic education will be accelerated through Social Action Programme. Provincial governments are expected to enhance their expenditure on basic education, under incentives to be provided by the Federal government under Social Action Programme.
- ii) Federal and Provincial Education Foundations will advance grant/loans to the private sector NGOs for establishment of new educational institutions, particularly in the rural areas. The Education Foundation will also receive grants from the Social Action Programme for promotion of basic education and literacy through NGOs.
- iii) Iqra surcharge will be properly organized under a separate fund. Its proceeds will be credited to an educational fund to be used solely for low educational development.
- iv) Private sector will be encouraged to establish educational institutions at all levels through tax exemptions, loan facilities and grants. The NGOs which establish or upgrade the educational institutions in the National or approved regional language as medium of instruction, will be provided matching grants upto 50% of the cost.
- v) In all future residential and housing schemes, compulsory provision will be made for free land for the primary schools, the cost of which will be recovered from the allottees as development charges.
- vi) Local Bodies particularly Municipal Corporations and Cantonment Boards, will be re-activated to provide basic education facilities in their areas. They will be encouraged to allocate more resources for establishing and housing primary and

secondary schools through generating additional resources exclusively for educational development in their areas.

- vii) Fee structure and other user charges will be rationalized, particularly in higher education institutions.
- viii) The universities and other higher education institutions will be encouraged to create endowment funds.
- ix) Industries and companies with paid up capital of Rs. 100 million or more will be required to establish educational institutions upto secondary level.
- x) Establishment and running of technical and vocational training institutions will be declared as small business activity and they will be made eligible for loans from Small Business Corporation.

UNIT No. 7

MEDIUM TERM DEVELOPMENT FRAME WORK 2005-10

**Adopted by
Syed Manzoor Hussain Shah**

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OBJECTIVES

After you have studied this unit you are expected to:

1. Identify salient features of the present MTDF 2005-10.
2. Describe the scope and dimensions of development in the education sector w/r to MTDF purification.
3. Analyze different provisions as laid down in the MTDF.
4. Identify and discuss the linkages of MTDF with the previous policies.

THE MTFD 2005-10: AN OVERVIEW

The future of Pakistan is linked with its present and its past. The country has inherited a rich civilization and a centuries old history, marked by outstanding achievements reflected in cultural enrichment, intellectual maturity and spread of knowledge. The dawn of Islam in the geographical area now constituting Pakistan served as a catalyst for the people living here to develop their innate qualities of intelligence, diligence and competence. Given the natural endowment of a well-developed mind and habits of industry of the people, the present orientation towards enlightenment and technological advancement augurs well for the future of Pakistan in economic, social and cultural spheres. Not only the economic and financial stability has been achieved, the country is on the threshold of a sustained higher growth.

Vision 2030

What is required to cross the threshold is a long-term vision, operationalized through a series of medium term frameworks. For the economy as a whole, the VISION 2030 envisages a "developed, industrialized, just and prosperous Pakistan through rapid and sustainable development in a resource constrained economy by deploying knowledge inputs". Human Development targets have been fixed in line with the Millennium Development Goals – MDGs 2015.

Objectives

During 2005-10, the period of the first Medium Term Development Framework (MTDF), the following objectives would be kept in sight:

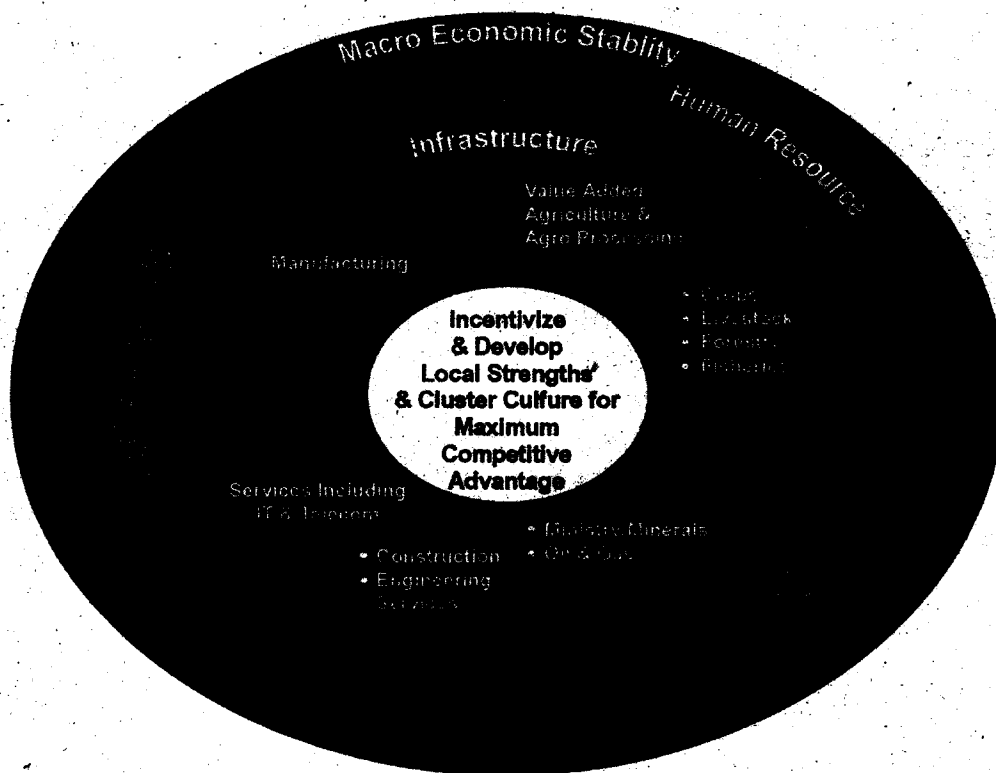
- i) Establish a just and sustainable economic system for reducing poverty and achieving MDGs.
- ii) Move, in an organized and disciplined manner, towards an efficient, balanced, internationally competitive, environment friendly, and technologically driven knowledge economy for rapid and sustainable growth to become an industrialized nation in 25 years.
- iii) Evolve a mature, tolerant, democratic society, which is developed economically, culturally, ethically and imbued with Islamic values of moderation and enlightenment, at peace with itself and with the rest of the world.
- iv) Build a strong and prosperous Pakistan having a fully integrated economy with a sense of common and shared destiny.
- v) Protect the right to development of every citizen particularly those of children, youth, women and minorities.
- vi) Ensure equitable development of regions.

vii) Minimize wastages in the economy.

The MTFD 2005-10 recognizes that the value system of a society is the ultimate determinant of development. Rooted in culture, traditions and national character of the society, it gives a formal shape to the norms of politics and economy. These norms guide the formulation of policies in areas such as education, labour, trade, science and technology, taxation, and financial management. These policies then determine the size and composition of investment and structure of the knowledge base of the economy, which provide the necessary leverages and stimulus for its development.

In the era of globalization, the MTFD 2005-10 incorporates a paradigm shift towards enhancing competitiveness of the national economy through higher investment but more importantly through knowledge inputs to maximize total factor productivity. An Integrated Plan for "Pakistan Incorporated" with a focus on the tripartite elements of growth development of infrastructure, human resources development, and technology has been brought together within the broad parameters of macroeconomic framework. It aims at incentivizing and developing the local strengths for increasing the competitive advantage in various sectors of the economy.

An Integrated Plan – "Pakistan Incorporated"



Basic and College Education

1. Introduction

Pakistan is poised at an extremely sensitive moment in time when the right choices, priorities, and strategies in education and all its manifestations can enable it to move forward on the path of sustainable and just development, but whose absence or poor implementation may deny this window of opportunity. It is necessary, therefore, to accelerate greater access to quality education at all tiers of education, and across all regions and peoples of the country. The quality of education is ultimately gauged by one deliverable only that of the young men or women produced in the system. Apart from economic value for its user, education is an extremely important instrument for social mobility and cohesion within societies, and serves as a repository and defender of core national value and memories, leading to a society which is innovative and at peace with itself.

2. Situation Analysis

Pakistan faces some major challenges in providing education in schools and beyond school for its growing population and diversifying needs. The requirement for an educated populace and workforce is greater than ever before, yet Pakistan's record on a number of key indicators of educational performance is poor. Basically, the issues can be reduced to six questions of participation, preparation completion, affordability, benefits and alternative pathways.

- i) **Participation:** Do children and working-age adults have access to education for a sufficient number of years and training in school and beyond and what is the gender participation rate as student or teacher?
- ii) **Preparation:** How well are young people in high school being prepared to either enroll or succeed in post secondary or college-level education or for the work place?
- iii) **Completion:** Do students persist in and complete certificate and degree programs, and how many do so at the first attempt?
- iv) **Affordability:** Considering typical family incomes, the cost of attending school or college may deter enrolment, specially in private educational institutions.
- v) **Benefits:** Is School and post school education sufficiently broad based and economically relevant?
- vi) **Alternative Pathways:** Does the education system provide alternative paths for further learning and training for dropouts or those who wish to rejoin later?

3. Schools

Schooling in Pakistan has reached gross enrolment ratios as high as 92% at the primary level and 44% at the secondary level, with a total public/private sector enrolment of 25.9 million; but high dropout rates, teacher shortages and absenteeism, and gender gaps (20% at the primary and middle years of schooling and 14% at the secondary level), are still too high to be acceptable. This has resulted in low literacy rates of 56% in the 10+ age group (Table 1). Participation rate at Higher Secondary / Intermediate (classes XI-XII) is 13% of age group 15-16 years, and at Degree Colleges level (class XIII-XIV) is 7% of age group 17-18 years. There are also more than 624 Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) Institutions with an enrolment of 105, 000.

Table 1

Gross Enrolment / Participation Rate (percent), 2004-2005

Category	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Literacy Rates, 10+	Adult Literacy Rates, 15+	Youth Literacy Rate, 15-24
Male	102	74	50	62	60	79
Female	82	53	36	44	31	52
Total	92	63	44	56	46	66

Source: Pakistan School Statistics, 2004, Academy of Educational Planning & Management, Ministry of Education, Islamabad: Also Labour Force Survey 2003-04, Federal Bureau of Statistics, Islamabad.

Annex I highlights various statistics regarding rural-urban and gender gaps in enrolment as well as expenditure on education.

Other key features of the system are:

- i) **Missing Infrastructure:** according to Punjab's EMIS database and Pakistan School Statistics, 2004, (Punjab has the largest educational system in place in the country), one in 40 government schools has no building, one in 5 either have no electricity or water, one in 4 have no furniture or insufficient furniture (equal numbers), and one in 7 have no toilets.
- ii) **Gender Gaps:** Although female enrolment is increasing rapidly in all regions, participation rates are lower than optimum and gender gaps persist. Literacy gender gap is higher in the rural areas (30 percent) compared with the urban closed in urban primary schools, and getting better in rural areas where girls education is much sought after. Even in a conservative area such as FATA, a little social engineering based on cultural sensitivities (having women teachers only) has greatly pushed up girls' enrolments in primary co-educational schools. However, nearly 70 percent of all public

primary schools are in the rural areas where lack of infrastructure, and teacher shortage and absenteeism are major concerns affecting students completion rate and educational quality.

- iii) **Private Sector Participation:** The private sector is quite active in Pakistan's education sector. Out of a total of 154,970 primary schools in the country in 2003-04 (total enrolment of 19.781 million), 17,621 (or 11.4 percent) were run by the private sector, with an enrolment of 5.83 million or nearly 30 percent. Its share of enrolment at the secondary level is 23.1 percent.

The ratio of male: female teachers is 60: 40 in all government schools (total number 642,651) and 28 : 72 in private schools (total teachers 346,852), while student: teacher ratios are 41.1 in government schools and 64.1 in private schools at the primary levels.

Interesting experiments are going on in public-private partnerships in several provinces, whereby government schools are being supplemented by private philanthropy to meet various gaps regarding teachers laboratory equipment and basic infrastructure.

- iv) **Science Education:** Since the MTFD 2005-10 draws upon technology driven growth as its major theme, the state of science education is a matter of concern, with only one third of the 9,800 secondary and higher secondary schools being adequately equipped with science labs. At present, 612 schools are being upgraded in this respect, while technical streams have been introduced in 441 secondary schools during 2002-04.
- v) **Madrassa Schools:** Madrassa schools have been a major provider of social safety for the deprived and underprivileged in the country for years. Because of serious resource constraints (most are run on charity), they have not been able to provide economically meaningful education to their wards. 8000 Madaris are currently being brought into mainstream of education.

4. College / Post-Secondary Education

Structurally, post secondary education is not able to deliver the required goals of competency, quality and relevance of education because the state has allowed college education to drop from the 'radar screen' as regards reforms which are being attempted at various tiers of school and higher education.

Devolution has placed colleges under the administrative control of district governments. While this will help improve some efficiencies and enable them to develop into community embedded institutions, it is unlikely to be effective if

issues of duality of control with the Provincial Education Departments and source of funding is not resolved.

Colleges are also deprived financially with per capita spending on college students typically one-sixth of that in Universities in 2002, when the universities were also badly starved. While allocation for public universities has increased several fold, colleges have been left behind.

The Steering Committee on Higher Education (SCHE, 2002) recommended the upgrade of college degree education to 4 years to bring it in line with international norms. Political considerations still lead colleges to be upgraded from intermediate level (11th and 12th year) to degree level (usually through affiliation with universities), whereas it is necessary to divest colleges of the intermediate stream which actually belongs properly at high school.

The current enrolment (public plus private) was over 600,000 at the intermediate level and 326,000 at the bachelor's level (does not include 80,000 students enrolled in professional colleges / bachelor's programmes). The share of the private sector at these two levels was 38 percent and 11 percent, while female enrolment was 31 percent and 40 percent respectively.

5. Allocation for Education sector

Public sector expenditure in education (Annex 1) has grown steadily in the last 4 years from a total of Rs. 75.9 billion in 2000-01 to Rs. 132.9 billion in the base year 2004-05 which is 2.3 percent of the GDP. If one adds the contribution from the private sector, the actual expenditure is over 3 percent of GDP. It is planned to raise the total public allocation for education to 3.6 percent of the GDP by 2010, private sector expenditure is expected to add another 1.5 percent. Budgets for primary education are over 45 percent of total public sector expenditure on education.

6. The MTF 2005-10; Policies and Strategies

MTDF plans to achieve the targets set under Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for Universal Primary Education (UPE), literacy, and promotion of gender equality and empowerment (Gender Parity Index, GPI). Past experience indicates that programmes must be need based, specific, implementable, target / result oriented, measurable, and time specific. While revision and up-gradation of curricula, and infrastructure in existing institutions will continue to be a key activity at all levels, it is planned to raise the internal and external efficiencies of the entire educational system during MTF 2005-10.

Millennium Development Goal (MDGs).

	Benchmark 2004-05	MTDF Targets 2010	MDG Targets 2015
Literacy Rate (Pop. 10+)			
Total	56	77	88
Male	62	85	89
Female	44	66	87
Youth Literacy Rate (Pop. 15-24)			
Total	66	80	100
Male	79	90	100
Female	52	70	100
Gender Parity Index (GPI)			
Primary Education	0.80	0.94	1.00
Secondary	0.72	0.90	0.94

MTDF Targets:

**Participation Rate in Percentage
Targets 2010**

Primary level:

Total	102
Male	105
Female	99

Middle Level:

Total	95
Male	98
Female	75

Secondary level:

Total	77
Male	79
Female	75

7. Schools and Literacy

The Government is fully committed to Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 2010, and Education for All (EFA) up to 2015 to meet the Dakar Goals and MDGs. To achieve this end, Primary Education will be made compulsory through enactment on the one hand and provision of free text books at primary level. Further, Katchi classes are planned to be introduced in all primary schools in rural areas to enhance participation. The MTDF envisages 30,000 additional primary schools in the country. Other key strategies will include free education up to matriculation (grade 10) / secondary school level, induction of vocational / technical streams in 2000 secondary schools, and provision of science laboratories and computer education in every school.

