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HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT IN SRI LANKA

An Analysis of Education and Training

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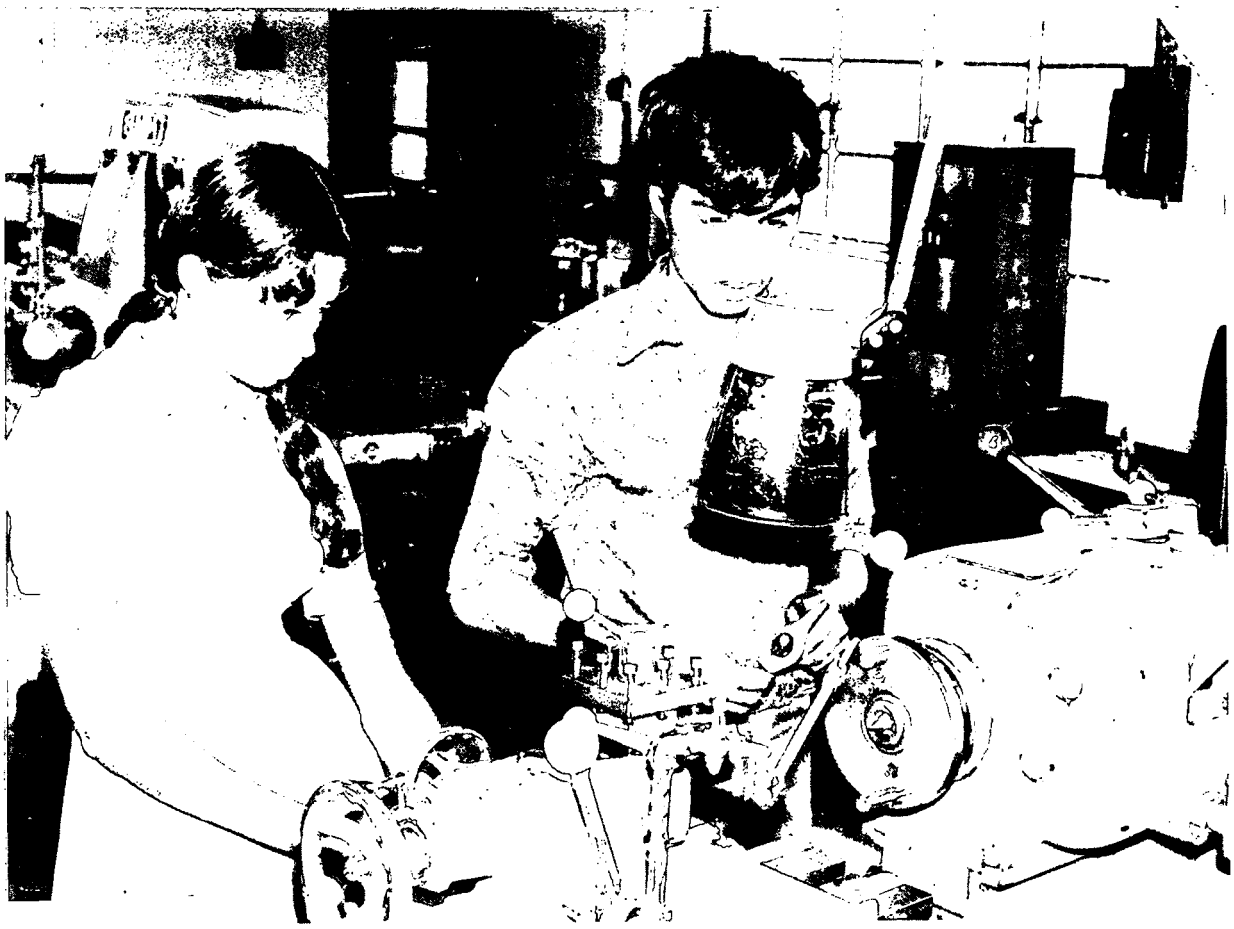

SIDA

March 1985

S I D A

HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT IN SRI LANKA

An Analysis of Education and Training

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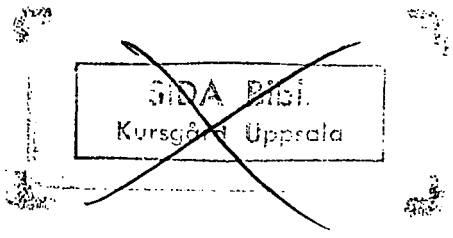

Report of a SIDA Mission

March 1985

PREFACE

Sri Lanka's struggle for economic growth and social development is laborious but has been comparatively successful. Within the field of education, many impressing results have been achieved. There is still, however, a long and difficult task ahead. When old problems are conquered, new arise.

Sweden has cooperated with Sri Lanka within the field of education since 1977. During the first years, Sweden's contribution was in the form of import support which was used mainly for purchase of equipment.

In recent years, Sweden's aid policy has aimed at a stronger target group orientation, at projects that reach the very poorest, directly or indirectly. Target groups have been defined, like teachers without education, disadvantaged groups in remote areas, unemployed youth, handicapped children. Thus, two projects with Swedish support are now under preparation which will directly favour the poorest sectors of the society: Development of Education in Disadvantaged Primary Schools, and Plantation Sector Education Development.

In 1981, SIDA carried out an analysis of education and training in Sri Lanka. But the development has made steady progress, and since some of the Swedish commitments in Sri Lanka will soon be finished, there has been a need for an up-to-date and more complete survey and analysis of the Sri Lankan education sector, to help us identify a future strategy. The title of the report, "Human Resources Development in Sri Lanka", emphasizes the aim to expose the important connections between education, economic growth, and social development.

We believe that the analysis will be of valuable use not only for Sri Lanka's Ministry of Education and SIDA, but for everyone engaged or interested in Sri Lanka's efforts to build a stronger and more self-supporting society.

The analysis is made by external consultants. The views expressed are those of the authors and should not necessarily be interpreted as the views of SIDA.

Lennart Wohlgemuth
Head of Education Division, SIDA

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AEO	Adult Education Officer
AGA	Assistant Government Agent
BIRDP	Badulla Integrated Rural Development Project
CEO	Circuit Education Officer
CFSES	Consumer Finances and Socio-Economic Survey
CITP	Construction Industry Training Project
CTB	Ceylon Transport Board
DMC	District Management Centres
FTU	Full-Time Units (TEU)
GCE	General Certificate of Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
IRDP	Integrated Rural Development Project
M/E	Ministry of Education
M/HETE	Ministry of Higher Education and Technical Education
M/ES	Ministry of Education Services
MPRC	Multi-Purpose Resource Centre
NAB	National Apprenticeship Board
NFED	Non-Formal Education Division
NGO	Non-Government Organization
NIEPA	National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (in India)
NTTTC	National Technical Teacher Training College
NYSC	National Youth Service Council
PTU	Part-Time Units (TEU)
RDE	Regional Director of Education
Rs.	Rupees
SEK	Swedish Crowns
SIDA	Swedish International Development Authority
SLFTI	Sri Lanka Fisheries Training Institute
SLSC	Sri Lanka Staff College
TEC	Tertiary Education Committee
TEU	Technical Education Units
UGC	University Grants Commission
UNP	United National Party

1. INTRODUCTION

1.01 In the development cooperation programme between Sri Lanka and Sweden for the period 1984/85 - 1985/86 it is stated that a revision of the previous education sector analysis from 1981 should be made. The purpose of such a study should be to serve as a background for further Swedish support to education programmes in Sri Lanka. During the annual consultations between SIDA and the authorities in Sri Lanka in March 1984 it was agreed to involve international as well as local expertise in such a study.

1.02 According to the Terms of Reference (Appendix) the mission should describe the formal and non-formal systems of education and training and identify problems and issues with focus mainly on qualitative aspects. The needs of the disadvantaged were to be given special attention, and programmes that had received Swedish assistance should be looked into. The more speific aims of the sector analysis were to: (1) give an updated presentation of the education/training sectors, (2) examine the official educational policy of Sri Lanka and its implications for interventions in the sectors, (3) analyse the function of education in national socio-economic development and the relationship between education/training outputs and manpower needs, and (4) identify long-term as well as short-term needs and constraints within the education sector with special emphasis on basic education and on labour market oriented education/training.

1.03 The SIDA Mission consisted of Dr. J-I. Löfstedt (Mission Leader), University of Stockholm, Dr. S. Jayaweera, Colombo, and Dr. A. Little, Institute of Development Studies, Sussex. The Mission members spent altogether about 10 man weeks in Sri Lanka in February, 1985, and collected relevant information on education and training through interviews, documents and other sources at national and sub-national levels. Discussions were held with leading functionaries of the various line ministries responsible for education and training as well as with regional officers, shool leaders, teachers, pupils and parents in the districts of Colombo, Badulla (Bandarawela), Ratnapura, Monaragala and Kegalle. Thanks are due to the helpful cooperation of all those approached, the officers of SIDA's Development Cooperation Office in Colombo and to those who assisted the Mission at SIDA headquarters in Stockholm.

1.04 The overall strategy of the Mission has been:

(1) to consider human resources development in a more total and comprehensive way, including not only formal education and training but also non-formal skills development at different levels;

(2) to attempt to combine a target group orientation with a consideration of national development needs; and

(3) to concentrate problem identification on a few selected dimensions, viz.: quality, efficiency and relevance.

On the one hand the Mission sought to identify the most dis-

advantaged at different levels and in different regions and examined obstacles and constraints on the provision of education and training for individual fulfillment and active participation in the development process. On the other hand, attention was directed at identifying educational and training constraints preventing rational utilization of manpower and human resources development for the national economy. It follows from this problem oriented approach that the mission has paid more attention to problems and needs and much less to the undisputed successes and achievements.

1.05 The present report presents the findings of the Mission and is organized in five parts. Part I gives a brief general description of Sri Lanka. Part II describes the human resources development sectors in Sri Lanka. Foreign assistance to education and training is dealt with in Part III together with the main SIDA supported programmes in these areas, and Part IV seeks to identify major problems and issues in education and training. Part V, finally, presents recommendations and suggestions to policy makers in Sri Lanka and to SIDA.
The mission has worked as an integrated team but a certain division of labour has been necessary. Besides providing various inputs to the report as a whole, Dr. Jayaweera has taken main responsibility for sections dealing with internal efficiency and related topics in primary education and issues related to gender representation in education, and Dr. Little has looked at examination and selection in formal education and at the plantation sector in particular. Other sections as well as the final editing of the report have been the responsibility of the mission leader. The views expressed in the report are those of the mission and not of SIDA.

2. SUMMARY

2.01 The present chapter summarizes the main sections of the report.

Country Characteristics

2.02 Sri Lanka is a low-income developing country with a large agricultural sector. A new market-oriented and liberalized economic policy was introduced in the late 1970s leading to a certain expansion of the private modern sector. Dependence on foreign assistancce is large and several large infrastructural projects were launched with external assistance in the early 1980s. Financial constraints have led to a reorientation in recent years with more emphasis on quick-yielding production-oriented and labour intensive projects.

2.03 According to present government plans there is going to be more stress on health and education than in the past and on technical vocational education and skills training (to compensate for manpower export to West Asia - mainly the Gulf States).

2.04 Compared to many other developing countries Sri Lanka has a relatively even distribution of consumption but disparities do exist and fairly large groups of disadvantaged can be identified. It can be estimated that around 20-30% of the population of 15.5 million live below the poverty line.

The Human Resources Development Sectors

2.05 Sri Lanka has been remarkably successful compared to other LDCs in providing education to the great majority of the school-age population. The primary school participation as well as adult literacy rates are very high in relation to the level of economic development, but there is nevertheless a conspicuous lack of a central coherent policy guiding the whole human resources development sector. Some major guidelines regarding the formal education sector are: extension of universal primary education to all children, qualitative improvements in primary and secondary education and decentralization of educational administration coupled with improved monitoring and management. Budgetary spending on education is still rather small, however.

2.06 Close to 90% of the age cohorts enter the school system every year, but drop-out rates are still considerable. Only between 50-75% of the age cohorts complete the 6-year primary cycle. The total number of pupils in primary education was a little over 2 million in 1984. Between 70% and 90% of the grade 5 cohort proceed to secondary level education. Teacher/student ration in primary education is 1:34.5 and in secondary 1:19.

2.07 Selection in the upper grades is very stiff and only some 15-20% of pupils in grade 10 are promoted to grade 11. Only 4-6% of those who sit for A/level examination (and about 1.4% of the age cohorts) enter the universities.

2.08 The technical formal sector is still small and total

enrolment in technical institutions in 1983/84 was below 22,000 (all levels from Diploma to crafts level). Absorptive capacity of the modern sector is also limited, however.

2.09 Teacher education is being reformed and pre-service institutions set up. By the 1990s, there will be 10 Colleges of Education with an annual output of 2,500 teachers and this will be sufficient to meet the needs. At present, 20-30% of the teachers are untrained. SIDA is supporting distance education of teachers.

2.10 Sri Lanka has 18 tertiary institutions not including such tertiary level institutions, such as the Law College, Institute of Chartered Accountants, Teacher Colleges and Technical Institutes which provide Higher National and National Diploma Courses, and total enrolment is around 20,000. The previous dominance of Arts based streams is gradually being changed and Science based streams will increase their proportion of students.

2.11 Approximately 40,000 children do not enter primary school every year and a similar number drop out from the primary cycle. The total number of non-school going children in the age-group 5-15 is around 250,000 any year. The Literacy Education Project under the M/E reaches about 4,500 of these in 1985.

2.12 The SIDA supported Technical Education Units programme provides crafts training annually to about 20,000 15+ youths who have left the school system.

2.13 Around 20 government departments and corporations and a large number of non-government organizations provide vocational training and skills development to perhaps 30-40,000 people annually. Some of the main agencies are the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Employment, the Construction Industry Training Project, and the Department of Agriculture.

Foreign Assistance

2.14 Around 23% of total government expenditures is externally financed. About 8% of total foreign assistance goes to education and this is a little over 10% of total government spending on education/training. Out of 10 externally financed projects under the M/E 5 are supported by SIDA. Of total SIDA aid to Sri Lanka in 1985 of SEK 279 million, about SEK 12 million or 4.3% went to education/training and this was about 0.63% of government spending (capital and recurrent) on education/training in Sri Lanka. Total foreign assistance to the M/E in 1985 was Rs. 50 million and the SIDA share of this was 42% (60% of which was spent in Sri Lanka itself).

2.15 SIDA is presently supporting (1) Distance Education, (2) Technical Education Units, (3) Special Education, (4) Practical Subjects and Science, (5) Educational Management Training (under the M/E), (6) Technical Education (under the Ministry of Higher Education and Technical Education) and Foreman Training (under the Ministry of Labour). The Integrated Rural Development Project in Badulla (under the Minist-

ry of Education and the Ministry of Plan Implementation) also contains an education component.

2.16 SIDA support to education and training in Sri Lanka has so far to a large extent contained hardware components, although the tendency in later years has been to emphasize competence building. Due partly to orientation and partly to implementation several programmes have not been able to reach the ultimate target group (i.e. the poorest 40% of the population). There was hardly any stress on lowcost methods or mobilizational components in previous years, but the tendency now seems to be to pay more attention to these aspects. Two basic principles guiding SIDA support sometimes tend to enter into conflict: on the one hand, the effort to reach the most disadvantaged, and on the other, the effort to provide selective support to key areas in modernization and human resource development.

Problem Identification

2.17 Some of the main problems identified in this report are: (1) the non-schooling gap; (2) insufficient quality and efficiency in primary education; (3) insufficient supervision and lack of adequate indicators and relevant information for the monitoring of primary education; (4) lack of relevance of primary school curriculum for those 50% who leave the system during the first 5 years; (5) quality disparities among different types of schools and the relatively large number of small disadvantaged schools with 1-2 teachers and large numbers of pupils from low-income groups; (6) insufficient provisions for handicapped and disabled children; (7) poor infrastructure, shortage of teachers, high drop-out rates etc. affecting small schools (including the Estate sector).

2.18 Formal education in Sri Lanka is highly selective and 90% of the age cohorts enter the system at primary level but less than 1% come out at the top. Selection takes place through drop-out and examinations. The screening of students in the system is correlated with socio-economic factors such as level of income, place of residence and ethnic affiliation. However, the more exact nature of these relationships have to be established through further research. Examination not only affects socio-economic representation in the upper grades of the school system, it also affects the quality of teaching and produces a bias towards general academic competencies at the expense of practical 'real life' knowledge.

2.19 Unemployment among educated youths is one of several symptoms of a mismatch between education and the world of work. More than 24% of GCE O/level graduates are unemployed and it is even higher among persons with GCE, A/level qualifications. This mismatch is the result of a number of factors such as: (1) irrelevant curriculum of the school system, (2) unrealistic expectations on the part of the students, (3) lack of information on manpower needs, (4) lack of information on available manpower, (5) reluctance on the part of employers to accept graduates from the educational system, and (6) shortage of jobs.

2.20 A vital area within the educational system is planning

and administration. Important constraints are: shortage of staff and facilities at central and sub-national levels. Statistical data collection and information processing need to be strengthened. The dialogue between central and local levels need to be vitalized. In connection with decentralization, the sub-national levels need to be upgraded through in-service training and the provision of facilities like micro-computers.

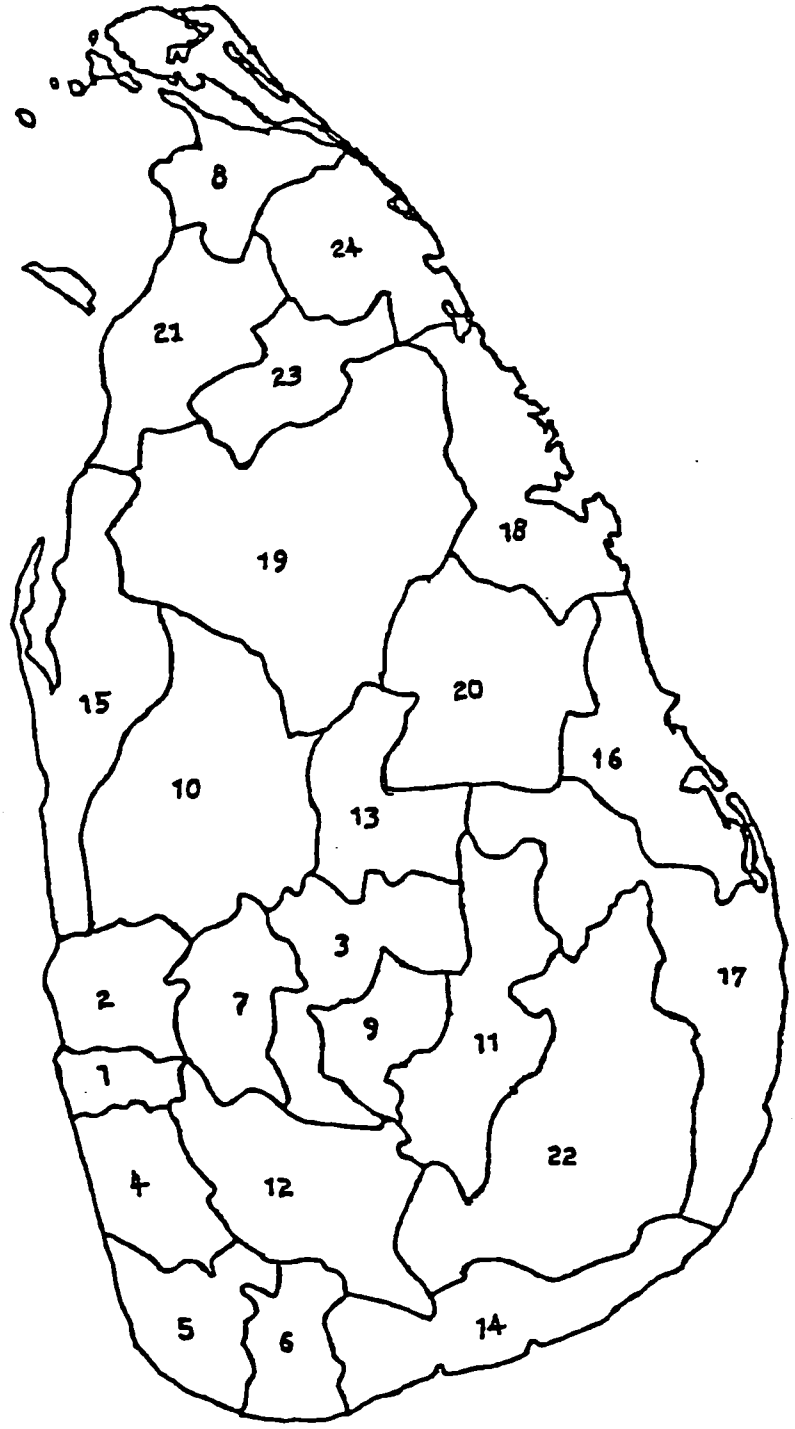
Recommendations

2.21 Part V of the report summarizes a number of areas that are in need of attention and support. Such areas are: (1) co-ordination within the whole human resources development sector; (2) planning and management of education and monitoring in connection with decentralization and the zone scheme; (3) improved coordination, integration and efficiency within the vocational/training sector; and (4) participation, quality and efficiency in primary education.

2.22 In Part V the following recommendations are made: enrichment programmes for primary education, Multi-Purpose Resource Centres for primary education, special education and health education, non-formal literacy centres for out-of--school children, remedial programmes to offset biases caused by examination and selection, and educational research.

2.23 It is suggested in Section 9 that SIDA should consider support in the following areas: (1) the small disadvantaged schools in remote areas; (2) Multi-Purpose Resource Centres for back-up support to primary schools; (3) support in the form of equipment and in-service training to Non-Formal Literacy Centres for out-of-school children; (4) Non-Formal Technical Education Units; (5) Life Skills; (6) Special Education; (7) Educational Monitoring; (8) the Plantation Sector Schools; and (9) Skills Development.

ADMINISTRATIVE DISTRICTS IN SRI LANKA



1. Colombo
2. Gampaha
3. Kandy
4. Kalutara
5. Galle
6. Matara
7. Kegalle
8. Jaffna
9. Nuwara Eliya
10. Kurunegala
11. Badulla
12. Ratnapura
13. Matale
14. Hambantota
15. Puttalam
16. Batticaloa
17. Amparai
18. Trincomalee
19. Anuradhapura
20. Polonnaruwa
21. Mannar
22. Moneragala
23. Vavuniya
24. Mullaitivu

PART I

BACKGROUND

3. SRI LANKA - A SHORT PRESENTATION

A. The Political System

3.01 Sri Lanka achieved independence in 1948 and has maintained a parliamentary system of government since then. The first Constitution has been changed or amended several times. The 1972 Constitution established Sri Lanka as a Republic within the Commonwealth and strengthened the role of Parliament and the elected representatives. The 1978 Constitution then introduced a presidential form of government which vested the elected President with considerable executive powers to govern through a Cabinet of Ministers chosen from the elected legislature.

3.02 Sri Lanka has a multi-party system and has reached a fairly high level of political participation. At the general election in 1977, nearly 87% of the registered voters voted. Members of Parliament also play an important role in local affairs and influence the delivery of public services such as health, education, transportation, postal facilities, the provision of employment opportunities and the launching of development projects.

3.03 The United National Party was in power from Independence till 1956. This party represented a combination of propertied and professional segments of the population with considerable political and economic influence. Political power has then shifted over the years between the left-oriented United Front and the more conservative U.N.P. At the mid-1977 general election the U.N.P. was once again voted back to power with an overwhelming majority. The new government adopted a new economic strategy, and the year 1977 may in fact be seen as a watershed in the economic history of Sri Lanka.

B. Economic Performance

3.04 Per capita GNP in 1983 at current prices was Rs. 7,071 or U.S. Dollar 301. The corresponding figure for 1982 was 284 Dollars and may be compared with 250 Dollars for India, 380 for Pakistan and 800 Dollars for Thailand. Growth rates in the 1950s and 1960s had been fairly high at a level of about 4.5%. In the first half of the 1970s the economy took a downward turn and the growth rates averaged 2-3%. After the shift of government in 1977 the economy picked up speed again, and the GDP grew at an average annual rate of 6% during the period 1978-83. This corresponds to a 4.1% growth in per capita terms. Certain stagnation has set in, however, and per capita growth in 1983 was only 3%.

3.05 The agricultural sector still accounts for more than 25% of GDP but its share in exports declined in the late 1970s and the early 1980s, from more than 70% to less than 60%. Rice imports have gone down considerably in recent years and Sri

Lanka is now very close to self-sufficiency in rice.

3.06 Investment levels were very high in the period 1978-83. This was partly made possible by a substantial increase in the flow of foreign aid. Gross domestic investment thus rose from an average of 16% of GDP in the preceeding 7-year period to an average of 28% of GDP. Although attempts have been made to promote the expansion of the private sector, public investments account for over 50% of total investments and the public investment programme is still heavily foreign financed. The negative balance of payments continues to constitute a serious problem and exports have not been able to grow sufficiently fast.

C. Development Strategy

3.07 The new government introduced a market-oriented policy package in 1977 and sought to liberalize the economy and relax controls. Resources were diverted from the welfare and "social overheads" sectors, e.g. health and education, and the main thrust of the government's budgetary investment was in the field of infrastructure. Development efforts were concentrated on a number of "lead projects" and programmes, such as the export-oriented free trade zone and the Mahaweli Development Scheme, a multipurpose river diversion scheme which absorbed about 32% of public sector investments. There were also major urban and housing programmes. The construction sector recorded very high growth rates in the late 1970s but has declined in recent years. It is mainly the modern urban sector that was affected by rapid growth in the early 1980s. Unemployment also went down from about 23% in the mid-1970s to about 14% in the early 1980s. Employment opportunities for middle and high-level manpower increased and there were shortages in engineering, accountancy, medicine and teaching (secondary and tertiary levels).

3.08 Among the major lead development projects launched by the government were the District Integrated Rural Development Projects. The main objective was to achieve a more balanced regional development in the country by raising productivity, income, employment and quality of life in those districts which were not benefitting from large scale investment programmes. The first IRDP was implemented in Kurunegala district in 1979 with World Bank support. By the end of 1983 the IRDP was being implemented in 7 districts, one of which was Badulla where SIDA was assisting. Plans had also been made for another 5 districts, two of which were Mannar and Vavuniya. (For further treatment of the Badulla IRDP, see Part IV: SIDA supported programmes.)

3.09 Due to financial constraints, a new strategy was adopted by the government in 1983. Instead of the big infrastructural "lead projects" there is now more emphasis on quick-yielding production oriented projects which may reduce the balance of payments problem by expanding exports or reducing imports. There will be more scope for the private sector. Public investments will also be concentrated in power, irrigation, transport and communications. Drastic cuts in capital expenditure were introduced by the government already in 1983 and steps taken to re-phase some of the on-going projects. The

government has also realized that the heavy commitments to the Mahaweli and other "lead projects" have led to neglect of the health and education sectors. There will now be more emphasis on primary health care and improvement in the quality of general education but more in the form of rationalization and better management rather than new projects. According to the Public Investment, 1984-88, the government intends to stress technical and vocational education, training of skills to compensate for the manpower export to the Middle East and the training of future managers.

D. Demographic Background

3.10 The population of Sri Lanka according to the 1981 Census was 14.99 million and the 1983 mid-year estimate was 15.42 million. The population growth rate has been going down and was 1.5% in 1982. The ethnic composition of the population is: Sinhalese: 74%, Sri Lankan Tamils: 12.6%, Indian Tamils: 5.5%, and Moors: 7.1% (1981). Almost 70% of the population are Buddhists, 15.5% are Hindus, 7.6% are Muslims and 7.5% are Christians. Of total population, 22% live in urban areas, 72% live in rural areas and 6% live on the Estates. Males constitute 51% of the population and females 49%. The total area of Sri Lanka is 65,610 square kilometers and this gives a population density of 238 (1983).

3.11 According to the 1981 Population Census, 35.3% of the population were below 14 years of age. About 60% were between 15 and 64 years of age and a little over 4% were above 65 years of age. This gives a dependency ratio of 65.6 for 1981 (compared to 76.1% in 1971). Expectation of life (at birth) is 66 years and this may be compared to 52 years in India, 62 years in the Philippines and 63 years in Thailand.

3.12 The Consumer Finances and Socio-Economic Survey, 1981/82, (CFSES) found the average household size to be 5.23. There has been a marked declining trend in the average household size since 1963 and the indications are that the extended family system is breaking down. The average number of income receivers per household is 1.56 and the corresponding number of dependants 3.67.

E. Manpower

3.13 The labour force constitutes around one-third of the population or about 50% of the male population and 20% of the female population. Female labour force participation is thus considerably lower than male participation. Although many women are involved in informal economic activities of importance to the household economy, the figures do reveal a high degree of underutilization of human resources. In the Estate sector, with about 6.6% of total population, the labour force participation rates are almost the same for men and women at a high level of 54%. There has been a considerable drop in labour force participation in recent years and this can to a large extent be attributed to emigration to the Middle East and repatriation to India of Tamils. (Some 220,000 people left the country for these two reasons between 1979 and 1982.)

3.14 Almost 60% of the labour force is in the category of

regular or casual employees as compared with 2% employers, and 20% are self-employed.

3.15 Of the employed income receivers 51% are in the primary sector (agriculture, forestry, fishing, etc) whereas 18% are in the secondary sector (manufacturing and construction industries). The proportion of employed income receivers in the tertiary (service) sector is 30%. (Report on Consumer Finances and Socio-Economic Survey, 1981/82, Central Bank of Ceylon, Colombo, 1984.)

3.16 The CFSES found that among employed persons, 38% had attained primary level of education, 31% had attained secondary level and 13.6% had no schooling and were illiterate. The educational level for different sectors is given in Table 1 below.

Table 1 Educational Level by Sector
(% of all employed)

Education	Govt.	Corp. and Boards	Private Sector	All Sectors
No Schooling	2.7	21.8	14.2	14.4
Primary	11.0	39.0	40.5	37.8
Secondary	21.6	21.0	34.2	31.0
GCE 0/level	46.0	14.2	9.5	13.3
GCE A/level	9.4	2.7	1.3	2.2
Undergraduate	0.5	0.1	--	0.1
Graduate	8.8	1.2	0.3	1.2

Source: Ibid., p. 128.