Shifting of classes XI-XII from colleges to 2000 secondary schools, and development of counseling system as a pilot project in major cities, to be later implemented in all schools, will also be initiated.

8. Gender Disparities: Meeting MDGs

All primary schools will be converted to co-educational schools, and all primary schools will, move towards the goal of 100 percent female teachers, as per the policy of the government, which has been found most conducive in girls' enrolment and retention in rural areas. Further reduction of gender gaps in enrolment and retention, will be enabled through financial and nutritional incentives to girl students, specially in rural areas.

Finally, special financial incentives will be provided to attract and retain female teachers in rural areas.

9. Technical, Vocational, and Scientific Education

A major skill based programme for the potential age group 15-24 years, will be launched which will enable alternative pathways through schools and colleges. This will be done through provision of science laboratories and computer education in every school to help balance the ratio between Arts and Science streams, and introduction of technology education / technical stream as a core subject at secondary level. Finally major focus will be on teacher training for science laboratories and technical streams in schools.

10. Qualifications and Capacity Building of Teachers

The minimum qualification for all school teachers will be raised to Bachelor's degree with professional teacher's training and teacher emoluments will be increased. Teacher training institutes will be decentralized up to district level to meet local requirements and institution based recruitment policy, and Provincial Councils for Teachers Licensing and Accreditation to register professional teachers will be put in place to monitor and help prepare their life long professional development.

11. Madrassa Education

It is proposed to mainstream 8000 Madrassas with a view to bring them in line with national standards and accreditation, specially as regards technical and vocational skills. Several actions are proposed such as introduction of Mathematics, Social / Pakistan Studies, Computer Science and English language in all Madaris, and induction of teachers for these subjects. Emoluments to Madrassa teachers will be increased, and policies for provision of alternative pathways for Madrassa students to join the educational mainstream at the postschool levels will be adopted.

12. College Education

Higher education reforms will not be complete without reforms in college education. It is necessary first to separate the Intermediate stream from degree colleges, because in degree colleges, Initially 300 existing degree colleges will be upgraded by providing major inputs in the form of funds for infrastructure enhancement, teaching tools, libraries, and capacity building for teachers.

It is proposed to establish 100 new degree colleges, with 4 year stream, and expand the programmes offered to include economically relevant courses, specially for professional courses which are of short/medium term duration (6-12 months). Finally it is planned to provide autonomy to colleges, with Board of Governors/Trustees drawn from local community, academia and business.

13. Data Collection and Analysis

Administrative data and statistics on Education Management Information System (EMIS) needs to be supplemented by data from other independent surveys such as Pakistan Integrated Household Surveys (PIHS), to increase its credibility and validity. The issue of differing finitions, dis-aggregation and analysis, more frequent updates and publication, and quality of collection, will be streamlined during the period 2005-10 to bring the activity in line with international standards. Administrative entities such as the Federal Bureau of Statistics (FBS), or EMIS at provincial and federal levels will be strengthened through capacity enhancement.

Because of devolution, the quality of data will ultimately be the responsibility of District Government. A concerted effort will be made to substantially expand capacity of district governments in this regard. One important tool could be greater use of Urdu in It at the district level. Work is underway towards English-Urdu online translator, Urdu e-mail, and Urdu Web pages.

14. Meeting Human Resource needs

Pakistan ranks at 138th postiiion in the Human Development Index (HDI) of 175 countries due to its low participation at levels of education. Promotion of primary education and introduction of skills based literacy, introduction of technical stream at secondary level, strengthening colelges of technologies, establishment of polytechnics, mono-technical, re-vamping science education, and expansion of college educaiton, are the priority areas to improve the HD index of the country.

In the Elementary Sub-sector, about 1,55,000 additional teachers would be required while at Secondary level 20,000 general teachers would be required and for introducing technical stream at secondary level about 10,000 technical teachers and 10,000 workshop attendants would be required.

At Higher Secondary level 20,000 additional teacheing positions would be required for introduction of additional classes (XI & Xii) in the existingssecondary schools, while about 80,000 teachers would be required for Literacy Centres and Deeni Madaris.

As a result of implementation of the MTFD 2005-10 an amount of Rs. 190.0 Billion would be required as recurring cost to meet the operating expenses of schools and colleges.

15. Inter Sectoral Linkages

Education has very intimate links with social welfare and development, whether it pertains to health or the general quality of life, or the productive sectors of the economy. Education will be a major tool for empowering women and reducing gender disparities, with well-being of children who are the most vulnerable members of the society in terms of sickness, and mortality. It is proposed to launch schools based health services (availability of medical help and counseling) which will enable more healthy and productive society.

The electronic & print media are expected to play an important role in the campaigns of literacy and gender related issues.

Institutions of higher learning cannot be divorced from those which come earlier (colleges, schools). Each level feed into the one following it and the weakness in earlier stream reflects totally in the higher tiers.

The goal of technology led development, based upon increased productivity, innovation and entrepreneurial forces will flounder if the output of colleges of technologies, mono/polytechnics and vocational and skills imparting centres is not matched with industrial needs and labour surveys and forecasting.

16. Financial allocations

A portfolio of Rs. 119.7 billion (Federal and Provincial funds) has been earmarked for development of Basic and College education for the MTDF 2005-10, details are shown in Table 2 (and Annex III), while the private sector is also expected to invest Rs. 50.0 billion in education sector during the MTDF period.

Primary education and Literacy, together with Madaris, receive 34.5 percent. Colleges will receive their first major allocation for reforms and improvement, while teacher training is also included.

University education and Research & Development are treated in the chapter on Development of a Knowledge Economy.

Table 2
Proposed Allocations 2005-10

S.No	Sub-sector	Allocation (Rs, Billions)	Percent share of total allocation
1.	Literacy & Madaris	20.78	17.4
2.	Elementary (Including Katchi)	20.49	17.1
3.	Secondary	15.06	12.6
4.	College	16.26	13.6
5.	Technical	28.18	23.5
6.	Teacher	09.14	07.6
7.	Scholarships etc.	09.79	08.2
	Total	119.70	100.0

17. Provincial and Local dimensions

As per tasks assigned to the various levels of the government, the policy formulation, development plan formulation, international cooperation, inter-provincial coordination and curricula and textbooks are dealt with by the Federal Government. The implementation of policy, MTDF, and delivery of education is the sole responsibility of Provincial and District governments. Out of the total outlay of Rs. 119.7 billion, and amount of Rs. 26.6 billion would be provided by the Federal Government. The provinces would provide their share of Rs. 93.1 billion in their Annual Development Programmes. Under the Devolution Plan the major development role would be played by the district governments, as implementation is the responsibility of respective District Governments. This requires major training and capacity building of personnel in district education services to manage schools and colleges.

18. Public-Private Partnership

The public sector is unable to fully meet the educational requirement of the whole school aged and illiterate population of the country. In this connection, the role of philanthropists, NGOs and business communities involved in the Education Sector have achieved encouraging results. In 2004-05 nearly 42,000 educational Institutions are delivering education in the country at all levels which are expected to rise to 55,000 if current trends continue.

It is necessary to look closely at the role of the private sector, which it is playing in supporting education at all levels. Interesting work has happened in several places. Where this approach has helped to fill gaps and strengthen infrastructure, teacher shortages, and other facilities. Strong commitment by philanthropists and civil society stakeholders, whereby they adopt institutions or groups of institutions, has been the successful model so far.

Based on existing trends, the private sector is expected to invest that Rs. 50.0 billion for the expansion and development of education during the MTDF 2005-10. Pakistan will, however, need to balance the investment made by the private sector against the requirements of social responsibility to provide quality education at the lowest possible cost.

Regulation of private sector in terms of working conditions of teachers and curricula standards and textual content may not be left entirely at the discretion of the private sector or foreign examination boards. May such schools are no more than glorified tuition centres, in private homes. Regulation and monitoring of their premises and infrastructure is expected to lead to provision of necessary physical assets such as playgrounds, and laboratories to students. Another matter, which has acquired serious dimension, is the use of alternatives to practicals, which leads to avoidance of laboratory work in schools offering foreign school examinations / certificates.

19. Monitoring and Evaluation of Projects and Programmes

There is general consensus that, projects and programmes are planned and started, but their implementation and monitoring of outcomes is not done in a professional and systematic manner.

It is planned to use 3 percent of the educational budget for monitoring Education Sector Reforms (ESR). Donor-Government co-ordination will be improved at Federal and Provincial levels and financial outlay is shown in Annex II, III.

Re-thinking is required about composition of monitoring teams with a view to improving their ability to monitor outcomes and not just physical assets. Complete sets of metrics and measurable have to be introduced for performance analysis.

Apart from raising the capacity of the Projects Wing and concerned Technical Sections in the Planning Commission, it may be necessary to bring in outside monitors, so that the task can be carried out in conjunction with representatives of line Ministries Composition of counterpart monitoring teams at provincial and district level needs to be similarly reviewed.

20. Conclusions

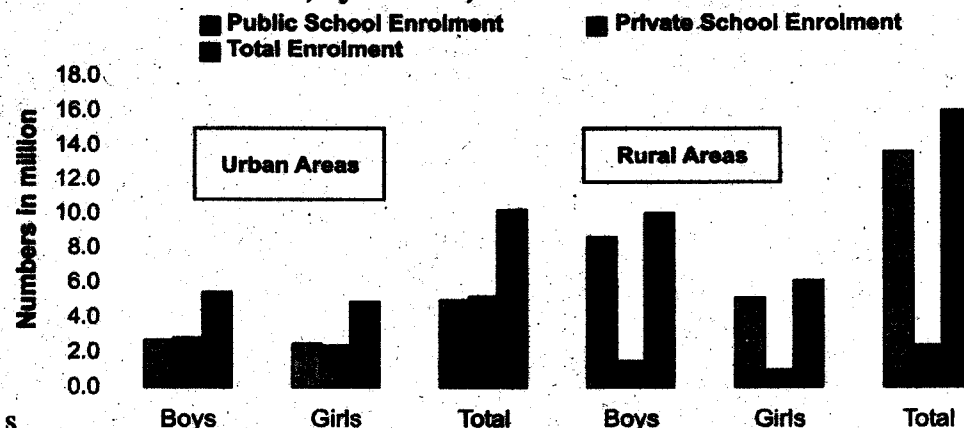
The critical issue will remain shortage of teachers, without which it would not be possible to achieve either universal education or good quality education or skills of acceptable quality. The profession is not able to attract or retain the talented persons, because of continually falling status, working conditions, career perspectives and professional development.

It has been tempting for many countries to resort to non-formal education based upon poorly trained teachers, who are either low paid or volunteers. Such programmes are underway in Pakistan's education sector also, but their impact and outcomes are doubtful. Without qualified, competent, motivated and well paid teachers who hold themselves and the profession in high esteem, such programmes will remain a mirage. A review of outcomes and costs in all longstanding programmes needs to be done with a view to determining their continuation or otherwise.

Accurate data collection and update is necessary to prepare comprehensive education strategies. The Provincial and district level Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) will be strengthened and cohesion with the National Education Management Information System (NEMIS) will be improved.

21. Enrolments, Allocation and Expenditure

A. School Enrolment, by Gender, Rural-Urban and Public-Private



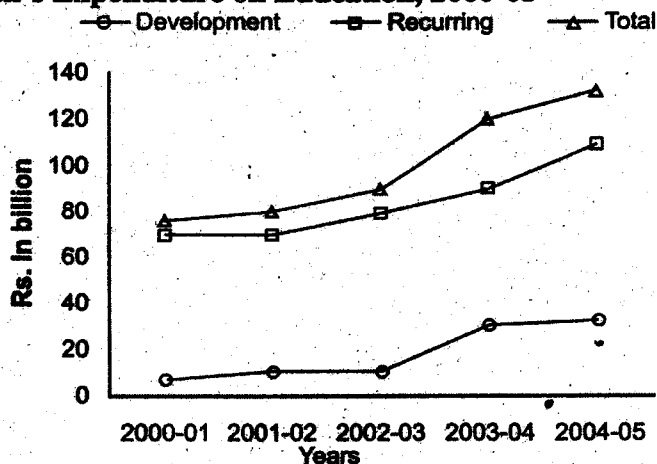
B. Global Comparison

Country	Percent of GDP
South Korea	4.9
Japan	3.6
Singapore	3.0
Malaysia	7.9
China	2.3
India	4.2
Pakistan	2.4

Source: Global Competitiveness Report (2004-05)

* Min. of Education

C. Pakistan's Expenditure on Education, 2000-05



22. Proposed Major Programmes for Education Sector

S. No	Programmes	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10
1.	Opening of 25,000 literacy centre	4000	4500	5000	5500	6000
2.	Opening of 30,000 Primary Schools	4500	5000	5500	7000	8000
3.	Upgrade of 50,000 Primary schools to Middle level	10000	10000	10000	10000	10000
4.	Upgrade of 5,000 Middle schools to Secondary level	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000
5.	Addition of classes XI-XII in 2000 Secondary Schools	200	250	450	500	600
6.	Establishment of 8 Cadet Colleges	1	1	2	2	2
7.	Establishment of 100 Degree Colleges with 4 year stream	10	15	20	25	30
8.	Upgrade 300 degree colleges to 4 year stream	60	60	60	60	60
9.	60 Mainstreaming of 8,m000 Madaris	1600	1600	1600	1600	1600
10.	Opening of 50 Polytechnics	10	10	10	10	10
11.	Induction of Technical Stream in 2000 existing Secondary schools	400	400	400	400	400
12.	Strengthening of 120 existing teachers Training Institutes	24	24	24	24	24
13.	Stipend for girls students and scholarships for talented students	80000	80000	80000	80000	80000
14.	Establish 75 Commercial Training Institutes	15	15	15	15	15
15.	Establish 75 Vocational training Institutes	15	15	15	15	15

23. Financial Outlay

(Rs. In billion)

S. No.	Sub-Sector	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	Total
Federal							
1.	Literacy	0.80	0.83	0.90	1.00	1.15	4.68
2.	Elementary Education	0.70	0.73	0.89	1.140	1.20	4.62
3.	Secondary Education	0.60	0.62	0.65	0.70	0.75	3.32
4.	College Education	0.60	0.63	0.66	0.70	0.75	3.34
5.	Technical Education	1.00	1.05	1.14	1.22	1.35	5.76
6.	Teacher Education	0.40	0.42	0.48	0.54	0.60	2.44
7.	Scholar ships & Misc.	0.40	0.42	0.48	0.54	0.60	2.44
	Federal Total:	4.50	4.70	5.20	5.80	6.40	26.60
Provincial							
1.	Literacy	2.10	2.52	3.17	3.80	4.50	16.10
2.	Elementary Education	2.10	2.52	3.11	3.75	4.40	15.87
3.	Secondary Education	1.30	1.44	2.00	2.70	4.30	11.74
4.	College Education	1.20	1.82	2.60	3.30	4.00	12.92
5.	Technical Education	3.00	3.60	4.32	5.20	6.30	22.42
6.	Teacher Education	1.00	1.10	1.30	1.50	1.80	6.70
7.	Scholar ships & Misc.	1.00	1.20	1.30	1.75	2.10	7.35
	Provincial Total:	11.70	14.20	17.80	22.00	27.40	93.10
National							
1.	Literacy	2.90	3.35	4.07	4.80	5.65	20.77
2.	Elementary Education	2.80	3.25	4.00	4.85	5.60	20.50
3.	Secondary Education	1.90	2.06	2.65	3.40	5.05	15.06
4.	College Education	1.80	2.45	3.26	4.00	4.75	16.26
5.	Technical Education	4.00	4.65	5.46	6.42	7.65	28.18
6.	Teacher Education	1.40	1.52	1.78	2.04	2.40	09.14
7.	Scholar ships & Misc.	1.40	1.52	1.78	2.04	2.40	09.14
	National Total:	16.20	18.90	23.00	27.80	33.80	119.70

UNIT No. 8

FUNDAMENTALS OF DEVELOPMENT

**Written By:
Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi**



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FUNDAMENTALS OF DEVELOPMENT

Introduction

This unit examines how education contributes to the overall development of a country. Improvement in the quality of labour force due to increased education can occur simultaneously with changes in variables that reflect other dimensions of quality of labour force. However, if the impact of education is computed a net of interaction effects, involving interaction of changes in education with changes in gender, employment, class, age and occupations may go down, but overall this will appear in positive.

Efforts have been marked to review economic measures in view of development. The main objectives of the development and a profile of education in developing region has been discussed in detail. The economics of education and development are also highlighted. Some important issues related to education, society and development have critically been discussed. Summary and conclusions as drawn are a result of the whole discussion and some educational policy options are given in the end of this unit.



OBJECTIVES:

After going through this unit readers will be able to:

1. Understand the meanings and different views of development
2. Appreciate the economic view of development.
3. Analyze the role of education in development with reference to developing region.
4. Recognize the economics of education and employment.
5. Assess the social and private benefits and costs of education.
6. Understand the issues related to education, society and development.

TRADITIONAL ECONOMIC MEASURES

In strictly economic terms, "development" has traditionally meant the capacity of a national economy, whose initial economic condition has been more or less static for a long time, to general and sustain an annual increase in its gross national product at rates of perhaps 5 to 7% or more. An alternative common economic index of development has been the use of rates of growth of per capita GNP to take into account the ability of a nation to expand its output at a rate faster than the growth rate of its population. Levels and rates of growth of "real" per capita GNP (i.e. monetary growth of GNP per capita minus the rate of inflation) are normally used to measure in a broad sense the overall economic well-being of a population – that is, how much of real goods and services is available for consumption and investment for the average citizen.

Economic development in the past has also been typically seen in terms of the planned alternative of the structure of production and employment so that agriculture's share of both declines, whereas that of the manufacturing and vice industries increases. This, of course, is the essence of theories of structural change. Development strategies, therefore, have usually focused on rapid industrialization, often at the expense of agriculture and rural development. Finally, these principal economic measures of development have often been supplemented by casual reference to non-economic social indicators: gains in literacy, schooling, health conditions and services, and provision of housing, for instance. A description of various attempts to generate these "social indicators" of development of supplement GNP and GNP per capita is presented for the interested student in Appendix 3.2 at the end of this chapter.

But, on the whole, development in the 1960s and 1970s was nearly always seen as an economic phenomenon, in which rapid gains in overall and per capita GNP growth would either "trickle down" to the masses in the form of jobs and other economic opportunities or create the necessary conditions for the wider distribution of the economic and social benefits of growth. Problems of poverty, unemployment, and income distribution were of secondary importance to "getting the growth job done".

The New Economic View of Development

The experience of the 1950s and 1960s, when a large number of Third World nations did achieve the overall UN growth targets but the levels of living of the masses of people remained for the most part unchanged, signaled that some thing was very wrong with this narrow definition of development. An increasing number of economists and policy makers now clamored for the "dethronement off GNP" and the elevation of direct attacks on widespread absolute poverty, increasingly inequitable income distributions, and rising, unemployment. In short, during the 1970s economic development came to be redefined in terms of the *reduction or elimination of property, inequality, and unemployment within the*

context of a growing. "Redistribution from Growth" became a common slogan. Professor Dudley Seers year posed the basic question about the meaning of development succinctly when he asserted:

The questions to ask about a country's development are therefore: What has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality? If all three of these have declined from high levels then beyond doubt this has been period of development for the country concerned. If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have, it would be strange to call the result "development" even if per capita income doubled.

The above assertion is not idle speculation or the description of a hypothetical situation. There are a number of developing countries that experienced relatively high rates of growth of per capita income during the 1960s and 1970s but that showed little or no improvement or even an actual decline in employment, equality, and the real incomes of the bottom 40% of their population. By the earlier "growth" definition, these countries were "developing." By the more recent poverty, equality, and employment criteria, they were not. The situation in the 1980s worsened further as GNP growth rates turned negative for many LDCs and, faced with mounting foreign debt problems, governments were forced to cut back on their already limited social and economic programs.

But the phenomenon of development or the existence of a chronic state of underdevelopment is not only a question of economics or even of quantitative measurement of incomes, employment, and inequality. Underdevelopment is a real fact of life for over 3 billion people in the world — a state of mind as much as a state of national poverty. As Denis Goulet has so forcefully portrayed it:

Underdevelopment is shocking: the squalor, disease, unnecessary deaths, and hopelessness of it all! No man understands if underdevelopment remains for him a mere statistic reflecting low income, poor housing, premature mortality or underemployment. The most empathetic observer can speak objectively about underdevelopment only after undergoing, personally or vicariously, the "shock of underdevelopment." This unique culture shock comes to one as he is initiated to the emotions which prevail in the "culture of poverty." The reverse shock is felt by those living in destitution when a new self-understanding reveals to them that their life is neither human nor inevitable the prevalent emotion of underdevelopment is a sense of personal and societal impotence in the face of disease and death, of confusion and ignorance as one gropes to understand change, of servility toward

men whose decisions govern the course of events, of hopelessness before hunger and natural catastrophe. Chronic poverty is a cruel kind of hell, and one can not understand how cruel that hell is merely by gazing upon poverty as an object.

Similarly, in a recent book, Edgar Owens year argues that:

Development has been treated by economists as if it were nothing more than an exercise in applied economics, unrelated to political ideas, forms of government, and the role of people in society. It is high time we combine political and economic theory to consider not just ways in which societies can become more productive but the quality of the societies which are supposed to become more productive — the development of people rather than the development of things.¹⁴

The condition of underdevelopment in its totality is thus a consciously experienced state of deprivation rendered especially intolerable as more and more people acquire information about the development of other societies and realize that technical and institutional means for abolishing poverty, misery, and disease do indeed exist.

Development must, therefore, be conceived of as a multidimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality, and the eradication of absolute poverty. Development, in its essence, must represent the whole gamut of change by which an entire social system, tuned to the diverse basic need and desires of individuals and social groups within that system, moves away from a condition of life widely perceived as unsatisfactory and toward a situation or condition of life regarded as materially and spiritually "better."

Three Core Values of Development

Is it possible to define or broadly conceptualize what we mean when we talk about development as the sustained elevation of an entire society and social system toward a "better" or "more humane" life? The question, What constitutes the good life? Is as old as philosophy and humankind. It is a timeless and perennial question that needs to be reevaluated and freshly answered with the changing environment of world society. The appropriate answer for Third World nations in the last decade of the 20th century is not necessarily the same as it would have been in previous decades. But we believe with Professor Goulet and others that at least three basic components or core values should serve as conceptual basis and practical guideline for understanding the "inner" meaning of development. These core values are *life-sustenance*, self-esteem, and *freedom*, representing common goals sought by all individuals and societies.¹³ They relate

to fundamental human needs that find their expression in almost all societies and cultures at all times. Let us, therefore, examine each in turn.

Life-Sustenance: The Ability to Provide Basic Needs

All people have certain basic needs without which life would be impossible. These "life-sustaining" basic human needs include food, shelter, health and protection. When any of these is absent or in critically short supply, we may state without reservation that a condition of "absolute underdevelopment" exists. *A basic function of all economic activity, therefore, is to provide as many people as possible with the means of overcoming the helplessness and misery arising from a lack of food, shelter, health, and protection.* To this extent, we may claim that economic development is a necessary condition for the improvement in the "quality of life" that is "development". Without sustained and continuous economic progress at the individual as well as the societal level, the realization of the human potential would not be possible. One clearly has to "have enough in order to be more." Rising per capita incomes, the elimination of absolute poverty, greater employment opportunities, and lessening income inequalities, therefore, constitute the necessary but not the sufficient conditions for development.¹⁸

Self-Esteem: To Be a Person

A second universal component of the good life is self-esteem — a sense of worth and self-respect, of not being used as a tool by other for their own ends. All peoples and societies seek some basic form of self-esteem, although they may call it authenticity, identity, dignity, respect, honor, or recognition. The nature and form of this self-esteem may vary from society to society and from one culture to another. However, with the proliferation of the "modernizing values" of developed nations. Many societies in Third World countries that previously may have possessed a profound sense of their own worth suffer from serious cultural confusion when they come in contact with economically and technologically advanced societies because national prosperity has become an almost universal measure of worth. Because of the significance attached to material values in developed nations, worthiness and esteem are nowadays increasingly conferred only on those countries who possess economic wealth and technological power those that have "developed". Again, we may quote Professor Goulet: (year)

The relevant point is that underdevelopment is the lot of the majority of the world's population. As long as esteem or respect was dispensed on grounds other than material achievement, it was possible to resign oneself to poverty without feeling disdained. Conversely, once the prevailing image of the better life includes material welfare as one of its essential ingredients it becomes difficult for the materially "underdeveloped" to feel respected or esteemed ... nowadays the Third World seeks development in order to gain the esteem which is denied to

societies living in a state of disgraceful "underdevelopment" Development is legitimized as a goal because it is an important, perhaps even an indispensable, way of gaining esteem.

Freedom from Servitude: to Be Able to Choose

A third and final universal value that we suggest should constitute the meaning of development is the concept of freedom. Freedom here is not to be understood in the political or ideological sense (e.g., the free world), but in the more fundamental sense of freedom or emancipation from alienating material conditions of life and from social servitude to nature, ignorance, other people, misery, institution, and dogmatic beliefs. Freedom involves the expanded range of choices for societies and their members together with the minimization of external constraints in the pursuit of some social goal we call development. W. Arthur Lewis stressed the relationship between economic growth and freedom from servitude when he concluded that "the advantage of economic growth is not that wealth increase happiness, but that it increase the range of human choice. Wealth can enable a person to gain greater control over nature and his physical environment (e.g., through the production of food, clothing, and shelter) than he would have if he remained poor. It also gives him the freedom to choose greater leisure, to have more goods and services, or to deny the importance of these material wants and live a life of spiritual contemplation.

The Three Objectives of Development

We may conclude that *development is both a physical reality and state of mind* in which society has, through some combination of social, economic, and institutional processes, secured the means for obtaining a better life. Whatever are the specific components of this better life, development in all societies must have at least the following three objectives:

1. To increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life-sustaining goods such as food, shelter, health, and protection
2. To raise levels of living including, in addition to higher incomes, the provision of more jobs, better education, and greater attention to cultural and human values, all of which will serve not only to enhance material well being but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem.
3. To expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation-states but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery.

We may therefore reformulate and broaden Professor Seer's questions about the meaning of development as follows:

1. Have general levels of living within a nation risen to the point that there has been a lessening of absolute poverty (i.e., deprivation of life-sustaining goods) and of inequality in come distribution, as well as improvements in the level of employment and the nature and quality of educational, health, and other social and cultural services?
2. Has economic progress enhanced individual and group esteem both internally vis-à-vis one another and externally vis-à-vis other nations and regions?
3. Finally, has economic progress expanded the range of human choice and freed people from external dependence and internal servitude to other people and institutions, rather than merely substituting one form of dependence (e.g., economic) for another (e.g., cultural)

If for a given nation the answer to each of the above three questions is yes, then clearly that nation has undergone development. If the first question (which is equivalent to Seer's three questions) can be answered affirmatively but the other two remain negative, then the country may properly be designated as "economically more developed" yet it remains underdeveloped in a more fundamental sense. In this context, it is more appropriate to refer to the rich nations of the world as economically developed and reserve judgement as to whether or not they are actually developed to a more thoroughgoing social, political, and cultural analysis. To paraphrase seers, if the second and third of these central questions evoke negative responses (i.e., if people feel less self-esteem, respect, or dignity and / or if their freedom to choose has been constrained), then even if the provision of life-sustaining goods and improvements in levels of living are occurring, it would be misleading to call the result development.

Education is considered to be one of the determinants of development of any country. In the following paragraphs the latest picture of education in Pakistan is presented. This will highlight how this system has been developed in the National Education Policy 1998-2010. This will help the reader to determine the pace of developing in Pakistan.

EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN

The accelerated development in any socio-economic sector specially in the human resources development is not possible without wide range of literacy. Pakistan has one of the lowest literacy rate is not possible without wide range of literacy. Pakistan has one of the lowest literacy rate of 53% in region, usually due to low priority given to education in the past. The expenditure on Education in Public Sector remained below 1% of the GNP upto sixties. It was increased to 2.5% of the GNP in 1996-97, which was still lower as compared to other developing countries. It ranged from 2.3% to 2.5% during 1990-91 to 1998-99: It is planned to increase the expenditure on education to 4% of GNP. Serious efforts

are being made to improve the literacy rate by providing opportunity of education to all the children within the school going age group. Private Sector is also supplementing the efforts of the Government especially in the urban areas.

National Education Policy (1998-2010)

To meet the growing need of the nation for education that may commensurate with the relevant requirements of 21st century; the Government of Pakistan formulated and announced a National Education policy 1998-2010. The objectives of the policy are given below:

Objectives

- To make the Qur'anic principles and Islamic practices as an integral part of curricula so that the message of the Holy Qur'an could be disseminated in the process of education as well as training. To educate and train the future generation of Pakistan as a true practicing Muslim, who would be able to enter into 21st century and the next millennium with courage, confidence, wisdom and tolerance.
- To achieve universal primary education by using formal and informal techniques to provide second opportunity to school drop-outs by establishing basic education community schools all over the country.
- To meet the basic learning needs of child in terms of learning tools and contents.
- To expand basic education qualitatively and quantitatively by providing the maximum opportunities of free access to every child for education. The imbalances and disparities in the system will be removed to enhance the access with the increased number of more middle and secondary level schools.
- To ensure that all boys and girls, desirous of entering secondary education get the basic right because of the availability of the schools.
- To lay emphasis on diversification so as to transform the system from supply oriented to demand-oriented. To attract the educated youth with world of work from various educational levels is one of the policy objectives so that they may become productive and useful citizens and contribute positively as members of society.
- To lay emphasis on diversification so as to transform the system from supply-oriented to demand-oriented. To attract the educated youth to the world of work at various educational levels so that they may become productive and useful citizens and contribute positively as members of society.

- To make curriculum development a continuous process and to make arrangements for developing a uniform system of education.
- To prepare the students for the pursuit of professional and specialized education.
- To increase the effectiveness of the system by institutionalizing in-service training of teacher, teacher trainers and educational administrators. To upgrade the quality of pre-service teacher training programs by introducing parallel programs of longer duration at post-secondary and post-degree levels.
- To develop a viable framework for policy, planning and development of teacher training programmes, both in-service and pre-service.
- To develop technical and vocational education in the country for producing trained manpower, commensurate with the needs of industry.
- To improve the quality of technical education so as to enhance the changes of employment of Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) graduates by moving from a static, supply-based system to a demand-driven system.
- To popularize information technology among children of all ages and prepare them for the next century. To emphasize different functions of computers as a learning tool in the classroom. To employ information technology in planning and monitoring of educational programs.
- To encourage the private sector of monitoring and evaluation at all levels. To identify indicators of quality and to adopt corrective measures during the process of implementation.
- To achieve excellence in different fields of higher education by introducing new disciplines/emerging sciences in the universities, and transform selected disciplines into centres of advanced studies, research and extension.
- To upgrade the quality of higher education by bringing teaching, learning and research process in line with international standards.