3.17 The CFSES found the All Island unemployment rate to be 11.7%. It is lowest in the Estate Sector (5%). The urban sector had 14.2% and the rural sector had 12% unemployment, according to the survey. The all Island rate for males was 7.8% compared to 21.3% for females. A comparison with data from 1978/79 reveals that unemployment rate had declined by 3 percentage points. There had been a decrease in all sectors for both males and females, except in the Estate sector, where the male unemployment rate increased over 1978/79. It is also noteworthy that unemployment declined for all levels of education except among university graduates, among whom the unemployment rate increased from 5.3% to 9.7%. The CFSES also found that unemployment among persons with GCE 0/level, GCE A/level and undergraduates has continued to be high (more than 25%), while it declined among the 'secondary educated' from 21% to 15%. (Ibid., pp. 155-157.) The figures are indicative of a considerable mismatch between educational output and labour market manpower needs.

F. Poverty Profile

3.18 Compared to many other low-income countries Sri Lanka has a surprisingly even distribution of consumption across population strata and regions. There are still, however, con-

siderable disparities and comparatively large groups are definitely disadvantaged. There are also indications that income distribution has become more unequal since the middle 1970s. In 1973, the lower half of the total number of income receivers received around 22% of the total income, whereas in 1978 the portion had dropped to a little over 18%.

3.19 The Government food stamp scheme uses the criterion of a household income of Rs. 300 and covers around 50% of the total population. Understatements of income, however, makes it difficult to estimate the real number of poor, but the income level of Rs. 300 is on the other hand not a very adequate indicator of powerty line due to the rapid inflation. Even a monthly income of Rs. 500 is probably too low for an average household to live on today. The CFSES found that more than one third (35%) of all income receivers had a monthly income of less than Rs. 500. The percentage of income receivers with a monthly income of less than Rs. 500 is given in Table 2 below.

Table 2 Monthly Income Below Rs. 500 by Sector

Sector	Urban	Rural	Estate
% of income receivers	17.3	32.4	73.0

Source: Ibid., p. 192.

It should, of course, be kept in mind that the average number of income receivers per household is 1.56 and in the Estate sector it is common for both man and wife to receive income. Some estimates, however, seem to indicate that 20-30% of all households in the country live below the poverty line. There are also easily identifiable pockets of real poverty, e.g. the Colombo slum and shanty areas, the Estate sector and remote areas in several of the most disadvantaged districts.

PART II

THE HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM

4. HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT SECTORS

A. Introduction

4.01 This part seeks to give a short presentation of the system of human resources development in the country. Sri Lanka does not have a consistent and systematic overall policy for integrated and coordinated human resources development although there is a great need for such a policy and this is one of the reasons why in this report we have attempted to present a comprehensive overview of the whole system of human resources development.

4.02 By human resources development is here meant systematic and socially organized efforts to impart/create socio-economically useful competencies and qualifications. The term thus refers to the formation of a wide range of personal characteristics, e.g. knowledge, intelligence, skills, attitudes, norms and values that the individual needs in order to engage in gainful activities and the nation needs in order to promote national development. Human resources development utilizes a complex infrastructure comprising the formal education and training systems, a great variety of non-formal education, training and skills development sub-systems as well as more or less formalized on-the-job and in-service programmes.

4.03 This part of the report deals with formal and non-formal general and technical education under the three ministries of education (M/Education, M/Higher Education and Technical Education and M/Education Services) and with various education and training programmes with vocational and professional orientation under several ministries such as Youth Affairs and Employment, Labour and Manpower, Agriculture, Fisheries, Health, Local Government, Housing and Construction, Small Industries. This section is basically descriptive and some of the major problems and constraints will be discussed in Part IV.

B. Educational Policy

4.04 There is in Sri Lanka a conspicuous lack of central policy for human resources development. There does not seem to be any overall general strategy for human resources development, and the term itself is very seldom used among policy makers and planners. Certain basic principles for educational development can be found in some documents such as Education Proposals for Reform (the 1981 White paper), The Public Investment Plans from the Ministry of Finance and Planning and the Implementation Programmes of the Ministry of Education.

4.05 Educational programmes which are now being implemented reflect present policy priorities and include:

- improvement of the management of the general education sys-

tem and improvement of the monitoring system;

- decentralization of educational administration and more rational utilization of educational facilities through a new school zone system;

- the development of "life skills" as a subject for teaching in school (combining agriculture, commerce, handicrafts and home economics) in grades 6-8;

- more emphasis on teacher training and the setting up of a pre-service teacher training system;

- curriculum development and the introduction of revised syllabi; efforts to improve the quality of English teaching; and gradual introduction of computers in schools with A/-level science classes;

- efforts to upgrade education in remote and underprivileged districts such as Moneragala, Mannar, Anuradhapura, Vavuniya and Trincomalee; in the remote areas there are large numbers of small schools with less than 100 pupils and only 1-2 teachers;

- rehabilitation of Estate schools that have been taken over by the Government;

- the promotion of literacy through literacy centers aimed at children who have not attended school or have lapsed into illiteracy;

- the promotion of skills development through the National Apprenticeship Board, the Department of Labour, the Construction Industry Project, etc;

- the promotion of technical teacher training and the provision of equipment to technical colleges;

- a moderate expansion of university education and efforts to promote employment among university graduates.

4.06 Educational spending, in relative terms, went down from about 10% of public expenditures in the early 1970s to about 6% in 1978 and 5.5% in 1979. This was followed by a slight increase from 6.6% in 1980 to 7.5% in 1985 but this is still low by international standards. Spending on education, higher education and total budgetary expenditure are given in Table 3 below.

Table 3 Educational and Total Spending, 1983-85 (million Rupees)

	Year: 1983	1984 (est.)	1985 (est.)
M/Education	2,461.68	2,775.70	3,356.30
M/Higher Education	484.36	769.20	1,189.50
Total spending	40,627.40	47,013.00	60,580.00
% on education	7.25	7.54	7.50

Educational spending in percent of GNP was 4% in the early 1970s but fell to 2% in 1979 and has been around 2.5-3% in the 1980s. If we include spending on training programmes under other ministries, total spending probably amounts to around 9% of budget expenditures.

C. Structure, Organization and Administration of the Education System

4.07 As a result of the reform of general education the previous Kindergarten class has been included in the system which now comprises 13 "years" instead of 12 "grades". Children enter the system at the age of five and the primary cycle is five years, junior secondary three years and senior secondary another three years. The whole six-year secondary cycle terminates in the General Certificate of Education (GCE O/ level). Then follows another two years called Collegiate level leading up to the University Entrance examinations (GCE A/-level). This means that the period of open access education has been extended one year, the senior secondary level during which separate subjects are studied for the GCE is three years instead of two as in the old "upper secondary", and pupils are normally expected to leave the system at 15+ after GCE or at 17+ after University Entrance examination. The reform structure is being implemented gradually, and complete reform will not be achieved until the 1990s.

4.08 The schools fall into five different status categories according to the number of grades taught and facilities offered. Out of a total number of 9,575 schools, a little over 1% (grade IA) have GCE A/level science classes and hostel facilities, 3.4% (grade IB) have GCE A/level science classes but no hostels, 14% (IC) have GCE A/level classes in Arts and/or Commerce, around 40% (grade 2) teach up to grade 10 (year 11) and almost 42% (grade 3) only teach the primary cycle. There are large differences in quality of teaching and facilities offered between the status schools (IA and IB) and the other schools, especially the grade 3-schools. There are almost 2,300 schools (24%) with less than 100 pupils and only 1-2 teachers. Most of these are low-status and disadvantaged. There is also a special category of prestige schools now called National Schools (formerly: Unitary Schools) with 3,000 - 6,000 pupils. So far, 18 of these have been selected by the M/E for special attention. A different category at the

other end of the scale is the plantation sector schools which number 558 and have more than 63,000 pupils together.

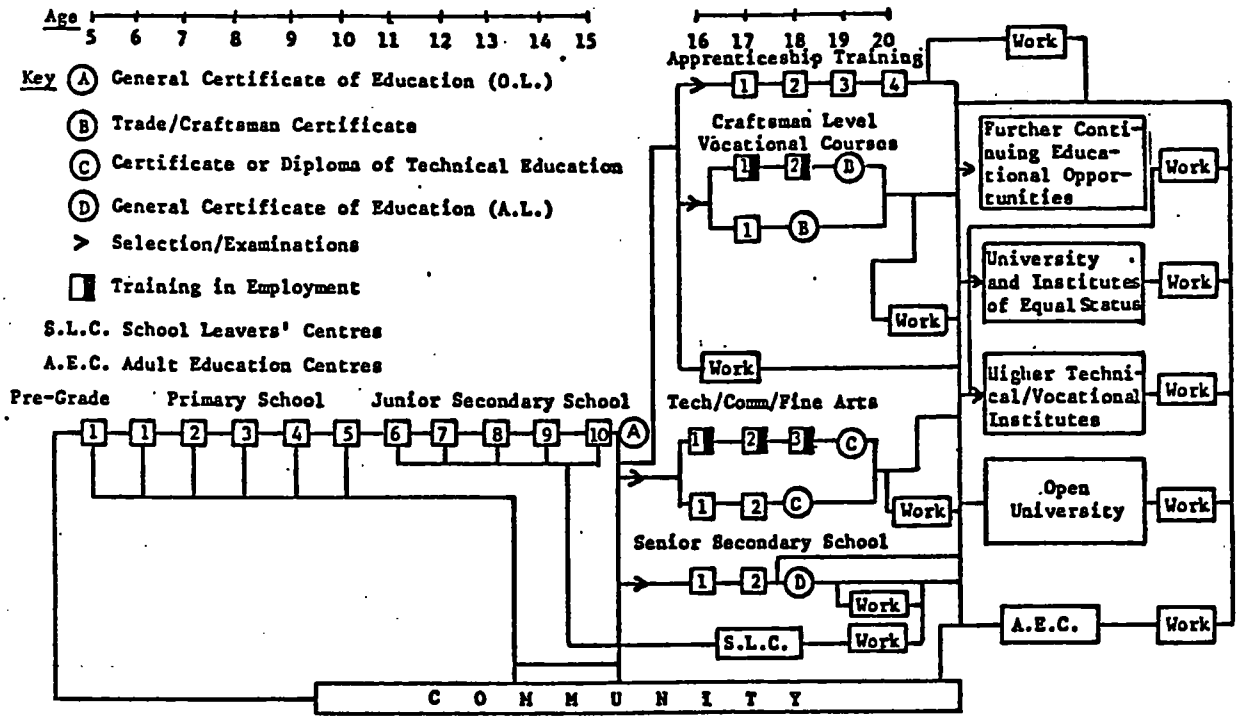
4.09 There are some private schools but they form less than 1% of the total number. A limited number of Estate schools have not yet been taken over by the Government because they are considered to be sub-standard. A parallel education system also exists in the form of the Pirivena educational institutions run by the Buddhist clergy. The 348 Pirivenas cater primarily to the Buddhist monks (Bhikku) but also conduct classes for lay students preparing for public examinations. About half of the pupils, or around 15,000, are monks.

4.10 The Ministry of Education (M/E) is responsible for the design, implementation and maintenance of general education and teacher-training programmes. A separate Ministry of Higher Education and Technical Education (M/HETE) was set up in 1978, and since 1980, there is also a Ministry of Education Services (M/ES) responsible for the production and distribution of textbooks, equipment, furniture and the construction of school buildings as well as the school-feeding programme and the library services.

4.11 The executive head of the M/E is the Minister of Education who is assisted by a Deputy Minister and the Minister of M/ES. The 1981 White Paper proposed a national Education Council which should be an advisory body to the government in matters pertaining to innovations, coordination and rationalization of educational policies. This Council has not yet, however, materialized. The Secretary to the M/E is responsible for educational implementation and supervises all the activities of the ministry. At the Ministry there are a Chief Advisor and three Additional Secretaries. The Chief Advisor heads the Curriculum Implementation and Teacher Education Division and is responsible for primary and secondary education, English education, the Teacher Colleges and the Colleges of Education as well as a new evaluation and research unit. One additional Secretary heads the Administrative Division and another heads the Planning and Management Division. The latter is responsible for the annual school census, planning and progress control, school supervision, the collegiate schools and the Staff College which trains administrators and school leaders. The third Additional Secretary heads the School Activities, Non-Formal Education and Foreign Agencies Division. He is responsible for, among other things, religious education, Pirivena education, non-formal education, plantation schools (the Estate sector), and examinations. The Secretary/Education also functions as Director General of Education in relation to district departments.

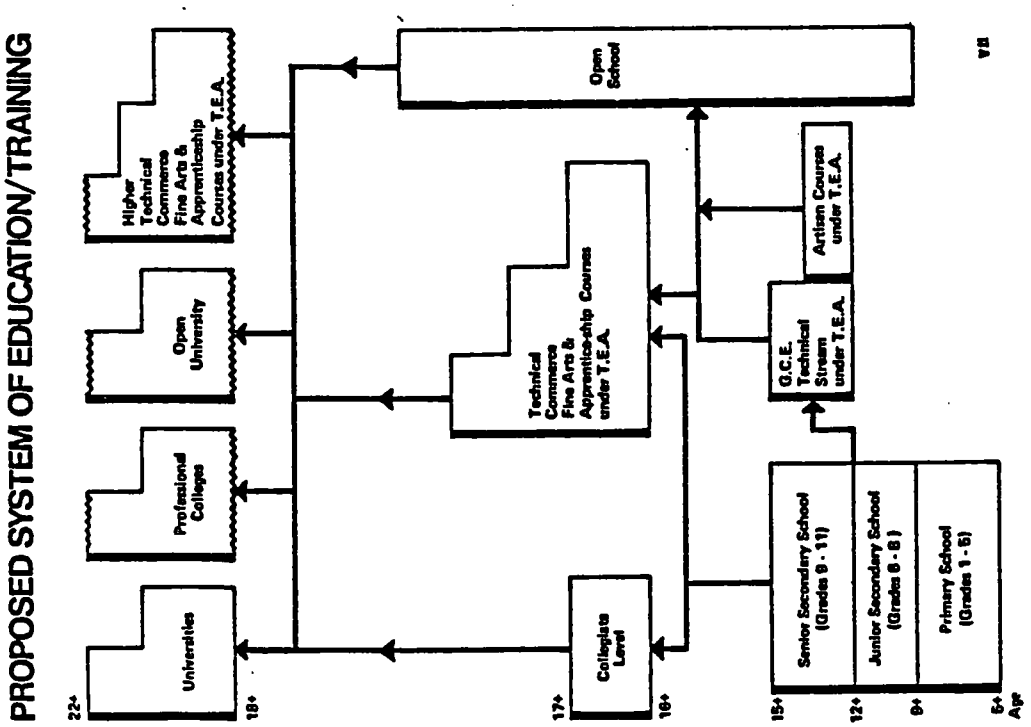
4.12 At sub-national level there are 31 Education Districts. (For historical reasons this level is still referred to as Regional.) Each district has a Department of Education headed by a (Regional) Director of Education (RDE). The RDE is responsible for the preparation and implementation of the education programme for the district in acordance with the policy directives issued by the M/E. The Education Districts geographically more or less coincide with the Administrative Districts (AD). The ADs consist of Electorates, but in the education administration structure the level below the District is

Figure 1 Structure of the Old Educational System



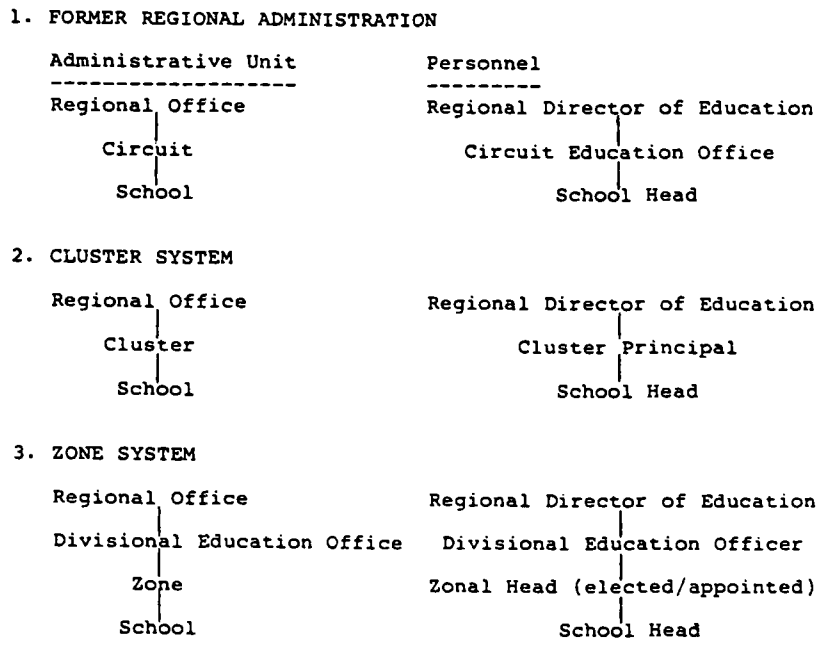
Source: Ministry of Education, Eight Commonwealth education conference, Commonwealth Secretariat, 1980

Figure 2 Structure of the New Educational System



the Circuit. Large Electorates may consist of two Circuits supervised by one Circuit Education Officer (CEO) each. In other cases a Circuit may be co-extensive with an Electorate. The Circuit Education Officers are stationed at the District level and are responsible for supervision, inspection, support to the School Principals and data collection (School Census Data and the Annual Return Forms). Before the present decentralization of administration the Circuit consisted of a number of Assistant Government Agent units (AGA) and each AGA consisted of a number of Grama Sewake - the local administrative unit. On the recommendation of the White Paper attempts were made to introduce the Cluster of Schools as a sub-district unit. The Clusters were to cover a geographical area conducive to rational planning and development of education on an area basis. Each Cluster should have a "core" school with a Super Principal who should supervise the other cluster schools and ensure a rational utilization of local resources. The Cluster Scheme is still being implemented in some parts of the country but it has faced many problems and is now in fact being replaced by the Zone Scheme which is being implemented on a pilot basis in four districts. In these pilot districts a number of Grama Sewake form geographically natural Zones which form Divisions (instead of Circuits). A Zone may thus consist of 10-15 schools as a geographical unit for local planning. Work aimed at the rationalization of the zonal school network and preparation of Three-Year Rolling plans and Annual Investment Plans commenced early in 1984 in the four pilot districts. Planning Officers (19) were recruited and posted at the District Education Offices to assist in educational planning.

Figure 3 Administrative Structure of Education



4.13 The Ministry of Higher Education and Technical Education (M/HETE) is headed by the Minister and a Deputy Minister. The Secretary (Administration) is also the Chairman of the University Grants Commission (UGC) and there is furthermore an Additional Secretary. Besides the Administration Division there is the Technical Education Division headed by a Director and with four Chief Education Officers and two Education Officers.

4.14 Under the old government, in the period 1970-1977, the existing universities had been amalgamated into one university. This situation was changed with the 1978 Universities Act which provided for the establishment of the University Grants Commission, the restoration of the six campuses to the status of autonomous universities and the creation of new institutions including university campuses, university colleges, an open university and recognized institutions. At present, there are eight full-fledged universities, including the Open University, one university college at Batticaloa, one university campus at Dumbara and six postgraduate and other institutes. The institutions are made up of faculties, each comprising several departments. The faculties offer a variety of courses at undergraduate and graduate levels.

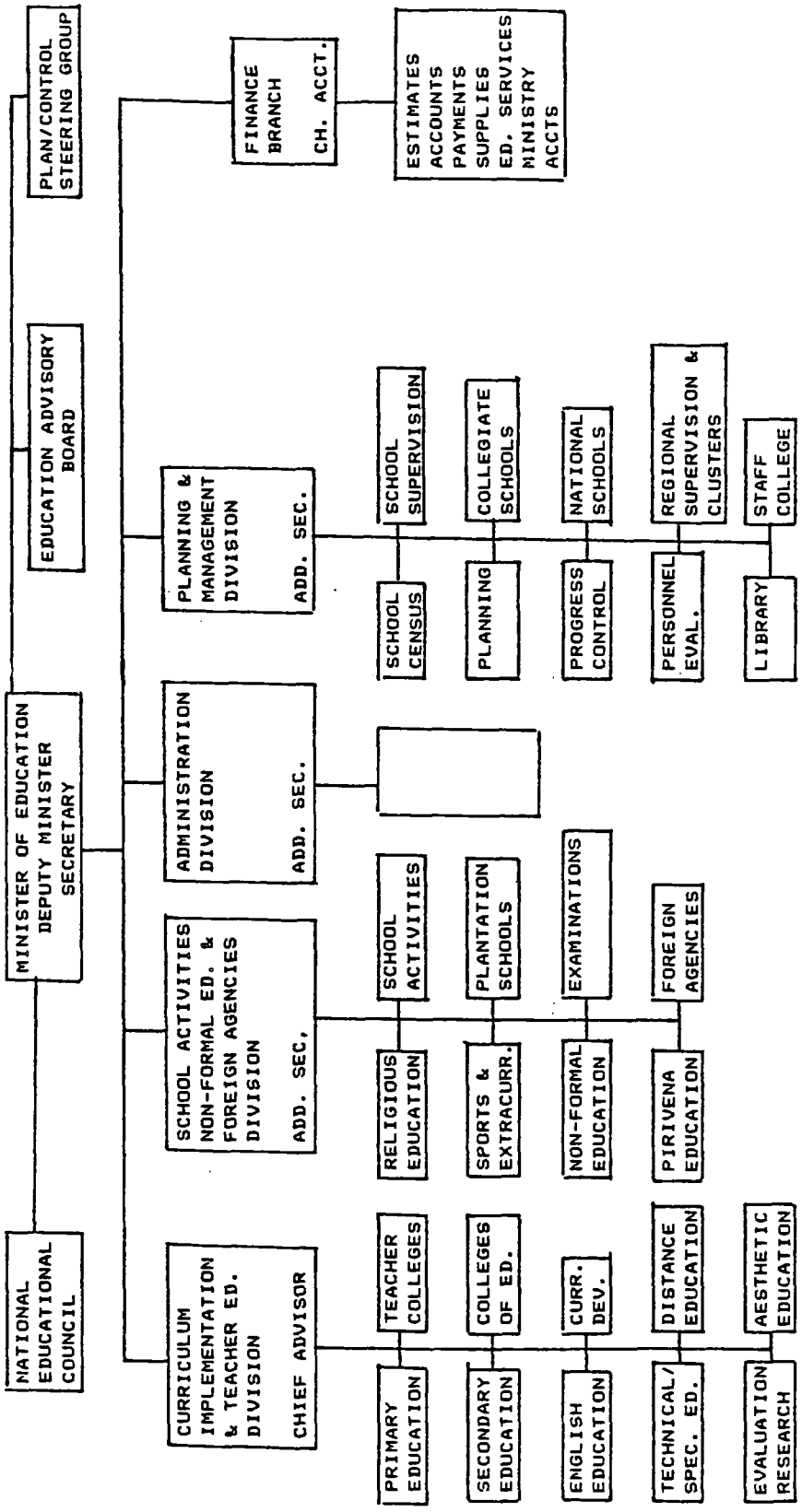
4.15 Under 1978 Universities Act, the main tasks of the UGC are: (1) the planning and coordination of university education so as to conform to national policy; (2) the apportionment to Higher Educational Institutions (HEI) of the funds voted by the Parliament in respect of university education and the control of expenditure by each such HEI; (3) the maintenance of academic standards in HEI; (4) the regulation of the administration of HEI; and (5) the regulation of the admission of the students to each HEI.

4.16 Up till 1985 the universities enjoyed a high degree of autonomy under the UGC and the M/HETE and the Vice-Chancellors were elected by the university courts. According to the 1985 Amendment to the University Act (which caused widespread unrest among students and university staff) the Government has tightened control and the Vice-Chancellors will now be appointed by the UGC instead.

4.17 The Technical Education Division used to be under the M/E but was brought under the Ministry of Higher Education in 1978. Out of 23 existing Technical Institutes, 22 are under the M/HETE (in addition there is one university which offers Degree and Diploma courses in Technology). Eight of the institutes are Polytechnical Institutes. The remaining 14 are Junior Technical Institutes. Courses are offered at Diploma and Certificate levels as well as craft/trade levels (part-time and full-time).

4.18 In addition to the courses available at the Polytechnical and Junior Technical Institutes, there are large numbers of middle level technical/vocational courses offered by other ministries and agencies. Among these the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Youth Affairs (e.g. through the National Apprenticeship Board and the National Youth Services Council) share the major responsiblity for the training of technical

Figure 4 Organogram of Ministry of Education



middle level manpower. A Coordinating Secretariat for Vocational and Technical Training was set up within the Ministry of Youth Affairs in 1982, a Directory of courses is being compiled and a survey of manpower needs in the entire public sector is near completion. Both the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Youth are, however, lacking in staff and resources. One major recommendation in the 1981 White Paper was the setting up of a Tertiary Education Committee (TEC) for the purpose of guiding, coordinating, developing and supporting (1) non-university higher education and (2) technical and vocational education. There should also be a Coordinator for Vocational and Technical Training under the TEC. The White Paper furthermore advocated the establishment of Technical Education Authorities with the function to plan, organize and conduct or sponsor technical and vocational programmes at all levels, carry out relevant testing and award certificates in conformity with TEC specifications. Nothing has come of these highly warranted plans except that within the framework of the Sri Lanka Construction Industry Training Project a committee consisting of Secretaries from relevant ministries has been appointed to establish general policies with regard to the implementation of the project. The need for overall coordination and integration of the middle level technical/vocational sector is still great.

4.19 Although most non-formal programmes naturally come under other ministries there are some which cater mainly to the non-schooled or the early school leavers which come under the Non-Formal Education Branch of the M/E. Four such programmes are:

- skills development programmes for school leavers: technical/vocational courses in some 40 trades/crafts are offered with SIDA support at Technical Education Units attached to regular schools;

- literacy programme for non-school goers and primary school drop-outs: there are 86 Literacy Centres in the country and the number will be increased to 110 in 1985; components included are: facilities for learning, provision of food supplements and medi-care for children, raising of awareness of parents and the promotion of community involvement;

- adult education/community education programme; and

- English classes for adults.

D. Primary and Secondary Education

4.20 According to the 1984 School Census there are 9,556 government schools in 31 Education Districts (in 25 Administrative Districts) offering primary and/or secondary education. The number of schools teaching only primary classes is 4,000. The total number of teachers in 1984 was 135,514 and around 65,000 of these were probably teaching in the primary cycle (there is no statistical distinction between primary and secondary teachers as some teach at both levels but the 1982 School Census gave the figure of 61,192 primary school teachers which gives a teacher/student ratio of 1:34.5). The great majority of all schools are co-ed schools (9,182). About 73%

of the schools use Sinhala as medium of instruction (or at least have a majority of Sinhala students). Besides the 1,896 Tamil schools there are also 671 Muslim schools.

4.21 The total number of pupils in primary grades was a little over 2 million in 1984. (And more or less the same in 1982 and 1983.) The number of pupils enrolled together with percentage grade repeaters is given in Table 4 below.

Table 4 Primary school enrolment and grade repetition, 1984

grade	male	female	total	repetition
K.G.	202,454	190,937	393,391	7.6%
1.	200,232	186,010	386,242	9.8%
2.	193,676	177,966	371,642	10.1%
3.	188,831	173,125	361,956	11.2%
4.	175,683	164,558	340,241	9.4%
5.	155,340	147,688	303,028	7.9%
Total	1,116,218	1,040,304	2,156,522	

4.22 Participation in primary education is high in comparison with many other developing countries but there are still fairly large groups who are not able to benefit from schooling. At the 1981 Census, age specific participation rates indicated that 83.7% of the boys and 83.6% of the girls between 5 and 14 years of age were enrolled in school, and that differences between urban and rural enrolment rates were minimal (urban: 83.9% and rural: 82.7%). The 1983 School Census found the participation rate to be 83.1%. The Consumer Finances and Socio-Economic Survey of the Central Bank revealed that 16.4% of 5-13 year old children were out of school, but the National Study on Meeting the Education Needs of Young People without Schooling (1981) identified a larger proportion (27.5%) of out of school 5-14 year-olds. Low pupil attendance (in many cases well below 80% of those enrolled) often leads to grade repetition (which tends to decrease from around 8% in K.G. to more than 11-12% in grade 3) and the combined effect is a considerable drop-out rate (ranging between 4% and 8% in upper primary).

4.23 Six to nine subjects are taught in primary school (depending on the grade). The time allotted to the different subjects and activities in the first year is shown in Table 5 below.

Table 5 Subjects and time allocation in Year 1

subject/activity	no. of hours per week	(%)
1. assembly, religious activities, Life Habits	1:15	(5.75)
2. mother tongue	5:30	(26.50)
3. mathematics	4:15	(20.75)
4. environmental studies	2.30	(11.50)
5. creative activities	2:00	(10.00)
6. aesthetic activities	2:00	(10.00)
7. religion	1:15	(5.75)
8. registers and interval	1:15	(5.75)
Total	20:00	(100)

4.24 In the second year the time allocated for mother tongue is slightly reduced to the level of mathematics. In the fourth year the following subjects are taught:

Table 6 No. of periods per subject in Year 4

subject	no. of periods per week	(%)
1. Sinhala/Tamil	10	(25.0)
2. mathematics	10	(25.0)
3. environmental studies	4	(10.0)
4. creative activities	3	(7.5)
5. religion	2	(5.0)
6. beginning science	2	(5.0)
7. aesthetic activities	2	(5.0)
8. physical education	2	(5.0)
9. English	5	(12.5)
Total	40	(100)

The teacher is supposed to integrate teaching around eleven themes, viz.: our houses and the people who live in them; things we eat and drink; things we wear; things which help us work; how we live in a mixed community; the world around us; our school and the neighbourhood; people who help us; how we travel and communicate; our earth and the sky above, and things we see and hear. A revised curriculum is being implemented in 1985 (starting with years 1 and 3) partly in response to changes brought about by the changed structure of the school system (see para. 4.7 above). As already mentioned, around 25% of all schools are small schools with less than 100 pupils and only 1-2 teachers. The teachers in these schools have to practice a form of multigraded teaching. They do not, however, have any special training for this and there are no special curriculum provisions for this type of teaching.

4.25 There are 30-40 periods a week in primary school. The school year is around 200 school days. Textbooks are distributed free but the pupils in some schools are expected to wear school uniforms. At the end of grade 5 (year 6) it is possible

to sit for a scholarship exam. In 1983, there were 4,207 scholarship holders in grade 6 (970 with financial assistance and 3,237 without) - a little over 1% of the students.