Literacy

The definition of literacy is context specific. Some definitions of literacy focus on perception and decoding. For example, Spache (1964) described literacy as "a series of word perceptions i.e. reading only". Kaestle (1985), described literacy as "the ability to decode and comprehend language at a rudimentary level, that is the ability to look at written words corresponding to ordinary oral discourse, to say them and to understand them." These two definitions emphasize the aspect of having the teaching of reading through an emphasis on sound-

symbols into the understanding of oral language. These definitions are consistent with the teaching of reading through an emphasis on sound-symbol correspondence, and helping readers make connections to their oral vocabulary and comprehension abilities. But these definitions lack the important component of writing.

It is observed that initially, the definition of literacy was confined to the acquisition of the basic skills of the 3 Rs. (reading, writing and arithmetic). Over a period of time, basic literacy was upgraded to functional literacy, expanding further into knowing to do things by using insight. This transformation of literacy is, in fact, associated with its importance for the society as a whole, and to enable a person to effectively participate in the life.

Though defining literacy is complex, yet it is important to deliberate upon it since the definition has far-reaching implications. Some experts have emphasized cognitive processes in describing literacy, some more generally and others more specifically. For example, Goodman (1976) suggested that "reading is a skill". Calfee and Nelson-Barber (1991), describe it "the capacity to employ language as a tool for oral communication." These definitions are consistent with reaching reading and writing as a cognitive process that involve the process of information through such strategies as activating background knowledge, encouraging readers to make predictions, or writers to organize their ideas into categories.

The literacy level of population is considered to be a key indicator of the socio-economic development in a country. In Pakistan, Literacy rate has been estimated as (56.5% for male and 32.6% for female) as per 1998 Population Census. With this literacy level, the country still remains on the list of the most illiterate countries in the region. According to the population Census 1998, the literacy rate has increased to 45% from 26.2% during 1981 Census. The literacy rate for Punjab was 20.7 % during 1972 which increased to 47.1% in 1998 showing 26.7% increase over the last 26 years. Similarly in Sindh the literacy rate increased from 30.2% during 1972 to 46.7% in 1998. The literacy rate for NWFP was 14.5 % during 1972 which is increased to 37.3% in 1998. In Balochistan the literacy rate increased from 10.1% during 1972 to 26.6% in 1998.

Literate Population by Age Groups

Analysis of literate population by broad age groups based on population census 1998 shows that out of 88.9 million population (10 years and above) for both sexes in the country, 40.01 million persons (45%) were literate which include 265.2 million male (86%) and 13.9 million female (32.6%). The population failing in age group 15-19 years shows the highest literacy level of 58.2 % for both sexes with males (68.3%). However, in case of females, the age group 10-14 years have the highest literacy level of 48.4%. It further reveals that the illiterate population (both sexes 10 years and above) was 48.8 million which

include 28.7 million female population. The male illiterate population (10 years and above) was 20.1 million during the 1998 census.

School Education and Number Schools

During the year 1998-99 the network of Educational Institutions spread over the country included 162,568 Primary Schools, 18,048 Middle Schools and 11,556 High Schools. The Primary Schools also include Mosque Schools. The number of Primary Schools increased by 21.3% during the period from 1993-94 to 1998-99. The number of Middle Schools also showed an increase of 9.93% and 35.39 % during 1995-96 and 1998-99 respectively. The number of High Schools recorded an increase of 3.9% in 1995-96 and 21.11 % in 1998-99. This included upgradation of schools as well as opening of new schools.

Enrolment in Secondary Vocational Institutions

Enrolment data of Secondary Vocational Institutions consist of commercial, vocational and polytechnic / Technical institutions below degree level within the four provinces and Federal Capital Territory, Islamabad.

The total enrolment in all types of Secondary Vocational Institutions were 68,883 during 1998-99 which indicates an increase of 10% as compared to 1993-94. However, in 1993-94 commercial institutes enrolled 24,144 students which decreased to 18,220 in 1995-96 showing a fall of 24.5% during the period. In vocational institutes, enrolment in 1993-94 was 10,805 which increased to 12,669 in 1995-96 with an increase of 17.3%. It has been noted that female enrolment in vocational institutions is more than male due to their inclination towards embroidery. Polytechnic / Technical Institutions enrolled 27,547 students in all during 1993-94 which significantly increased to 40,795 in 1995-96 showing an increase of 48 %.

College Education and Number of Colleges

College education is broadly bifurcated into general and professional education. General education include Arts and Science faculties at Intermediate and Bachelor level. Intermediate is further sub- divided into FA & F.Sc and Bachelor level into B.A and B.Sc. In 1993-94, there were 651 Arts and Science Colleges which increased to 715 in 1995-96 showing an increase of 9.8% over time. However, the number of Colleges increased to 735 in 1998-99 showing an increase of 2.8 % during the period.

Professional Colleges include of Medical Colleges, Law, Engineering, Education, Commerce, Agriculture and Home Economics Colleges etc. The Government has now planned to establish National Education Testing Service to

design and administer standardized tests for enrolment in professional institutions. Qualifying these test will become a compulsory requirement for entry to professional education. The overall number of Professional Colleges in 1993-94 was 165 which increased to 260 in 1995-96, showing an increase of 57.57 %. The number of Colleges further increased to 294 in 1998-99 showing an increase of about 13%. Number of colleges by type is given the following:

Number of Colleges by type

Type	1993-94	1995-96	(Number) 1998-99 (P)
Arts & Science Colleges	651	715	790
Professional Colleges	165	260	294
Medical (a)	25	25	26
Law	36	41	43
Engineering (b)	10	10	14
Education (c)	21	21	22
Commerce (d)	52	58	72
Agriculture (c)	5	5	5
Home Economics	4	4	4
Others (f)	12	96	108

P = Provisional,

Source: Provincial Bureaus of Statistics

- a) *Includes colleges of dentistry and institute of hygiene and preventive Medicines.*
- b) *Includes College of Textile Technology.*
- c) *Includes institutes of Education and Research of the Punjab & Sindh Universities and Colleges of Physical Education.*
- d) *Includes Institutes of Business Administration.*
- e) *Includes Forestry and Animal Husbandry Colleges.*
- f) *Includes Tibb. Homeopathic and Fine Arts Colleges and Institutions.*

Enrolment in Colleges

There were 675 thousand students including 24.9 thousand female enrolled in Arts and Science Colleges in 1993-94 in the country. Enrolment in Arts and Science Colleges increased in 1998-99 to about 796 thousand indicating an increase of 17.9% during the period. It is encouraging to note that the female enrolment increased over the period by 34.5 % i.e from 249 thousand in 1993-94 to 335 thousand in 1998-99.

As regards Professional Colleges, there were overall 99 thousand students enrolled in 1993-94 which increased to about 128 thousand in 1995-96 and further increased to about 160 thousand in 1998-99. There were 24,759 students

in medical colleges, 17,993 in Law Colleges, 11,869 in Engineering Colleges, 10,861 in colleges of Education, 52,612 in Commerce, 1317 in Agriculture and 4,258 in Home Economics respectively in 1998-99.

University Education and Number of Universities

At the time of independence there were only 2 universities in the country. The number of universities has increased to 25 in public sector. It induced the private sector who also established 12 universities. One university has been established exclusively for women in 1998. For establishment of private university, the Higher Education Commission Seats is providing guideline and for exercise effective control over institutions established in the private sector. In order to create more funding, the Government has decided to reserve 25% of the seats on self finance basis. However, back ward and remote areas like Balochistan and Azad Kashmir are exempted from this scheme.

Enrolment in Universities

In the field of higher education and scientific research, Ministry of Education has launched a number of bilateral and multilateral projects with the assistance of donor agencies to bring about an improvement in the field of higher education and bring it closer to the demand of the industrial sector of the economy. The objectives of these projects are to qualitatively improve the education of enrolled students and increase their number to meet the future requirements of the country and to have the capability to compete in the world market.

The number of students enrolled in universities in 1993-94 were 77,119 including 19,342 female students, showing 25.1 % female participation. In 1998-99, this number increased to 100,122 indicating an increase of 29.80%. However, female participation has increased to 26,499 i.e. the female ratio has increased to 26.46% in the total university level enrolment in the country.

Enrolment in University by Sex

Type / Sex	1993-94	1995-96	(Number) 1.998-99 (P)
Total	77,119	82,955	100,122
Male	57,777	59,850	73,623
Female	19,342	23,105	26,499

P= Provisional data

Source: Provincial Bureau of Statistics

Teachers in Universities

In 1993-94 there were 5,217 teachers in universities, which included 918 female teachers. Their number increased to 5,417 in 1995-96 showing increase of 4.8%. However, the number of teachers increased to 5,657 in 1998-99 depicting 4.43% increase w.r.t 1995-96. The number of female teachers increased from 918 in 1993-94 to 1,005 in 1998-99.

Teachers in Universities by Sex

1998-99 (P)	1993-94	1995-96	(Number) 1998-99 (P)
Total	5,217	5,417	5,657
Male	4,299	4,490	4,652
Female	918	927	1,005

P = Provisional

Sources: Provincial Bureau of Statistics.

THE ECONOMICS OF EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

Much of the literature and public discussion about education and economic development in general, and education and employment in particular, revolves around two fundamental economic processes: (1) the interaction between economically motivated demands and politically responsive *supplies* in determining how many school places are provided, who gets access to these places, and what kind of instruction they receive, and (2) the important distinction between "social" versus "private" benefits and costs of different levels of education, and the implications of these differentials for educational investment strategy.

Education Supply and Demand:

The Relationship Between Employment Opportunities and Educational Demands

The amount of schooling received by an individual, although affected by many non-market factors, can be regarded as largely determined by demand and supply, just as any other commodity or service. However, since most education is publicly provided in less developed countries, the determinants of demand turn out to be much more important than the determinants of supply. On the demand side the two principal influences on the amount of schooling desired are (1) a more educated student's prospects of earning considerably more income through future modern sector employment (i.e. his or her family's "private benefits" of education), and (2) the educational costs, both direct and indirect, which a student and / or his family must bear. The demand for education is thus in reality a "derived demand" for high-wage employment opportunities in the modern sector.

This is because access to such jobs is largely determined by an individual's education. Most people (especially the poor) in less developed nations do not demand education for its intrinsic non-economic benefits but simply because it is the only means of securing modern-sector employment. These derived benefits must in turn be weighed against the costs of education.

On the supply side, the quantity of school places at the primary, secondary, and university levels is determined largely by political processes, often un-related to economic criteria. Given mounting political pressure throughout the Third World for greater numbers of school places, we can for convenience assume that the public supply of these places is fixed by the level of government education expenditures. These in turn are influenced by the level of aggregate private demand for education.

Because it is the demand for education that largely determines the supply (within the limits of government financial feasibility), let us look more closely at the economic (employment – oriented) determinants of this derived demand.

The demand for an education sufficient to qualify an individual for entry into modern-sector jobs appears to be related to or determined by the combined influence of the following four variables.

The wage and / or income differential. This is the wage differential between jobs in the modern sector and those outside it (family farming, rural and urban self-employment, etc.), which for simplicity we can designate as the traditional sector. Entry into modern-sector jobs depends initially on the level of completed education, whereas income-earning opportunities in the traditional sector have no fixed educational requirements. The greater the modern-sector / traditional-sector income differential, the greater will be the demand for education. Thus, our *first relationship states that the demand for education is positively related to the modern traditional sector wage differential*. Since we know from empirical studies that these differentials can be considerable in developing nations, we might expect the demand for education to be relatively high.

The probability of success in finding modern-sector employment. An individual who successfully completes the necessary schooling for entry into the modern sector labor market has a higher probability of getting that well-paid urban job than someone who does not. Clearly, if urban unemployment rates among the educated are growing and / or if the supply of, say, secondary school graduates continually exceeds the number of new job openings for which a secondary graduate can qualify, then we need to modify the “actual” wage differential and instead speak once again about an “expected” income differential. As the probability of success is inversely related to the unemployment rate — we can argue that the demand for education through, say, the secondary level will be inversely related to the current unemployment rate among secondary school graduates.⁹

The direct private costs of education. We refer here to the current out-of-pocket expenses of financing a child's education. These expenses include school fees, books, clothing, and related costs. We would expect that the *demand for education would be inversely related to these direct costs* — that is, the higher the school fees and associated costs, the lower would be the private demand for education, every thing else being equal. For poor people, direct primary school costs often represent a major burden and real financial constraint. In much of Africa, for example, the average cost of sending a child to primary school (not including opportunity costs) is typically in excess of 20% of per capita income.

The indirect or "opportunity costs" of education. An investment in a child's education involves more than just the direct, out-of-pocket costs of that education, especially when the child reaches the age at which he can make a productive contribution to family income. At this point, for each year the child continues his education he in effect foregoes the money income he could expect to earn or the output he could produce for the family farm. This "opportunity cost" of education must also be included as a variable affecting its demand.¹⁰ One would expect the relationship between opportunity costs and demand to be inverse — that is, *the greater are the opportunity costs, the lower will be demand for education.*

Although several other important variables, many of which are non-economic (e.g., cultural traditions, social status, education, of parents and size of family), certainly influence the demand for education, we believe that by concentrating on the four variables described above, important insights can be gained into the relationship between the demand for education and the supply of employment opportunities.

To give an example, suppose we have a situation in an LDC where the following conditions prevail:

1. The modern — traditional or urban — rural wage gap is of the magnitude of say, 100% for secondary versus primary school graduates.
2. The rate of increase in modern — sector employment opportunities for primary school dropouts is slower than the rate at which such individuals enter the labor force. The same may be true at the secondary level and even the university level in countries such as India, Mexico, Egypt, Pakistan, and more recently, Ghana, Nigeria, and Kenya.
3. Employers, faced with an excess of applicants, tend to select by level of education. They will choose candidates with secondary rather than primary education even though satisfactory job performance may require no more than a primary education.
4. Governments, supported by the political pressure of the educated, tend to bind the going wage to the level of educational attainment of jobholders rather than to the minimum educational qualification required for the job.

5. School fees at the early primary level are often nominal or even nonexistent. They tend to rise sharply at the late primary and secondary level and then decline again at the university level as the state bears a larger proportion of the college student's costs.

Under these conditions, which conform closely to the realities of the employment and education situation in many developing nations, we would expect the demand for education to be substantial. This is because the anticipated "private" benefits of more schooling would be large compared to the alternative of little or no schooling, while the direct and indirect private educational costs are relatively low. And the demand spirals upward over time. As job opportunities for the uneducated diminish, individuals must safeguard their position by acquiring a complete primary education. This may suffice for a while, but the internal dynamics of the employment demand-supply process eventually lead to a situation in which job prospects for those with only primary education begin to decline. This in turn creates a growing demand for secondary education. But the demand for primary education must increase concurrently, as some who were previously content with no education are now being squeezed out of the labour market.

The irony is that *the more unprofitable a given level of education becomes as a terminal point, the more demand for it increases as an intermediate stage or precondition to the next level of education!* This puts great pressure on governments to expand educational facilities at all levels to meet the growing demand. If they cannot respond fast enough, the people may do so on their own, as evidenced, for example, by the "Harambee" school self-help movement in Kenya, where community-sponsored secondary schools were built throughout the country with the knowledge that their maintenance would be taken over later by the government.

The upshot of all this is the chronic tendency for developing nations to expand their educational facilities at a rate that is extremely difficult to justify either socially or financially in terms of optimal resource allocation. Each worsening of the employment situation calls forth an increased demand for (and supply of) more formal education at all levels. Initially it is primarily the uneducated who are found among the ranks of the unemployed to rise as the supply of school graduates continues to exceed the demand for middle and high-level manpower. The better educated must, after varying periods of unemployment during which aspirations are scaled downward, take jobs requiring lower levels of education. The diploma and degree thus become basis requirements for employment; they are no longer an entrée into a high-paid job, much less are they the education they were intended to signify.

Governments and private employers in many LDCs tend to strengthen this trend by continuously upgrading formal educational entry requirements for jobs previously filled by those less educated. Excess educational qualification becomes formalized and may resist downward adjustment. Moreover, to the extent that trade unions succeed in binding going wages to the educational attainments of jobholders, the going wage for each job will tend to rise (even though worker

productivity in that job has not significantly increased). Existing distortions in wage differentials will be magnified, thus stimulating the demand for education even further.

As a result of this "educational displacement phenomenon," "those who for some reason (mostly their poverty) are unable to continue their education will fall by the wayside as unemployed school dropouts. At the same time the more affluent continue to over qualify themselves through more years of education. In the extreme case, one gets a situation like that of contemporary India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh, where the higher education system is in effect an "absorber of last resort" for the great numbers of educated unemployed. This is a terribly expensive form of unemployment compensation. Moreover, because people cannot remain students until they retire, these greater masses will eventually have to emerge from behind the walls of academia into a world of tight labor markets. The result will be a more visible unemployment among those who are both highly educated and highly vocal. For example, a recent study in Bangladesh revealed that the unemployment rate among university graduates was 47%.

Finally, it should be pointed out that many individuals tend to resist what they see as a downgrading of their job qualifications. Consequently, even though on the demand-for-labor side employers will attempt to substitute the more educated for the less educated for a given job, on the supply side there will be many job seekers whose expectations exceed the emerging realities of the labor market. They might prefer to remain unemployed for some time rather than accept a job that they feel is beneath them. It follows that as a result of these "frictional" effects and "lags" in adjustment on the supply side, unemployment will exist at all levels of education even though it is concentrated at lower levels and, in general, is inversely related to educational attainment.

Social Versus Private Benefits and Costs

The inexorable attraction of ever-higher levels of education is even more costly than this simple picture suggests. Typically in developing countries, the social cost of education (i.e., the opportunity cost to society as a whole resulting from the need to finance costly educational expansion at higher levels when these limited funds might be more productively used in other sectors of the economy) increase rapidly as students climb the educational ladder. The private costs (those borne by students themselves) increase more slowly or, indeed, may decline.

This widening gap between social and private costs provides and even greater stimulus to the demand for higher education than it does for education at lower levels. Educational demand, therefore, becomes increasingly exaggerated at the higher (post secondary) levels. But educational opportunities can be accommodated to these distorted demands only at full social cost. As demands are generated progressively through the system, the social cost of accommodation grows much more rapidly than the places provided. More and more resources,

therefore, may be misallocated to educational expansion in terms of social costs, and the potential for creating new jobs will consequently diminish for lack of public financial resources.

Figure 11.1 provides an illustration of this divergence between private versus social benefits and costs. It also demonstrates how this divergence can lead to a misallocation of resources when private interests supersede social investment criteria. In Figure 11.1 a, expected private return and actual private costs are plotted against years of completed schooling. As a student completes more and more years of schooling his expected private returns grow at a much faster rate than his private costs for reasons explained earlier. In order to maximize the difference between expected benefits and costs (and thereby the private rate of return to investment in education), the optional strategy for a student would be to secure as much schooling as possible.

PROBLEMS AND POLICES: DOMESTIC

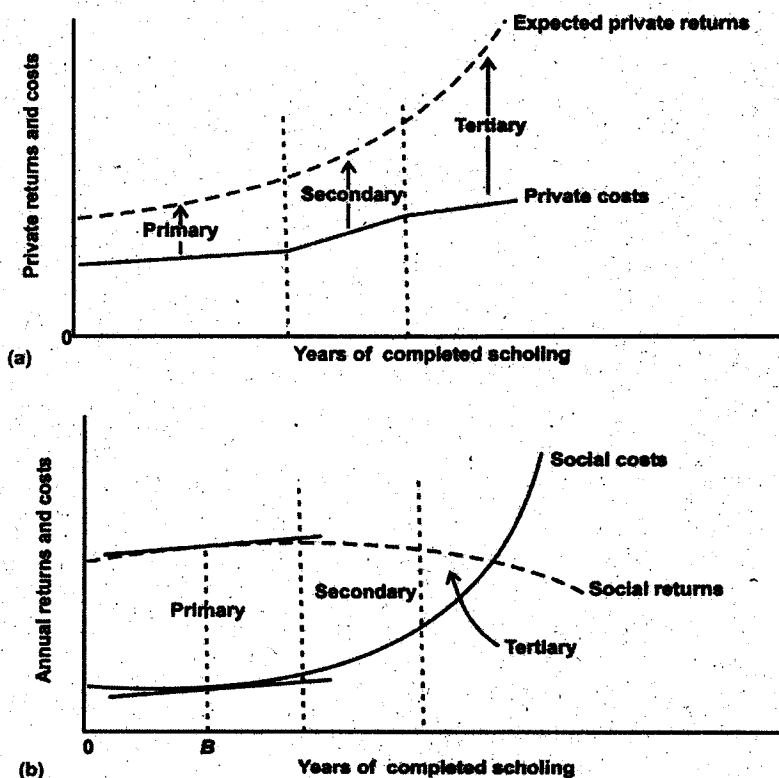


Figure 11.1 Private versus Social Benefits and Costs of Education: an Illustration.

Consider now Figure 11.1b, where social returns and social costs are plotted against years of schooling. The social benefits curve rises sharply at first, reflecting the improved levels of productivity of, say, small farmers and the self-

employed that result from receipt of a "basic" education and the attainment of literacy, arithmetic skills, and elementary vocational skills. Thereafter, the marginal social benefit of additional years of schooling increase but at a decreasing rate — thus the declining slope of the social returns curve. On the other hand, the social cost curve shows a slow rate of growth for early years of schooling (basic education) and then a much more rapid growth for higher levels of education. This rapid increase in the marginal social costs of post primary education is the result both of the much more expensive capital and recurrent costs of higher education (i.e., buildings and equipment) and, more important, of the fact that much post primary education in developing countries is heavily subsidized.

It follows from Figure 11.1b that the *optimal* strategy from a social view point (i.e., the one that maximizes the net social rate of return to educational investment) would be one that focuses on providing all students with at least 0B years of schooling. Beyond 0B years marginal social costs exceed marginal social benefits, so that additional educational investment in new, higher-level school places will yield a negative social rate of return. Moreover, in light of the recent empirical results of the Behrman – Birdsall study (*see Note 7*), the optimal social investment strategy may be to upgrade the quality of existing primary school rather than to expand their quantity. This quality — quantity trade off would be represented in the figure by an upward shift of the social return curve in Figure 11.1b.

Figure 11.1, therefore, illustrates the inherent conflict between optimal private and social investment strategies — a conflict that will continue to exist as long as private and social valuations of investment in education continues to diverge as students climb the educational ladder.

To a large degree, therefore, the problem of divergent social versus private benefits and costs has been artificially created by inappropriate public and private policies with regard to wage differentials, educational selectivity, and the pricing of educational services. As a result private perceptions of the value of education exceed its social value, which must take account of rising unemployment. As long as artificial and non market incentives in the form of disproportionate expected benefits and subsidized costs continues to exist and place a premium on the number of years one spends "getting an education," the individual will decide that it is in his best private interests to pursue a lengthy formal education process even though he may be aware that modern – sector jobs are becoming more scarce and unemployment rate are rising. Unless these various price signals are made to conform more closely to social realities, the misallocation of national resources (in this case too much expenditure on formal education) will persist and possibly increase.

What is needed, therefore, is a properly functioning reward – and cost-structure that develops and allocates human resources in accordance with requirements and opportunities in various segments of the economy. Where this is absent (i.e., where very high wage premiums are paid to workers in the modern urban sector and scarce jobs allocated on the basis of ever-increasing educational credentials) two obvious misallocation of human resources are likely to occur first, with the output of the educational system greatly in excess of what the economy can absorb, many students will emerge seeking jobs for which they may be educationally qualified but which have been preempted by others with even more education. They become temporarily unemployed for as long as it takes for their aspirations and status requirements, partly perhaps instilled in them by the educational system itself, to adjust to the stinging realities of unemployment in the modern sector. Second, those who adjust their sights downward and secure modern-sector employment normally have to take jobs for which they are overeducated in terms of the number of years spent in school. Those who fail to get modern-sector jobs at all swell the ranks of the permanently unemployed or become self-employed in the traditional sector. They are thus denied the opportunity to contribute productively to the society that invested so heavily in their education. This combination of the overpaid and, in many cases overeducated employed and the impoverished and unproductive educated unemployed reflects a serious misallocation of scarce national resources. The resources allocated to the expansion of the educational system might alternatively have been spent on say, needed rural public works projects. Such investment would provide emergency employment opportunities for recent graduates as well as for those with less education.

Having looked at the economics of education and employment, we can now examine some of the broader interrelationships among education, society, and development.

EDUCATION SOCIETY, AND DEVELOPMENT: SOME ISSUES

One cannot discuss the relationship between education and development without explicitly linking the structure of the educational system to the economic and social character of the Third World society in which it is contained. Educational system more often than not reflect the essential nature of that society. For example, if the society is very inegalitarian in economic and social structure, the educational system will probably reflect that bias in terms of who is able to proceed through the system. At the same time education can influence the future shape and direction of society in a number of ways. Thus, the linkage between education and development is a two-way process. By reflecting the socio-economic structures of the societies in which they function (whether egalitarian or not), educational systems tend to perpetuate, reinforce, and reproduce those

economic and social structures. On the other hand, educational reform, whether introduced from within or outside the system, has the great potential for inducing corresponding social and economic reform in the nation as a whole.

With these general observations in mind, let us look at six specific economic components of the development question — growth, inequality and poverty, population and fertility, internal migration, rural development, and external migration — to see in what way they influence or are influenced by most LDC educational systems. Such an examination will demonstrate the important two way relationship that exists between education and development. It should also provide us with an even broader understanding of the development problems and issues that have been discussed in previous chapters.

Education and Economic Growth

For many years the proposition that educational expansion promoted and in some case even determined the rate of overall GNP growth remained unquestioned. The logic seemed fairly straightforward. Third World nations were very deficient in their supply of semiskilled and skilled manpower. Without such manpower, which it was assumed could be created only through the formal educational system, development leadership in both the public and private sectors would be woefully lacking.

Impressive statistics and numerous quantitative studies of the sources of economic growth in the West were paraded out to demonstrate that it was not the growth of physical capital but rather of human capital (the “residual” in econometric production function estimates) that was the principal source of economic progress in the developed nations. Clearly, in the newly independent nations of Africa and Asia, there was an immediate need to build up the human as well as physical capital infrastructure in order to provide indigenous leadership for the major tasks of development. Rapid quantitative expansion of enrollments therefore appeared justified in light of the substantial manpower scarcities of the 1950s and 1960s. And, although it is often difficult to document statistically, it seems clear that the expansion of educational opportunities at all levels has contributed to *aggregate economic growth* by (1) creating a more productive labour force and endowing it with increased knowledge and skills; (2) providing wider spread employment and income-earning opportunities for teachers, school and construction workers, textbook and paper printers, school uniform manufactures, etc; (3) creating a class of educated leaders to fill vacancies left by departing expatriates or otherwise vacant positions in governmental services, public corporations, private businesses, and professions; (4) providing the kind of training and education that would promote literacy and basic skills while encouraging “modern” attitudes on the part of diverse segments of the population. Even if alternative investments in the economy could have generated greater growth, this would not detract from the important contributions, non

economic as well as economic, education can make and has made to promoting aggregate economic growth. That an educated and skilled labor force is a necessary condition of sustained economic growth cannot be denied.

On the other hand, any evaluation of the role of education in the process of economic development should go beyond the analysis of a single statistic of aggregate growth. One must also consider the *structure* and *pattern* of the economic growth and its distribution *implications* — who benefits.

Education, Inequality, and Poverty

For many years, studies on the economics of education in both developed and developing nations focused on the linkages between education, labor productivity, and output growth. This is not surprising since, as we have seen, the principal objective of development during the 1950s and 1960s was the maximization of aggregate rates of output growth. As a result, the impact of education on the distribution of income and the elimination of absolute poverty was largely neglected. Recent studies, however, have demonstrated that contrary to what might have been assumed, *the educational systems of many developing nations act to increase rather than to decrease income inequalities.*

The basic reason for this perverse effect of formal education on income distribution is the positive correlation between a person's level of education and his level of lifetime earnings. This correlation holds especially for those who are able to complete secondary and university education where income differentials over workers who have only completed part or all of their primary education can be on the order of 300% to 800%. And as levels of earned income are so clearly dependent on years of completed schooling, it follows that large income inequalities will be reinforced in students from middle and upper income brackets are represented disproportionately in secondary and university enrollments. In shorts, if for financial and / or other reasons the poor are effectively denied access to secondary and higher educational opportunities, then the educational system can actually perpetuate and even increase inequality in Third World nations.

Educational economist John Simmons, for example, gives the following sketch of how the poor are beginning to regard education:

Schooling, the poor quickly learn, in most countries, is an escape from poverty for only a few. The poor are the first to drop out because they need to work, the first to be pushed out because they fall asleep in class as on result of malnourishment, and the first to fail their French or English tests because upper income children have had better opportunities at home. The hope brought to village parents by the construction of the primary school soon fades: Enough schooling to secure a steady, even menial job for their

son, let alone for their daughter, seems just beyond their grasp. Before ... any schooling would have done to achieve their aspiration. Now a primary school certificate is needed, and some are saying that even students with some secondary schooling can not get a steady job; and they could never afford to send their son away to town for secondary schooling.

There are two fundamental economic reasons why one might suspect that many LDC educational systems are inherently inegalitarian, in the sense that poor students have less chance of completing any given educational cycle than more affluent students. First the private costs of primary education (especially in view of the "opportunity cost" of a child's labor to poor families) are higher for poor students than for more affluent students. Second, the expected *benefits* of primary education are lower for poor students. Together, the higher costs and lower expected benefits of education mean that a poor family's "rate of return" from investment in a child's education is lower than it is for other families. The poor are, therefore, more likely to drop out during early years of schooling. Let's examine in slightly more detail the reason why costs might be relatively higher and benefits relatively lower for a poor child.

First, the higher opportunity cost of labour to poor families means that even if the first few years of education are free, they are not without cost to the family. Children of primary school age typically are needed to work on family farms — often at the same time they are required to be at school. If a child cannot work because he is at school, the family will either suffer a loss of valuable subsistence output or be required to hire paid labor to replace the absent child. In either case there is a real cost to a poor family of having an able-bodied child attend school when there is productive work to be done on the farm — a cost not related to tuition and of much less significance to higher — income families, many of whom may live in urban areas where child work is not needed.

As a result of these higher opportunity costs, school attendance and therefore school performance tends to be much lower for children of poor families than for those from relatively higher income backgrounds. Thus, in spite of the existence of free and universal primary education in many LDCs, children of the poor, especially in rural areas, are seldom able to proceed beyond the first few years of their education. Their relatively poor school performance may have nothing to do with a lack of cognitive abilities. On the contrary, it may merely reflect their disadvantaged economic circumstances.

This financial process of eliminating the relatively poor during their first few years of schooling is often compounded by the substantial tuition charged at the secondary level. In many developing countries annual tuition (especially at the better private schools) is roughly equivalent to the per capita national income. The cost of education therefore becomes prohibitive to lower-income families.

This in effect amounts to a system of educational advancement and selection based not on any criteria of merit but strictly on family income levels. It thus perpetuates concentration of income within certain population groups and means that "earned income" will accrue primarily to those who already possess the bulk of "unearned" income and wealth — whose assets already place them in the upper deciles of the personal income distribution scale.

The inegalitarian nature of many Third World educational system is compounded even further at the university level where the government may pay the full cost of tuition and fees as well as provide university students with income grants in the form of stipends. Because most university students already come from upper-income brackets (and were so selected at the secondary level), highly subsidized university education utilizing public funds often amounts to a subsidy or transfer payment from the poor to the wealthy — in the name of "free" higher education."