4.26 Between 70% and 90% of the grade 5 cohort proceed to secondary level. In some of the most disadvanted districts such as Batticaloa and Nuware Eliya the transition rate is barely over 70% whereas in Colombo more than 90% advance from grade 5 to grade 6. If grade 5 total enrolment is around 300,000 pupils, grade 6 enrolment is around 275,000. Total school population in grades 6-10 was 1,263,017 in 1984. About 5,500 schools in the country provide "junior secondary" education (although some of them only up to grade 8). It is noteworthy that the number of girls exceeds that of boys from grade 7 onwards. Pupil enrolment by sex and grade is given in Table 7 below.

Table 7 Enrolment in grades 6-10, 1984

grade	male	female	total
6.	142,259	139,620	281,879
7.	131,691	133,568	265,259
8.	111,134	115,107	226,241
9.	92,894	100,669	193,563
10.	137,284	158,791	296,075
Total	615,262	647,755	1,263,017

Source: School Census, 1984.

Teacher provision is much better for secondary level than in primary education, at least in quantitative terms. Whereas in the primary cycle about 2.1 million pupils have to share less than 65,000 teachers during six years of education, at the secondary level about 1.3 million pupils have nearly 70,000 teachers for the same period of time. Teacher/student ratio for the whole secondary cycle (including Collegiate level) is 1:19. (Compared to 1:34.5 for primary level.)

4.27 A common curriculum is used for grades 6-10 (years 7-11) and science and social studies replace the environmental studies in primary school. Science is, however, also a subject in the upper primary grades. The students are also given the choice of one technical subject out of 13. The subjects taught in grades 6-10 are: religion, first language, second language (English), mathematics, integrated science, social studies, health science, an aesthetic subject, a technical subject, and sports. The technical subjects included in the syllabuses leading up to the General Certificate of Education 0/level are: agriculture, home gardening, home economics, needlework, wood work, metal work, weaving, ceramics, motor mechanism, radio mechanism, marine fisheries and masonry, but the choice is in fact severely restricted by examination requirements and the availability of teachers. Only agriculture and home economics may be taught in grades 11-12 and offered for the GCE A/level examination. Commerce may also be taught in grades 9 to 12 and offered for GCE 0/level and A/level examinations, and some schools also have aesthetic streams.

4.28 The science stream at Collegiate level is an important gate to academic advancement in the system, but the opportunities to aim at this stream are very unevenly distributed. Although nearly 52% of schools were categorized as secondary schools in 1983, only 19.6% had science laboratories and a little more than 22% what are euphemistically termed 'science room'. District-wise disparities in the provision on GCE A/ level science classes are wide, ranging from 17.5% of the schools in Colombo and 8.8% in Jaffna to 1.7% in Anuradhapura and 1.6% in Moneragala. A/level science enrolment for the country as a whole is 25.5 per 10,000 of the population. The corresponding figure for Nuwara Eliya is only 6.9. As science education is the main avenue to economically rewarding employment and socio-economic mobility, imbalances in science educational provision reinforces socio-economic inequalities by widening disparities between poverty groups who gain access to secondary education through subsidies and scholarships and more affluent population strata.

4.29 Awareness of many of the problems in connection with the teaching of the technical subject also led the White Paper Commission to recommend the teaching of a new subject, "Life Skills", in place of the technical subjects. The main aims set out in the White Paper (para. 14) were:

- to introduce the child to the 'world of work' and inculcate in him a positive attitude towards it;

- to provide for domestic skills, graded as appropriate for the age-group to help the pupil acquire some familiarity and proficiency in the use of common tools and appliances;

- to provide for certain pre-vocational skills and make pupils proficient in simple skills relevant to a range of vocations; and

- to provide for an activity-based subject to give the non-academically-oriented pupil meaningful learning activities in which he can excel.

The pilot project has been supported by UNDP/UNESCO. Three hundred pilot-schools were selected in 19 districts, and the curriculum for more than 80 "learning events" or teaching projects were developed in 1983. The pilot-schools had about 4 technical subject teachers each that could be trained. Within a year, 1,250 teachers had been trained in very intensive three-and-a-half day workshops. Each teacher was taught 8 learning events (e.g. mending a bicycle puncture, making a wooden ladle, dressing a wound, etc.). Each school is expected to offer 12-15 learning events. The regular classes are divided into teaching groups of 20 pupils which are taught 3 periods a week and in this way each school is able to offer 10-12 learning events a year, or 24 events in grades 6 and 7. One learning event may require anything from one to several weeks. It has been estimated that a total of 10,000 teachers would have to be trained in order to implement the project on an island-wide scale. So far, only more advantaged schools have been included in the project, which requires a minimum of space for the storage of tools and implements. Tools have been distributed at the cost of Rs. 3,860 per school, and actual

cost of consumable material for the learning events seems to have been around Rs. 23 per student and year. (The total number of pupils in grades 6 and 7 is about 700,000 and this gives an annual cost of Rs. 16.1 million.) The fact that most schools (about 86%) do not have electricity imposes considerable constraints on the project. During the pilot stage supervision of the project has been internally exercised by the Principals. External supervision has been the responsiblity of the Circuit Education Officers (technical subjects) in the respective districts. There is a serious shortage of CEOs with many vacancies in several districts and on a nation-wide scale supervision would thus become a problem. Frequent transfers of teachers who have been trained under the programme to non-programme schools have also caused problems. A temporary evaluation of the Life Skills pilot stage has recently (1984) been concluded. The evaluation mission states that a more detailed evaluation is needed but also expresses the opinion that "the UNDP/UNESCO Project has so far been an outstanding achievement. The syllabus and curriculum materials introduced, the teaching and training methods adopted, and perhaps above all, the management methods used have been innovative in a number of key aspects; and there is no doubt that the project will attract considerable international attention when it becomes more widely known". (Summary of Preliminary Findings and Conclusions, 1984.) The evaluation mission recommends, among other things, that the subject should be taught 4-5 periods a week (instead of 3). It also recommends a second pilot sample of another 500 schools (representing a wider variety of different conditions) and then a step-wise expansion of 1,000 schools a year until the whole country has been covered.

4.30 Grade 10 and the GCE O/level examination constitute the first major selection point in the system. Of those who complete Grade 10 about 45 per cent stay back to repeat the year, 35-40 per cent leave the system, while 15-20 per cent are promoted to Grade 11. Enrolment figures for grades 9-12 in 1984 are given in Table 8 below.

Table 8 Student enrolment in grades 9-12, 1984

grade	no. of students
9.	193,563
10.	296,075
11.	51,843
12.	67,714

Source: School Census, 1984.

The numbers in Grade 10 increased because of repetition. Only one repeat of the GCE 'O' Level exam is permitted within the formal state system of education. Further repeats of the examination have to be sat by candidates privately. Total primary and secondary (pre-university) enrolment in 1984 was 3.5 million and this corresponded to 22.6% of total population.

In grade 11 about 42% of the students are in the Science Stream (1984), 32% in the Arts Stream and a little less than 26% are in the Commerce Stream. As already indicated, adequate

science teaching facilities are very unevenly distributed and the few schools that are adequately equipped, in fact, constitute an elite stream. Partly as a result of higher retention among girls in grades 11-12 the representation of female students is surprisingly high also in the Science Stream, or 46% in grade 11 and almost 48% in grade 12. The percentage of female students in the three streams is given in Table 9.

Table 9 Percentage of girl students in grades 11-12

grade	Science	Arts	Commerce
11.	46.1	72.4	55.8
12.	47.9	72.7	57.3

Source: School Census, 1984

In relation to the required inputs into higher education and the labour market, the present number of students entering the Collegiate level is already too high, especially in the Arts and Commerce Streams. So far, educational development planners have catered more to social demand than to manpower needs. Even so, only 4-6% of those who sit for the A/level examination (and about 1.4% of the age cohorts) enter the universities.

E. Technical and Vocational Education

4.31 There are presently 22 technical institutions and five affiliated Technical Units under the direct control of the M/HETE. Eight of them are Polytechnical Institutes. The 3-year National Diploma in Technology course is conducted at the University of Moratuwa and the Hardy Senior Technical Institute at Ampara. There are plans to introduce this type of course at two more institutions. The fields of training include Mechanical Engineering (Production), Mechanical Engineering (Adutomobile), Civil Engineering, Electrical Power Engineering, Electronics and Telecommunication Engineering and Chemical Engineering. The courses provide 2-year institutional training complemented by a 1-year in-plant training in factories.

4.32 Technician level certificate courses are available as 3-year part-time courses for those already employed. At craft/trade level the technical institutes offer 2-year full-time day courses in Fitting Machining, Automotive Mechanics, Woodwork, Electrical Installations in Buildings, Building, Trades, and Radio and Electronic Mechanics. The part-time craft level courses offer training in Plumbing, Radio Servicing, Electric Wiring, Welding, Fitting and Machining. The full-time craft level courses are offered to youths under 19 years of age who have passed grade 8, while the part-time courses cater to those who are already in employment in the relevant field.

4.33 The Polytechnical Institutes also provide a 2-year full-time National Diploma in Business Studies (2 years of institution training followed by six months in-plant training). In cooperation with the National Apprenticeship Board (NAB) practical in-plant training is also provided to National Diploma in Technology students who have completed their 2

years of institutional training. In recent years, short-term courses ranging from 3 months to one year have been introduced. Both the craft level and the short-term courses are employment oriented. The former prepare craftsmen for industry while the short-term courses train operators for agriculture and industrial needs and also for self-employment where a large capital would not be necessary.

4.34 Total enrolment in programmes conducted in Technical Institutes in the 1980s is given in Table 10.

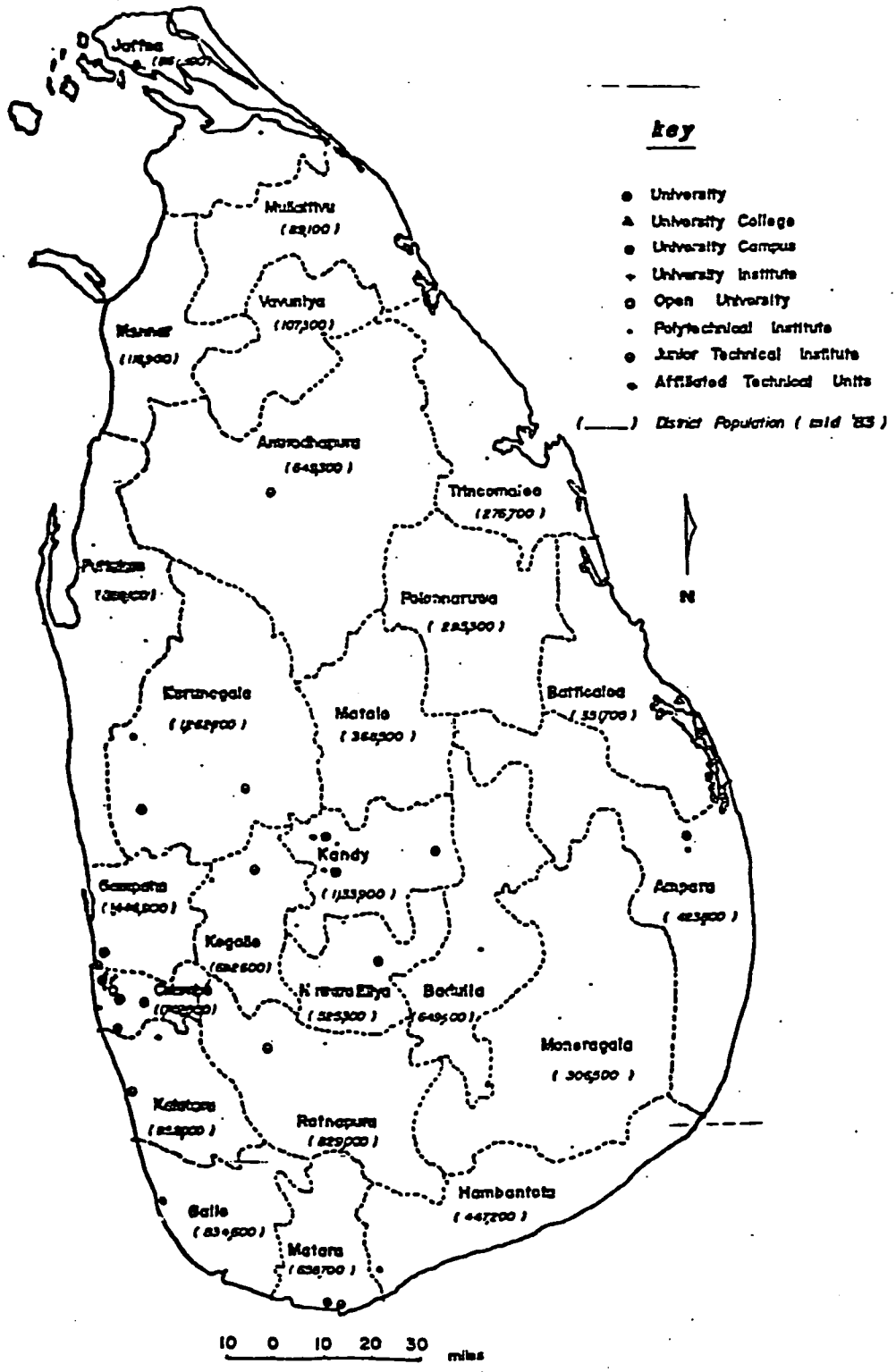
Table 10 No. of technical trainees

level/area	80/81	81/82	82/83	83/84
Craft	3,851	2,947	2,254	2,657
Certificate	6,336	9,280	10,105	9,679
Diploma	754	1,178	1,176	1,039
Higher National Diploma	1,163	3,776	4,059	4,030
CITP*	--	3,200	5,243	3,790
NAB**	--	--	566	609
Total:	12,104	20,381	23,403	21,798

* Construction Industry Training Project
** National Apprenticeship Board

4.35 A project jointly funded by the Asian Development Bank, SIDA and UNDP to upgrade and expand technical education was commenced in 1983. The project aims at improving the quality and efficiency of craft and technician level training mainly at the Technical Institutes under the M/HETE. One major component of the Technical Education Project, which is scheduled to be completed by 1987, is the establishment of a National Technical Teacher Training College (NTTTC) to provide pre-service and in-service training for teaching staff of the Technical Institutes. (See also Part III: para. 6.09.)

Higher Educational Institutions and Technical Institutes



F. Teacher Education

4.36 Until very recently there has been no pre-service training of teachers. Only untrained teachers were recruited and then provided in-service training at the Teachers' Colleges. Two years of institutionalized training were followed by a third year of on-the-job training in selected schools. Before 1960, the training was residential and the non-residential training offered in the last decades has been felt to be of lower quality although it permitted a larger intake. In order to raise teacher quality a new system is now being introduced whereby only trained teachers will be recruited to the teaching profession. Of the existing 25 Teachers' Colleges, eight are being transformed into Colleges of Education which conduct fully residential pre-service teacher education courses for about 500 students each. This programme also comprises two years institutionalized training and one year of internship at selected schools. This pre-service programme leading to a Diploma is open to 17-22 year olds with GCE A/-level. According to present plans, by the 1990s, there will be 10 Colleges of Education with a training capacity of 500 each and an annual output of 2,500 teachers, and this will then be sufficient to meet the needs of the school system. In 1984, there were 36,000 applicants for the available 825 seats at the Diploma course. Tuition as well as board and lodging are free. Seventeen or eighteen of the present Training Colleges will continue for some time to provide in-service training of teachers as long as there is a backlog of untrained non-graduate teachers in service. It was estimated in 1980 that about one third of all teachers in primary and secondary education were untrained.

4.37 According to the 1984 School Census, there were a little over 135,000 teachers in primary and secondary schools. Of these, a little less than 20% were graduates, almost 60% had reeceived in-service training and 21% were untrained (O/level or A/level). Among the primary school teachers, about 25% were untrained. In 1985, the estimated number of teachers needed was 146,257. Total actual and estimated school population for a number of years together with the number of teachers are given in Table 11. The projections were made by the M/E on the basis of trends up to 1981.

Table 11 School population and teachers

year	actual no.	estimated no.	teachers
1981	3,369,964	---	---
1982	3,398,056	3,411,194	129,210
1983	3,460,375	3,490,010	129,480
1984	3,539,096	3,595,453	135,514
1985	---	3,681,197	146,257
1986	---	3,764,906	---

Main sources: School Census and Projections and Teacher Requirements, Ministry of Education, February 1984.

It may be noted that the margin of error in pupil projections has been relatively small but that it increased rapidly from 0.39% in 1982 to 1.60% (or around 56,000 pupils) in 1984.

4.38 For many years the annual intake to the teaching profession exceeded the intake to the Teachers' Colleges for in-service training and this created a growing backlog of untrained teachers. In 1985, probably around 30-35,000 teachers were untrained (according to official estimates only about 20,000). The M/E is therefore conducting a Distance Education Programme with support from SIDA to accelerate the process of training of these teachers. A central unit under the ministry started a training programme for course writers in 1982 and in December 1983, the first students were admitted. By late 1984, some 4,500 students were enrolled in the programme. The Distance Education Branch has set up a network of regional Area Centres which organize contact sessions during week-ends and vacations. (See also Para. 6.04.)

4.39 The responsibility for in-service training of teachers is shared between the Curriculum Development Centre and the Regional Departments of Education (District level). The in-service programmes for senior secondary teachers are normally designed and implemented by the CDC in cooperation with regional staff, while the main responsibility for the in-service sessions for junior secondary and primary teachers lies with the regional departments. A Master Teacher Scheme has been in operation for several years, according to which Master Teachers are selected and trained in order to be able to guide and assist the other teachers in their schools. During 1985, in-service training is provided to Geography and Commerce Master Teachers. Graduate teachers (Diploma level), who normally teach in the upper grades, are trained at 3 of the 8 universities.

4.40 So far, no teachers for technical education have been trained in the country, but as mentioned above (4.35), a National Technical Teacher Training College (NTTTC) is now being established with ADB/SIDA/UNDP assistance. By 1985, construction of the college was well under way, a Principal and a Vice-Principal and 40 staff members had been appointed and were being trained. Projected training capacity is 150 (annual intake). This should be related to a total enrolment in the Technical Institutes of around 20,000 (not including the universities) and a TI staff of about 800-1,000. (See also Para. 6.09.)

G. Tertiary Education

4.41 During the last four decades, university education in Sri Lanka has grown rapidly and there are to-day 18 higher education institutions including eight full-fledged universities (one of which is the Open University) and a private Medical College. Only about 15% of total educational expenditure, however, is spent on university education. Total enrolment in 1983 was 19,033 and student output was 3,947. According to the Five-Year Corporate Plan of the University Grants Commission (UGC), the 1988 student intake will be about 12% higher or 6,130 students, enrolment will be 21,848 students, i.e. a 15-percent increase, and output will be 4,897 students or an

increase by 24%. It is furthermore envisaged that the Arts based streams will phase out and that the Science based streams will increase their proportion of students considerably.

Figure 5 Student Intake and Enrolment

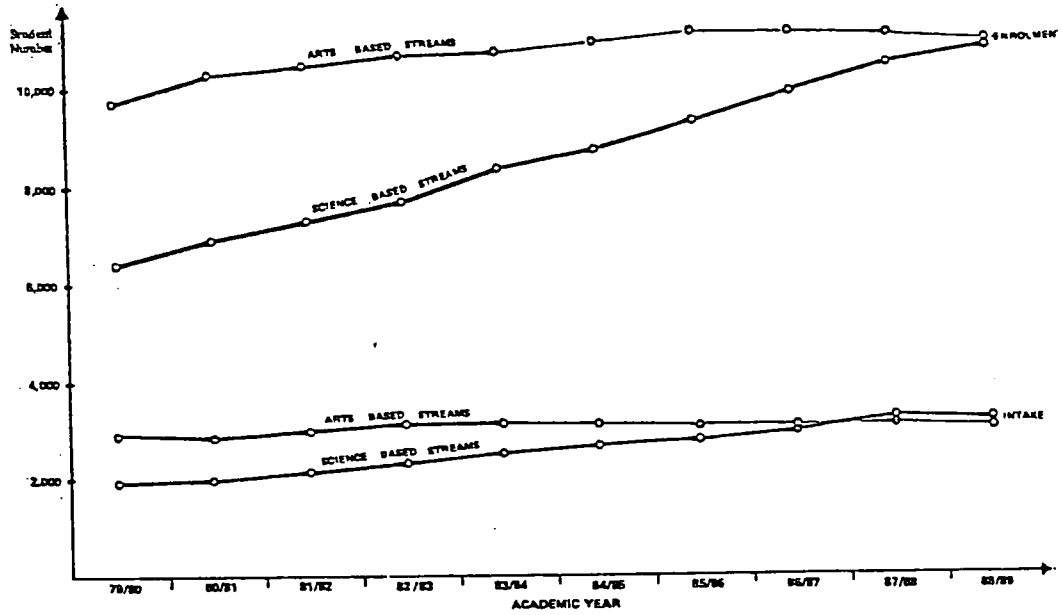
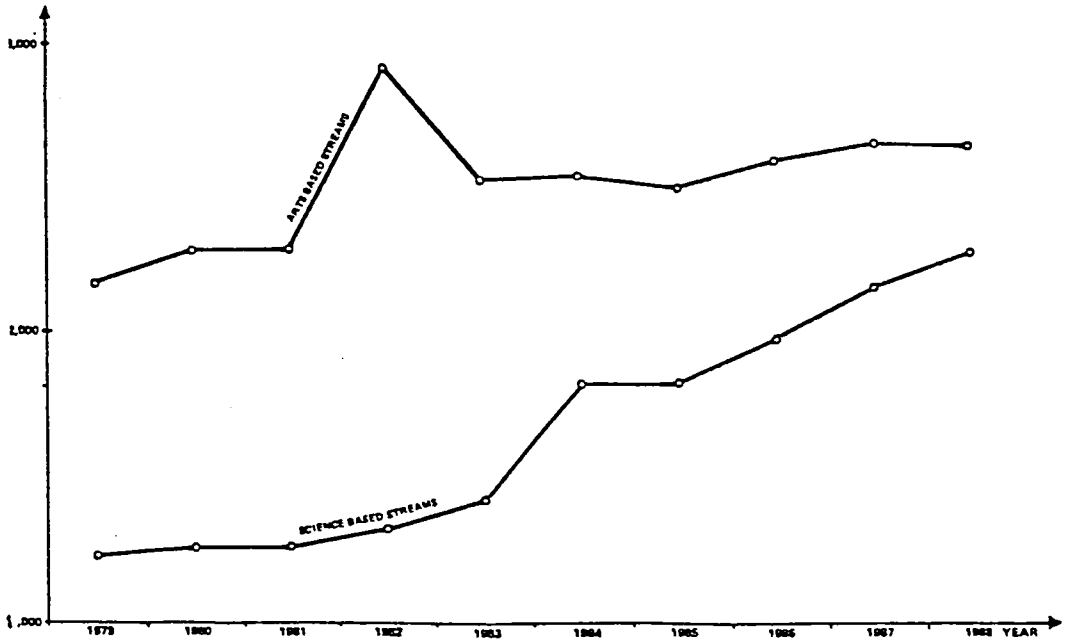


Figure 6 Output of Graduates



Source: Corporate Plan for University Education, 1984-1988, UGC, 1984.

Figure 7 Expenditure on Education (Logarithmic Scale)

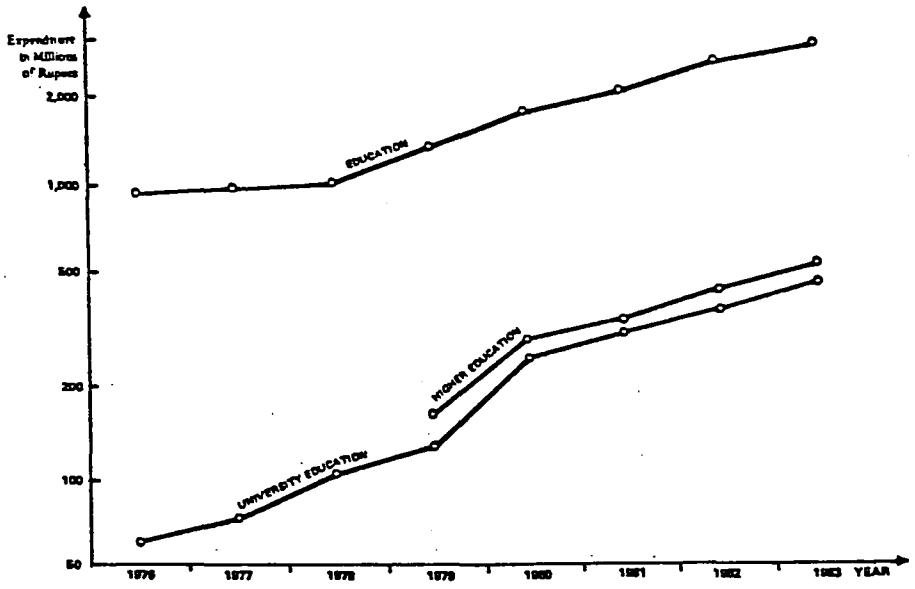
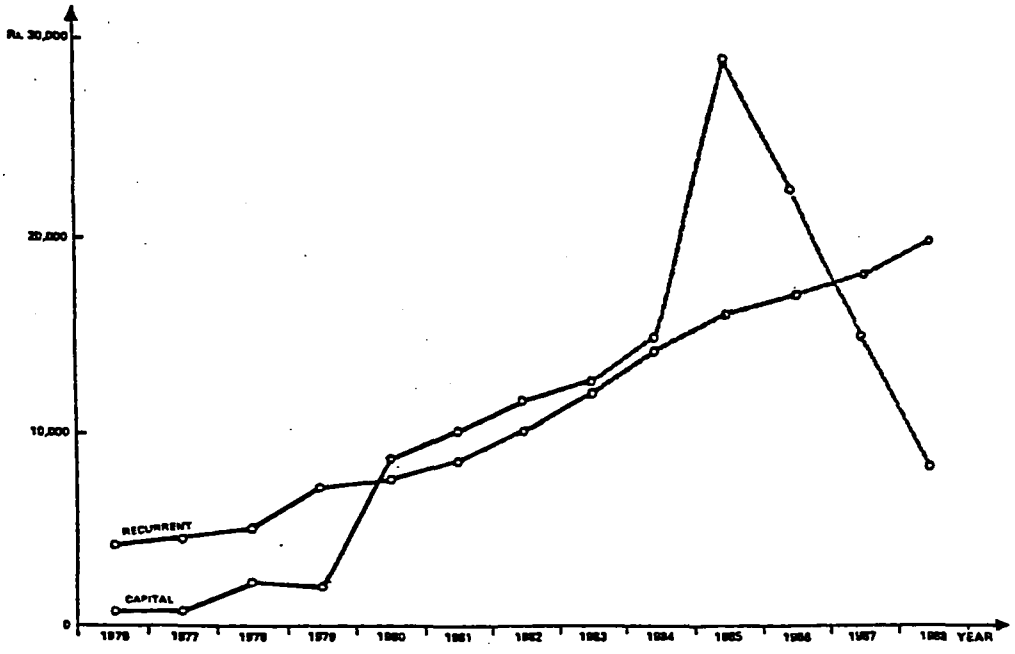


Figure 8 Per Capita Expenditure on University Education



Source: Corporate Plan for University Education, 1984-1988, UGC, 1984.

Percentage distribution of admitted students among the different academic streams for the first and last year of the five-year period (1983-1988) is given in Table 12.

Table 12 University intake by streams, 1983 (actual) and 1988 (projected)

stream	(%) 1983	(%) 1988
Arts	37	29
Commerce, Management	17	16
Physical, Biological Science	21	29
Medicine	8	8
Engineering	9	9
Agriculture, Veterinary Med.	5	5
Law	2	2
Dental Science	1	1
Architecture	0.7	1

Source: Corporate Plan for University Education, UGC, October 1984.

Thus, of the increase of about 12% in the annual intake, the bulk goes into Biological and Physical Sciences. The admission into Arts will decrease both absolutely and relatively while those into Medicine, Dental Science and Engineering will increase in absolute terms but retain the same percentage as before. Commerce and Management will decrease relatively by 1% while those into Law and Architecture will increase both in relative and absolute terms.

4.42 One of the present trends is a shift away from humanities and social sciences in the undergraduate intake and university education. The proportion of Arts and Social Sciences students is planned to drop from 56% to 45% and there will be a corresponding increase in the science based faculties. There is also a shift of emphasis from concentration on undergraduate teaching to more stress on postgraduate teaching and research.

4.43 A special characteristic of the university system in Sri Lanka is the Open University which was established in 1980 as an academically autonomous university designed to enable those over 18 years of age to pursue courses leading to first or postgraduate degree, diploma or certificate mainly in their own time and in their own homes. According to the White Paper of 1981, the strategy of the Open University should be quite different from that of the other universities: not only should it be a home based university but it should also offer opportunities to those who hade missed their first chance to enter university upon leaving secondary school and who are in employment or for other reasons cannot devote full time to their studies. The Open University of to-day, however, is very similar to the other universities in academic orientation and student composition. It caters mainly to the public sector and the proportion of students who are older than 25 years of age is only 3-4% (and not very much more than the 1% for the other universities). The main characteristic of the Open University is the modified distance teaching mode which allows for a

teacher/student ratio of 1:125. There is a central campus in Colombo and a network of 3 Regional Centres and 12 Study Centres providing different facilities. The principal teaching medium is the printed text, supplemented by audio cassettes, video tapes and slides. Tutorial assistance and councelling are offered through teacher/student contacts at least once a month at the centres. Students reside on campus at least once every month for practical work. Tutor marked assignments lead up to 2-3-hour written exams at the end of each course. The student enrolment for 1984 is given in Table 13.

Table 13 Open University student enrolment, 1984

level	no. of students
certificate students	5,683
undergraduate students	1,438
postgraduate students	1,003

Source: Interview with the Vice-Chancellor, 1985.

At the end of 1984, 2,246 certificated students had completed their studies successfully (pass rate: 54%) and 599 postgraduate students had been awarded their diplomas (pass rate: 76%).

H. Non-Formal Education under the Ministry of Education

4.44 The Non-Formal Education Division (NFED) of the ministry is in charge of a number of projects and programmes, one of which is the Literacy Education Project which was inaugurated in 1982 to provide educational opportunities to children who have never gone to school or dropped early. Approximately 10% of the school-age group, or 40,000 children do not enter school every year. A similar number drop out from the first 4-5 grades annually, and some 80,000 children are thus added every year to the large group of non-schooled and virtually illiterate. The total number of non-school going children in the age-group 5-15 is probably around 250,000. The Literacy Programme started on a pilot basis in and around Colombo in 1982 with 12 classes. By late 1984, there were 95 Literacy Centres, most of them in the city of Colombo and suburbs, with 3,446 children from the low-income communities in the slum and shanty areas. A recent examination of a sample of the centres in Colombo found that nearly half of the boys and girls enrolled had never been to school and that their parents were unemployed or in low-income jobs in the informal sector (S. Jayaweera, 1984). It is apparent that such centres meet the needs of the "poorest of the poor" and that universal primary education can become a reality only if such centres are extended to all areas where educational participation is low. The Ministry Centres are supported by UNICEF funds but more inputs are clearly necessary if the development of these centres is to be accelerated so as to meet the needs of the out-of-school population as early as possible. The teachers of the centres, who work part-time and get Rs. 300 a month, are in charge of 25-30 children of varying age and background. Classes are held 3 days a week and 3 hours per day. The teachers are selected for the job on the recommendations of the Adult Education Officers. In 1985, the number of centres were

to be increased to around 150. The number of classes and teachers were planned to increase from 98 in 1984 to 150. The total number of children that can be reached will thus be around 4,500 in 1985 (or 4-5% of the annual replenishment).

4.45 Another programme under the NFED is the School Leavers' Programme for Skill Development through Technical Education Units (TEU). The programme offers part-time or full-time training to youths in the 15+ age group who have left school. The part-time course is of 10 months duration (360 hours) and the full-time course lasts 6 months. The instructors are teachers or local craftsmen who are paid Rs. 250 or 650 per month depending on the type of course. Courses are offered in locally relevant trades such as motor mechanics, radio repair, woodwork, house wiring, gas welding, dress making, plumbing, etc. At the end of 1984, there were 110 full-time units (FTU) with 6,480 trainees and 395 part-time units (PTU) with 13,500 participants. The FTUs offered 41 courses for 71 main employment sectors and the PTUs offered 28 courses. The units are attached to regular schools and there is an Advisory Committee at the scholl level consisting of the local Member of Parliament, personnel of the Regional Education Department and resource persons from the Technical Institutes. The main field functionaries are the Adult Education Officers. Monthly reports from the units are collected at regional level and a summary is sent to the NFED. SIDA has provided funds for the purchase of technical equipment and consumables as well as for staff development and follow-up activities. According to plans, a Training Centre at Naiwala was to be made available for the training of TEU instructors but the scheme was delayed. By 1985, five technical courses were being run at the Naiwala Centre. The TEU courses do not contain entrepeneurship components or provision for credits. Employment rates seem to be low or around 25-30% with higher rates for some courses. (For a further discussion of the project, see Para. 6.05.)

4.46 The Adult Education Programme of the NFED is a diversified attempt to reach low-income level adults - both illiterates and others. Among the main components are: literacy, skills development and social awareness raising. The approach is flexible and the programme takes different forms, e.g. through the Rural Nutrition Education Project of the Health Department and other national schemes such as Promotion of Small Savings, Consumer Education, Contacts with Parents of New School Entrants, Family Planning, Environment Protection, etc. The implementing agents are the Adult Education Officers (123 in 1985) who are responsible for organizing adult education work in their respective Electorates. The 1985 plans of the NFED were to expand the Adult Education Programme to all Electorates (i.e. 160), to reorganize and strengthen the present Coordination Committees on Adult Education in the Regional Education Offices and to improve monitoring and evaluation.

4.47 The Adult English Classes Programme of the NFED offers week-end courses run in schools and using school facilities to people above 15 years of age who wish to improve their mastery of English. The courses run for 3 years and an examination is held at the end of each year and a Certificate issued to those who pass. The students pay a fee of Rs. 12.50 a month and 80%

of the fees goes to the instructor. By late 1983, some 100 schools had set up spare-time classes for about 3,000 adults, but the number has been going down and there is a lack of funds to pay the teachers.

I. Training Programmes - A Brief Overview

4.48 Like in many other countries, the non-formal technical/vocational and skills development field in Sri Lanka is highly diversified and a large variety of short- and long-term courses are offered or sponsored by, in all, probably several hundred different agencies such as State Departments, Corporations and non-government organizations. Since there is no central coordinating body to register, monitor, evaluate and guide all the agencies, no systematic up-to-date information on all the activities has been collected. The Labour Gazette of the Ministry of Labour in 1980 listed 19 government departments and corporations that had conducted vocational training programmes for 28,310 trainees. Some of these were: the Labour Department, Department of Small Industries, Department of Social Services, Department of Agriculture, Department of Health, Ministry of Fisheries, National Apprenticeship Board (NAB under the M/Youth Affairs), Electricity Board, Tractor Corporation and the M/Higher Education. To this list could now be added for instance the Construction Industry Training Project (under the M/Local Government, Housing and Construction) and the National Youth Services Council (under the M/Youth Affairs). There are in addition several hundred non-government organizations (NGO), many of which include training components in their programmes. It is not possible in this report to give a complete overview of the complex vocational and crafts training sector but the following paragraphs seek to give a brief presentation of some major programmes and activities.

I.1 The Ministry of Youth Affairs and Employment

4.49 A coordinating secretariat was set up in 1982 under the M/YAE and its main objective was to coordinate training programmes operated by all ministries and departments in vocational skills for employment of youth. For budgetary reasons the activities of the M/YAE are classified into projects such as: National Youth Services Programme, Youth Employment and Coordination of Vocational and Technical Training. Under the project Youth Employment, the main activities are (1) preparation of youth employment and training programmes; (2) operation of graduate placement service; (3) organization of schemes of guidance, training and facilities for self-employment; and (4) training for employment and the rendering of assistance. The objectives of the project Coordination of Vocational and Technical Training are: (1) to coordinate activities of all bodies and organizations currently engaged in the field of vocational training; (2) to introduce uniformity into training courses and the resulting qualifications throughout the country; (3) to introduce a uniform examination system; (4) to orientate training courses towards the national economic requirements; and (5) to ensure adequate utilization of existing training institutions. As mentioned earlier, the Secretariat has compiled a Directory of vocational training programmes dealing with craft level training. The Directory lists nearly 600 different crafts training programmes of 3

months to 4 years duration under a number of sponsoring agencies such as: The Ceylon German Technical Training Institute, Ceylon Transport Board, Department of Probation & Child Care Services, Department of Small Industries, Ministry of Post & Telecommunications, the Ministries of Fisheries, Higher Education, Justice, Labour, Social Services, Agricultural Development and Research and Textile Industries, National Apprenticeship Board, National Youth Services Council and Ceylon Tourist Board.

4.50 The National Apprenticeship Board: The NAB was established in 1971 with the objective to promote, supervise and regulate apprenticeship training in the country. The Board covers 9 different levels of training from artisan and crafts levels to undergraduate level. Total staff is 315 including Curriculum Development Section personnel, instructors and lecturers, inspectors and training officers. The 100 inspectors identify work places suitable for apprenticeship training and try to convince the employers to take on apprentices. The entry qualifications vary depending on the level, but in many cases a minimum of GCE 0/level is required. For craft level training the requirement is 7th standard and for artisan level it is 5th standard. This means that probably a few hundred thousand youths in the relevant age groups are excluded because they have not completed primary education. The main constraint faced by the NAB at present is the unwillingness of the employers to accept apprentices. During the period 1979-83 about 150,000 youths applied for the craft level courses but only 3-5,000 could be admitted. In all, NAB offered training to 28,200 during the period and certificates were awarded to 8,800 or 31%. At present, about 12,000 apprentices are covered by the programme at any given time. Periodic inspections by the Inspectors seek to ensure that the training is conducted according to the rules. Final trade tests and basic training tests are conducted as well as periodic and final assessments. Most apprentices receive allowances ranging from Rs. 300 to Rs. 354. A NAB training institute at Katubedda was set up in 1981 with German support (Rs. 90 million) to train 600 youths as electricians, motor mechanics, air conditioning fitters, etc. Training has been planned to start in 1985. Another training institute at Katunayake was established in 1982 with a training capacity of 400 technicians in different fields such as electrical fitting for the Free Trade Zones. Financial support was granted by the zones and UNDP and the institute was planned to open in 1985.

4.51 The National Youth Services Council (NYSC): The NYSC, according to the 1979 Act, has as one of its objectives to "widen the knowledge of youth and to give training in fields relevant to development". The Council sponsors training such as: bamboo cane craft (12 months), building construction (6 months), carpentry (6 months), driver training courses (3 months), ebony carving and woodwork (12 months), electrical wiring (6 months), motorcycle repairs (6 months), etc. During the period 1979-83, nearly 5,000 youths were provided training at the 12 training centres of NYSC in 39 full-time training courses, but about 700 of them dropped out and 4,205 actually completed their training. Presently the Council has 6 permanent training centres which can train 1,900 youths for self-employment in carpentry, masonry and electrical wiring per

year. The Council has also established Regional Youth Councils in the Electorates and expects to involve around 60,000 youths in the provision of small scale irrigation, building construction, sanitation, and land development. Little is known, however, about the implementation of this scheme.

I.2 Ministry of Labour

4.52 The organization and implementation of vocational skills development come under the Manpower Division of the ministry. By 1984, there were altogether 347 training centres with a programmed annual output of 10,381 trainees. Training is delivered at (1) village level (mobile centres), (2) district level (permanent centres) and (3) national level. At village level, there are currently 330 Mobile Centres for carpentry, masonry and dress making. At district level, 6 vocational centres have been set up with Dutch assistance. Another 3 will be set up with UNDP support. It is hoped that the remaining 15 districts will also get their centres, but this would probably require further external assistance. At national level, there are permanent centres in Colombo and Marawila offering training in motor mechanics, machining, fitting, welding and electronics and boat engine repairs. The SIDA supported and much delayed Foreman Training Institute is expected to be completed in 1985 and will train foremen and upgrade workers. (Also see Para. 6.10.) There is furthermore a special training centre for construction work within the Mahaweli Project, and a similar centre within the Free Trade Zone in Katunayake for training in industrial sewing. Management and monitoring routines regarding the training activities of the ministry are not well established and statistical information is not compiled on a regular and systematic basis. Total output from the mobile centres seems to have been 5,862 in 1984. The year before, 1,992 were trained at the permanent centres. The Industrial Sewing Centre trained 1,310 in 1983. The courses offered do not contain any management or marketing components nor are credit facilities provided. No follow-up studies have been undertaken by the ministry to establish employment rates after completed training.

I.3 Ministry of Local Government, Housing and Construction

4.53 The unprecedented boom in the construction industry in the late 1970s generated a rapid growth in the demand for skilled manpower. It has been estimated that 50,000 new jobs were created during the period 1977-81. With the help of a World Bank loan (US Dollars 12.5 million) a project to offer training in construction related trades was launched in 1981. The Construction Industry Training Project (CITP) is being implemented by the Ministry of Local Government, Housing and Construction with assistance from other relevant ministries. The project comprises training in 3 different areas, viz.: artisan training (20 weeks), construction supervisory training (60 weeks), and construction equipment operators and mechanics (6 weeks). Total training capacity covering all construction trades is about 6,000 per year. Artisan training covers 5 different trades, viz.: masonry, carpentry, electrical wiring, plumbing and steel fixing and bar bending. The training is provided on a modular basis whereby the trainees can progress from one level to a higher level in a series of short courses

interspersed with periods of job experience. The Basic Skill Module comprises 10 weeks of institutional training followed by controlled on-site work experience of another 10 weeks. Males and females over 17 years of age are eligible irrespective of educational qualifications. They must be literate, however, and in good physical condition. The institutional part of the training is offered at the Technical Institutes. By the end of 1982, 3,842 trainees had been recruited - most of them in masonry and carpentry. Drop-out rates varied from very low to around 25% at the training centres. In late 1982, 3,127 trainees had successfully completed their institutional training at 25 Training Centres. A tracer study in 1984 found that 23% of the trainees were permanently employed, 14% were self-employed, 21% had casual employment, 15% were temporarily employed and 27% were permanently unemployed. The percentage permanently unemployed was quite high for some of the trades: electrical wireman: 33%, plumber: 50%, and supervisor: 50%. (Survey Report of Second Tracer Study on Former Trainees Trained by Construction Industry Training Project, September 1984.)

I.4 Department of Agriculture

4.54 The Education and Training Division of the Department of Agriculture sponsors training programmes in agriculture at 3 levels, viz.: (1) pre-service Diploma courses in Agriculture, (2) in-service training for manpower development within the Department of Agriculture, and (3) vocational training for departmental staff and farmers. The 2-year Diploma courses are offered at 3 Schools of Agriculture and cover syllabuses consisting of agricultural botany, chemistry and engineering, crop and animal husbandry, horticulture, plant protection and agricultural economy. Annual intake is about 250-300 students who are expected to go into self-employment. The in-service training is given at 8 Regional Training Centres. They are usually of one-week duration and are adapted to local conditions covering subjects such as: rice production, soya bean food preparation, home gardening, irrigation and water management, potato and sugar cane production. Periodically in-depth courses of about 6-8 weeks are given in fields like: plant protection, rice production and water management. This training is given to specialized extension workers. The number of trainees and man-days of training are given in Table 14.

Table 14 No. of trainees and training days at Regional Training Centres, 1981-84

	1981	1982	1983	1984
no. trained	15,562	18,687	33,958	16,367
training days	49,372	49,414	52,459	36,955

Source: Communication with the Department of Agriculture, February 1985.

The vocational training is offered at 19 District Centres to out-of-school youths, adults and young farmers, farmers' wives, members of NGOs and local officials. These are short-

term courses varying from 1 day to 4 months. The training centres are residential and can accommodate around 40 trainees at a time.

I.5 Department of Small Industries

4.55 The Department of Small Industries of the Ministry of Rural Industrial Development organizes a number of vocational training programmes of varying duration. Much of the training is offered at training-cum-production centres. In 1982, the Department had 284 centres with almost 93,000 employees/trainees and the total value of the products was about Rs. 26 million. The type of products were: carpentry (112 centres), coir products (88 centres), leather (9), handmade paper (2), art-line textiles (71), brassware and wool carpets (1 centre each).

4.56 In recent years, the Department has sponsored vocational training in a number of trades. One or two years of training has been offered in the following crafts: bamboo craft, brass carving, brass casting, brass work, carpentry (advanced, mechanical and non-mechanical), coir work, dress making , Dumbara mats, gem cutting, lace making, laquer work, palm leave work, Palmyrah work, pottery, Rattan work, silver carving, Tortoise shell craft, handloom textiles, handloom weaver, local drums making, jewellery making and tailoring.

I.6 Ministry of Fisheries

4.57 The Training and Education Division of the Ministry of Fisheries is responsible for various training programmes at national, regional and local levels. At national level the Sri Lanka Fisheries Training Institute (SLFTI) at Mattakkaliya which was set up in 1979 with Japanese support offers training at five different levels in management, supervision, inspection, refrigeration, etc. In 1984, for instance, 3-month training courses on fisheries management were offered for Fisheries Inspectors. Diploma level courses for engineer room officers, managers and captains will also be started. Two training programmes for owners and skippers of fishing boats issued under the North West Coast Project were also undertaken in 1984. At regional level there are four Fisheries Training Centres offering full-time 6-month courses to young fishermen aged 19-22 and with 8 years of education. Normally one batch of 346 per year are trained and issued National Certificates in Marine Fishing. (The centre at Jaffna is presently closed as a result of political tension in the Tamil area.) Aptitude tests are administered in connection with admission to make sure that the applicants have experience of fishing. The number of drop-outs is rather high, but those who complete the course are offered a 2-3-month follow-up course in Commercial Fishing with practical orientation and upon completion of this course they are given the opportunity to purchase fishing boats on favourable credit terms.

4.58 The Regional Centres also deliver local level mobile extension programmes for fishermen. These are normally of 2-3 weeks duration and require less than grade 8 qualifications for admission. There are altogether 25-30 modules and after completion of 10-20 modules the trainees can be admitted to

the regular 6-month courses mentioned above. Each Regional Training Centre can reach about 500 trainees through the extension programmes. It has been estimated that there are about 80,000 fishermen in the country in need of training. Attempts have been made to have fishery included as a subject in secondary school integrated in science teaching or perhaps even in the Life Skills subject in grades 6, 7, 8 and 9. The matter was being discussed with the M/E in 1985.

4.59 The Inland Fishery Division is also organizing training of extension officers and fish farmers under a UNDP/FAO programme. There is furthermore an Aquaculture Development and Training Programme supported by ADB (Rs. 74 million) which is training Cultivation Officers and Aquaculturists. This programme is going to be taken over by the National Inland Fisheries Department.

I.7 Institute of Workers' Education, University of Colombo

4.60 The Institute of Workers' Education (IWE) provides long-term academic as well as short-term courses mainly for workers and trade union functionaries but also for small farmers in remote areas. In 1984, the IWE had 371 worker-students enrolled in the 1st year of a foundation level programme in labour studies. It was also running the 2nd year of a Diploma course in Labour Education. The courses are conducted daily in the evenings and deal with Labour and Management, Economics, Accountancy, Manpower Planning and Population Education, Labour Relations, Labour Law and Trade-Unionism, etc.

4.61 In 1984, the Institute offered the following short-term courses:

- 72-hour courses in English language for Trade Union members and other worker-students conducted at the University and at work places; the number of participants was 700;

- monthly courses (32 hours in 4 days) for members of Workers' Councils and Managers on Participatory Management, Productivity and Community Development; there were 110 participants;

- courses on Community Development for (women) Community Developers in Plantation areas; two 3-day courses were held at the IWE Resource Centre for 20 Community Developers who had been working in the Plantation area for a few years;

- monthly 3-day courses for small farmers from remote areas (30 in all) on Agricultural-cum-Worker Education; the courses included awareness raising as well as skills development components;

- computer appreciation courses for members of Trade Unions (96 participants); and

- 2-day courses for blue-collar workers (60) on Conditions of Work, Discipline, Wages, Job-attitudes, etc.

I.8 Ceylon Transport Board

4.62 Ceylon Transport Board (CTB) sponsors long-term vocational training mainly at the Technical (Mechanical) Training Institute at Werahera and the Vocational Training Institute at Borella. The main programmes and their duration are given in Table 15.

Table 15 CTB training programmes

trade	duration (months)
Electrical course, motor vehicles	48
Electrical work	24
Foundry work	24
Machine shop practice, general	3
Machinist	24
Motor mechanics	24
Motor electricity course	48
Welding	36/18
Welding/Tinker	18

Source: Directory of Vocational Training Programmes in Sri Lanka, M/Youth Affairs & Employment, Colombo 1982.

I.9 Ministry of Social Services

4.63 The Ministry of Social Services is in charge of a number of vocational programmes for physically handicapped youths. In 1981, the ministry had 10 Training Centres with an annual intake of about 500. Now most of the vocational training is offered at Vocational Training Institutes at Seeduwa and Ketawala. The trades are listed in Table 16.

Table 16 Training programmes

trade	duration (months)
Dress making	18
Electrical housewiring	18
Handicraft, Coir work	18/24
Leather work	18
Lathe work	18/30
Mat weaving	18
Motor mechanics	18/36
Rattan work	18
Sheet metal work	18
Spray painting	18
Tinkering	18
Toy making	6
Weaving	36
Welding	18

Source: Ibid

I.10 Sri Lanka Staff College for Educational Administration

4.64 The Sri Lanka Staff College for Educational Administration (SCEA) was shifted in 1984 to new premises at Maharagama and this made it possible to double delivery of training programmes. The College offers courses of varying duration - from a few days to a month. The main task of the SCEA is to provide in-service training and orientation courses to officers of the Sri Lanka Education Service (SLES), Principals and Deputy Principals of schools and of Teachers' Colleges and supervisory personnel of the M/E and of the District/Sub-District offices. The main functions are thus:

- to provide training in planning, management and supervision for staff personnel at different levels;

- to assist educational organizations to solve their management problems through consultancy, research and documentation services; and

- to align training, consultancy and publication programmes to policy priorities of the Ministry of Education.

4.65 Annual training capacity is around 600. One of the main constraints at present is limited hostel facilities. A special unit for distance training is being set up so that delivery of training can be expanded. Distance teaching can be especially suited to the needs of the teachers in the single-teacher schools in remote areas. Of total Faculty staff of 15, 6 have been to India or England for training. Due to lack of Tamil speaking staff Tamil medium schools have not been included in training programmes but courses are now conducted in English to benefit also teachers/principals of Tamil medium schools. According to the 1985 Training Calendar 38 programmes will be implemented including workshops and seminars. It is planned that around 800 officers and principals will receive training and that 700 principals (600 from type 2 and 3 schools and 100 from type IA, B and C schools) will be reached under the Distance Training Programme.

4.66 The College is expected to play an important part in providing training and orientation courses in connection with the present decentralization zonal scheme. According to the zonal scheme, the schools should be activated as planning units within the Zone, the Zone and the Division should take over the planning and administrative functions or the Circuit and a two-way communication and information process (top-down and bottom-up) should provide a basis for planning and decision making. All this requires re-training as well as change of (sometimes negative) attitudes of the District Education Officers, the Circuit Education Officers and the principals and also pre-service training of the new Planning Officers.

I.11 Non-Government Organizations (NGOs)

4.67 There are probably a few hundred domestic and foreign non-government organizations involved in various forms of development activities in Sri Lanka. Most of these have a pronounced target group orientation and several include training components in their programmes. There is no central agency or

apex organization of all the NGOs. Also there is no uniform system for central registration of NGOs. Only a few examples of NGOs which are involved in training programmes will be presented here.

4.68 Sri Lanka Jathika Sarvodaya Campaign (Sarvodaya Shramadana Sangmaya): This is one of the largest and most established NGOs in Sri Lanka. It started as a movement for village development in the late 1950s and had moblized 3,500 villages two decades later. The objectives of the movement are to awaken the masses of rural people to exploit their own potential, to mobilize labour on a voluntary basis for development efforts, to develop grass-root level leadership and to apply an integrated approach to development based on human values. As part of the village development programme the movement has organized vocational training programmes. There are training camps and other forms of skills development activities in all of the 34,500 villages. The movement has 14 Development Educational Institutes in various districts and 200 Sarvodaya Centres and a Farm Centre at Tanamalvila which can train 500 village youths. Nearly 6,000 full-time voluntary workers are serving in the villages and the camps. Training in the villages is mostly of a short-term nature whereas in Colombo and at the Farm Centre training lasts 6-12 months.

4.69 The Bloemendhal Society: This organization which is supported by its mother NGO in Holland caters mainly to women and children in the shanty town area around Bloemendhal Road in Colombo. It organizes sewing and cookery classes periodically for young girls and mothers and holds evening classes in English for school going children. It furthermore conducts carpentry classes for boys under 16 years of age.

4.70 Christian United Evangelistic Association: The association covers youth and children in Colombo with suburbs who are not able to continue their studies after 0/level. Job skills classes are organized for some 70 students. Sewing classes and basic education classes are also organized regularly.

4.71 Church of Ceylon Board of Womens' Work: This organization has a Rural Training Centre at Liyanwella were classes in sewing, home management, nutrition, child care, first aid, soft-toy making, lace making, home gardening, bee keeping, etc. are conducted for some 45 young women - mainly school drop-outs and rubber tappers from the State Plantation Padukka Group.

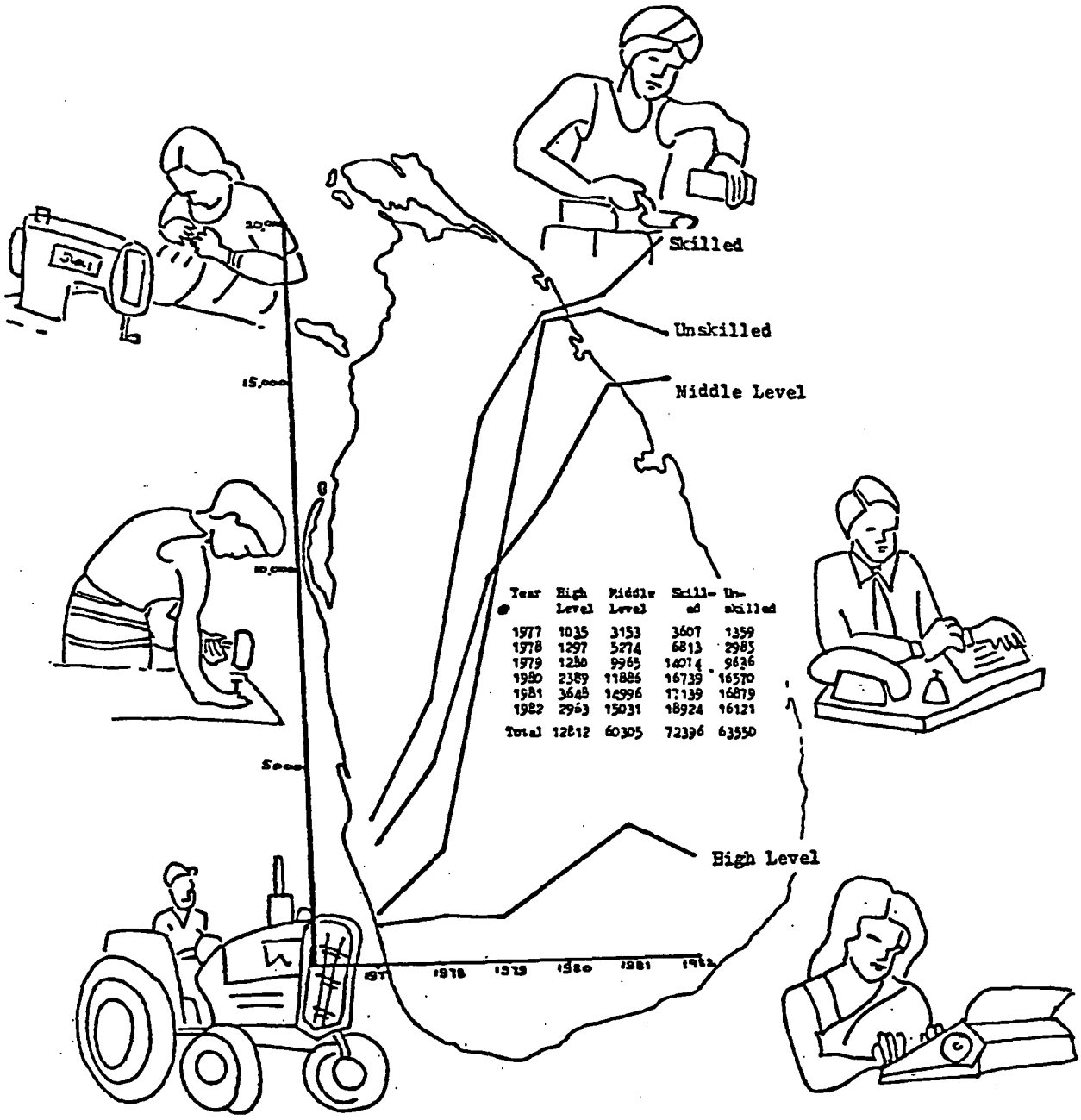
4.72 Nation Builders Association: This association organizes various projects including plant nurseries, afforestation, water management, cottage industries, dairy farm training, poultry farm training, handicrafts, nursery schools, sewing and knitting, teaching of English, and adult education programmes. The beneficiaries are about 2,000 rural poor men, women and children (particularly drop-outs).

4.73 Sahana Voluntary Organization: This organization conducts projects related to health, education, cultural activities, etc. for low-income families - mostly self-employed men and women.

4.74 Sucharithodaya Mahila Samitiya: This organization conducts needlework, house-craft and cookery classes on week-ends and holds demonstrations on preparation of low-cost nutritious food for children between 10-18 years, out-of-school girls and village women (in the Seelogama village). Trained teachers also conduct classes in sewing and handicrafts twice a week.

4.75 Women's Development & Child Education Society: The society has a Women's Development Centre which organizes a 1-year training programme for 25 women between 16-30 years and 20 children between 3 and 5 years from low-income families. The programme is health oriented and classes are conducted on week-days by a voluntary trained teacher.

Figure 9 Growth of Employment in the Private Sector



Year	High Level	Middle Level	Skilled	Unskilled
1977	1035	3153	3607	1359
1978	1297	5274	6813	2985
1979	1280	9965	14014	9636
1980	2389	11886	16739	16570
1981	3648	14996	17139	16879
1982	2963	15031	18924	16121
Total	12812	60305	72396	63550

Source: Employment and Manpower Planning Division, Ministry of Plan Implementation, 1984.

PART III

FOREIGN AID TO EDUCATION

5. EXTERNAL ASSISTANCE TO EDUCATION AND TRAINING

A. Total Assistance

5.01 Foreign assistance plays an important part in Sri Lanka's economy. Foreign financing in 1983 amounted to Rs. 10.9 million, or about 23% of total government expenditure (Rs. 46,772 million). Total foreign assistance in the form of loans and grants was Rs. 7,618 million, or a little more than 16% of government spending. Estimated total foreign assistance in 1985 was Rs. 7,229 million, or 12% of spending, (this figure only includes money actually spent in Sri Lanka).

B. Assistance to Education

5.02 Total foreign assistance to education and training in 1985 was about Rs. 590 million (not including funds spent outside of Sri Lanka on procurement of equipment etc and not including projects with only minor education/training components) according to the 1985 Government Estimates. This was about 8% of total foreign assistance and 10.4% of total government spending on education/training (which was approximately Rs. 5,682 million or 9.4% of the budget). Foreign assistance to projects under the Ministry of Education in 1985 was around Rs. 50 million and this was almost 1.5% of the expenditure of that department and only about 8.5% of total foreign assistance to education/training. The Ministry of Higher Education was, in fact, a considerably larger recipent of foreign assistance than the Ministry of Education. Assistance to the ADB funded Technical Education Project (co-funded by SIDA) and Equipment for Technical Golleges Project was estimated to be Rs. 227 million. More than Rs. 205 million was estimated to be provided by UNDP/UNESCO and several other donor agencies for the upgrading of universities. The Rs. 432 million thus provided to the Ministry of Higher Education and Technical Education (to be compared with the Rs. 50 million to the M/E) constituted more than 36% of that ministry's total expenditure (Rs. 1,189.54 million). Also the IDA funded Sri Lanka Construction Industry Training Project and the West-Germany funded Railway Technical Training Centre were estimated to receive more money in 1985 than the Ministry of Education (Rs. 51 million and 55 million respectively).