Table: 11.5 shows how government educational spending benefited different occupational (and thus income) groups in 1980 for different Third World regions. The last three columns are the most significant. Each shows the ratio of the percentage of public educational resources received by (1) low — income farmers, (2) middle- income manual workers and traders, and (3) higher — income white collar workers to their percentage representation in the population. A subsidy — benefit ration of 1.00 would mean, for example, that a groups comprising 25% of the working population receives 25% of all government spending on education. The data clearly show that the children of white — collar families receive very disproportionate public educational benefits. Whereas farm children are highly under subsidized. For example, in Francophone Africa, children from (mostly urban) white — collar families gain more than 10 times as much from state subsidies than do children from rural farm families. When one combines this information with data measuring the incidence of direct and indirect taxation, which, as we shall see in Chapter 17, is often regressive in developing countries, it becomes clear that the educational system is not a vehicle for promoting greater equality. It often works in the opposite direction to reinforce and / or widen inequality.

TABLE: 11.5 Share of Public Resources for Education Appropriated by Different Socioeconomic Groups, by Region, 1980

Region	Percentage in the population			Percentage of Public school resources			Ration between percentage of resources and of population		
	Farmers	Workers and traders	White Collar	Farmers	Workers and traders	White Collar	Farmers	Workers	White collar
Africa									
Anglophone	76	18	6	56	21	23	0.73	1.19	3.378
Francophone	76	18	6	44	21	36	0.58	1.15	5.93
Asia	58	32	10	34	38	28	0.59	1.19	2.79
Latin America	36	49	15	18	51	31	0.49	1.04	2.03
Middle East									
And north africa	42	48	10	25	46	29	0.60	0.35	2.87
OECD	12	53	35	11	46	42	0.95	0.87	1.2

Source: Emmanuel Jimenez, "The public subsidization of education and health in developing countries: a review off quality and efficiently." The World Bank Research Observer 1, no. 1 (January 1986), Table 3.

On the benefit side, the poor are also at a disadvantage vis-a-vis the rest of the population. Even if they are able to complete their primary education, the poor typically have more difficulty competing for rural and urban jobs because they lack the range of contacts and influences that others have. In other words, for any given level of completed education (except perhaps university education), the poor student will tend to be less likely to be selected for a job requiring that educational certification than the more affluent student. Even in agriculture one could argue that although education may raise farm labor productivity, the benefits of this will accrue disproportionately to those farm families who own their land and also have the complementary financial resources to modernize their agricultural techniques (i.e., the well-to-do, large scale farmer). In the extreme case of landless rural laborers, the greatest proportion of the benefits of their limited education and higher productivity may accrue largely to rich landlord on whose farm they work.

It follows that in Third World countries characterized by highly unequal distributions of personal income, sizable secondary school tuition, and subsidized higher education, the educational system, especially at the secondary and higher levels, probably operates to *increase* inequality and perpetuate poverty. It should be stressed, however, that this outcome is not the result of the educational system per se but of the institutional and social structure within which that system must function. Specifically, as long as wage differentials between workers of different educational attainments are kept artificially wide in spite of rising levels of unemployment, as long as access to jobs is based almost exclusively on educational credentials irrespective of the relationship between years of schooling and job performance, and as long as family income serves as the basic criterion of who is able to proceed up the educational ladder to highly paid jobs, then publicly supported educational systems will merely serve to reproduce the inegalitarian social and economic structure that, least in theory, they were devised to combat. *Equality of educational opportunity can have little meaning if financial assets and income earning opportunities are very unequally distributed.*

Finally, we should note that even if all of the above cost and benefit distributions in favor of the rich were removed (e.g., by taxing higher incomes at higher rates, subsidizing the education of the poor, broadening employment opportunities for all making the rich bear the full costs of their education) so as to make progress in the educational system strictly a function of merit and school performance, the poor would nevertheless still be at a competitive disadvantage. This is because studies show that a childhood characterized by poor nutrition and congested and illiterate environment has negative effects on cognitive ability and academic achievement.

We are therefore compelled to conclude that as in the case of the population problem where family-planning programs are most effective in the context of an economic motivation for smaller families based on improved levels

of living, the problems of inequality and poverty depend ultimately on the direct measures aimed at eliminating them and only partially on indirect measures such as universal education. As long as the institutional, social, and economic structures of Third World nations cater primarily to the needs and desires of upper income groups, an educational system that at least in principle is open to all classes, tribes and castes and that is considered socially progressive, a matter of national pride, and an instrument of egalitarianism, can in reality merely provide short term cover for the further widening of the gap between rich and poor. But with rising unemployment, greater inequality, and the chronic persistence of absolute poverty, the political cover provided by thinly disguised inegalitarian systems of Third World education becomes ever more difficult to maintain. Ironically, it is often the middle and upper class students themselves, especially at the university level, who are in the vanguard of economic and social reform. In recent years student led movements have motivated economic and social reforms in a number of Third World countries, including Thailand, Ethiopia, Sri Lanka, Colombia, Pakistan and the Philippines.

Education, Internal Migration and Fertility

Education seems to be an important factor influencing both rural – urban migration and levels of fertility. The relationship between education and migration, however, appears to be more powerful than that between education and fertility. Moreover, existing empirical evidence reveals that education influence labor mobility even more directly (i.e., through its impact on higher income expectations) than fertility.

Numerous studies of migration in diverse countries have documented the positive relationship between the educational attainment of an individual and his or her propensity to migrate from rural to urban areas. Basically, individuals with higher levels of education face wider urban rural real income differentials and higher probabilities of obtaining modern sector jobs than those with lower levels of education (recall from chapter 9 how income differentials and job probabilities interact to determine migration patterns). The probability variable in particular accounts for the growing proportion of the more educated rural migrants in the face of rising levels of urban unemployment among the less educated.

With regard to the education and fertility relationship, the evidence is less clear. While most studies reveal an inverse relationship between the education of women and their size of family, particularly at lower levels of education, the mechanism through which education per se influences decisions regarding family size is still subject to considerable speculation.

Assuming that lower levels of urban unemployment (especially among the educated) and lower levels of fertility are important policy objectives for Third World governments, the basic issue is whether the continued rapid quantitative expansion of formal educational system (and the resource allocation decisions

implicit therein) will ameliorate or exacerbate the twin problems of accelerating internal migration and rapid population growth. With respect to this issue both theory and evidence seem once again to indicate that given limited government resources, the further excessive quantitative expansion of school places beyond perhaps basic education is both undesirable and unwise. There are two main reasons for this conclusion.

First as we discovered earlier in the chapter, any rapid expansion of the formal primary system creates inexorable pressure on the demand side for the expansion of secondary and tertiary school places. The net result is the widespread phenomenon of excessive expansion of school places from the standpoint of real resource needs and the associated dilemma of rising levels of rural – urban migration and urban unemployment among a cadre of increasingly more educated and more politically vocal migrants.

Second, if, as many have argued, the education of women does affect their fertility behavior, primarily through the mechanism of raising the opportunity cost of their time in child – rearing activities (see Chapter 7), then it follows that unless sufficient employment opportunities for women (as well as for men) can be created, the reliance on educational expansion as a policy instrument for lowering fertility will be weak if not totally ineffective.

Education and Rural Development

In Chapter 10 we argued that if national development is to become a reality in Third World nations, there needs to be a better balance between rural and urban development. Because most of the priority projects of the past few decades focused on the modernization and development of the urban sector, much more emphasis needs to be placed in future years on expanding economic and social opportunities in rural areas. While agricultural development represents the main component of any successful rural development program simply because 70% of Third World rural population are engaged directly or indirectly in agricultural activities, rural development nevertheless must be viewed in a broader perspective.

First and foremost, it needs to be viewed in the context of far-reaching transformations of economic and social structures, institutions, relationships, and processes in rural areas. The goals of rural development cannot simply be restricted to agricultural and economic growth. Rather, they must be viewed in terms of a balanced economic and social development with emphasis on the *equitable distribution*, as well as the rapid generation, of the benefits of higher levels of living. Among these broader goals, therefore, are the creation of more productive employment opportunities both on and off the farm; more equitable access to arable land; more equitable distribution of rural income; more widely distributed improvements in health, nutrition, and housing; and finally, a broadened access to both formal (in-school) and non-formal (out-of-school)

education, for adults as well as children, of a sort that will have *direct relevance* to the needs and aspiration of rural dwellers.

How do present Third World systems of education fit into this holistic view of the meaning of rural development? Basically, not very well. The formal primary school system in most LGCs is with minor modifications direct transplant of the system in developed countries. The overriding goal is to prepare all children to pass standard qualifying examinations for secondary schools; hence the curricula have a very strong urban bias. The priority needs of the greatest proportion of students — those who will live and work in rural areas — are given minimal attention. Major groups with important rural training needs such as out-of-school children and youth, women, and small subsistence farmers are largely neglected by organized education in the rural communities of developing nations contributes little toward improving levels of agricultural productivity of toward assisting the student to function more effectively in the rural environment.

Education and International Migration: Intellectual Dependence and The Brain Drain

In addition to the transfer of production and consumption technology (i.e., production process and consume tastes), a major aspect of the international transfer of institutional technology lies in the area of transplanted formal education systems. And just as foreign techniques of production may be ill suited to the factor endowments and output priorities of developing nations, so too the formal educational systems of the highly industrialized, highly urbanized, and technologically sophisticated nations of the West may be, and usually are ill suited to the human resource needs of agrarian societies attempting to modernize. The inherently dysfunctional nature of such systems of formal education for Third World rural areas result from urban bias and high dropout rates.

But in addition to rich country technology, there is also the problem of the international migration of high level educated manpower — the so-called brain drain — from poor to rich countries. This is particularly true in the case of scientists, engineers, academics, and doctors, many thousands of whom have been trained in home-country institutions at considerable social cost only to reap benefits from and contribute to the further economic growth of the already affluent nations.

The international brain drain deserves mention not only because of its effects on the rate and structure of LDC economic growth but also because of its impact on the style and approach of Third World educational systems. The brain drain, broadly construed, has not merely reduced the supply of vital professional people available within developing countries; perhaps even more seriously, it has diverted the attention of those scientists, doctors, architects, engineers and academics who remain from important local problems and goals. These include the development of appropriate technology; the promotion of low-cost preventive

health care, the construction of low cost housing, hospitals, schools, and other service facilities; the design and building of functional yet inexpensive labor – intensive roads, bridges, and machinery; the development of relevant university teaching material such as appropriate introductory economics texts; and the promotion of problem – oriented research on vital domestic development issues. Such needs often go neglected as, dominated by rich country ideas as to what represents true professional excellence, those highly educated and highly skilled Third World professionals who do not physically migrate to the developed nations nevertheless migrate “intellectually” in terms of the orientation of their activities. This “Internal” brain drain is much more serious than the external one.

For example, one constantly finds developing nations with numerous doctors specializing in heart diseases while preventive tropical medicine is considered to be a second rate specialty. Architects are concerned with the design of national monuments and modern public buildings, while low cost housing, schools, and clinics remain an areas of remote concern. Engineers and scientists concentrate on the newest and most modern electronic equipment while simple machine tools, hand or animal operated farm equipment, basic sanitation and water purifying systems, and labor intensive mechanical processes are nelegated to the attention of “foreign experts”. Finally, some academic economists teach and do research on totally irrelevant, sophisticated mathematical models of non-existent competitive economics, while problems of poverty, unemployment, rural development, and education are considered less intellectually interesting. In all these diverse professional activities, performance criteria are based not on contributions to national development but rather on praise from the international community (i.e., professional mentors in the developed nations). Thus, the acceptances of an LDC scholar’s publication in international professional journals or the receipt of an invitation to attend a professional meeting in London, Paris, New York, or Moscow is of ten deemed more important than finding a solution to a local technological, agricultural, medical, or economic problem.

This international dominance of professional attitudes and orientations in developing nations (especially in former colonial countries) for a while tended to permeate the whole educational and intellectual establishment, with obvious antidevelopment, effects. While difficult to quantify in terms of rates of economic growth and levels of poverty, the combined brain drain and outward looking orientation of many LDC professionals has no doubt been an important factor contributing to the perpetuation of conditions of underdevelopment in Africa, Asia, and Latin America. Recent student and faculty calls for more relevant curricula, teaching materials, and research activities, however, attest to the emergence of a new spirit of nationalism and collective self-reliance, which appears to be gathering momentum among Third World intellectuals. If a good university is to be more than “just a collection of books,” as the philosopher Thomas Carlyle once remarked, Third World universities and professional schools have a vital role to play in making higher education more tuned to the real needs of social and economic development.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS:

MAJOR EDUCATIONAL POLICY OPTIONS

Developing nations are confronted with two basic alternatives in their policy approaches to problems of education. They can continue to automatically expand formal systems at the fastest possible pace with perhaps some minor modifications in curricula, teaching methods, and examinations, while relating the same institutional labor market structures and educational costing policies. Or they can attempt to reform the overall educational system by modifying the conditions of demand for and the supply of educational opportunities and by re-orienting curricula in accordance with the real resource needs of the nation. Our evidence leads to the conclusion that the first alternative is likely to exacerbate the problems of unemployment, poverty, inequality, rural stagnation, and international intellectual dominance that now define the condition of underdevelopment in much of Africa, Asia, and Latin America and that therefore, the second alternative needs to be pursued.

Because educational systems largely reflect and reproduce rather than alter the economic and social structures of the societies in which they exist, any program or set of policies designed to make education more relevant for development needs must operate simultaneously on two levels:

1. Modifying the economic and social signals and incentives *outside* the education system that largely determine the magnitude, structure, and orientation of the aggregate private demand for education and consequently the political response in the form of the public supply of school places.
2. Modifying the *internal* effectiveness and equity of educational system by appropriate changes in course content (especially for rural areas,) structures of public versus private financing, methods of selection and promotion, and procedures for occupational certification by educational level.

Only by policies designed simultaneously to achieve these two objectives can the real positive links between education and development be successfully forged. Let us conclude, therefore, with a brief review of what these external and internal policies might specifically encompass.

Policies Largely External to Educational Systems

Adjusting Imbalances, Signals, and Incentives

Policies that tend to remedy major economic imbalances and incentive distortions (e.g. in income and wage differentials) and alleviate social and political constraints on upward mobility can have the multiple beneficial effect of increasing job opportunities, modifying the accelerated rate of rural-urban migration, and facilities development – related modification of educational systems.

Modifying Job Rationing by Educational Certification

In order to break the vicious circle in which overstated job specifications make over-education necessary for employment, policies are needed that will induce or require public and private employers to seek realistic qualifications even though the takes of job rationing may be made somewhat more difficult as a result. Basic to this procedure would be the elimination of school certificate for many of the jobs, especially in the public sector (janitors, messengers, file clerks, etc), which tends to set the pattern for the private sector.

Curbing the Brain Drain

Controlling or taxing the international migration of indigenously trained high level professional manpower is a very sensitive area. It can potentially infringe on the basic human right and freedom to choose the nature and location of one's work. In a repressive regime, such a restrictive policy can be morally repugnant. On the other hand, when a nation invests scarce public financial resources in the education and training of its people only then to forego the social returns on that investment as a result of international migration, it seems both economically and morally justifiable to seek either to temporarily restrict that movement in the national interest, or better, to tax if possible the overseas earning of professional migrants and reinvest these revenues in programs of national development. Such a tax on overseas earning would act as a financial disincentive to migrate. Its implementation, however, would require the cooperation and assistance of the governments of countries to which these professional migrate.