5.03 Ten different projects under the Ministry of Education received external support during 1985, and five of them were funded or co-funded by SIDA. The projects and the approximate proposed expenditure for 1985 are given in Table 17.

Table 17 Externally supported education projects

funding agency		project	expenditure U.S. Dollar
1.	SIDA	Distance Education	247,400
2.	SIDA	Non-Formal Education	193,000
3.	SIDA	Special Education	158,600
4.	SIDA	Practical Subjects	17,540
5.	SIDA	Educational Management	155,800
6.	UNICEF	Educational opportunities for non-school going children	110,000
7.	UNDP/ UNESCO	Quality improvement of General Education, Life Skills	270,000
8.	NORAD/UNESCO	English as a second language in primary school	330,000
9.	UNFPA	Population Education in school	35,000
10.	Japan	Equipment for TV services	38,000
Total			1,995,740

Source: M/E communication; some figures are provisonal.

6. SIDA SUPPORT TO EDUCATION AND TRAINING

A. Introduction

6.01 Sweden's development assistance to Sri Lanka began in 1958. In 1974, import support was added and Sri Lanka became one of around 20 regular "programme" countries in 1975/76. Bilateral programmes constitute the main portion of the Swedish involvement and a great share of the import support is now tied to purchases in Sweden. By June 30, 1984, a total of SEK 914 million had been disbursed. In 1983, SIDA funding amounted to Rs. 639.2 million and this was 8.4% of total foreign assistance that year. Total SIDA aid to Sri Lanka in 1985 was around SEK 279 million or Rs. 840 million. A very large part, or about SEK 255 million (91%), has gone into the hydro-power project at Kotmale, which SIDA is co-financing.

6.02 Of the Swedish aid not absorbed by the Kotmale Project most is allocated to rural development and education/ training. Approximately SEK 20 million were allocated annually to these two sectors in the budget years 1983/85. Of the total SIDA aid in 1985 of SEK 279 million, about SEK 12 million (4.3%) went to education/training, (i.e. non only through M/E), and this meant that SIDA financed about 0.63% of government spending on education and training (and about the same percentage of the spending of the Ministry of Education). SIDA's share of total foreign assistance to the education/-training sectors was about 2%.

B. Development of Education Programme

6.03 The Development of Education Programme was initiated in 1979/80. The M/E is now the implementing agency for the five projects under the programme and for the period 1982/83 - 1984/85 the Swedish commitment was SEK 18 million. Total

foreign assistance to the M/E in 1985 was Rs. 50 million and the SIDA share of this was 42% (out of SIDAs contribution of Rs. 21 million about 60% were spent in Sri Lanka; this is a large proportion compared to what other donor countries spend in the recipent countries, but it could nevertheless be argued that more effort should be made to increase that portion). A short description of the five projects under the Development of Education Programme will be given in the following paragraphs.

6.04 Distance Education: In order to clear up the backlog of untrained teachers in primary and secondary schools a Distance Teaching Unit was set up with the help of Swedish experts and a training programme for Distance Personnel was started in 1982. For the 185 study units in two courses consisting of 10 subjects almost all manuscripts had been prepared by early 1985 and 59 had been printed. The student-teachers are attached to 22 Study Centres all over the island and each centre has a Senior Tutor, 5 Tutors and a number of part-time Tutors who carry out school visits, contact sessions, assignment corrections, etc. In 1984, 10 contact sessions had been organized and it was planned to hold 12 in 1985. The two courses in teacher education that were started in 1983 were: (1) Elementary Education Course for Primary School Teachers (with 3,004 participants) and (2) Science/Maths Course for Secondary Teachers (with 1,592 participants). Total enrolment in 1985 was 4,956 teacher-trainees. In early 1985 arrangements had been made to prepare study material for two additional courses, viz. Home Science and Agriculture. In all, 175 Tutors had been appointed to supervise the traineees. It is estimated that it will take 3 years to clear up the backlog of untrained (uncertified) teachers. The official estimate of about 20,000 untrained teachers seems low, however, and the 1984 School Census figures recently released indicate that the number is probably closer to 30,000. Concurrently with clearing the backlog the unit is also preparing to re-train other teachers and to develop supplementary audio-visual material. The main problems and needs faced by the project include: further inservice training of Distance Education Staff; further expansion of infrastructure (including library facilities); further improvement of logistics (transportation and funding for postage); and the need for programme evaluation (involving both local and foreign experts). It is estimated that continued external funding as well as personnel training abroad shall be needed. SIDA provided SEK 450,000 and Rs. 5,700,000 in 1985.

6.05 Non-formal Education - Technical Education Units (TEU):The TEU training started in the mid-1970s as a Skills Development Programme for School Leavers. (See also Para. 4.45). The original objective was to promote wage and self-employment among secondary school leavers through the provision of short training courses in special units attached to schools. Responsibility for the programme lies with the Non-Formal Education (NFE) Branch of the M/E, but since 1984, the implementation and management of NFE programmes has been handed over to the Regional Directors of Education. A total of 500 schools were running full-time or part-time courses in 1985 and annual training capacity varies between 15,000 and 20,000. Instructors are recruited locally and the government provides a total of Rs. 3 million to cover instructors' fees

and the money is distributed to the Regional Directors of Education in January each year. Each instructor is paid Rs. 250-650 a month and the Principal of the school also receives a fee. A small portion of the equipment needed is purchased by the RDE and the major part by the Ministry of Education services. Equipment costs have been funded by SIDA since 1979. Since 1984 the consumables needs of the units are determined by the Regional Coordinating Officer and the Principals are given a Cash Imprest to procure the necessary commodities. For 1985, a sum of Rs. 500,000 from SIDA funds was allocated in January to the Regions. Total SIDA commitment for 1985 was Rs. 5,500,000. The number of trainees at the TEUs has remained fairly constant over the years but the number of units has gone down from more than 700 in 1983 to 500 in 1984. Employment rates among the graduates remains rather low and one of the main problems of the programme is the identification of locally tenable trades and adjustment to changing conditions. Other problems faced include: fees are too low to attract good instructors; regional level staff need considerable upgrading in order to improve monitoring and supervision; the duties of the Adult Education Officers are not clearly spelled out and division of authority between AEO and the school Principal as regards supervision of TEU is not clear; expansion of the programme is hardly possible with the present limited provision within the NFE of the M/E; late disbursements (via the RDE) sometimes delay the courses considerably and leads to equipment standing idle part of the year. (For further problems, also see Para. 6.07.)

6.06 Special Education: No systematic survey has been made to ascertain the number of handicapped children in Sri Lanka but it has been estimated that 3-9,000 children of school-age are partly or fully visually handicapped (VH), about 22,000 have hearing handicaps (HH), some 300,000 are mentally retarded (MR), around 500,000 are slow learners and 3,000 are crippled. A 2-year SIDA supported programme aimed at handicapped children was agreed upon in 1983 and commenced in 1984. The project entitled Expansion and Improvement of Special Education Programme for the Handicapped is implemented by the Special Education Unit of the M/E. It contains 3 main components dealing with the VH, HH and MR respectively. During 1984, 55 teachers were trained in the methodology of teaching VH children and the same number of teachers were trained in the field of Low Vision. Equipment such as Braille writers and abacuses were also provided. In the field of HH, there are 60 teaching units and 12 schools for the deaf with altogether 160 teachers. An inventory of the sign language used in Sri Lanka is being undertaken. In the field of MR, curricula for teacher training and for the teaching of MR children were prepared in 1984. Training in the teaching of MR children was given to 21 teachers, orientation courses were given to Principals of 10 schools with MR Units and a 1-year course for graduate teachers (30) to become teacher trainers was given. Another 16 units for the HH and 6 integrated units for MR children are going to be set up. A study on prevocational and vocational training for handicapped is going to be undertaken. Total SIDA commitment in 1985 was Rs. 320,000 and SEK 1,400,000 (for equipment like Braille writers and consultancy services among other things). One of the main problems faced in the identification of handicapped children and delivery of services is

lack of coordination with Ministry of Health, Regional Coordinating Officers and District Field Supervisors. There is also a great need for low-cost technical aids for HH children. Another problem is the lack of separate space for these children in the schools since the noise has very adverse effects on children with hearing aids.

6.07 Practical Subjects and Science: Approximately Rs. 5 million is being used annually for the procurement of equipment for the qualitative upgrading of technical subjects (Agriculture, Home Economics and Handicrafts) and science in secondary schools. Equipment for the former used to be handled by the Regional Education Departments but since 1983 the procurement of equipment for all these subjects is handled by the Ministry of Education Services. During the period 1981-84 equipment under SIDA assistance has been provided to 1,577 units for Agriculture, 1,149 units for Home Economics and 42 units for Handicrafts. In addition, 75 schools were supplied with equipment to strengthen the science component of Agriculture. An evaluation conducted in late 1984 identified the following problems in relation to the provision of equipment to the practical subjects and science as well as the non-formal education (TEU) programme: considerable delay in the purchase and distribution of equipment; shortage of vehicles (The Ministry of Education Services has 15 lorries and 6 vans to cover around 9,500 schools); lack of space for storing and inadequate reporting. It has also been noted that large prestige schools tend to get expensive equipment at the expense of the other schools. The already considerable gap between the favoured and the disadvantaged schools has thus in some cases widened. The Technical Education Unit of the M/E has plans for 1986 to provide equipment for Agriculture to 775 schools, for Home Economics to 100 schools and for Handicrafts to 160 schools. Total estimated expenditure for 1986 is Rs. 14.4 million. SIDA funds are being sought for the next phase of the programme starting in January 1986. In 1985, SIDA only made Rs. 500,000 available pending the outcome of the ongoing evaluation.

6.08 Educational Management Training: The Educational Reforms Committee set up in the late 1970s found that reforms in the administrative structure, planning and management systems, supervision of operational levels as well as the selective implementation of institutional reforms were necessary. A Report on Reforms in the Management Support System was prepared in 1982. Far-reaching reforms of planning and administration were introduced in 1984. Decentralization and the introduction of the Zone Scheme were important elements of the reform. The new management reforms had obvious training implications and the overall responsibility for the training of educational administrators lies with the Sri Lanka Staff College for Educational Administration (SCEA). Training is, however, conducted at two levels, and the SCEA is functioning at the national level whereas the District Management Centres (DMC) cater to grass-root level needs. Substantial aid has been received from SIDA to organize the DMCs and to conduct their training programmes. It has thus been possible to train some School Management Advisors (SMA) to man the DMCs, supply equipment and provide financial support for management training activities. With SIDA assistance 29 School Principals and

officers have undergone training at NIEPA in India, and 18 of them have been appointed as SMAs and the rest work at the SCEA and the M/E. By early 1985, 18 of the DMCs were functioning but it was expected that all 20 would be functioning by mid-1985. The DMCs adopt two different strategies of training: one is to organize the clientele in groups of 30 and provide training in different aspects of school management, planning and supervision for a period of one week (5 contact days); the other is to organize groups of 10 participants into a sort of diagnostic workshops to identify common problems and discuss possible solutions with the assistance of the SMA (somewhat similar to the Performance Improvement Planning - PIP - promoted by ILO and the UN). Out of a total of nearly 7,000 principals and more than 11,000 other functionaries, i.e. around 18,000, 2,232 (12.3%) had been trained by early 1985. In 12 out of the 31 districts no one had yet been trained, however. For 1984 and 1985 SIDA provided Rs. 300,000 and Rs. 350,000 respectively for DMC training activities. Another sum of Rs. 600,000 was provided for the purchase of equipment. The Staff College also utilized some of the SIDA funds for equipment. Financial problems is considered as the main bottle-neck and the DMC facilities are still under-utilized due to lack of funds. Other problems are: shortage of reading material in the local languages; lack of means to provide special service to the small, 1-2-teacher schools through distance teaching programme; lack of physical and library facilities; and dearth of qualified personnel in the outlying areas who can be used as resource persons.

C. The Technical Education Project

6.09 This project aims at upgrading the quality of technical education (in the Technical Institutes and the Polytechnical Institutes) under the M/HETE by the establishment of a Technical Teacher Training College, in-service training and provision of equipment. (See also Para. 4.34.) Basically the Asian Development Bank provides equipment and buildings, UNDP Fellowships and SIDA consultancy services. Of a total (external) allocation of US Dollar 20 million, the Swedish part is US Dollar 2.8 for the project period 1983-87. The project concentrates on 3 interrelated aspects of technical education, viz. the training of (1) craftsmen, (2) technicians and (3) commerce workers. This entails the improvement of teacher training facilities, i.e. the establishment of the NTTTC, and the improvement of facilities as well as teaching methods and relevance at the Technical Institutes. Swedish consultancy services have comprised the provision of experts on information systems, curriculum development and internal staff training. The preliminary findings of a limited survey of manpower needs in the industry, conducted in late 1984, seem to indicate: (1) that few graduates from the Technical Institutes have found employment in the industrial sector (especially from the craft level courses); (2) one reason for unemployment seems to be "competition" from the apprenticeship-trainees provided by the National Apprenticeship Board; and (3) industrial enterprises seem to lack information on the trade courses conducted by the Technical Institutes.

D. Foreman Training Institute Project

6.10 The project seeks to help satisfy the demand for appropriately trained foremen in the major development schemes and in the industrial sector. It consists of several components such as: (1) the establishment of a Foreman Training Institute (FTI) with an annual capacity to train 150 foremen/-supervisors for the manuafacturing and construction industries; (2) the provision of teacher training material and methodology for the upgrading of the trainees; (3) institute development and organization; and (4) the training of counterparts. The agreement was signed with the Ministry of Labour in 1979 covering the period 1979/80 - 1982/83 and SEK 12 million was made available. The agreement was then extended to 1984/85 and SIDA committed another SEK 3 million. The project faced serious problems and the construction of the FTI was delayed by 4(!) years due to bad local management of the implementation. Equipment delivered from Sweden had to lie idle in Colombo for some years. SIDA demanded that the construction work should be completed by August 1984 and training calendars worked out or the project would be discontinued. The inauguration took place in the summer of 1985, and SIDA has now terminated its imvolvement.

E. The Badulla Integrated Rural Development Project (BIRDP)

6.11 "The Badulla IRDP (BIRDP) is part of a national scheme to promote development in rural districts not benefitting directly from the large infrastructural 'lead' projects. SIDA entered into an agreement in January, 1984 with the Ministry of Plan Implementation to support the Education and Health Components of BIRDP over a three-year period (with a possible extension to ten years), and committed SEK 10 million. The BIRDP places a higher priority on the qualitative improvement of education than the Education Components of the other IRDPs in the country, where the focus is more exclusively on the provision of infrastructure and equipment. It is hoped in Sri Lanka that the experience gained in Badulla will be useful for the formulation of future IRDP Education Components, and for strategies of quality improvement of general education in rural areas. Another characteristic of the Education Component of the BIRDP is its package approach, including both formal and non-formal sectors, conventional skill development, as well as the improvement of health and nutrition status. The package as a whole comprises seven components: (1) Quality improvement in formal (mainly primary) education; (2) Quality improvement in non-formal education; (3) Civil works; (4) Furniture and equipment; (5) Teacher supply; (6) Monitoring and evaluation; (7) Management and equipment.
All interventions are organized simultaneously by a project cell within the Regional Office of Education. Project cell personnel work vertically within the line authority of the Ministry of Education, and horizontally with the Integrated Rural Project Director in Badulla, and the Superintendent of Health Services of the Ministry of Health in Badulla. The interventions are aimed at disadvantaged areas and include both Tamil plantation schools and rural Sinhalese schools.
Implementation of the Education Component commenced in Febru-

ary, 1984, and in its first year considerable progress has been achieved. Early problems faced in 1984 included the delayed start of the Health Component, delays in the provision of more teachers within the Estate sector, inadequate management capacity of the project cell with regard to the estate school programme, and problems of transportation. By early 1985 some of these early problems had already been overcome.

F. Concluding Remarks

6.12 Besides the programmes treated above SIDA has also supported some other areas, viz. Cooperative Management and Training (SEK 4.5 million), the Open University (mainly for the purchase of equipment; SEK 8.5 million) and Women's Bureau, Jaffna District (SEK 0.65 million for family education and income generation). In a longer time perspective, SIDA support to education and training in Sri Lanka has been predominantly in the form of hardware. The recent tendency has been to shift more to competence building. Some programmes have contained quality components (e.g. curriculum development and in-service training) and some have aimed at multiplier effects (which is in accord with official SIDA objectives) but more efforts could probably be made in these directions. Rather few programmes have, however, in actual fact reached the really most disadvantaged. This may sometimes be the result of bad aiming, sometimes of the intervention of diverting factors and sometimes a combination of both, such as in cases where science equipment tends to reach the better-off schools rather than the more disadvantaged and in so doing also benefits the socio-economically more favoured students who have made it to these schools. Many of SIDAs development efforts in Sri Lanka have been of a fairly technical nature rather than seeking to change structures and human minds (and the same is true of much international assistance to LDCs), and have sometimes been victims of the tendency to introduce more sophisticated foreign technology than actually called for. There has in the field of human resource development been limited stress on low-cost alternatives and on mobilizational interventions aimed at mobilizing the poor to remove obstacles to development and actively create better conditions for themselves. Recent attempts, for instance the BIRDP, represent more consistent target group orientation, however, despite many problems faced in the implementation of the programme. Difficulties in achieving ethnic equality have been faced in some programmes. The possibility to promote grass-root level development through NGOs does not seem to have been sufficiently explored. Important progress has been made in recent years in the efforts to strengthen monitoring, management and reporting in order to improve programme implementation which in earlier years sometimes was far from satisfactory.

PART IV

ANALYTIC DISCUSSION

7. PROBLEMS AND ISSUES

7.01 The overall approach in this part of the report is to combine a consistent target group orientation with consideration of overarching national development needs. The purpose of the analytical and problem oriented treatment of the subject is to identify the most disadvantaged individuals, institutions and areas and to examine their needs in terms of human resource development and their constraints in terms of lack of provisions of education and training both for individual fulfillment and active participation in development and for the rational utilization of manpower for national development. In doing this, the aim is to consider dimensions such as quality, efficiency and relevance again from the point of view of both the most disadvantaged and rational national development. This approach has resulted in the focusing of attention on groups, areas and issues such as: the nonschooled children; the early rejects of the school system; the physically and mentally handicapped children; the quality, efficiency and relevance of primary education; the selection and screening mechanisms of the education system; the small category 3-schools with only 1-2 teachers; the 5-6 most disadvantaged districts in the country; the Estate sector, planning, management and coordination in education; linkage between education and the world of work; needs and supply of manpower; and the role of research in educational policy.

A. The Non-Schooling Gap

7.02 Despite the provision of free tuition and textbooks the out-of-school children constitute a fairly large group. This group consists both of those who never entered the school system and those who drop out at an early stage. Both the Census and Central Bank surveys found that about 250,000 or 16.3% of the children of elementary school age (5-13/14) were out of school in 1981. It may be assumed that half this number never had been to school. As noted in Para. 4.22, the National Study on Meeting the Needs of Young People without Schooling and with Incomplete Schooling (1981) concluded that an even larger proportion of 5-14 year olds (27.5%) were out of school. It may be assumed that the official figures on non-participation ranging from 5% to 10% depending on the age cohort in fact are underestimations. It has been estimated that around 30% of those who actually enter the system do not survive till grade 5 and this means that nearly 40% of the total age cohorts either have no schooling at all or less than five years of schooling.

7.03 The Consumer Finances and Socio-Economic Survey (CFSES) of 1981/82 has also reported that there has been a "mild reverse" in the trend since 1978/79 reflected in a slight increase in drop-outs and in a decline in the literacy rates of the school-age population especially in the rural and estate sectors, and in a slight increase in the proportion of

non-schooled illiterates in the urban, rural and estate sectors. Gender disparities in educational participation are not large in Sri Lanka, but there is a slight underrepresentation of girls in primary grades and it appears that a few percentage points more girls than boys never enter school.

7.04 Non-participation in education is normally the combined effect of deficiencies in the school system and socio-economic factors. The school related factors are treated in section B. It is also clear from studies that non-participation is associated with socio-economic class and is concentrated largely in pockets of economic deprivation such as urban slums and shanties, plantations and remote villages. A study in 1979 (S. Haputantri) found that 63% of the drop-outs in the sample belonged to families with an average monthly income of less than Rs. 250 and that 95.5% of the parents were unskilled workers, small scale cultivators or unemployed. The CFSES report noted that the major reason for early drop-out in the urban and rural sectors was the inability of the family to meet the costs of stationary and clothes while lack of easy access to schools and family work were important factors on the estates. In the new Mahaweli settlements in the H area in 1983, absenteeism of both children and teachers and dropping out stemmed from the dependence of the families on the labour inputs of all family members during peak cultivation seasons (S.B. Ekanayake). In the slums and shanties of Colombo a recent study found that nearly 20% of the 6-8 year olds and nearly 10% of the 9-14 year olds had never been to school. Inability to buy stationary, parental indifference and lack of access to existing schools were major contributing factors. The same study also found that around 22-23% of the 6-8 year olds that had entered the school system would drop out. One reason for non-entry into the school system is that the children are denied admission due to an inability to procure birth certificates.

7.05 The obvious conclusion from the facts presented above is that efforts to promote school participation must address both internal school factors and the family situation of the children. It is important that the school can identify the "risk group" at an early stage (high absenteeism, low performance, etc.) and has the resources to both administer remedial and compensatory assistance to the pupils and motivational and supportive measures aimed at the family. School-feeding programmes are known to increase school participation of children from low-income families, and parallel adult education and vocational programmes aimed at parents of non-school-going children could serve to motivate the parents to send their children to school. It is important that the strategy to combat non-schooling not only includes compensatory measures aimed at the ones that already missed their chance but also includes preventive steps. In order to identify likely non-schoolers, more systematic knowledge about the root-causes has to be gained. The different risk groups, e.g. the sick, the handicapped, the slow learners, the very poor, the ones with siblings to look after, and the ones far away from school have to be properly identified and relevant strategies developed. This has to be done both at a research level and at an administrative level. Existing educational research capacity in Sri Lanka is grossly underutilized in this respect and the

management and administrative levels in many cases lack awareness and proper orientation to deal with the problem of the non-schooled.

B. Quality and Internal Efficiency in Primary Education

7.06 As the formal system has a near monopoly of educational provision in Sri Lanka, the internal efficiency of the school system and the quality of education provided are germane to the issues of educational opportunity and achievement. The pattern of flow of students through the school system and the average number of pupil years spent in completing the cycle of general education must, of course, be seen as indicators of internal efficiency and curriculum relevance as well as home conditions conducive to education. The flow of students largely depends on actual attendance, repetition and drop-out. An early warning signal of problems (related either to school factors or home conditions or both) is low pupil attendance rate. Surprisingly, this indicator is not used by school managers and administrators for monitoring purposes. Attendance rates show great seasonal variations and are sometimes very low or 50-75% in many disadvantaged schools. A simple random sample of 35 schools in Bandarawela showed that average annual attendance was 79%, but that it ranged from a minimum of 39% to a maximum of 99%. Of the sample, more than 20% of the schools had attendance rates below 70%. This type of statistics, which are not processed at regional or central levels, does not, of course, differentiate between the risk group of those who are frequently absent and casual absenteeism. Teacher absenteeism has a direct bearing on educational quality and efficiency. Teachers may stay away for 45 days per year (sick leave + casual leave) without reduction in pay. It can be assumed that most teachers use up this quota, that a certain number exceed it without it being reported and that a small number (a few percent) exceed it with consequent reduction in pay. Especially in small schools with only a few teachers this absenteeism can be extremely disruptive and either result in no teaching at all or a kind of improvised multigraded teaching which the teachers are not trained for and the curriculum not adjusted to.

7.07 Repetition rates are fairly high in Sri Lanka and they were 9.3% for the whole school cycle in 1984, increasing from nearly 8% in the pre-grade 1 to more than 11% in grade 3. Fifteen of the 31 districts had repetition rates that were higher than the national average, and two of them had rates as high as 21.5% (Trincomalee) and 18.3% (Kalumnai). The incidence of repetition appears to depend largely on the predilections of headmasters and teachers. Repetition often leads to drop-out. One study found that over 75% of the drop-outs were repeaters and that 82% were over-age for their grades (S. Haputantri, 1979). Late entry, low attendance, repetition and early leaving are often interlocking factors that result in individual frustrations and wastage of scarce educational resources, particularly as additional education inputs are utilized for repeaters. The cumulative result is that the average number of pupil years required to complete the 6-year primary school cycle in 1981 was nearly 9 years. District disparities were wide, ranging from 7.15 years in Colombo to 17.3 years in Matale.

7.08 Few performance indicators of primary school children are available and little is known about school achievements, especially among the early leavers. A recent study of the results of Primary Reading and Mathematics tests, however, found marked disparities between schools, between urban and rural neighbourhoods and between socio-economic variables. Only students in schools categorized as "above average" were reported to have achieved satisfactorily. The "average", "below average" and "small" schools had low attainment standards calling for remedial action. (T. Kariyawasam and J. Wanasinghe,1983). Some of the factors related to low teaching quality especially in the disadvantaged schools are: lack of properly trained teachers, lack of teaching materials and consumables, irregular attendance (of teachers and pupils), insufficient supervision and support from the education officers (most of the time of Circuit Education Officers for supervision is spent on secondary schools), and the system of multi-class grades with no partition walls separating the classes resulting in a noisy atmosphere.

7.09 A particularly vulnerable group in the student population are those identified as "slow learners". A survey in 1975 found nearly 16% of grades 2-5 children to be slow learners. This status was related to a number of factors such as: low level of ability, poor living conditions, physical disabilities, emotional disorders, malnutrition and absenteeism. A follow-up study in 1981 showed that more than 15% of the total sample and 43.4% of the slow learners had dropped out. (K. Piyasena, 1983).

C. Relevance in Education

7.10 Curriculum relevance has been a perennial issue in educational debate in Sri Lanka, especially in view of the lack of homogeneity among the student population. On the other hand, an important imperative in educational development has been the formulation of a common curriculum that would ensure minimum standards in all schools. A recent study in the new Mahaweli Settlement Areas found through interviews with Principals, teachers and secondary school students that the school curriculum did not reflect the needs of the area. One problem is that the primary school curriculum is more geared to the needs of the half of the school population that advances beyond grade 5 (year 6) than to the other half that leaves the system.The problem is not only curriculum per se, but also curriculum implementation. There is often a lack of will and persistence to implement the new system and then maintain it. The Life Skills scheme represents an important step in the direction of increasing curriculum relevance at secondary level, but there is nothing corresponding to it at primary level.

D. The Disadvantaged

7.11 One of the striking features in Sri Lanka's educational system is the disparities in quality between different schools. Despite the provision of standardized curriculum and textbooks the disparities in school facilities and teaching quality are of great magnitude. The distribution of education-

al quality coincides to a great extent with certain basic socio-economic factors such as level of income, place of residence, economic sector and in some degree ethnic status. Children of the lowest socio-economic strata are educated in the most ill-equipped schools which share the socio-economic deprivation of their neighbourhood. A recent investigation has established very clearly the strong correlation between school facilities, parental occupations and student performance in the relatively more developed Colombo district. (S.Rupasinghe, 1978).
Generally speaking, the most eductionally disadvantaged groups in Sri Lanka are: children from low-income groups, children in the small schools in remote areas, children in the slum areas of Colombo, children in the more backward districts, children in the Estate sector, and the mentally and physically handicapped children (including malnutrition and bad health).
Several of these groups, of course, overlap in many respects.

7.12 The physically and mentally handicapped children constitute an important sub-group among the educationally disadvantaged. Close to 9% of the school-aged children are probably physically or mentally handicapped. The even larger group of slow learners are perhaps 10-15% of the school population. Still larger numbers of children suffer from bad health and malnutrition resulting in non-school-going, late entry or early drop-out. In order to prevent, detect and remedy disabilities among children, the school health services need to be expanded, teachers need to be trained and special educational and other facilities need to be provided. Generally speaking, medical inspection and school health as well as detection of disabilities have been given low priority in the past. The coverage of schools by school medical inspections vary greatly in different districts but is often below 30% and sometimes even below 20% of the schools. The need to strengthen school health education among education officers and teachers is great and there should be more stress on health and preventive measures, especially in primary education, both in the regular curriculum and in the teacher training curriculum.

E. The Small and Resourceless Schools

7.13 Nearly 24% of all the schools in the country are small schools with less than 100 pupils, and almost 17% of all schools have 1-2 teachers. These schools are normally located in remote and economically backward areas, they lack facilities like satisfactory water supply, sanitary provisions, playgrounds, not to mention electricity, libraries, radios and audio-visual teaching material, and they cater to the socio-economically underprivileged groups. The majority of the population in the catchment areas of the small schools are small paddy and chena cultivators, casual labourers, plantation workers and fisher folk often living in small communities. Students in these schools have high drop-out rates, poor attainment standards and limited access to secondary education in the neighbourhood. The small schools are in great need of special attention and support. Some of the disadvantaged districts have large proportions of small schools, e.g. Mannar: 41%, Vavuniya: 56% and Anuradhapura: 33%. Despite UNICEF support to the small schools in the late 1970s most schools in this category still lack basic facilities. In connection with

the UNICEF support a Small Schools Unit was set up in the Ministry of Education but the whole effort was discontinued and no final evaluation was made. A systematic package type programme of positive discrimination specifically aimed at these small schools would be highly commendable. Such an intervention should include several dimensions such as: pedagogy (hardware and software), management, supervision, health and nutrition, parental motivation and vocational follow-ups.

F. Education in the Plantation Sector

7.14 The plantation economy of Sri Lanka is based on 3 principal crops: tea, rubber and coconut. They account for 52% of the export earnings (1983). Tea alone accounts for 33% of export earnings and 2.9% of GDP. The Tamils of South Indian origin who work on the tea estates should be distinguished from the Ceylon Tamils in the North and East of the country whose ancestors have lived in Sri Lanka for as long as the majority Sinhalese.

7.15 Literacy level, education and health status and income level of the Estate Tamils are the lowest in the country. A large proportion of them are also stateless. Selected socio-economic indicators for the Indian Tamils and the whole population are presented in Table 18.

Table 18 Socio-economic Indicators

indicator	Indian Tamils	All Island
Population (million)	0.817	15.42
Literacy, total (%)	66.9	86.5
males	78.6	90.5
females	55.1	82.4
Normal nutrition status among children, % (1976)	35	62 (rural)
Average monthly household income (cash and kind), Rs.	753	881
Mean monthly income/person, Rs.	318	445

Sources: 1981 Census; 1976 National Nutrition Survey; Household Income and Expenditure, Census and Statistics, 1983; Child Statistics - 1984, Food and Nutrition Policy Planning Division, Ministry of Plan Implementation, Colombo.

7.16 In 1984, there were 558 plantation schools with 63,389 pupils, 46% of whom were girls. The schools are to be found in 11 different districts. Of the teachers in the schools 78% are permanent and government paid but 22% are volunteers paid small wages by voluntary organizations and Estate parents. Teacher/pupil ratios are 1:43 counting all the teachers and 1:55 if only the professional teachers are counted. Another 700 teachers were recruited in 1985 for pre-service training and appointment to Estate schools. Drop-out rates in the plantation primary schools are very high and survival rate may be as low as 30%.

7.17 The Ministry of Education has identified 5 main problems in the Estate education sector, viz. (1) poor infrastructure, (2) a majority of unqualified and incompetent teachers, (3) lack of commitment and motivation on the part of the teachers, (4) inaccessibility to secondary education, and (5) high drop-out rates. To these may be added another six problems, viz.: (6) poor supervision and management of Estate schools, (7) limited number of Tamil speaking officers and staff at regional and national levels, (8) poor provision of support for curriculum development, (9) insufficient numbers of teachers, (10) large proportion of 1-2-teacher schools with needs for extra curriculum support for multi-graded teaching, and (11) lack of range of vocational training and employment opportunities (besides tea production) for male and female Estate youths. Any strategy to increase access to and improve the quality of education in the plantation sector must be based on an integrated package approach which considers all the problems involved. The provision of infrastructure requires administration and organization. The reduction of drop-out rates requires (besides changed home conditions) improved supervision of pupils and teachers. Increased access to secondary education requires the provision of more teachers. The training and qualification of teachers requires curriculum development and training facilities oriented to the specific needs of the plantation sector, especially with regard to multi-graded teaching. The different solutions to the different problems are interrelated.

7.18 The Plantation Sector Schools Unit has proposed a development plan with the following principle objectives: (1) enrichment of primary education; (2) provision of equal opportunities for general education, vocational/technical education and higher education with a view to securing the representation of the Estate population in all levels of education and different types of employment; (3) promotion of communication between the Estate population and the Sinhala villages; and (4) promotion of harmonious relations between the two communities with a view to securing the integration of the Estate population with the nation. The draft proposals for achieving these objectives include the following provisions for primary and secondary education:

Primary education:

(1) provision of infrastructure - classrooms, teachers' quarters and furniture - over a 5-year period;

(2) a specially designed curriculum to meet the special needs of Estate schools;

(3) the teaching of Sinhala as an optional subject in the primary grades with children in grades 3-5 being permitted, if they so wish, to choose Sinhala as their medium of instruction;

(4) improvement of professional and academic competence of teachers through correspondence and in-service courses, and

(5) teacher recruitment preference to those who have their roots in the Estate sector and who have GCE A/level qualification, with lower recruitment qualifications permitted if numbers coming forward are insufficient.

Secondary education:

(1) award of scholarships to talented pupils to enable them to study at well developed Sinhala and Tamil medium schools;

(2) establishment of Tamil streams at selected Maha Vidyaldyas with permission for Estate children to pursue studies in Sinhala if they so wish;

(3) creation of secondary classes in selected Estate schools;

(4) teacher recruitment preference to those who have their roots in the Estate sector (as above in (5)).

7.19 The above proposals invite some comments. The proposals on medium of instruction at primary and secondary levels and the integration of Tamil streams into existing Sinhala Maha Vidyaldyas deserve further analysis. Language policy lies at the root of much of the current ethnic problem and it is likely that a move to teach Estate children in Sinhala would be resisted unless there were a reciprocal move to teach Sinhala children Tamil. Experience gained so far in the Badulla IRDP suggests that language policy is not a necessary condition for the improvement of educational quality, nor is it a barrier to village-Estate relations which, for the most part, are extremely cordial and harmonious. To the extent that there are conflicts they are usually symptoms of the wider conflict between Sinhalese and Ceylon Tamils generated in the urban, not rural, areas. The Ministry of Education has long experience of dual-stream and single-stream schools at the secondary level. Many are agreed that a few dual-stream (Sinhala and Tamil) schools work well, especially in Colombo, where farsighted Principals and parents support mixed activities in some subjects. But this mixing and integration have worked best in schools that were formerly elite English-medium schools. Experience outside of towns has been less promising. Two problems, from the Tamil community's point of view, are that dual-stream schools frequently have Sinhala Principals and that the Tamil stream tends to be run during the afternoon sessions.

7.20 A second issue deserving further analysis is the recruitment criteria for teachers. Requirements were raised for all teachers a few years ago from GCE O/level to GCE, A/level. The M/E has, however, recognized the contradictions in requiring this higher level from an Estate community denied access to secondary education in the past. The desirability of recruiting teachers for Estate schools who have roots in the Estate community is in no doubt. Many of the present problems of school quality derive from absenteeism among Estate teachers whose homes and families are far away in Jaffna and Batticaloa. The most recent recruitment campaign for estate school teachers set the minimum qualification at GCE O/level, to include mathematics or arithmetic; age less than 28 years; residence in districts with estates; and Sri Lankan citizenship.

5,000 persons applied for 1,000 places; eventually only 700 persons were recruited after examination and interview and many of these (or about 225) were Muslims from the estate areas. Two problems faced by potential estate Tamil recruits were: (i) the non-possession of Sri Lankan citizenship, and (ii) no pass at GCE O/level in mathematics or arithmetic. (The number of applicants who were not considered for appointment because they did not have a pass in Mathematics or Arithmetic was 149.)The long-awaited move on the part of the government to grant all remaining Estate Tamils Sri Lankan citizenship would greatly facilitate the provision of teachers to the plantation schools. Another possibility would be to substitute permanent residency for citizenship in the recruitment criteria. The Mathematics/Arithmetic constraint could be overcome if pass in this subject was made compulsory after the pre-service training but before appointment as a teacher.

7.21 A third issue concerns the proposal for massive infrastructure improvement and the stated objective of improving access of Estate youth to further education and to a diverse range of employment opportunities. Unemployment rates for Estate youths are lower than for the rest of the population, but their employment is concentrated at very low levels of skill. Most female employment is tea plucking and most male employment is confined to a range of unskilled labours. The proposal for wide-scale investment in infrastructure provides an opportunity for the simultaneous development of training-cum-production units and/or apprenticeship schemes for Estate youths. The construction of buildings and furniture could involve youth undergoing training. The twin objectives of improving educational infrastructure and increasing access to vocational training could be achieved through the same construction programme, worked out carefully between the M/E and selected agencies with past experience in training-cum-production. Elements of the Construction Industry Training Programme and the recent Congress Labour Foundation initiative at Kotagalle deserve closer examination with a view to cooperation.

G. Examination and Selection in Formal Education

17.22 The role of examination in the education system of Sri Lanka is central. In the listing of the major weaknesses of the school system in the 1981 White Paper references to examination predominate:

> "Schools have become more a medium for competition than institutions imparting sound all-round education. Excessive emphasis on examination has led to an impoverishment of the content of learning inside the classroom and diminution of the importance of those most valuable outcomes that accrue from co-curricular activities. In serving primarily the scramble to reach the top, the needs of the majority who cannot get there are neglected."
>
> "What gets most attention is subject matter that can be tested at national-level written examinations. What tends to be neglected are

> other, equally, if not more important aspects of curriculum such as content of local relevance and practical subjects."
> (Education Proposals for Reform, 1981.)

7.23 The major selection points in the education system occur at the end of grade 5, grade 10 and grade 12. The grade 5 exam is sat by most, but not all students. It determines the award of sholarships to enable children to attend high quality Maha and Madhya Maha Vidyaldyas. Failure in non-sitting of grade 5 exam does not impede access to grade 6 but limits the choice of secondary schools. Out of the grade 6 enrolment of nearly 282,000, some 6,000 pupils had qualified at the grade 5 Scholarship Examination for placement in prestigious schools.- Success in the examinations at the next selection point, i.e. grade 10, determines access to the Science, Arts and Commerce streams at Collegiate level (years 12 and 13) and access to a range of wage and salaried jobs. At the end of year 13, the students sit for 4 subjects at the GCE Advanced Level and success in these exams determines access to tertiary education institutions and a wide range of jobs. All exams are administered by the Examination Department of the M/E. At the universities there are places for only 1.4% of an age cohort. Competition for university entry is therefore fierce and has steadily become more stiff over the past 15 years. (Sanyal et. al., 1983.)

7.24 The role of the GCE A/level examination in providing access to university has been controversial and the entry scheme has been revised several times in the past years, mainly in response to the demands of pressure groups (especially Sinhalese Buddhists) who have felt themselves under-represented in the prestigious university science courses (e.g. medicine and engineering). In the early 1970s, a scheme of standardization of the A/level marks between different language media of instruction (Sinhala and Tamil) and different subjects was introduced. Under this scheme Sinhala students could gain admission to university with a qualifying raw score lower than that set for Tamils. This was later supplemented by a district quota system whereby university places were allocated on the basis of district population. In 1978, after the change of government, media-wise standardization was abolished and the district quota increased. The scheme recruited 30% of the students island wide on the basis of raw marks, 55% on a district basis and 15% reserved for the educationally backward districts. These percentages were recently (1985) revised. They are now 30% merit, 65% district quota, and 5% educationally disadvantaged districts.

7.25 The key role of examinations in the education system is reinforced and, some would argue, determined by the access they provide to positions of power, income, prestige and status in regional, national and international labour markets (Dore, 1976; Deraniyagala, Dore and Little, 1978; Lewin and Little, 1982; Little and Dore, 1982; and Sanyal et.al., 1983.) Several changes in the exam system have been proposed, but it is perhaps symptomatic of the importance of exams that few, if any, of the proposed changes have yet been implemented. It has

been proposed, for instance, that an exam be introduced at grade 8, but this has been seen by many as a reintroduction of an earlier selective Junior Secondary Leaving Certificate (JSLC) and has been most controversial. It has been argued that a grade 8 exam will increase rather than decrease the crippling influence of examinations on education, will result in as proliferation of private tuition, will fail to meet the twin objectives of testing aptitude and achievement and will fail to reduce drop-out at grade 6 and 7, since this drop-out is based on socio-economic conditions and not on achievement criteria (de Silva, 1983).

Problems of Access and Screening

7.26 The examination system legitimates success and failure in both the school and occupational system. It is based on academic performance, but different political and power groups in Sri Lanka have been quick to point out that academic performance is itself determined by a wide range of in-school and out-of-school social and economic factors, and that selection on the basis of raw academic performance needs to be tempered by compensatory mechanisms to ensure a more equitable distribution of power, resources and opportunities in society. These factors include the socio-economic conditions of the family, ethnic affiliation, educational district of school attendance, type of school attended, gender, etc.

7.27 Socio-economic background: Drop-out from the school system occurs in 2 ways: (1) conventional drop-out where students withdraw from school before completion of a cycle of education and (2) through selection or examination screening. Low performance in national exams prevents further access. The income level of parents affects drop-out of both types.
Richards and Gooneratne (1980) working on 1969/70 figures demonstrate the relationships between income and enrolment-retention rates in the rural, Estate and urban sectors. These relationships hold good for the age group 6-14 years, before the first major selection point and for the age group 15-17 years after that selection point, but the relationship is stronger in the latter case, suggesting a stronger impact of income level on performance at the major GCE O/level selection point. The impact of socio-economic status on achievement is confirmed by Niles (1981). Her survey of students attending urban schools showed high zero-order correlations ranging from 0.44 to 0.67 between a range of Socio-Economic Status indicators and a composite achievement score based on GCE O/level performance. The correlations were strongest for performance in second language, maths and science and weakest in first language and social science. The impact of socio-economic status on university entrance is also clear from a study by Gooneratne, Hewage and Kulatunga (1977). Of the entrants in 1976, 41% were from families where the monthly income of the parent/guardian was less than Rs. 200. In 1969/70, 69% of male heads of households fell into this category on an all-island basis. By contrast, 23% of entrants' parents earned more than Rs. 600 per month when the national percentage of fathers falling into this category was 1%. But the impact of income-level was even more marked for course of study followed. The average entrant to the prestigious science stream is socio-economically better-off than the average arts entrants. In the

Arts stream, 53% of entrants came from families with less than Rs. 200 per month. In the Science stream, this percentage was only 18%

7.28 Ethnic group and medium of instruction: Subject performance and university stream entry are also affected by ethnic group affiliation and medium of instruction. At the GCE O/level (1982), Tamils perform better than Sinhalese at first language, English and Maths. At the university entrance level, there is as long history of over-representation of Tamils (Sri Lankan Tamils) in the science courses. In 1964, Sri Lankan Tamils held 37.2% of the places in science and engineering courses at a time when they represented around 12% of the population. After media-wise standardization was introduced in 1973, their proportion of places in science course fell to below 30%. After further changes in admission procedures their position declined even further. Latest published figures show that the Sinhalese are now over-represented in the university population as a whole, that Tamils are slightly under-represented but that Sri Lankan Moors, Indian Moors, Malays, Burghers and others are under-represented. Tamils continue to be over-represented in engineering, physical sciences, maths and statistics, dental surgery and veterinary science - but in the highly prized medical course the over-representation is small and only marginally greater than the Sinhalese over-representation. The published figures failed to distinguish between Indian and Sri Lankan Tamils. Very few of the former reach university.

7.29 Educational district: In the report Inter-District Comparisons of Indices of Educational Performance, Gunaratne and Navaratnarajah (1982) identify wide discrepancies in educational performance in four key areas, viz. participation in the completion of the primary cycle and the literacy of the population. The district in which one studies also affects pass rates in examinations. Table 19 shows variations in GCE O/level performance according to educational region of study. Part of this variation will be due to out-of-school factors correlated with the district (e.g. proportion of families with low income) and part will be due to in-school factors associated with the district of study (e.g. the proportion of qualified teachers, teacher turnover, intensity of supervision, and school remoteness).

Table 19 GCE 0/level Performance 1982 by Education District

education district	1st language	English	Maths	Science
Colombo	75	62	49	64
Homagama	71	24	29	56
Gampaha	67	28	30	54
Minuwangoda	71	36	31	57
Kalutara	67	27	28	53
Kandy	65	26	25	46
Matale	60	22	23	44
Nuwara-Eliya	61	22	18	36
Galle	71	27	29	52
Matara	66	23	27	52
Tangalle	64	19	20	46
Jaffna	72	34	42	55
Mannar	76	23	35	50
Mullativu	76	15	38	61
Vavuniya	59	22	24	50
Batticaloa	65	27	33	42
Ampari	69	22	23	50
Kalmuhai	75	20	44	59
Trincomalee	67	24	31	53
Kurunagale	68	24	26	55
Kuliyapitya	69	24	32	57
Nikaweratiya	68	14	25	55
Puttalam	72	21	24	45
Chilaw	77	31	33	60
Anarudhapura	63	15	23	43
Polonnaruwa	60	16	23	48
Bandarawela	64	25	25	51
Monaragala	52	15	18	41
Ratnapura	70	22	26	55
Kegalle	66	22	22	48
All-Island	68	29	29	52

Source: Examinations Department.

7.30 School type: The type of school and provision at GCE A/level has an effect on overall quality of the school. Grade 1A and 1B schools show significantly better examination performande at GCE 0/level than grade 1C or grade 2 schools. There appear to be no differences in GCE 0/level performance between grade 1C schools, which have A/level Arts and Commerce, and grade 2 schools which have no A/level classes. (Table 20)

Table 20 GCE 0/level Performance by Grade of School, 1982

subject	grade of school A + B	C	2
First language	72	66	67
English	38	26	26
Maths	38	27	27
Science	58	51	50

Source: Examinations Department.

7.31 Gender: Enrolments of girls and boys are remarkably even. At uniersity, 42% of the undergraduate entrants for the academic year 1980/81 were females. Female undergraduates are over-represented in Arts and Bio Science and under-represented in physical sciences, maths and statistics, engineering and architecture. In the prestigious medical courses, there are almost as many female as male undergraduates. At the GCE 0/level, male and female candidates perform equally well in English and Mathematics. Females perform better than males in First Language but males perform better in Science. Specific groups of female students, however, are under-represented at different points in the education system. Within the Estate sector, where girls represent 46% and boys 54% of total enrolment, the impact of income level on enrolment is greater for girls than for boys (Richards and Gooneratne, 1980). Poorer Estate girls are even less likely than poorer Estate boys to be enrolled in school. This relationship also applies to the entire rural sector. Poorer rural girls are even less likely than poorer rural boys to be enrolled in school. At the GCE A/level, female and male enrolment patterns differ. In the grade 11 Science stream only 40% are female, while in the grade 11 Arts stream 70% are female. At university level, Muslim females are very under-represented. Whereas the overall female enrolment is 42%, Muslim females only make up 27% of all Muslim enrolment, it being noted that Muslims, as a whole, are already considerably under-represented.

Problems and Issues in the Quality of Teaching and Learning

7.32 The M/E has frequently noted the negative effects of examinations on the quality of teaching and learning. In the document Education Proposals for Reform, references are made to impact of exams on the importance attached to different subjects in the curriculum, to the growth of private tutories, to 'cramming', and to the rote-memorization of model answers. A major theme running through the criticisms is the neglect of co-curricular activities (community participation, societies, clubs, etc.), the neglect of effective outcomes of learning and the neglect of pratical skills. There is no dearth of evidence from independent observers to support the Ministry's observations (e.g. Dock and Salomonsson, 1984; Lewin, 1981 and 1984; Samaranayake, 1978).

7.33 Straight-forward solutions to the problems identified by the M/E are not readily available, and potential contradictions are sometimes inherent. Many of these have been faced already by the prevocational studies programme introduced for

Grades 6-9 in the 1970s. The programme was introduced with several objectives in mind. It was intended to prepare young people for the world of work, to develop practical skills, to develop skills which had local relevance and to change attitudes to manual labour. However, there is a contradiction between some of these objectives and the underlying need to organize examinations in ways which are acceptable nationally. Practical skills are difficult to examine nationally. Attitudes are extremely difficult to examine, even locally. The removal of the examination itself was not a viable alternative since then teachers, parents and students would not take the subject seriously. A prevocational studies exam was administered for a number of years, but both the exam and the subject itself were abolished after the 1977 government came to power. The successor to prevocational studies, life skills, has not yet had to face the problems of assessment, but will do so shortly. To the extent that life skills is successful in the future, much of that success will depend on the type and quality of assessment procedures developed.

7.34 The Ministry has proposed the introduction of pupil performance profiles in order to broaden the assessment base to include non-academic subjects. This is an interesting proposal but its implementation will require careful consideration of the following points:

- teacher training in the sensitive development and use of records;

- the relationship between poor performance in the non-academic record and progress to the next stage of education; and

- the potential ritualization on the part of students and teachers of the required non-academic behaviour.

On approach to the resolution of some (but not all) of the problems discussed is to examine more closely the quality of the existing examinations and the following paragraphs will address these issues.

Problems and Issues in the Quality of Examining

7.35 It has been argued in Sri Lanka and elsewhere that one way to convert the negative backwash of examinations on teaching and learning into positive backwash is to improve the quality of examination. (Government of Sri Lanka, 1972; Little, 1984) If the skills of rote memorization are being tested to the detriment of problem solving skills then the exam should reformed so as to test the desired skills instead.

7.36 The Examinations Department of the M/E supervises the setting and marking of examinations and organizes results data. Decisions on the balance between items testing different types of skills (the Table of Specification) are left to experienced Chief Examiners. Results analyses by the Examination Department do not disaggregate overall skill performance into its discrete types. How do students make up their overall marks in different subjects? To what extent is the full range of all curriculum objectives tested by the examination? An analysis of recent examination papers (1984 GCE O/level) sug-

gests that in some subjects a high proportion of items are testing the recall of factual knowledge. In Social Studies I, for example, 93% of the items test the recall of knowledge and Mathematics items do test the skills of comprehension and application but only 10% of the questions test these skills in the context of real-life situations. A radical reassessment of the type of items included in examination papers could contribute to a higher quality of examination in all subjects.

7.37 There are no practical examinations at GCE O/level. Consequently there is little practical skill development among students. At GCE A/level practical examining is minimal and is confined to subjects sat by only a few students, e.g. aesthetic subjects, home economics and agriculture. In science subjects, there is a practical index. This is the teachers' assessment of practical work and has to be filled in before written papers are accepted for marking. However, the practical index contributes nothing to the final grade achieved. The importance of practical work has been acknowledged by the Ministry and a programme describing a minimum quantum of practical work for the GCE A/level was launched in 1982. It was followed by an intensive programme of school supervision in 1983.

The results of this Ministry programme will be very important not only for the GCE A/level subjects which are taken only by a minority of students but also for subjects at all grades. Ways must be found of increasing the amount of practical work and applied skill development in schools at all levels. At the secondary level, Dock and Salomonsson (1984), have made a number of recommendations which include:

(1) development of assessment procedures for Life Skills;

(2) the examination of technical subjects at the end of the proposed senior secondary cycle should include an assessment of practical work;

(3) at least one quarter of all examination questions at GCE should test pupils practical work experience in science; and

(4) question bank committees, specimen questions and workshops need to be prepared and organized to support these activities.

H. External Efficiency - Education and the World of Work

7.38 The extent to which the labour market can and is willing to absorb the output of the education/training system basically depends on (1) the quantitative and qualitative manpower requirements of the former, (2) the quantitative and qualitative relevance of the latter, and (3) the information available to both parties regarding supply and demand. The relatively high level of unemployment among young people with education and training is one of several symptoms of the mismatch between supply and demand (and to some extent lack of information, e.g. vocational guidance and manpower surveys). Total unemployment has gone down from nearly 20% of the labour force in the middle 1970s to below 12% in the early 1980s, but

it is still high for females (above 21%). Unemployment tends to be concentrated among the 14-25 age groups, i.e. the school leavers, and among women, especially educated women, as shown in Table 21 and Table 22.

Table 22 Percentage Unemployment by Age and Sex (in percent of labour force)

age	male	female	total
10-14	4.5	2.2	3.4
15-19	27.9	19.2	24.1
20-24	33.5	34.9	34.1
25-29	16.0	22.0	18.7
30-34	7.9	11.0	9.7
35-44	5.9	7.7	6.7
45+	4.3	2.0	3.3

Source: Census of Population, 1981.

Unemployment among persons with GCE 0/level is high or 24.5% and it is almost 3 times higher among females (42% compared to 14.5%). It is even higher among persons with GCE A/level qualifications or nearly 35% and as high as over 41% among undergraduates. Unemployment rates by education and sex are given in Table 22.

Table 22 Unemployed Population by Education and Sex, 1981/82

level of education	male	female	total
no schooling, illit.	2.1	2.6	2.4
no schooling, lit.	2.4	-	1.9
primary	3.8	7.8	4.8
secondary	9.6	33.5	14.6
GCE 0/level	14.5	42.0	24.5
GCE A/level	22.0	52.2	34.8
undergraduate	42.9	40.0	41.2
graduate	8.1	12.1	9.7
Total	7.8	21.3	11.7

Source: Report on Consumer Finances and Socio-Economic Survey 1981/82. Central Bank of Ceylon, 1984.

It can be seen from the table that unemployment among university graduates is close to 10%. Unemployment rates naturally differ for different courses, and a large proportion of the unemployed are Arts graduates according to Sanyal et.al. (1983). The same study found that one of the major constraints for entry into employment, faced by the graduates educated in the national language, was inadequate proficiency in English. Another reason for failure to obtain employment was low status of the school.

7.39 One attempt to 'refine' the output of formal education and to 'process' it in accordance with labour market needs has been to provide technical and vocational training and skills

development of different types. Still, however, the weakest sector in the human resources development system in Sri Lanka is the middle level vocational training. This is a particularly critical area as less affluent families tend to be dependent on this level of training for employment and mobility. Greater momentum in expansion at this level has been achieved in recent years with the increase in facilities in the Technical Institutes of the M/Higher Education and the programmes of the National Apprenticeship Board, the National Youth Council and the Department of Labour. Nevertheless the intake of school leavers to vocational training programmes is less than half the annual quantum of school leavers and drop-outs (around 250,000), resulting in accretion to the backlog of the unemployed. In addition, of those admitted to the various vocational programmes, many drop out and, in many cases, less than half of those who get their certificates manage to find employment. Despite the fact that there is a considerable female over-representation among the unemployed the majority of the vocational programmes cater to young men. Where programmes for women are available, women trainees are concentrated in conventional feminine areas such as dressmaking, shorthand, typing, home science and 'feminine' handicrafts. They are under-represented in technical and trade areas and are in consequence virtually excluded from technical and skilled employment. Women have not been encouraged to enrol in training courses to meet the increasing demands of technology or to fill the gaps created by the migration of skilled manpower to West Asia. Many foreign agencies have supported vocational training in recent years but few of them have attempted to set right the gender imbalance. The Swedish SIDA, for instance, has supported and is supporting the Urogodawatte Vocational Training Centre of the Department of Labour, the Non-Formal Technical Education Units of the M/E and the upgrading of the Technical Institutes of the M/HETE but this has not created opportunities for increased women's participation in 'non-conventional' courses. It is obvious that inputs such as educational and vocational guidance as well as re-orientation work-shops have to be incorporated into the programmes to counter the strength of stereotypes in the attitudinal domain among administrators, employers and the women themselves, in order to ensure more equitable gender wise representation and equal access to skills and resources.

7.40 It is clear that the mismatch between the human resources development system on the one hand and the labour market on the other is the result of a number of complex and interrelated factors inside the education/training sector as well as on the labour market. It should be pointed out that the mismatch manifests itself not only in the form of oversupply from the education/training sectors but also as shortage of skilled and semi-skilled manpower in certain fields. Some of the main quantitative and qualitative factors responsible for the mismatch are summarized below:

- educational output is determined more by social demand pressure than actual manpower needs;

- the educational system fosters academic expectations and attitudes negative to manual labour;

- the selection mechanism are socially biased and those who remain in the educational system have rigid expectations directed to wage employment in the public or modern sector;

- school curriculum has more academic than vocational relevance;

- information on present and future manpower needs is insufficient;

- existing vocational training programmes tend to gear intake and orientation more to social demand considerations than to actual labour market needs;

- existing vocational programmes seldom contain management and marketing components, labour market orientation or credit provisions to facilitate self-employment;

- employers in the private sector tend either to be ignorant of available trained mampower or to be reluctant to accept graduates from certain institutions because of low estimates of qualifications and/or attitudes;

- lack of capital and financial constraints have led to a decrease in the rate of employment generation in the public and private sectors.

I. Management of Educational Development

7.41 Educational development hinges upon a number of vital functions performed at central and sub-national levels such as: planning, administration, coordination, institution management, allocation of resources, control and supervision, information processing, etc. A recent problem inventory by the M/E found serious deficiencies in knowledge, skills and staff with regard to planning and management. (Report on Management Reforms in the Ministry of Eucation, July 1984.) The report noted that specialized training and additional staff (100 officers at different levels) were needed to strengthen planning, programming, data systems development, etc. The distribution of competency is not balanced across different levels, and, according to the report, the Ministry is "top-heavy with senior staff, whereas competent officers are required more at the District and Ch.E.O. office levels to reinforce the implementation of the White Paper proposals." The report furthermore identified the following problems in the system of planning:

(1) there is need to strengthen linkages with the Ministries of Planning and Plan Implementation for assessing manpower gaps and needs in relation to the National Plan;

(2) links between the planning and budgeting process both within the Ministry and in relation to the Finance Ministry (as well as other agencies approving capital budgets) needs strengthening;

(3) the vertical linkages at different spatial levels have not been systematically meshed in a top-down and bottom-up process of planning;

(4) horizontally at the same spatial level, coordination of planning could be more effective (e.g. the coordination of different divisions at the Ministry level);

(5) statistical data collection, processing and analysis required for planning, need strengthening;

(6) rather indifferent attitudes of education staff at regional and sub-regional levels to planning and programming are evident;

(7) inadequate progress control and evaluation of causal factors account for gaps in planning and implementation and thus needs remedial action; and

(8) planning is conceived as one short paper exercise and not a continuous managerial action process which requires replanning and monitoring.

7.42 At Circuit level the report on management reforms identified a number of problems such as:

- lack of systematic scheme of school supervision or teacher evaluation;

- poor ability to collect, tabulate and aggregate educational data from the schools for the diagnosing of educational needs in a Circuit and for educational planning at Circuit level;

- inability to convert basic educational data into meaningful indices of educational performance, e.g. promotion, drop-ot and retention ratios;

- poor understanding of national aims and objectives of educational development;

- lack of effective records management system as a link between schools and the District Education Department; and

- lack of adequate capacity to resolve conflicts arising from trade union motivated teachers demands and professional ethics.

7.43 As indicated earlier, some of the major problems with regard to the vocational and skills development sectors are:

- insufficient overall coordination and standardization of programmes under different ministries and agencies;

- lack of labour market surveys and manpower needs inventories before designing vocational programmes;

- lack of monitoring, evaluation and other forms of follow-up studies (tracer studies);

- lack of coordination with credit institutions;

- lack of support for self-employment (tool-kits, labour market orientation, credits, etc.);

- insufficient labour exchange service and vocational guidance service.

PART V

RECOMMENDATIONS

8. GENERAL SUGGESTIONS

8.01 The study of human resources development in Sri Lanka presented in this report has proceeded from a number of basic considerations, viz.: (1) identification of the most disadvantaged; (2) quality of competencies formed; (3) efficiency in the formation of these competencies (internal efficiency); (4) relevance of competencies formed; and (5) efficiency in the utilization of the competencies formed for national development (external efficiency). Despite an impressive expansion of the provision of formal education and a certain development of technical and vocational training, these five listed areas seem to be the ones most worthy of attention at present. The recommendations put forward in this section are of two types: (1) general suggestions regarding human resources development in Sri Lanka mainly aimed at policy makers and planners in the country; and (2) somewhat more specific recommendations regarding possible SIDA supported interventions.

A. Coordination

8.02 The need for overall coordination of educational and manpower policies and the need for unified central monitoring of the implementation of human resources development policies still have to be taken care of. The National Education Council proposed in the 1981 White Paper was supposed to serve this purpose. A consistent human resources development policy considering the roles and functions of all the different subsectors should be worked out and a special Human Resources Development Commission consisting of national and international specialists may have to be formed for this purpose.

8.03 Special coordinating efforts within the field of technical and vocational training are urgently called for. There is a great need for a Tertiary Education Commission as suggested in the White Paper (although the designation should be changed since the commission should deal not only with tertiary level institutions but also secondary level skills development and vocational training).

8.04 The Coordinating Secretariat under the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Employment serves a very useful purpose and has several achievements to its credit, but it needs to be considerably strengthened in terms of funds, equipment (e.g. micro computers) and staff. The authority of the Secretariat should also be upgraded perhaps through a Parliamentary Act.

B. Planning and Management

8.05 The planning and implementation potentials of the ministries of education need to be strengthened through in-service training, improved information processing, computerized technology, and more educational research. More and better indicators of the performance of educational system need to be worked out for improved monitoring (actual daily attend-

ance, distribution of non-attendance among pupils and seasonal variations in attendance are examples of indicators that should be used both for district level and national level monitoring). The provision of micro computers to the District Education Offices could considerably improve performance at a fairly limited cost.

Zones and Clusters

8.06 The experiences from the zonal pilot programme needs to be carefully studied in order to identify major problems in connection with decentralization. The problems encountered in connection with the cluster scheme also have to be summarized and the future role of the clusters must be determined. There are indications that rationalization of resource utilization in the zones leads to the closing down of small, weak and remote schools and concentration of resources to big and strong schools and this may adversely affect the provisions of schooling to low-income groups. These possible effects have to be carefully considered.

Training and Supervision

8.07 The on-going decentralization of educational planning and administration may be a good thing but only provided that it is accompanied by a corresponding strengthening of lower level staff and resources as well as central level monitoring and information processing. The provision of in-service training of lower level staff is still inadequate. The potential of sub-national levels to provide supervision as well as support in various forms is also very limited, especially with regard to primary education and the small remote schools.

Job Descriptions

8.08 The tasks and functions of low-level educational functionaries in connection with the decentralization need to be specified in job descriptions. One case in point is the Adult Education Officer who often lacks a proper understanding of his duties. There may also be clashes of authority between the AEO and school Principals in the case of supervision of the Technical Education Units.

The Staff College

8.09 The training capacity of the Staff College needs to be expanded. Care should be taken to provide training to female administrators and also to Tamil speaking officers.

C. Technical and Vocational Training

8.10 Technical and vocational training perhaps represents the human resources development sub-sector most in need of support. Two main areas that particularly warrant attention stand out: (1) assessment of present and future manpower needs, and (2) internal coordination and improvement of efficiency within the sub-sector. Instruments for the registration of manpower needs in the private and public sectors need to be developed such as: on-going manpower surveys, labour exchange offices, key-informant networks, opportunity sampling, etc.

Monitoring and evaluation of on-going training programmes need to be strengthened, and some of the agencies responsible for technical and vocational training need to be upgraded, e.g. the Ministry of Labour.

D. Primary Education

8.11 Within the formal education system primary education is relatively speaking a somewhat disadvantaged area. Aspects that merit special attention are: the non-schooled, quality of teaching, retention capacity and the handicapped pupils.

Enrichment Programmes

8.12 A priority area for programme intervention is the need to enrich the learning experiences and to increase the competencies of primary school children from different environments and varying abilities and aptitudes in order to reduce the incidence of repeating and early leaving which impede the realization of the goal of UPE and to improve the quality of primary education. It is therefore suggested that an enrichment programme should be implemented specially geared to the needs of the small disadvantaged schools. The enrichment programme could be developed by the Primary Education Unit of the CDC and could partly be funded externally (for a further elaboration, see Section 9).

Multi-Purpose Resource Centres

8.13 In order to improve back-up support to the primary schools it is also suggested that special Multi-Purpose Resource Centres (MPRC) be established which could be equipped to produce low-cost supplementary teaching materials and provide facilities for teacher workshops and awareness raising study circles for the teachers during week-ends and vacations. The MPRCs should also be integrated in non-formal activities such as servicing (or constituting) Literacy Centres. External funding might also be needed. Experiences from the Ethiopian Awraja Pedagogical Centres could perhaps be useful. The MPRCs should be established in a carefully phased manner starting with the most disadvantaged zones or units.

E. Special Education and Health Education

8.14 In order to detect and treat children who are handicapped by physical and/or mental disabilities and by malnutrition and/or bad health a number of measures have to be taken, such as improvement of school health services and health education, in-service training of teachers, curriculum development and improved supervision and administrative back-up. In view of the facts that these disabilities have both medical and pedagogical implications, that they often are interrelated and often require package solutions involving treatment, infrastructure improvements and remedial pedagogical interventions it is suggested that solutions to these problems are worked out by a special commission consisting of experts from the relevant fields.

F. Non-Formal Literacy Centres for Out-of School Children

8.15 The Literacy Centres that already exist have been established to compensate children who for different reasons are excluded from access to primary education. They are, however, highly inadequate at present. New centres should be established in areas which have high drop-out rates but are not within the ambit of UNICEF or other bilateral programmes. They should be located on the basis of systematic needs assessment surveys and could be externally supported. (See also Section 9.)

G. Examination and Selection in Formal Education

8.16 The biases built into the examination and selection systems constitute serious problems from the point of view both equity and rational use of manpower resources. Large numbers of students are barred from access to further education not because of lack of talent but as a result of a number of 'irrelevant factors' such as place of recidence, family income, access to private tuition, ethnic affiliation, etc. The whole area needs to be looked into in a comprehensive way considering aspects such as structure and effects of examination system and possible remedial interventions to counter biases. Some suggestions will, however, be offered here.

8.17 The ethnic issue in education is well documented in most respects. However, it is recommended that the implications of the recently proposed media-wise standardization for university entrance be carefully monitored and evaluated for its effects on all ethnic groups, not only the Sinhalese Buddhists and Ceylon Tamils.

8.18 Up-to-date information on the socio-economic background of students at all levels is less well documented. It is recommended that a research project be developed either by the research wing of the M/E or by the Department of Examinations or by another body to examine (1) the impact of socio-economic factors on equility of opportunity in education and on examination success, and (2) the effects of examinations on pedagogical processes.

8.19 In view of the effects of socio-economic background on achievement there is a need for complementary and remedial pedagogical interventions aimed specifically at students from poorer families who do not have access to private tuition and other forms of family support.

8.20 The Department of Examinations (DE) of the Ministry is currently providing a high quality service to the Ministry but it has its limitations. It is recommended that the DE be upgraded and expanded to enable it to develop a service which would lead to improvements in the quality of teaching and learning. The expanded functions would include:

- the development of Life Skills assessment procedures;

- the development of and training in the use of performance profiles;

- the creation and supervision of district item banks;

- the development of practical skill assessment for all levels of the education system;

- diagnostic feedback of school-level results to school principals and teachers, with emphasis on ways of improving performance in specified skills;

- the provision of training for item-writers and examiners at all levels of the system to improve the current quality of items; and

- the setting up of a research unit within the Department to support the above functions.

H. Plantation Sector Education

8.21 The present Ministry plan for the development of education in the plantation sector deserves further attention. After suitable development of the plan, SIDA should consider its funding.

8.22 Three issues in the present version of the plan deserve special attention and careful development. These are:

(1) language policy, medium of instruction and expansion of secondary school opportunities;

(2) teacher recruitment criteria; and

(3) implementation of the infrastructure programme and a possible link with vocational training.

8.23 The development of the plan should include also the following considerations:

(1) the organizational back-up at regional and national level required for effective implementation;

(2) the supervision and management of Estate schools;

(3) the provision of and training for curriculum materials to enhance the quality of education;

(4) the special curriculum needs of multi-graded teaching; and

(5) the links between education, health and nutrition (water and sanitation, health education curriculum and school-feeding programmes).

I. Non-Formal Technical Education Units

8.24 The TEUs cater to the needs of 15+ school leavers and drop-outs. The high incidence of unemployment among this age group underscores the importance of these units as an intermediary agency between school and employment. There are, however, structural and management weaknesses which should be corrected. It is necessary not only to expand but also to revamp the programme so that it meets the needs of the indivi-

dual trainees as well as those of the economy more effectively. (For further discussion, also see Section 9.)

J. Life Skills

8.25 The Life Skills Project has introduced some very positive innovations in lower secondary education in the form of life related experiences and attitudinal changes. A mid-term evaluation towards the end of 1984 recommended that the project be extended to 500 more pilot schools located in remote areas so that this experience may facilitate national implementation. Some of the problems identified were: (1) the uncertainty of the present external assistance to a project which is unlikely to survive at this juncture without additional support, and (2) the inadequacy of infrastructural facilities and trained personnel in less developed areas and schools. If adequate funds are not forthcoming for pilot stage 2 it may be worthwhile to support (1) the programme in schools in a few disadvantaged locations, and (2) the development of an appropriate programme in technical/practical subjects in grades 8, 9 and 10 in the same schools in order to facilitate the transition between the school and the world of work for secondary boys and girls.

K. Educational Research

8.26 Educational research has so far been grossly underutilized for educational policy making and for educational development and monitoring. There is great need for two main types of educational research, viz. (1) research specifically geared to the needs of policy formulation and educational planning and implementation of the Ministry, and (2) more independent and critical research conducted at an autonomous institution (the Faculty of Education of the University could serve this purpose but an autonomous Institute of Education would be even better).

8.27 There are many areas where systematic research is needed in order to provide inputs into policy making and the implementation of various programmes. Only some general research topics will be indicated here:

- Literacy level: the actual literacy rate of the 15+ population and the actual level of literacy should be established through surveys and actual testing.

- Out-of-school population: size, type and composition of the non-school-going population should be examined as well as the various out-of-school and school-internal factors that account for non-schooling or early drop-out.

- Tracer studies should be conducted to measure the internal efficiency of the school system, and the flow of students through the system should be accurately described.

- Actual achievement level of pupils in different grades should be measured across different schools, various regions, rural/urban locations, etc. The possibility to include international comparisons (utilizing for instance modified IEA test batteries) should also be considered.

- The need for more research in the area of examinations has already been pointed out. (Para. 8.20.)

9. RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING SIDA PROGRAMMES

9.01 On the basis of the observations offered in Para. 6.12 regarding problems faced by SIDA in development work in Sri Lanka the following general recommendations are made:

- More care should be taken in the future to identify target groups and to design programmes in such a way that the target groups are actually reached.

- There should be more stress on low-cost methods and mobilizational components (aimed at awareness raising and activation).

- Where training is provided there should be more pre-programme needs analyses and post-programme supporting provisions to ensure that training actually results in gainful activities.

- The possibility to spend larger parts of funds inside Sri Lanka should be considered.

- The possibility to involve more NGOs should be considered.

- There should be a continued increasing stress on monitoring, reporting and evaluation in SIDA programmes.

The following paragraphs recommend areas for future SIDA support to the human resources development sectors of Sri Lanka.

A. Disadvantaged Primary Schools

9.02 It is recommended that a package programme be considered with the purpose of upgrading the small disadvantaged schools in order to (1) increase participation, (2) improve teaching and learning quality, (3) increase retention, (4) improve curriculum relevance, and (5) improve health conditions and provide adequate services to handicappeed children (including 'slow learners'). The programme should be carefully phased, starting with a limited number of schools in preferably one of the most disadvantaged districts, and should then be expanded step by step to other regions. The main components of the programme should be:

(1) curriculum development; adjustments to multigraded teaching, enrichment material, teachers' guides, special material on health, hygiene and nutrition, etc.;

(2) staff development: orientation programmes for teachers, supervisors and administrators, in-service teacher training (including distance teaching), workshops, etc.);

(3) teacher support: provision of assistant or 'visiting' teachers who cover groups of schools and help introduce new methods and ideas;

(4) provision of facilities: physical facilities and improvement of the learning environment, e.g. instructional and play materials, agricultural implements, furniture, wells, toilets, partition walls, etc.:

(5) back-up support: the schools should be supported by local Multi-Purpose Resource Centres (possibly benefitting from experience of the Ethiopian Awraja Pedagogical Centres) and special provisions should be made for supervision, monitoring (development of sets of indicators of school performance) and administrative support;

(6) non-formal community activities: schools or MPRCs should be used for various programmes aimed at parents of the school children based on local needs and motivation; these activities could contain awareness raising literacy components;

(7) identification of out-of-school children: the schools should actively identify and recruit non-school-going children including handicapped children and make relevant provisions.

B. Multi-Purpose Resource Centres (MPRC)

9.03 A suitable area for SIDA support would be the establishment of MPRCs. The main purpose of the Centres should be to introduce better pedagogical back-up support to the schools, especially smaller schools in remote areas. Each centre should service 15-20 schools and be equipped with cyclostyles and facilities to produce low-cost teaching materials like posters and flip cards, etc. A centre could be attached to a school and it could also be used for adult literacy programmes. Certain plans for resource centres already exist at the M/E.

9.04 The resource centres could be under the management of the Principal of a school or a full-time Instructor and should be serviced by district and divisional supervisory and advisory personnel. Besides being linked up with the Non-Formal Literacy Centres the MPRCs could also be closely coordinated with the Technical Education Units (which could for instance, among other things, manufacture and service equipment for the centres).

C. Non-Formal Literacy Centres

9.05 There is a great need for expansion of the literacy centres of out-of-school children. While teachers are paid by the M/E, support is needed in the form of basic teaching equipment, stationary for students and tools and implements for vocationally oriented courses for older children (11-14 years) enrolled in these classes. The main types of inputs are:

- equipment for centres;

- stationary and other learning materials as well as food supplements;

- in-service teacher training programmes to assist formal school teachers and facilitators to use curriculum materials and methodologies developed to meet the needs of these children;

- furniture and physical facilities, e.g. toilets; and

- motivational programmes aimed at the parents of the out-of-school children.

D. Non-Formal Technical Education Units

9.06 The on-going programme serves a useful purpose but is in need of improvement and expansion. A SIDA sponsored evaluation may result in a reorganization but some suggestions are given here for additional inputs:

- decisions pertaining to courses to be offered in these units should be taken only after a needs and resources assessment of the area and a survey of market potential; the possibility to establish a network of key informants for this purpose should be contemplated;

- the possibility to give the TEUs a more active role to play in the manufacture and maintenance of furniture for the schools should be explored;

- courses selected should also meet the demands of the national labour market and be sufficiently flexible to meet changing needs so that new areas of unemployment are not created;

- most of the courses offered to girls are in dress making or related industries, thereby leading to oversupply, unemployment and frustration; special efforts should be made to encourage girls to enrol in courses that have income earning potential and are receiving priority currently in national policy, e.g. skills lost by migration to West Asia, export-oriented industries based on local resources, light engineering, electronics, handling and maintenance of machinery such as hand pumps, grinding mills, coir fibre machines and other products of technological change;

- tracer studies as part of an on-going supervisory system should be carried out to monitor the employment record of past trainees and to provide feedback for programme revision; there should be an active follow-up system with the Adult Education Officer responsible, not for course supervision which could be taken care of by the school Principal, but for the links between the trainees and other support systems (e.g. bank credit, Department of Small Industries, Industrial Development Board); the AEO should also have a role in helping to identify which course should be established, and in following trainees up;

- the administrative framework within which these programmes operate in the district should be clearly defined (the supervising role of the Adult Education Officer, for instance, should be specified) and linkages with the school system and with employers be strengthened;

- the courses should contain market skills such as accounting and prepare trainees for self-employment in relevant cases; and

- the Non-Formal Technical Education Unit in Colombo should be expanded and up-graded so as to be able to play a more active and innovative role.

E. Life Skills

9.07 The Life Skills Programme (see Paras. 4.29 and 8.25) represents a sound pedagogical innovation. It is possible that further external support will be needed if and when the programme is going to be expanded to the whole island and this could be a suitable area for SIDA. It may be argued that some of the Learning Events now offered in grades 6 and 7 are somewhat too simple (e.g. 'dressing a wound'). The events actually being offered (out of almost 100 available) should be further examined and assessed in relation to the pupil age groups. The feasibility of introducing simple Life Skills subjects in upper primary school should also be explored. As noted in Para. 8.20, the problem of assessment of Life Skills performance also needs to be looked into in order to ensure teacher and pupil motivation and practical skill development.

F. Special Education

9.08 SIDA is already providing support in this area but there is scope for considerable expansion either as a separate Special Education Programme or within the framework of the package programme for disadvantaged primary schools outlined in Para. 9.02 above. (See also Paras. 6.06 and 7.12.)

G. Educational Monitoring

9.09 A suitable area for SIDA support could be upgrading of certain educational administration functions such as computerized information processing and monitoring of education activities. As indicated in Para. 6.08, the capacity of the Staff College needs to be considerably expanded and the on-going decentralization and zone schemes enhance the importance of improved monitoring at sub-national levels. The provision of micro computers at district level coupled with appropriate in-service training and development of relevant performance indicators could constitute an important contribution to a very difficult decentralization scheme.

H. The Plantation Sector

9.10 Another suitable area for SIDA support is the Estate sector (see Section 7 F). Important experience is now being gained in the Badulla IRDP. Two different approaches might be considered for more extensive SIDA support. One would be to distil the best elements of the Badulla project in Estate areas and to support Estate area schools across the country in ways already outlined by the Ministry of Education. The other would be to incorporate support for Estate area schools within a more comprehensive programme of support to disadvantaged schools, as outlined in Para. 9.02.

I. Skills Development

9.11 As indicated earlier (see Section 4 I and Para. 8.10) middle level skills development is the area besides primary education perhaps most in need of support. The more exact nature of possible SIDA supported programmes is, however, difficult to indicate until further inventories of the needs and available resources in this highly diversified area have been made. Only when the needs in terms of trades and competencies required and lack of training facilities have been established can possible SIDA supported interventions be mapped out more in detail. Certain basic principles are put forward here for consideration, however:

- training programmes should have a clear target group orientation and not unnecessarily bar youth who lack formal education;

- wherever needed, training programmes should contain functional literacy and compensatory basic education components;

- programmes which aim at self-employment should contain management and marketing components and be linked with credit provisions;

- wherever possible skills development should be of the training-cum-production type;

- programmes which aim at wage employment should establish early links with potential employers; and

- proper attention should be paid to monitoring and follow-up evaluations.

Appendix 1

TERMS OF REFERENCE FOR REVIEW OF EDUCATION SECTOR ANALYSIS, SRI LANKA

1 BACKGROUND

In the development cooperation programme between Sri Lanka and Sweden for 1984/85 to 1985/86 it is stated that a revision of the previous analysis from 1981 of the education sector should be made. Such a study is needed as a background for further Swedish support to education programmes in Sri Lanka.

The matter was discussed during the annual consultations in March 1984 on the education sector. It has been agreed to involve international as well as local expertise in the study.

2 PURPOSE OF THE MISSION

The mission shall present a study that shall particularly focus on qualitative aspects of the formal and non-formal education systems. An analysis of measures needed for the improvement of education and training facilities for underprivileged groups should be given special attention. The role of the programmes which have received Swedish assistance should be particularly studied.

The mission shall present findings and recommendations relevant for the planning of future Swedish support to the education sector.

3 DUTIES

The mission shall discuss with representatives of relevant educational institutions, authorities and other bodies concerned in Sri Lanka. The mission is requested to work in close contact with the Ministry of Education. The following matters should be given special attention.

- to review and up-date the presentation in the sector analysis made by SIDA in 1981,

- to present an up-to-date, problem-oriented analysis of the official policy of Sri Lanka in the field of education and training and analyze its implications for programmes within the sector,

- to analyze the role and importance of education in the socio-economic development of Sri Lanka and, specifically, the relation between training and the labour market,

- to identify problem areas and needs, both in a short-time and a long-time perspective, within the education sector. In this respect the study should concentrate on basic general and labour market oriented education and training.

4 MEMBERS OF THE MISSION

The study will be carried out by one concultant from the Institute of International Education, University of Stockholm, one consultant from the Institute of Development Studies, UK, as well as one local consultant.

5 IMPLEMENTATION

The estimated time for the IIE consultant is six weeks of which four weeks in Sri Lanka. The work of the consultant from UK will be limited to about one week. For the local consultant a five week period is estimated.

6 REPORTING

The mission shall report to SIDA. Before leaving Sri Lanka the mission shall present to the Ministry of Education an outline of a report. A final version of the study should be presented to SIDA not later than three weeks after completion of the mission. This final resport shall be presented in English, in one copy, in such a format that it can be used directly for printing.

7 COSTS

All costs for the mission will be borne by SIDA.

Appendix 2

Table 1.

BASIC INFORMATIONON SRI LANKA

Area: 65,610 Square Km.

Population: 1981 - 14,988,000 Census
1983 - 15,416,000 Mid Year Estimate

Population in Main Cities (1981):

Colombo	586,000
Sri Jayewardenepura	102,000
Dehiwela-Mt. Lavinia	174,000
Jaffna	118,000
Kandy	101,000
Galle	77,000

Literacy Rate: 1981 : 86.5% (10 Years and Over) Census
1981/82 : 85.4% (5 Yeears and Over) Consumer Finances Survey (C.F.S.)

Average Household Size: (C.F.S. 1981/82)

Urban	5.5
Rural	5.2
Estate	4.8
All Island	5.2

TEMPERATURE (1983)

Minimum - 16.5 degr. C
Maximum - 28.9 degr. C

Compositon of Population:

ETHNIC (1981)	%	RELIGION	%
Sinhalese	74.0	Buddhists	69.3
Sri Lanka Tamils	12.6	Hindus	15.5
Indian Tamils	5.5	Muslims	7.6
Moors	7.1	Christians	7.5
Others	0.8	Others	0.1

SECTORAL (1981)	%	SEX (1983)	%
Urban	22	Male	51
Rural	72	Female	49
Estate	6		

Appendix 3

Table 2.

DEMOGRAPHY AND MANPOWER

	1981	1982	1983*
POPULATION	14,988	15,189	15,416
Age Group ('000)			
0-14	5,841	5,356	5,437
15-54	7,781	8,392	8,518
55 and over	1,366	1,441	1,416
Crude Birth Rate (Per '000)	28.0	26.8	26.2
Crude Death Rate (Per '000)	6.0	6.1	6.1
Rate of Natural Increase (Per '000)	22.0	20.7	20.1
Net Migration Rate (Per '000)	-3.4	-6.0	-
Growth Rate (%)	1.9	1.5	-
Population Density (Persons per Sq. Km.)	232.0	235.0	238.0

	1973	1978/79	1981/82*
ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE POPULATION (a) (As a Percentage of Total Population)			
Labour Force	33.9	38.0	34.3
Employed	25.8	32.4	30.3
Unemployed	8.1	5.6	4.0
SECTORAL COMPOSITION OF THE UN-EMPLOYMENT (a) (As a Percentage of Labour Force)			
Urban	32.1	20.7	14.2
Rural	24.5	14.6	12.0
Estate	12.0	5.6	5.0
All Island	24.0	14.7	11.7

* Provisional.
(a) Consumer Finance Survey Estimates.

Appendix 4

Table 3.

AVERAGE ONE MONTH INCOME*

Average	1953	1963	1973	1978/79	1981/82
	Rupees per Income Receiver				
Mean Income	108	134	228	616	1,111
Median Income	68	83	180	408	612
	Rupees per Spending Unit				
Mean Income	169	193	311	921	1,635
Median Income	114	130	250	658	1,159

* Consumer Finance Survey Estimates.

Table 4.

VITAL STATISTICS: SRI LANKA COMPARED WITH SELECTED COUNTRIES

Item	Ref. Year	Sri Lanka	India	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Thailand
1. Mid Year Population (Mn.)	1983	15.42	721.82	158.06	14.74	51.96	49.51
2. Density of Population Per Sq. km. (No.)	1983	235	220	82	45	173	91
3. Urban Population (%)	1980	22*	22	20	29	36	14
4. Crude Birth Rate (Per '000)	1980	28	36	35	31	34	30
5. Crude Death Rate (Per '000)	1980	7	14	13	7	7	8
6. Infant Mortality Rate (Per '000)	1981	44	123	93	25	55	55
7. Expectation of Life at Birth (Years)	1980	66	52	53	64	62	63

* 1981

Table 5.

NATIONAL ACCOUNTS: SRI LANKA COMPARED WITH SELECTED COUNTRIES -1982

	Sri Lanka	India	Malaysia	Pakistan	Philippines	Thailand
1. Total Gross National Product (Mn.$)	4,306	179,820	26,680	33,180	41,500	38,730
2. Per Capita GNP ($)	284	250	1,840	380	820	800
3. Average Growth Rate of Real Product (%)	5.1	n.a.	5.2	4.3	3.0	4.1
4. Agriculture/GDP (%)	27.5	n.a.	23.4	30.0	25.6	24.3
5. Manufacturing/GDP (%)	15.4	n.a.	17.9	17.1	24.7	20.8
6. Private Comsumption/GDP (%)	79.9	n.a.	54.0	79.4	64.1	60.6
7. Government Consumption/GDP (%)	8.3	n.a.	22.8	9.4	9.2	12.9
8. Gross Capital Formation/GDP (%)	30.6	n.a.	31.7	13.7	27.2	20.0
9. Gross Domestic Savings/GDP (%)	11.8	n.a.	25.7	7.2	22.5	18.4

Table 6.

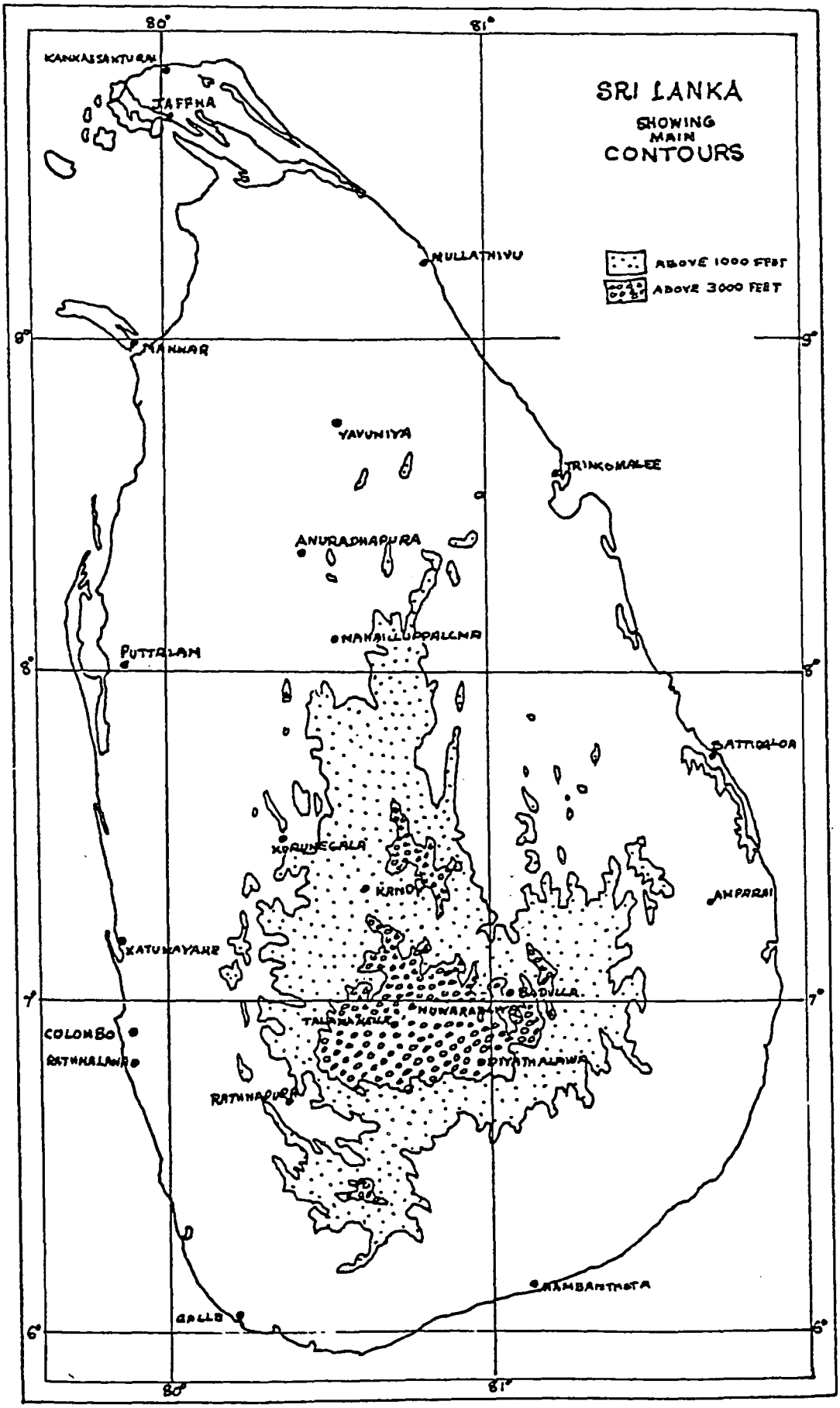
SOCIAL INDICATORS: SRI LANKA COMPARED WITH SELECTED COUNTRIES - 1980

	Sri Lanka	India	Malaysia	Pakistan	Philippines	Thailand
1. Literacy Rate (%)	85	36	60	24	75	86
2. Primary School Enrolment Ratio (%)	100	76	95	57	110	96
3. No. of Persons per Physician	7,172	3,600	3,473	3,480	1,136	6,839
4. No. of Persons per Hospital Bed	349	1.422	464	1,719	689	654
5. No. of Daily News Papers per 1,000 Persons	27	20	174	14	21	42
6. No. of Telephones per 100 Persons	0.4	0.3	3.0	0.3	1.3	0.8
7. No. of Television Sets per 1,000 Persons	3	1	90	10	21	17
8. Protein per Capita per Day* (Grams)	39	50	58	56	54	47
9. Calorie per Capita per Day* (Calories)	2,150	2,080	2,550	2,200	2,420	2,350
10. Percent of Population with access to safe water - a) Urban	45	83	93	60	66	49
b) Rural	13	20	5	17	33	12
11. Economically Active Population (Total Population (%)	34.8	38.3	34.0	27.1	34.5	44.8

* 1981 Figures.