Policies Internal to Education Systems

Educational Budgets

Where politically feasible, educational budgets should grow more slowly than in the past to permit more revenue to be used for the creation of rural and urban employment opportunities. Moreover, a larger share of educational budgets should be allocated to the development of primary as opposed to secondary. Subsidies for the higher levels of education should be reduced as means of overcoming distortions in the aggregate private demand for education. Policies should be promoted by which the beneficiary of education (as opposed to his family for society as a whole) would bear a larger proportion of his educational costs as he proceeds through the system. This should be done either directly, through loan repayments, or by services in rural areas. At the same time low income groups should be provided with sufficient subsidies to permit them to overcome the sizable private costs (including opportunity costs) of schooling.²²

Primary School Curricula in Relation to Rural Needs

In order to maximize the productivity of rural human resources, primary school curricula as well as nonformal educational opportunities for school dropouts and adults need to be directed more toward the occupational requirements of rural inhabitants whether in small-farm agriculture, nonfarm

artisan and entrepreneurial activities, or public and commercial services. Such curricula and task related re-orientations of rural learning systems, however, will not be effective in eliciting popular support unless *rural economic opportunities* are created through which small farmers, artisans, and entrepreneurs can take advantage of their vocational knowledge and training. Without these incentives, people will justifiably view such formal and nonformal occupational training programs with considerable skepticism. They would probably rather pursue the formal school certificate and take their chances in the urban job lottery.

Quotas

To compensate for the inequality effects of most existing formal school systems some form of quotas may be required to ensure that the proportion of low income students at secondary and higher educational levels at least bears some relationship to their proportion in the overall population. Under present proceed through the educational system. Replacing this de facto quota system with an alternative that ensures that capable low-income students will be able to improve their own and their family's well-being by overcoming the financial barriers to educational advancement through loans and subsidies would go a long way to making educational systems true vehicle of economic and social equality. The nature of such quota systems will obviously vary from country to country. But there is no a priori basis for assuming that such a quota-by-income-level for academically qualified low income students will not be more efficient and socially productive for both growth and equity than the present system, which tends to perpetuate poverty and inequality while maintaining growth-inhibiting dualistic economic and social structures.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by development? Discuss main objectives of the development.
2. Critically review the new economic view of development.
3. Discuss various core values of development.
4. Summarize the profile of education in developing
5. Recognize the state of education in Pakistan
6. What are main issues regarding the education, society and development in development countries. Suggest measures to resolve these issues.

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UNIT No.9

**DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION IN
COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE**

**Written by
Dr. Hamid Khan Niazi**

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OBJECTIVES

After having gone through this unit you would be able to:

- Understand the evaluation and concept of development education in different countries.
- Appreciate development education in practice.
- Compare some case studies on development education.
- Examine development education organizations in selected countries.

DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION IN IRELAND

What is Development Education?

This section introduces many of the issues and perspectives explored within development education. The initial pages provide a brief introduction for those seeking an initial overview, while subsequent pages go further into the various dimensions and levels within development education. Rights and entitlements. Four key elements Values explored Development Education tells a story of rights and entitlements

The right to development

In December 1986, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted a Declaration on the Right to Development. In its 10 Articles, the Declaration attempts to provide a human rights framework for the realisation of full human development for all citizens throughout the world. The introduction to the Declaration asserts that '...the right to development is an inalienable human right and that equality of opportunity for development is a prerogative both of nations and of individuals who make up nations.' Article 8 declares that all states should encourage popular participation in all dimensions of international human development and human rights. Development education is a key element in encouraging and supporting such popular participation in Ireland. In the 2002 review of Ireland Aid, development education is described as having '...a crucial role to play in enlarging public understanding of development issues, both global and local. It seeks to challenge attitudes which perpetuate poverty and injustice and through education to empower people to act to bring about more equal development.' Development education has increasingly become a vibrant and positive strand of education for effective citizenship in Ireland. For Ireland Aid, development education is '...an educational process - aimed at increasing awareness and understanding of the rapidly changing, interdependent and unequal world in which we live.... It seeks to engage people in analysis, reflection and action for local and global citizenship and participation.... It is about supporting people in understanding and acting to transform the social, cultural, political and economic structures which affect their lives at personal, community, national and international levels' Development education has 4 key elements:

- 1. Attitudes and Values** - Refers to oneself and others, about social responsibilities, about learning, behaviour, beliefs, subject knowledge and about Society here in Ireland and internationally.
- 2. Knowledge, Ideas and Understanding** - factual information about the shape of our world, ideas about why it is shaped the way it is, about

connections between wealth and poverty, progress and inequality, about relationships internationally etc.

3. Skills and Capabilities - skills that help us understand and engage with our world - analytical and communication skills, interpersonal and social skills, the ability to link knowledge and understanding with action etc.

4. Behaviour, Experiences and Action - social relationships, personal behaviour, opportunities to participate meaningfully, competence at carrying out tasks, fulfilling potential, linking ideas, action and behaviour. Development education offers Irish people the opportunity to participate in learning about, discussing and debating as well as engaging with our right to full human development as well as our responsibility to ensure the human development of others especially those who are 'at risk' or excluded. Development education focuses on development issues here in Ireland and puts them in the context of development issues throughout the world.

DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION HIGHLIGHTS THREE KEY CHALLENGES:

Challenge 1: world development

The world today has more opportunities for people than 20, 50 or 100 years ago. Child death rates have fallen by half since 1965 and a child born today can expect to live a decade longer than a child born then. In developing countries, the combined primary and secondary (school) enrolment ratio has more than doubled ...adult literacy rates have also risen from 48% in 1970 to 72% in 1997. Most states are now independent and more than 70% of the world's people live under fairly pluralist democratic regimes... The world is more prosperous, with average per capita incomes having more than tripled as global GDP increased nine fold ...But these trends mask great unevenness... poverty is everywhere... nearly 1.3 billion people do not have access to clean water, one in seven children of primary school age is-out of school, about 840 million are malnourished and an estimated 1.3 billion people live on incomes of less than £1 a day. United Nations Development Programme 1999 Development education describes and explores such realities in today's world.

Challenge 2: education for world citizenship

These difficult questions (of inequality and injustice internationally) lie at the heart of the work that is now needed ...education for world democracy, for human rights and for sustainable -human development is no longer an option. Education has a central role to play, especially if we are to build a widespread understanding and ownership of this (development) agenda...there is also an imperative to develop and describe a 'new story' of the human condition and of where we are going in the future. Education

around such a new story is not simply about what we teach but also about how and whom we teach. The Development Education Commission 1999 Development education promotes and supports education for world citizenship.

Challenge 3: listening to other world views

My major concern about the way Third World issues and countries are portrayed in the European media is that most often our people appear as victims - of hunger, disease, poverty, corruption. There is little effort made to portray the people as active participants and subjects in their society, despite their poor conditions. Development education encourages people to consider the world through the eyes and ears of others.

In summary then, development education... is an educational response to issues of development, human rights, justice and world citizenship presents an international development and human within education here in Ireland rights perspective promotes the voices and viewpoints of those who are excluded from an equal share in the benefits of human development internationally is an opportunity to link and compare development issues and challenges in Ireland with those elsewhere throughout the world provides a chance for Irish people to reflect on our international roles and responsibilities with regard to issues of equality and justice in human development is an opportunity to be active in writing a new story for human development.

Development education seeks to work at four different, but clearly interrelated levels. These are described, with some examples, below. At the outset, development education could be described as education for world citizenship, development and democracy. Accordingly development education is a process by which people, through personal experience and shared knowledge gain experience of, develop and practice dispositions and values which are crucial to a just and democratic society and a sustainable world engage with, develop and apply ideas and understandings which help explain the origins, diversity and dynamic nature of society, including the interactions between and among societies, cultures, individuals and environment engage with, develop and practice capabilities and skills which enable investigation of society, discussion of issues, problem-tackling, decision-making, and working cooperatively with others take actions that are inspired by these ideas, values and skills and which contribute to the achievement of a more just and caring world

The values of development education explored: A general concern for the well-being of others and the planet...a positive awareness of the different ways in which we each relate to the world about us - increasing understanding of how I fit in at different levels appreciation of human interdependence - individuals, countries, communities and economies are inter-connected

appreciation of the needs and rights of others - an equal recognition of the needs and rights of others ability to recognize and value diversity at a more advanced level - diversity enriches us all and defines who and what we are valuing the environmental ethic - wanting to effectively protect and appreciate the environment valuing difference and disagreement - disagreement is positive and necessary as it makes us all think about our values and beliefs valuing responsibility - I can make a difference ...wanting to know more at a deeper level - I want to understand better ...a strong sense of belonging - I am not just Irish but also European and a world citizen... a sense of involvement - I am already involved, I have the chance to choose...

The skills of development education explored... a general capacity to investigate and engage with the following:

Communication skills: ability to communicate with others by various means, listening, speaking, writing, arguing expressing one's own views cogently and understanding those of others ability to understand that others have different, sometimes conflicting and even possibly irreconcilable ideas and needs.

Intellectual skills: Being able to find and interpret information and ideas understanding that the way we see the world is particular and specific and that other cultures and societies have different worldviews. Being able to organize different ideas and thoughts as well as information we received. Being able to extract key ideas and concepts from a range of information etc. developing language skills in specific areas and not just generally understanding how what we do has results for others and that this has implications for us in our actions etc.

Social skills: being able to effectively interact with others enjoying human interaction and seeing its value taking responsibility, making decisions, including others, increased ability to interact across cultures.

Action skills: developing an ability to participate with others and within groups developing skills in trying to influence and change things understanding the impact and appropriateness of different types of action understanding that not all action is positive.

The ideas and understandings of development education explored

A general knowledge of the basic shape of the world... understanding of the basic geography of the world - local, national and international understanding of the world beyond Ireland and especially the Third World - Europe, the America, Africa, Asia etc. understanding the nature and consequences of having an ethnocentric view of the world and how this has shaped Europe (and Ireland's) worldview, knowledge and ideas about how other places and people are different in key dimensions of life and how this enriches us understanding and valuing differences within the values base and practice of

different cultures, religions and communities valuing disagreement and debate, appreciating other worldviews understanding the common human and cultural heritage of all people in relation to development as well as those dimensions that are different, knowledge of our international links in economics (trade, investment, jobs etc.), culture (music, literature, dress, language, beliefs etc.), politics (UN, instruments and documents, courts etc.), environment (climate, emissions, pollution, etc.) understanding of and familiarity with the principles of human rights as well as with specific aspects relating to development understanding of and familiarity with the overall importance and role of the environment in development as well as detailed understanding of some key issues such as climate change, water issues, deforestation etc. knowledge of the nature and consequences of international inequality, of its human dimensions and of how it is sustained.

Experiences and actions within development education... a set of experiences that create interest and engagement... Opportunities to:

work with others, work independently, give my views, hear others views, participate in making decisions, feel valued as individual and group member have a sense of achievement make links and connections with others

Using different methods to develop skills:

In IT, art, writing, team-working, leading, interviewing, recording, speaking in public etc. Having different educational experiences e.g. in the community, in youth organizations, in women's and community organizations in classrooms and schools in third level colleges in sporting organizations etc. experiencing change etc.

Development Education in Practice - Some Case Studies:

Case Study 1- Inner City Dublin - the Lourdes Youth and Community Service. Lourdes Youth and Community Services (LYCS) is a community development project that was established in 1984, as part of a broader based community development movement in Dublin's north inner city in the late 1970s and 1980s. LYCS supports community based education, training, recreational and development projects concerned with giving participants of all ages the opportunity to become involved in their own development and the development of their community. Development education makes up one important strand in the agenda of the organization. LYCS began using development education as a tool to bring a global perspective to its work over ten years ago especially in the context of increasing understanding and knowledge of issues and regions in the developing world and the value of seeing and understanding the connections between the local and the global. Development education was introduced initially through adult education work when exploring issues such as poverty, drugs and domestic violence with

women's groups: The interest developed among staff and participants through sessions and later through courses that looked at issues arising for women in the community internationally and locally. In addition, LYCS has also seen the value to local groups of using development education as an educational tool in itself. Now the development education activities carried out by LYCS include:

Outreach work with local organizations- promoting and facilitating the use of a global perspective in their work; delivery of training and education to staff and participants of LYCS and other local organizations; hosting events and supporting others in hosting and/or participating in events; providing information, resources, networking opportunities and policy advice. Many of these activities are delivered in partnership with other organizations such as Comhlámh (the association for returned volunteers), Banulacht (focusing on women's issues in development and the Kimmage Manor Development Studies Programme. Some of the issues dealt with have included trade and wealth distribution, food, poverty, education, health, human rights, drugs, women's rights, violence against women, culture, refugees and anti-racism

Exploring Debt - local and global- Participants in the LYCS adult education programme had raised the issue of debt in discussions concerning poverty and wealth distribution. A significant number of the participants were faced with pressured personal financial situations and money lending organizations feature in the community and , people are often in a position where they need to borrow to meet basic needs. A workshop was organized to examine the issue of debt in partnership with the Debt and Development Coalition to plan the session and made use of resource material from Banulacht. The aim of the half-day session was to give people an opportunity to explore the causes and consequences of debt and to introduce people to debt as a global phenomenon. Participants explored their first memory of money and their thoughts on words associated with money, the causes and consequences of debt, two case studies of the cycle of debt, one from Dublin's inner city and the other from the Philippines before looking the lessons of the day.

Case Study 2 - Fairtrade- Having doubts about the world we live in helps us to realize that we also have choices. Having choices allows us to take more responsibility for how our actions affect other people's lives. One area in which development education encourages people to explore and question is that of fairtrade the possibility of challenging the fundamental inequalities behind world trade. Fairtrade not only offers us choice - it also challenges the lie that we are powerless to change things. In this context development education is as simple as a half-decent conversation; it can engage us and challenge some of our comfortable pre-conceptions. Fairtrade is about creating links between producers in developing countries and the businesses and consumers who buy their goods in our part of the world. Development education is nothing more

than the conversations we have, the stories that are told, and that help us to do something about the needless waste of millions of peoples lives in developing countries. What price a cup of coffee? Coffee is a boom and bust business. The second most valuable traded commodity after oil it nevertheless beggars millions of small-farmers in developing countries. In 2001 a 69 kilo sack of coffee could be bought for US\$50 - the cost of producing that sack in Guatemala is US\$70. In coffee shops in Dublin the same sack can sell for the equivalent of US\$20,000. In Guatemala alone there are 50,000 small coffee farmers who depend on coffee as their only source of a cash income. The current collapse in prices paid to producers means that small farmers in Guatemala have seen their earnings fall from US\$1,000 to US\$500 a year. The Fairtrade minimum price is set at US\$1.26 or more than two and a half times the current world market price. Gerardo de Leon, who works with 20,000 small coffee farmers in Guatemala, and who visited Dublin in March 2002 said: Fairtrade is a seed in the ground and we hope for more in the future... right now the small coffee farmers need to get the money in their pocket to survive... But it's not just about the money the small coffee farmers in Guatemala are now part of the National Coffee Association, ANACAFE. Before this would have been impossible. Now we are respected by the Government.' For Fairtrade, the challenge is not only to question the ideology of current trade practices but also to offer an alternative. One where both people and profit can respectfully co-exist. The Global marketplace isn't only about products, it is also about ideas and more importantly about people. About the people behind the products, and their ideas and dreams of a better standard of living. The Fairtrade Mark is the only independent guarantee of a better deal for Third World producers

Case Study 3 - Development in an Unequal World - exploring the debates and the Arguments:

The study of development issues internationally and locally is at the heart of development education. One of the main demands from teachers, youth workers, community educators and students is for accessible and comprehensive introductions to many of the issues from poverty and wealth to human rights and development to the situation of women etc. 80:20 Development in an Unequal World is a resource designed to support exploration and enquiry around these issues. 80:20 is produced by two development education organizations 80:20 Educating and Acting for a Better World, based in Bray, Co. Wicklow and Teachers in Development Education (TIDE), Birmingham, England in association with other organizations Aid link, Concern, Action Aid etc. Ireland Aid has supported its development and production alongside many other organizations. Many other resources have been produced on a variety of issues including Wananchi a photo pack and text exploring the work of Ireland Aid.