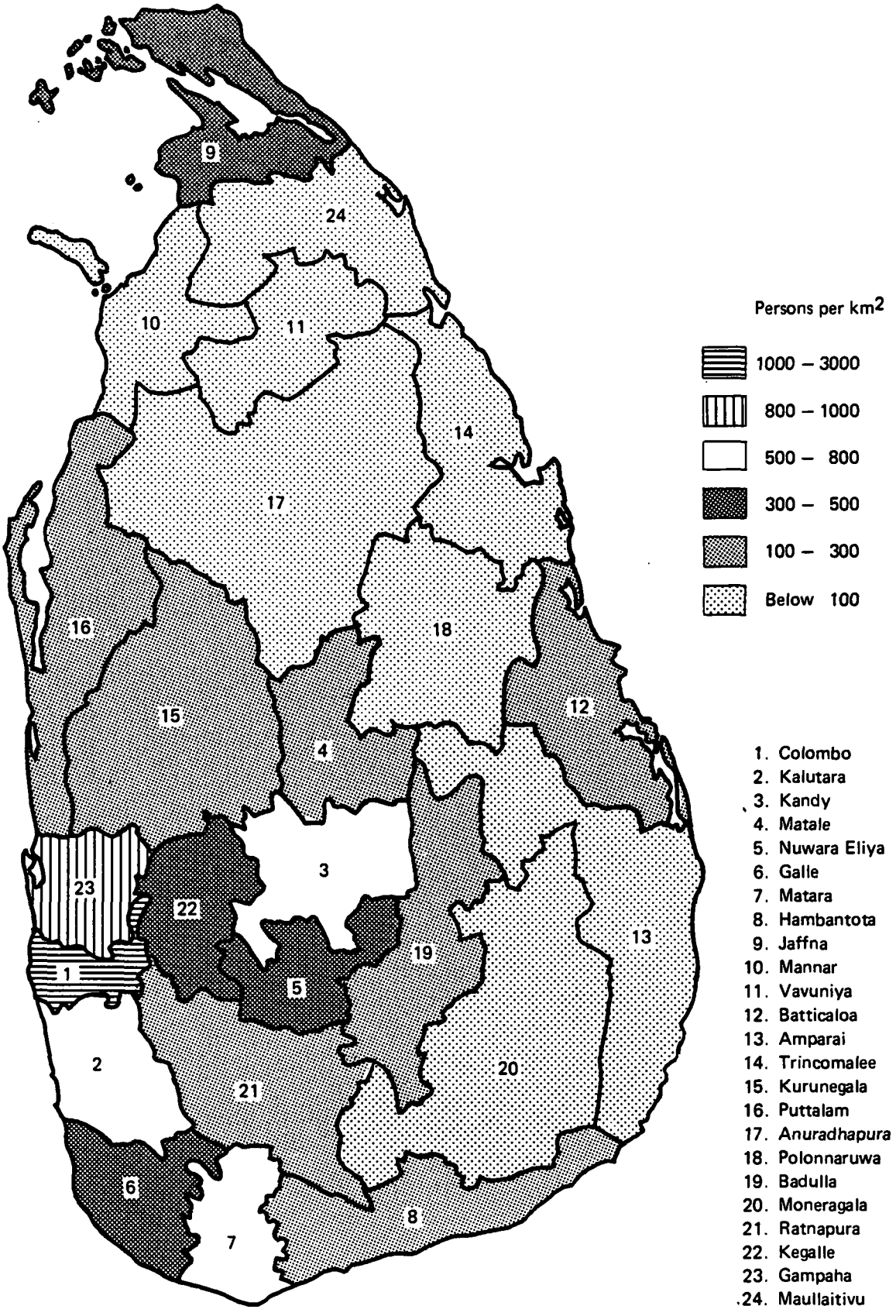
Appendix 8

MAP OF SRI LANKA



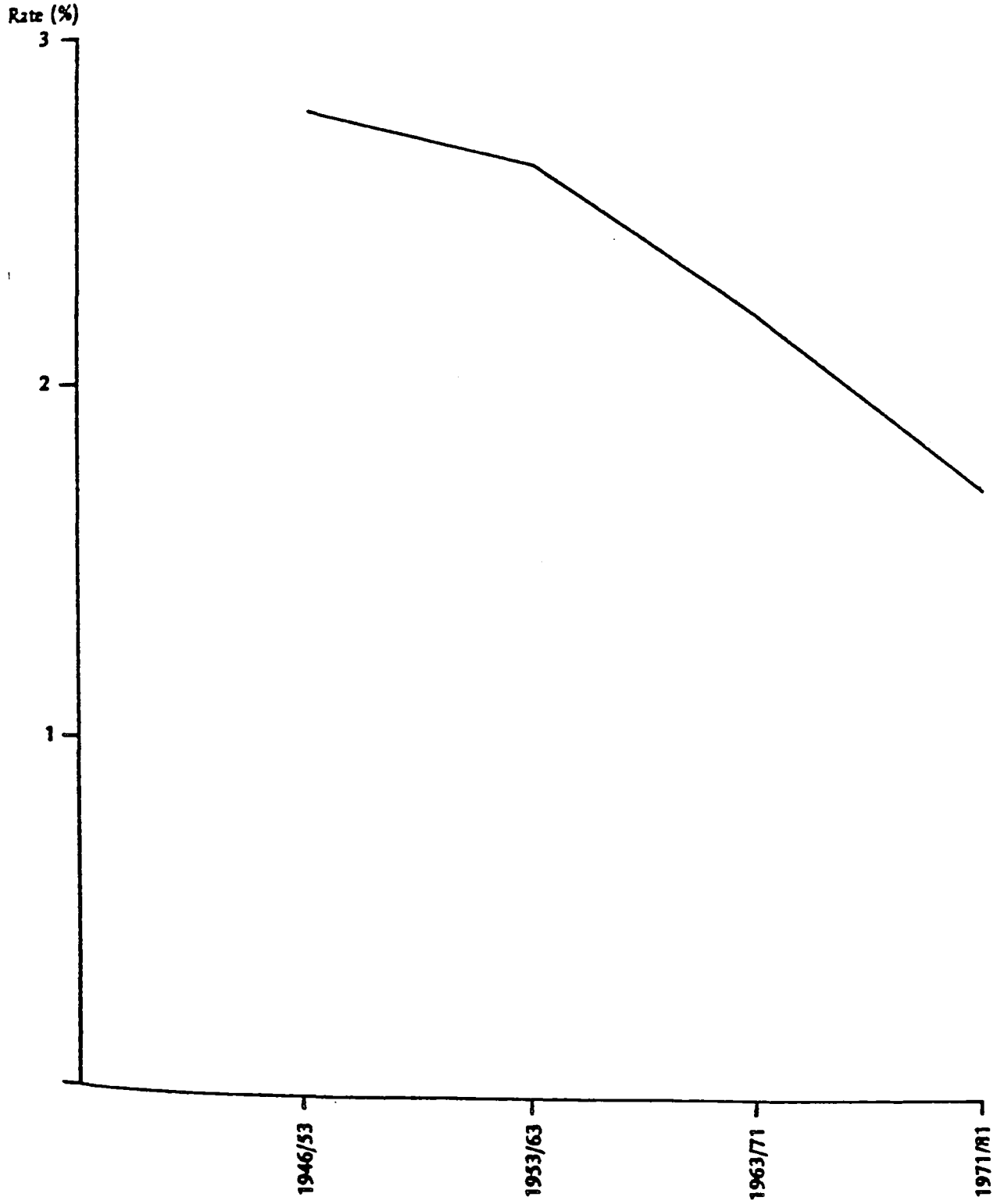
Appendix 9

Administrative districts and population density 1981



Appendix 10

ANNUAL RATE OF POPULATION GROWTH 1946 - 1981



Appendix 11

Table 7.

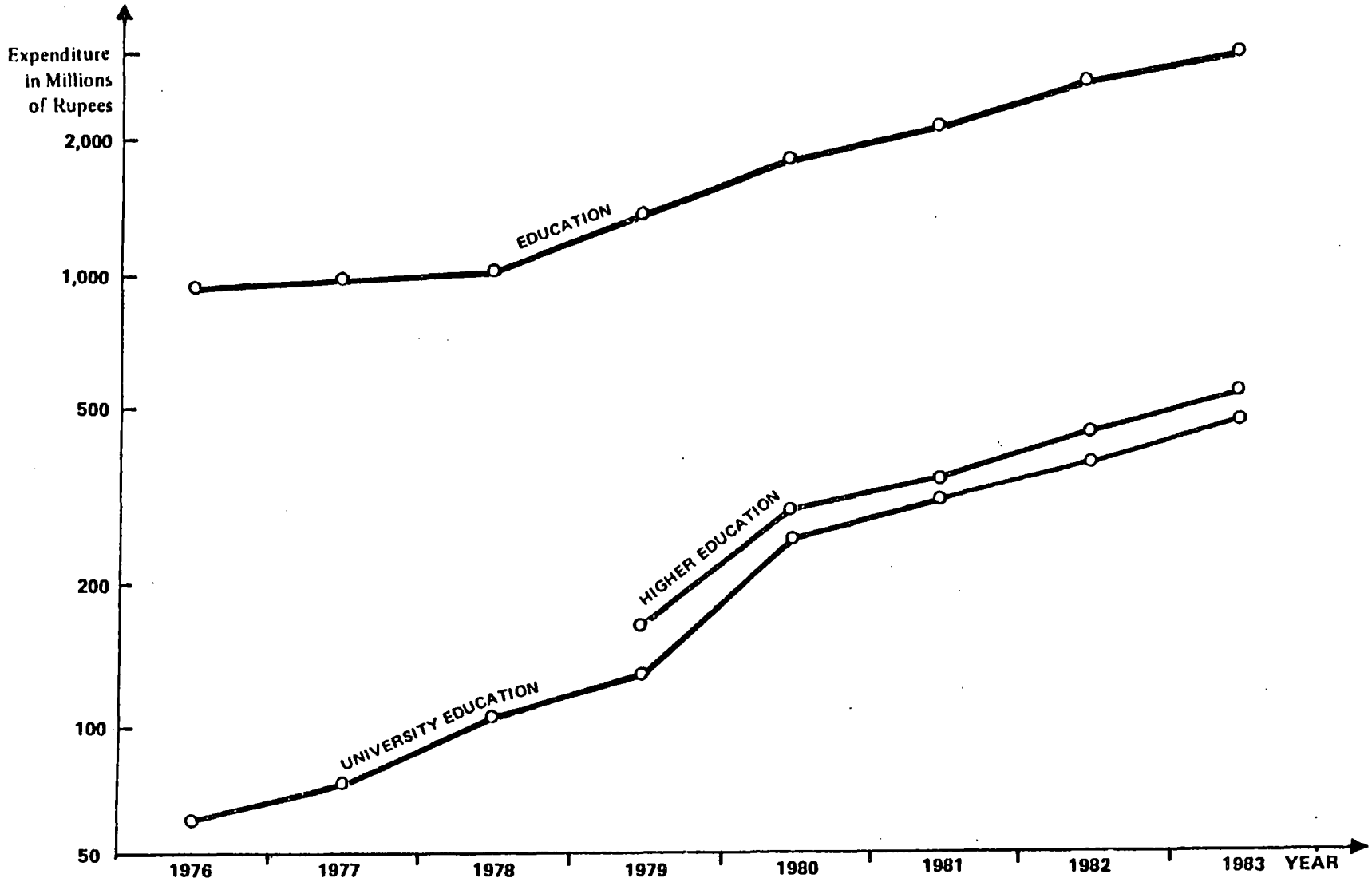
SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURE BY EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS
1985 ESTIMATES (Million Rs.)

	Personal Emoluments	Recurrent Expenditure	Capital Expenditure	Total
Ministry of Education				
The Minister	2,591.842	3,005.319	265.000	3,270.319
Dept of Exam.	8.480	79.956	3.525	83.481
Dept of Ed. Publ.	1.611	2.220	0.273	2.493
TOTAL	2,601.933	3,087.495	268.798	3,356.293
Ministry of Higher Education				
The Minister	28.015	78.007	293.950	371.957
Universities and UGC		249.000	568.583	817.583
TOTAL	28.015	327.007	862.533	1,189.540
GRAND TOTAL	2,629.948	3,414.502	1,131.331	4,545.833

Appendix 12

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION

(Logarithmic Scale)



Appendix 13

Table 8.

LITERACY RATE BY SEX AND SECTOR - 1971, 1981

	1971			1981		
Sex	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
Male	90.4	84.1	85.6	95.3	90.0	90.5
Female	81.5	67.9	70.9	91.0	79.9	82.4
TOTAL	86.2	76.2	78.5	93.3	84.5	86.5

Appendix 14

Table 9.

LITERACY RATE BY ETHNIC GROUP AND SEX - 1981

	1981		
Ethnic Group	Males	Females	Total
Sinhalese	91.8	84.9	88.4
Sri Lanka Tamils	89.4	84.3	86.6
Indian Tamils	78.6	55.2	66.9
Sri Lanka Moors	86.7	71.5	79.3
Burghers	98.2	96.1	97.1
Malay	93.2	88.9	91.1
Others	91.2	79.8	86.1

Appendix 15

Table 10.

PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT RATIO IN GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS BY DISTRICT (1977 - 1980)

District	1977	1978	1979	1980
Colombo	82.87	99.52	94.70	96.05
Gampaha	-	-	83.20	83.47
Kalutara	76.92	84.80	86.23	87.73
Kandy	70.32	76.54	78.04	75.75
Matale	84.35	84.32	84.49	85.29
Nuwara Eliya	69.70	63.26	69.34	64.27
Galle	82.48	83.26	74.80	75.11
Matara	82.12	98.09	98.32	98.82
Hambantota	87.80	76.38	77.44	79.95
Jaffna	82.78	88.32	87.85	89.24
Mannar	83.32	85.05	83.39	83.77
Mullaitivu	-	-	-	-
Vavuniya	84.78	79.02	80.42	88.34
Batticaloa	75.31	79.57	72.67	76.45
Amparai	85.31	74.02	73.60	72.05
Trincomalee	85.45	75.86	76.70	72.52
Kurunegala	73.10	76.51	76.95	77.67
Puttalam	66.52	72.65	74.65	77.05
Anuradhapura	77.10	75.67	79.70	73.62
Polonnaruwa	62.84	73.74	73.82	74.72
Badulla	46.77	62.78	64.26	67.37
Moneragala	65.05	61.48	63.68	69.91
Ratnapura	76.29	94.83	98.90	82.20
Kegalle	81.83	95.21	95.90	96.02
SRI LANKA	68.77	86.37	87.68	89.53

Table 11.

AGE SPECIFIC SCHOOL AVOIDANCE RATES (%)

Age Groups	1973 Total	1973 Urban	1973 Rural	1978/79 Total	1978/79 Urban	1978/79 Rural	1978/79 Estate	1981/82 Total	1981/82 Urban	1981/82 Rural	1981/82 Estate
6-9+	23.7	17.6	21.9	17.58	16.5	15.6	37.4	19.8	16.6	18.9	40.7
10-13+	9.6	6.3	7.8	6.7	5.6	5.5	22.0	7.0	6.3	5.7	26.1
14-18+	10.0	5.7	8.0	7.2	5.5	5.4	18.4	8.9	7.3	7.8	28.2
19-25+	11.4	6.0	8.9	8.4	4.9	6.6	31.8	8.8	5.9	7.7	28.7
26-35+	17.8	10.6	16.2	9.9	5.7	8.1	31.0	9.5	4.2	9.1	28.6
36-45+	28.0	20.5	27.6	18.4	9.9	18.2	38.0	17.0	9.0	16.2	42.9
46-55+	32.8	22.5	32.1	23.6	15.4	26.4	47.8	24.8	16.6	24.8	50.2
Over 56	46.6	37.1	45.8	35.7	27.9	35.4	72.4	34.2	25.8	34.9	59.8
Total over 6 years	20.5	14.1	18.9					15.1	10.6	14.5	36.0

Source: Consumer Finances and Socio-economic Survey 1981/82. Central Bank of Ceylon, Colombo, Sri Lanka (1984).

Appendix 17

Table 12.

ENROLMENT IN SCHOOLS

Grades	Total	Female	% Female
LKG - Gr. 5	2,151,185	1,036,786	48.2
Gr. 6 - 10	1,225,534	621,174	50.7
Gr. 11 - 12	136,360	80,855	59.3
Gr. 6 - 12	1,361,894	712,029	51.5
Gr. 1 - 12	3,523,079	1,748,815	49.6

Source: School Census 1983, Ministry of Education, Colombo.

Appendix 18

Table 13.

COMBINED ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, 1950-84

Year	Population	Primary + Secondary Enrolment	Enrolment in Percent of Pop.
1950	7.5	1.365	18.20
1960	9.9	2.225	22.47
1970	12.5	2.572	20.58
1975	13.5	2.432	18.15
1976	13.7	2.462	17.98
1977	13.9	2.462	17.71
1978	14.2	2.990	21.06
1979	14.5	3.136	21.63
1980	14.7	3.281	22.32
1981	14.99	3.339	22.28
1982	15.21	3.398	22.34
1983	15.42	3.460	22.44
1984	15.65	3.539	22.61

Appendix 19

Table 14.

DISTRICTWISE STUDENT-DROP-OUTS, 1983

	Education District	Total Grades 1-8	%
1	Colombo	4536	2.7
2	Homagama	2934	3.6
3	Gampaha	4746	3.6
4	Minuwangoda	3546	4.4
5	Kalutara	4872	3.7
6	Kandy	8225	4.8
7	Matale	3325	5.3
8	Nuwara Eliya	6083	9.3
9	Galle	6663	4.7
10	Matara	4784	4.1
11	Tangalle	4047	5.2
12	Jaffna	4908	3.4
13	Mannar	0746	4.8
14	Mulativu	0512	4.4
15	Vavuniya	1307	8.0
16	Batticaloa	5009	9.3
17	Ampara	0913	3.4
18	Kalmune	3623	7.8
19	Trincomalee	4155	8.6
20	Kurunegala	3744	3.7
21	Kuliyapitiya	3166	5.4
22	Nikaveratiya	3311	5.9
23	Puttalam	2533	7.8
24	Chilaw	2945	6.1
25	Anuradhapura	5450	5.1
26	Polonnaruwa	2595	5.8
27	Bandarawela	6248	5.9
28	Moneragala	2679	5.5
29	Ratnapura	7501	5.8
30	Kegalle	5397	4.7
TOTAL		120503	4.9

Source: School Census, 1983.

Appendix 20

Table 15.

PRIMARY SCHOOL ATTRITION BY DISTRICT, 1981

Administrative District	Number of Pupils out of a Cohort of 1000 that would graduate from Primary Cycle	Pupil Years required for the production of Graduates of Primary Cycle	Pupil Years required for the production of one Graduate of Primary Cycle
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Colombo	858	6139	7.15
Gampaha	792	6120	7.73
Kalutara	708	6120	8.64
Kandy	881	6470	7.34
Matale	350	6050	17.28
Nuwara Eliya	826	6210	7.51
Galle	696	6000	8.62
Matara	683	6150	9.0
Hambantota	816	6760	8.28
Jaffna	687	5990	8.71
Mannar	492	6160	12.52
Vavuniya)* Mullaitivu)	656	6340	9.66
Batticaloa	437	6190	14.16
Amparai	715	6380	8.92
Trincomalee	571	5870	10.28
Kurunegala	757	6110	8.07
Puttalam	664	6060	9.12
Anuradhapura	625	6200	9.92
Polonnaruwa	561	6270	11.17
Badulla	837	6380	7.62
Moneragala	610	6370	10.44
Ratnapura	705	6250	8.86
Kegalle	829	6080	7.33
SRI LANKA	704	6290	8.93

* Mullaitivu and Vavuniya are considered together.

Analysis is based on 1981 School Census Data, Ministry of Education.

Appendix 21

Table 16.

SMALL SCHOOLS: NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOOLS WITH LESS THAN A HUNDRED STUDENTS (1983)

Educational District	No. of Schools	Schools with 1-50 Students	% Schools	Schools with 51-100 Students	% Schools
Colombo	251	1	0.4	6	2.4
Homagama	203	6	2.9	12	5.9
Gampaha	346	4	1.2	24	6.9
Minuwangoda	250	2	0.8	14	5.6
Kalutara	466	40	8.6	56	12.0
Kandy	749	54	7.2	111	14.8
Matale	303	28	9.2	68	22.4
Nuwara Eliya	375	31	8.3	103	27.5
Galle	509	30	5.9	82	16.1
Matara	417	11	2.6	44	10.6
Tangalle	286	12	4.2	19	6.6
Jaffna	555	40	7.2	80	14.4
Mannar	105	15	14.3	28	26.7
Mulativu	87	26	29.9	18	20.7
Vavuniya	124	34	27.4	35	28.2
Batticaloa	255	26	10.2	57	22.3
Ampara	107	5	4.6	9	8.4
Kalmune	170	14	8.2	24	14.1
Trincomalee	208	11	5.3	34	16.3
Kurunegala	386	20	5.2	69	17.9
Kuliyapitiya	286	23	8.04	57	19.9
Nikaveritiya	257	14	5.4	44	17.1
Puttalam	157	9	5.7	25	15.9
Chilaw	172	11	6.4	21	12.2
Anuradhapura	517	47	9.1	122	23.6
Polonnaruwa	153	12	7.8	21	13.7
Bandarawela	510	41	8.03	113	22.2
Moneragala	188	14	7.4	22	11.7
Ratnapura	586	60	10.2	120	20.5
Kegalle	597	74	12.4	122	20.4
TOTAL	9575	715	7.5	1560	16.3

Source: School Census, 1983.

Appendix 22.

Table 17.

ONE TEACHER AND TWO TEACHER SCHOOLS BY DISTRICT (1983)

Educational District	Total No. of Schools	One Teacher Schools	Two Teacher Schools
Colombo	251	0	2
Homagama	203	6	1
Gampaha	346	0	2
Minuwangoda	250	0	1
Kalutara	466	34	20
Kandy	749	73	45
Matale	303	14	35
Nuwara Eliya	375	124	54
Galle	509	5	36
Matara	417	5	7
Tangalle	286	0	8
Jaffna	555	36	63
Mannar	105	27	20
Mulativu	87	29	16
Vavuniya	124	46	21
Batticaloa	255	67	39
Ampara	107	4	11
Kalmune	170	13	29
Trincomalee	208	28	37
Kurunegala	336	1	11
Kuliyapitiya	286	1	19
Nikeveratiya	257	7	38
Puttalam	157	11	26
Chilaw	172	0	6
Anuradhapura	517	32	73
Polonnaruwa	153	5	11
Bandarawela	510	89	58
Moneragala	188	6	26
Ratnapura	586	64	83
Kegalle	597	38	49
TOTAL	9575	765	847

Source: School Census, 1983

Appendix 23

Table 18.

PLANTATION SECTOR SCHOOLS, 1984

Region	No. of Schools	Pupils		
		Males	Females	Total
Homagama	05	122	115	237
Kurunegala	02	67	63	130
Matara	03	153	140	293
Matale	23	920	949	1869
Kegalle	37	1701	1733	3434
Galle	04	216	150	366
Ratnapura	72	4070	3358	7428
Kalutara	31	1564	1265	2829
Kandy	81	3706	3122	6828
Bandarawela	122	7776	6679	14455
Nuwara Eliya	178	14003	11517	25520
TOTAL	558	34298	29091	63389

Source: Ministry of Education, Plantation Sector Div.

Appendix 24

Table 19.

G.C.E. O/LEVEL PERFORMANCE 1982 BY DISTRICT, PASS RATES

District	First Language	English	Maths.	Science
Colombo	75	62	49	64
Homagama	71	24	29	56
Gampaha	67	28	30	54
Minuwangoda	71	36	31	57
Kalutara	67	27	28	53
Kandy	65	26	25	46
Matale	60	22	23	44
Nuwara Eliya	61	22	18	36
Galle	71	27	29	52
Matara	66	23	27	52
Tangalle	64	19	20	46
Jaffna	72	34	42	55
Mannar	76	23	35	50
Mulativu	76	15	38	61
Vavuniya	59	22	24	50
Batticaloa	65	27	33	42
Ampara	69	22	23	50
Kalmune	75	20	44	59
Trincomalee	67	24	31	53
Kurunegala	68	24	26	55
Kuliyapitiya	69	24	32	57
Nikaweratiya	68	14	25	55
Puttalam	72	21	24	45
Chilaw	77	31	33	60
Anurahapura	63	15	23	43
Polonnaruwa	60	16	23	48
Bandarawela	64	25	25	51
Moneragala	52	15	18	41
Ratnapura	70	22	26	55
Kegalle	66	22	22	48
Sri Lanka	68	29	29	52

Appendix 25

Table 20.

G.C.E. A/LEVEL PERFORMANCE BY DISTRICT - 1981

Region	No. Sat.	Passed in 4	%	Failed in all	%
Kurunegala	1648	462	28	171	10
Nikaveritiya	371	124	33	33	9
Kuliyapitiya	606	227	37	52	9
Puttalam	117	21	18	13	11
Mannar	151	45	30	15	10
Anurahapura	906	270	30	81	9
Vavuniya	241	58	24	32	13
Jaffna	2462	890	36	350	14
Mulativu	175	80	46	20	11
Trincomalee	328	102	31	31	10
Batticaloa	369	101	27	41	11
Ampara	225	54	24	27	12
Monaragala	392	113	29	42	11
Polennaruwa	321	83	26	37	12
Matale	524	175	33	51	10
Nuwara Eliya	372	69	19	40	11
Tangalle	1904	507	27	210	11
Matara	2526	618	24	333	13
Galle	2028	496	24	280	14
Kegalle	1807	515	29	167	9
Ratnapura	871	271	31	72	8
Kandy - West	2041	614	30	249	12
Kandy - East	542	171	32	39	7
Bandarawela	1076	274	26	166	15
Kalmune	234	80	34	30	13
Chilaw	475	151	32	55	12
Minuwangoda	321	89	28	61	19
Gampaha	1125	356	32	141	13
Kalutara	1563	469	30	183	12
Homagama	616	185	30	70	11
Colombo	1638	419	26	312	19

Appendix 26

Table 21.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ENROLMENT RATIO PER 100,000 POPULATION IN AGE 15 - 34 CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO COURSES BY SEX - 1981

Name of Course	1981 Male	1981 Female
1. Automotor Mechanics (Petrol and Diesel)	7.1	-
2. Automobile Electricians	1.77	-
3. Draftsman Apprenticeship	10.34	13.48
4. Electricians	9.8	0.55
5. Electrical Installations in Buildings and House Wiring	11.81	0.04
6. Building Trade*	4.79	0.04
7. Radio Electronic and Services	7.03	0.95
8. Motor Vehicle Electrical Work	5.22	-
9. Motor Mechanism	7.67	0.15
10. Motor Electrical Wiring	4.47	-
11. Wood Work and Carving	7.31	0.07
12. Carpentry and Joining	2.31	-
13. Welding	4.79	-
14. Printing Letterpress and Book Binding	1.69	0.07
15. Fitting	8.90	0.04
16. Composing	0.29	-
17. Mechanary Engineering	11.49	0.07
18. Civil Engineering	17.36	3.18
19. Tractor Mechanics	4.29	-
20. Tailoring	1.08	4.20
21. Water Pump Repairing	0.32	-
22. Blacksmithy	0.97	-
23. Toy Making	0.11	0.88
24. Jewellery Making	2.16	-
25. Rubber Planting and Pressing	1.08	-
TOTAL ENROLMENT RATIO	134.53	23.70

* Including Junior Building Supervisors.

Appendix 27

Table 22.

ENROLMENT IN TECHNICAL INSTITUTES

Courses	1973			1984		
	Total	Female	% Female	Total	Female	% Female
National Diploma* in Technology	1,278	99	7.7	818	155	18.9
Technician Certificate	13,697	75	5.5	4,033	370	9.2
Draughtmenship Certificate	-	-	-	661	348	52.6
Technical Trades	2,400	5	0.2	2,011	12	0.6
Crafts	-	-	-	278	139	50.0
Tailoring	-	-	-	82	39	47.6
Home Science	-	-	-	113	113	100.0
Agriculture	-	-	-	196	43	21.9
Business & Commerce Diploma	3,199	1,017	31.8	4,553	1,988	43.7
Business & Commerce Certificate	-	-	-	3,894	2,760	70.9
English	207	62	29.9	1,403	737	52.5
TOTAL	8,453	1,258	14.9	18,041	6,704	37.2

* Enrolled in University of Moratuwa.

Source: Ministry of Education, Ministry of Higher Education and University of Moratuwa.

Appendix 28

Table 23.

ENROLMENT IN VOCATIONAL TRAINING CENTRES

Courses	1969 Total	1969 Female %	1973 Total	1973 Female %	1977 Total	1977 Female %	1982 Total	1982 Female %
Technical Trades	684	-	436	-	432	-	490	0.6
Boat Repairs/ Marine Engineering	-	-	30	-	30	-	29	-
Tractor Driving/ Servicing	-	-	-	-	-	-	143	-
Carpentry	363	-	390	-	624	-	1,775	1.1
Masonry	306	-	390	-	624	-	1,445	1.4
Hair Dressing	100	-	18	-	160	-	-	-
Tailoring/ Dress Making	-	-	216	40.4	960	85.0	3,946	97.2
Mat Weaving/ Reed Craft	-	-	-	-	16	100.0	100	100.0
Industrial Sewing	-	-	-	-	-	-	9,459	100.0
Farming	-	-	-	5.9	-	-	20	100.0
TOTAL	1,453	-	1,480		2,846	29.2	17,407	77.4

Source: Department of Labour.

Appendix 29

Table 24.

ENROLMENT IN NATIONAL YOUTH COUNCIL CENTRES (1984)

Courses	Total	Female	% Female
Technical Trades	240	-	-
Carpentry	76	-	-
Masonry	48	-	-
Handwork	270	204	75.6
Agriculture	131	48	36.6
TOTAL	765	252	32.9

Source: National Youth Council Services.

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S-105 25 STOCKHOLM
ISBN 91-586-7053-X