DEVELOPMENT EDUCATION IN FRANCE

Introduction

Evolution of the concept of Development Education: the messages

The evolution of the concept of Development Education (DE) is linked closely to the way in which its two components evolved during the last thirty years, in particular the 'Development' part. The term also has different meanings depending on the ideological, political or cultural references of the institutions or countries where it is used. We could almost say that there are as many concepts of DE as possible activities.

In France, however, DE (also called Education for International Solidarity) went through three successive stages:

- an initial charity stage in the 60s;
- a second stage when help to developing countries was accompanied by a better knowledge of the causes and mechanisms of this under-development;
- and, since the early 80s, a stage bringing out the relationship between the South's under-development and the North's mal development.

In 1974, a study from IRFED (Institute of Research and Training for Education and Development) emphasized in its conclusion the difficulty to find a common definition for 'Development', and noticed two main perspectives, which often combine to various degrees:

- **A Political Perspective** which defines Development according to dependent and dominant relations existing between developing and highly industrialized countries, as well as between different categories or social groups within these countries;
- **A Cultural Perspective** which defines it rather in terms of mutual understanding between different peoples and cultures.

For the first one, it is only possible to raise awareness of Third World problems when awareness has already been raised about conflicts and antagonisms existing in every society. The second perspective takes fewer notes of socioeconomic problems, but underlines the necessity to eliminate, at all levels, prejudice and discrimination, to encourage Peace and Solidarity and to fight against injustice.

Throughout the 70s, the terms 'Development' and 'Underdevelopment' were not only referring to dependence and dominant relationships, but also to the inter-dependence existing between and within nations, in both the South and

the North. Development was about **changing** these relationships and about the rights of the countries, the peoples, the different social groups within the countries, to justice, equality and participation in development. Focus was on the political and economic analysis, and on a global and participative approach of Development: It was the decade of the 'New International Economic Order'.

For School and Third World, 'in 1980, "underdevelopment is the loss of control of one's own development; but first it is the product of economic and cultural dependence. . . Development works Rrough promoting solidarity between peoples, setting up relationships based on justice and peace - and on through changing mentalities and structures, on a world scale, here and there".

Around the second half of the decade, extending from the interdependence analysis and the participation of the people in development appeared the concepts of 'mal-development' and 'self-centered development'. In 1980, in its general Charter, the Freres des Hommes (Brother of Man) NGO analyzed the situation as follows: "We notice a world mal-development characterized by minorities monopolizing wealth and power, and by increasing subordination of all values to dominant groups' economy and ideologies. This mal-development affects all fields: cultural, economic, political, social. . . The-Third World reveals some features of mal-development: hunger, of course, but also inequalities, repression, - violence. Europe, which also covers a great variety of countries and people, shows other aspects of the same mal-development: pollution, waste, injustices, violence..."

In its 1983 platform, CRID - Centre for Research and Information about Development underlined the importance of a self-centered development of the most disadvantaged populations starting from their real needs and leaning on local initiatives and popular organizations. The 80s were marked by the worsening of the economic crisis, the acknowledgement of failure of the second Development decade and a growing debt problem for the Southern countries. They were also marked by the emergence of a neo-liberal trend emphasizing the merits of the market economy. It was the period, when the Third World orientated NGOs were violently attacked and criticized (accused among other things of ideological drift. . .), when Humanitarian Aid was increasingly media covered (notably with the 'Band Aid' operation) and when advertising and marketing people entered organizations. Moreover, the contradiction between fundraising and DE became urgent.

Organizations are more and more aware of the complexity of the development process and are increasingly focusing on the notion of partnership. They now want first to listen to their Southern partners and to define with them development objectives and practices. At the same time, they keep on emphasizing North-South interdependence and interface, particularly in the North about immigration and poverty. Methods and means of Development Education in France

Following a recent evaluation of DE projects in the formal sector, French NGOs were asked whether they made any distinction between providing information, awareness-raising and DE. For some of them, all this is synonymous, but for most, however, a distinction arises:

- **Awareness-raising** is generally perceived as a superficial, short-term approach, working mainly on emotions, usually addressing an indistinct 'general public', and of questionable pedagogical efficiency. It is mostly punchy operations, media 'bites', even a reductionism approach of DE. It is often perceived as associated with fundraising. However, fundraising organizations stress that if awareness may effectively generate public generosity it would be unwise and dangerous to confuse the two (DE and fundraising).
- **Information Provision** is perceived as an approach which must enable an objective, emotion free reflection: a chance to understand more thoroughly; a transmission of knowledge; an explanatory process.
- **Development Education** is, indisputably more than the two preceding terms. It is a thorough and long-term approach for a target public. It is a more elaborated cognitive contribution, which enables analysis, synthesis and change of behavior. It is a process which permits people to get from the analysis of causes to action: one becomes active in Development in Solidarity with others. It is a way to provoke cultural awakening, and the pleasure of discovering different cultures. It is even political education, awareness-raising of the complexity of problems and of their inter-connections, in order to think out one's own development.

For some people, DE concerns only young people and formal schools education, while most organizations currently use this term to designate any action of information, awareness-raising and education in France. It is partly for this reason that the term is often contested, and that some people would prefer to use 'Education for International Solidarity' or 'Citizenship Education'. In the same way, the term International Solidarity Organization (ISO) tends to be substituted for Non-Governmental Organization (NGO).

It is worth noting that all associations refuse to see in DE a means to sell their ISO, but it is not unusual to see confusion settling within messages, between the desire to have the organization known, and the objective to help public opinion to have another look at the world. For one-off events or extended DE campaigns, the bulk of the activities are carried out at a local level by the voluntary members of local groups or associations belonging to an umbrella organization. This grassroots multiplication is a constituent feature of DE activity. What is clear today is that DE implies a broader approach to the society

in which we are living, putting into perspective problems of developing countries and problems of our own societies. In this context, economic interdependence, environment or immigration problems are often mentioned. This approach is a factor of inter-cultural integration for young people, school students and adults. It facilitates meetings of groups from different socio-cultural and linguistic origins, at the everyday level as well as at a more global level of understanding different social, economic, cultural and political situations. That is why linking is a privileged form of DE, and many ISOs focus on welcoming Southern partners in their localities, as well as on trips, work camps, twinning, cultural groups' tours, etc. In this sense, the inter-action between DE and intercultural pedagogy becomes obvious.

DE in the formal sector is a particular variant of organizations' activities. Since the late 70s, a growing number of ISOs have been interested in formal sector education, and the 'Third World Day' at school, instituted in 1981, reflects the interest that the authorities have also demonstrated towards this issue.

More generally, the interest of the authorities materialized by the introduction in 1983 of the Cooperation Development Commission-joint commission between ISOs and the authorities which comprises, among others, a specific DE working group, and enables a sustained dialogue between government people and civil society dealing with Cooperation.

The institution of big awareness-raising campaigns in the early 80s ('Eat better here, defeat hunger there' or 'For peoples' right to feed themselves'), with the powerful-media coverage they got, definitely established ISOs as central actors for Third World information and North-South problems. Today, these media operations have become less common; however the issue of the images circulated by the media (TV in particular) was raised by the ISOs and the authorities in a round table organized by COCODEV in October 1989. This questioning gave rise to the publication of a report, called Barosud (shortened from barometer of the South'), analyzing the message disseminated by the media on Southern countries and the issue of images of the South remains a priority for almost all ISOs and grassroots groups.

We can say that, in these early 90s, French ISOs have accumulated a rich and varied experience in DE. All of the following is undertaken in one form or another: activists' training, production of learning materials, games, competitions handbooks' analyses, audio-visual productions, publications, organization of seminars, tours with partners, evenings of debate, exhibitions, big national campaigns as well as local actions. This work is, to a large extent, carried out by the grassroots and is not well known outside their locality or at the national level. For several years French ISOs have been trying to develop information, exchanges, and collaborations on DE. They tend to build dialogue, - to seek complementarities, to carry out common projects, either between

themselves, or within the framework of existing activity. To do so, they begin and encourage initial assessments and evaluations.

Organizations, Networks working at the Grassroots Level and Local Groups Different organizations are working under the following, name:

Consortia o: French IS Os

French ISOs have a complex history which has resulted in today's structure of seven consortia:

1. **The Agent Coordination for Emergency Relief and Voluntary Work Overseas** comprises notably Emergency organizations and facilitates contacts and coordination with local authorities. Some of the major organizations working in this
2. **The Liaison Committee of Volunteer Sending Agencies** -11 NGOs which send volunteers to the Third World. The Centre for Research and Information about Development - 40 Development and information NGOs.
3. **The National Committee of Youth Associations and Adult Education** which comprises about 50 associations working on training, education, leisure, and international relations
4. **The National Commission of Youth for Development**, groups together about: organizations of young people working on Cooperation.
5. **The Lay Committee for Education and Development** – Educators without Frontiers which comprises 16 popular education organizations and teachers unions.
6. **The National Group of Cooperation** groups together the representatives of French cooperative movements working in the Third World.

In order to have a better dialogue and to form a sole interlocutor for the authorities, these consortia grouped themselves together. The Cooperation-Development Commission is a joint organism between organizations and the authorities which enables, since 1983, CLOSI. Members and Ministries in particular those of Cooperation, Foreign Affairs National Education, Agriculture to work on such themes as volunteering DE or Cooperation financing.

Many ISOs, not quoted in this chapter, would say that they are working on DE. There are, indeed, many local groups which are not affiliated to any national umbrella organization nor to any association and

whose work to raise awareness locally is not well known to the big' ISOs. The ISOs Directory, published every year by the Ministry of Cooperation, shows how much the associative phenomenon around the Third World is vast, diverse and dense (almost 1.000 associations listed, most of them considering that they work on DE). Mentioned here are only the main ISOs, which carry out projects on a large scale leaning on federated grassroots groups or networks. The other organizations refer most of the time to projects and documents produced by these main ISOs grouped into consortia.

Development Education Organizations

Some of the consortia are organized to coordinate DE activity on a national scale, relayed by their members notably GRID, CNJD, CNAJEP, CLED-ESF and CFCF. These consortia elaborate information campaigns, produce documents, and organize seminars and various events to raise awareness, trying at the same time to reach national media in order to increase their potential public. Case Study 3 (following) describes a campaign organized by CRID on Third World Debt. Among the most active organizations in DE are many of the CRID members:

These three organizations have carried out common campaigns over several years to inform a raise awareness of the issues of food self-sufficiency, giving rise to the Green Africa organization. Their local groups are particularly active in public information (schools or general public) concerning the countries where these organizations have development projects and big national campaigns. Among the other CRID members it is necessary to mention:

- **Catholic Committee Against Hunger and for Development** with a delegation in every department (French county) and groups in many communes (French districts), CCFD is one of the biggest French ISOs and, as such, can afford to produce many learning materials and many awareness raising materials for different target groups. Its campaigns are relayed in all French departments, most of the time in parishes and private schools.
- **Ecumenical Committee for Mutual Help** has the distinction of working both on international development issues and on immigration issues in France and Europe, and their activities to raise awareness link these two issues. About 50 local groups undertake this work.
- **Artisans of the World** are an association which tries to promote Fair Trade by launching on the French market food or craft products bought directly from Third World producers. Each sale is accompanied by information on the country or the product in question. There are about 40 shops and groups throughout France.

- **Third World Information Network** comprises 37 documentation centers working on North-South relations. Open to the public, they make up exchange, information and action centers.
- **Institute of Research and Training for Education and Development** is specialized in project evaluation, particularly about DE and, as such, produces training and information materials.
- **Engineers without Frontiers** are a development organization which targets engineer-students in France. Specialized in raising awareness in university circles, they have 25 local units.
- **School and the Third World** is an organization now in abeyance, but remains a unique experience as regards DE in the formal sector. Its evaluations of books and learning materials remain a reference for ISOs working on DE.

Youth and adult education organizations

Youth and adult education organizations, especially around CNJD, CLED and CNAJEP, are also very active in DE, in another tradition and with methods sometimes different from ISOs' ones, but in a wholly similar spirit. **Religious structures must be distinguished** from secular adult education organizations.

Among CNJD or CNAJEP members, the Catholic Action for Children and the Christian Union for Youth - 16 local units, the Scouts de France and the Guides de France (30 or so local units and more than 100,000 members) provide information and training on International Solidarity through their multiple socio-cultural activities with youth and children, not necessarily in the formal sector. The Catholic Relief also has a big Third World Department which works on DE with its public, notably thanks to their 100 local units and their 10,00,000 + members.

Among the secular organizations, there are some vast DE networks, working through very powerful structures which are not organized around North-South issues, but around training, education, culture sports and leisure. Their international departments are more or less active, but no organization leaves the South issues aside:

- **French League for Teaching and Life-long Education** has about 100 local units and more than 35,000 affiliated associations throughout France. The international sector organizes big information. FOL Federations of Lay Charities Associations or schools twinning, work camps, study visits, production of documents or magazines, methodological support, training sessions and summer universities are the many tools at the disposal of FOLs and associations willing to organize grassroots information and awareness-raising activity. Case

Study I give more details and show how a project can reach all target groups in one region.

- Centre for Training in Active Education Methods organizes traineeships, training and information campaigns on North-South issues through its 33 local units.
- Federation of UNESCO Clubs groups together about 10 local units which organize work camps and activities in order to further links between the North and the South as bases for DE.
- Central Office of Cooperation in School works also on DE through twinning and sending aid, which are good ways of mobilizing school students. About 100 local groups relay its work throughout France.

Among CLED and/or CNAJEP members, the 25 local units running socio-cultural projects and a vast historical network set up at the time of the 'Front Populaire of 1936', which consists today of 15 local units must also be noted as they devote one part of their activities to DE.

Coordination

In the past, the lack of coordination and dialogue often led to overlapping or contradictory action which prejudiced the aim. For example, collecting and sending food aid was launched in 84-85 by the singer Bob Geldof with strong media and show - business coverage, whilst other ISOs were developing a long-term and deeper approach towards formal schools education, underlining particularly the necessities of food self-sufficiency in Southern countries. This kind of mismatch contributed to make organizations realize that they had to develop a dialogue with each other to avoid prejudicial contradictions and competition.

The late 80s and, above all, the early 90s, as well as the preparation for the Rio conference on Environment, brought French ISOs to think about their objectives and means, and to facilitate contacts and joint projects to achieve their information and education goals. So, the distinction becomes clearer between DE and fundraising, even if there are still so-called 'Development Education' activities intending more to 'sell' the association than to practice a real Education for Solidarity.

However, the coordinated national campaigns (in particular the Environment Coordination, led by CLOSI and implemented by CRID with the collaboration of the attests to the fact that ISOs' can work together and break down traditional barriers. In spite of increasing difficulties to get access to media, organizations are achieving their DE objectives thanks to improved dialogue and grassroots coordination. Joint projects are becoming common: an interesting example is that of the 1993 Third World Day in schools. For the first time, the consortia within CLOSI produced together a learning resource on the issue of Health for students and teachers. 430,000 copies were circulated to primary and middle schools through consortia and member associations.

Conclusion

French organizations are beginning to acquire good experience of DE: with numerous activists, well-trying activities developed over three decades, targeted projects e.g. formal schools education, trainers, the general public, numerous national campaigns and varied means of action. This active landscape of DE brought associations to a new awareness in the early 90s, first on the necessity to coordinate themselves, then on the usefulness of evaluation in this field.

SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- Q.No.1.** Explain the concept of development education in comparative perspective.
- Q.No.2.** Critically review development education in practice in Ireland.
- Q.No.3.** Critically discuss the stages of development education in France.
- Q.No.4.** Critically examine the development education organizations working in France.
- Q.No.5.** How can we get benefit from the experiences of developed countries in the areas of development education for the development education in Pakistan?

