KINGDOM OF CAMBODIA
Nation Religion King

Royal Government of Cambodia

National Education For All Committee

National EFA Mid-Decade Assessment Report 2005

December 2007

Prepared by
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Education For All
National Mid-Decade
Assessment Report 2005

Table of Contents

Abbreviations and Acronyms

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ASEAN	Association of South-East Asian Nations
BETT	Belgian Cooperation Basic Education Teacher Training
BMC	Budget Management Centre
CDC	Cambodian Development Council
CDHS	Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey
CEFAC	Commune EFA Committee
CESSP	Cambodian Education Sector Support Program
CFS	Child Friendly School
CIPS	Cambodia Inter-censal Survey
CLC	Community Learning Center
CMDG	Cambodian Millennium Development Goal
CSES	Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys
DEFAC	District EFA Committee
DNFE	Department of Non-Formal Education [MoEYS]
DFID	Department of Fund for International Development
EC	European Committee
ECCD	Early Childhood Care and Development
ECCE	Early Childhood Care and Education
EFA	Education for All
EMIS	Education Management Information System
EQIP	Education Quality Improvement Project
ESP	Education Strategic Plan
ESSP	Education Sector Support Program
GAR	Gross Admission Rate
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GNP	Gross National Product
GPI	Gender Parity Index
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
HRD	Human resource development
ICHA	Inter-departmental Committee for HIV/AIDS
ILO	International Labor Organization
IO	International Organization
JFPR	Japanese Fund for Poverty Reduction
KAPE	Kampuchean Action for Primary Education
LSS	Lower Secondary School
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MDA	Mid-Decade Assessment
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MLVT	Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training
MoEYS	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports
MoP	Ministry of Planning

MoWA	Ministry of Women's Affairs
NAR	Net Admission Rate
NDSP	National Strategic Development Plan
NEFAC	National EFA Committee
NEP	NGO Education Partnership
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio
NFE	Non-formal education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NIR	Net Intake Ratio
PAP	Priority Action Program
PBR	Pupil Textbook Ratio
PCR	Pupil-class ratio
PEFAC	Provincial EFA Committee
POE	Provincial Office of Education
PTR	Pupil-Teacher Ratio
SCN	Save Children Norway
Sida	Swedish International Development Agency
SRP	School Readiness Program
SWAp	Sector Wide Approach
TR	Transition Rate
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USS	Upper Secondary School
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Program

Preface

Seven years ago, 164 governments together with all development partners in the world, made a collective commitment to expand the educational opportunities for all children, youth and adults by 2015.

Participants at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal endorsed a broad, comprehensive vision of education, which focuses on human rights affirming the importance of learning of all ages and emphasizing the special needs of the poorest, the most vulnerable and the most disadvantaged groups in the society.

Since 2000, many more children in Cambodia have accessed school, especially children from poor families and girls. The overall educational budget has been significantly increased and includes a considerably increased allocation for the nine-years of basic education. More recently, Early Childhood Care and Development which provides a strong foundation for general education has been prioritized for further expansion.

The Royal Government of Cambodia, under the wise leadership of Samdech Aka Moha Sena Padei Decho **Hun Sen**, Prime Minister of the Kingdom of Cambodia, has been internationally recognized for its commitment to education, its sound sector policies, and the remarkable improvements achieved in expanding access from the pre-school to the tertiary level. This international recognition resulted in the award of Fast Track Initiative status for Cambodia in 2006, and the provision of a catalytic fund to further strengthen our reforms.

Preparation of EFA Mid-decade Assessment will enable Cambodia to compare its progress in terms of education with other countries in the region and in the world. In this regard, it is another opportunity for development partners and other stakeholders to reflect on performance within the sector and the efficiency and effectiveness of their aid in order to attain overall targets by 2015.

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport strongly hopes that all relevant ministries, institutions, development partners and stakeholders continue their support, financial, material and spiritual, aiming to achieve EFA goals by 2015.

Phnom Penh, January 22, 2008

Kol Pheng, Ph.D.
Senior Minister, Minister
Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport

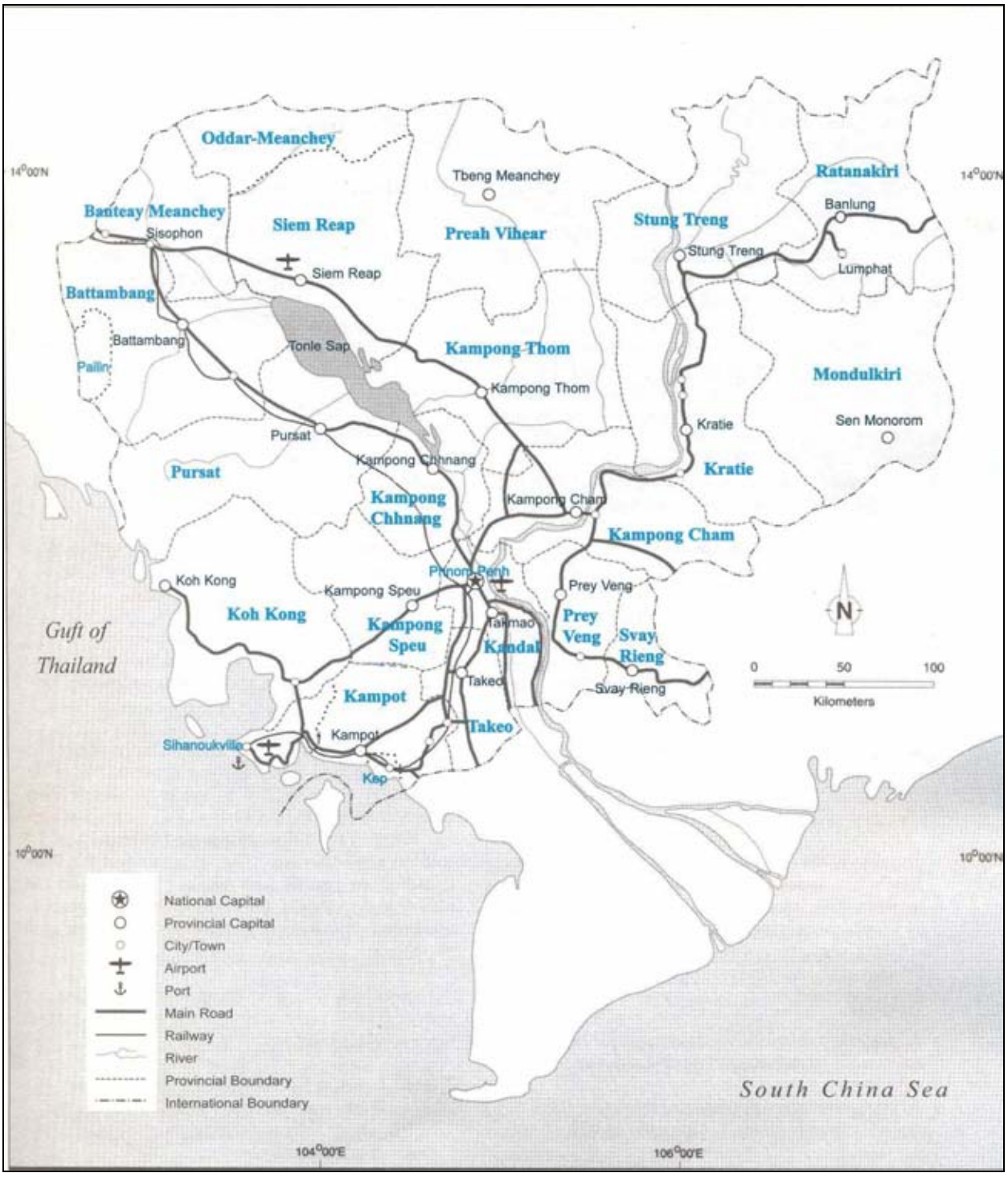
Country Profile

		Year
Demographic: (1)		
Number of provinces/municipalities	24	
Number of districts	185	
Number of communes	1,621	
Number of villages	13,890	2005
Total area (square kilometers)	181,035	
Population density per square kilometer	76	2005
National population (millions)	13.80	2005
Percentage Urban population	15	2005
Percentage Rural population	85	2005
Percentage Female population	51.68	2005
Percentage of population 3-5 years old	9.2	1998
Percentage of population 6- 11 years old	18.1	1998
Percentage of population 0-14 years old	39	2005
Annual population growth rate	1.81	2005
Adult literacy rate (15 years & above), total	73.6	2004
Socio-economic Environment (2)		
GNP per capita (US $)	260	1999
GDP per capita (US $)	513	2006
Households under the Poverty Line	34.67%	2005
Education: (3)		
Number of Pre-schools	1,524	2006-07
Number of Primary schools	6,365	2006-07
Number of Lower Secondary schools	846	2006-07
Number of Upper Secondary schools	283	2006-07
Net Primary Enrolment Rate, total	92.1	2006-07
Net Primary Enrolment Rate, female	91.0	2006-07
Net Primary Enrolment Rate, male	93.1	2006-07
Primary Survival rate (grade 1 to 6)	53.1	2006-07
Primary Transition Rate (total)	78.7	2006-07
Child Health & Nutrition: (4)		
Infant mortality Rate, total	65.0	2005
Under five Mortality Rate, total	82.0	2005
Percentage Underweight (moderate and severe, -2SD), total	45.2	2000
Percentage Underweight (moderate and severe, -2SD), female	46.3	2000
Percentage Underweight (moderate and severe, -2SD), male	44.3	2000
Percentage Stunting (moderate and severe), total	44.6	2000
Percentage Stunting (moderate and severe), female	45.9	2000
Percentage Stunting (moderate and severe), male	43.3	2000
Percentage Wasting (moderate and severe), total	15.0	2000
Percentage Wasting (moderate and severe), female	14.6	2000
Percentage Wasting (moderate and severe), male	15.4	2000

Sources:

(1) General Population Census of Cambodia, 1998
(2) National Institute of Statistics, 1997, 1999, 2000
(3) Education Management Information System (EMIS), 2006-07
(4) Cambodia Demographic Health Survey (CDHS), 2000
National Strategic Development Plan 2006-2010

Map of the Kingdom of Cambodia



Introduction

The Royal Government of Cambodia has ushered in a new era in the development of the education sector with its focus on the quality of education. This focus is consistent with development approaches that emphasize Capacity Building and Human Resource Development (CBHRD) as one of four key components (CBHRD is also known as the Fourth Rectangle) in the Rectangular Development Strategy of the Royal Government. The education sector plays a prominent role as a subcomponent of the capacity building component of the Rectangular Development Strategy since it has a vital role in national unity and in strengthening national identity as a framework for socio-economic development.

In 2000, a comprehensive education sector situation and performance analysis was conducted which identified the key challenges for EFA implementation. The assessment led to the eventual development of the EFA National Plan 2003-2015, which identified goals and targets related to the following areas:

1. Early Childhood Care and Development;
2. Basic Formal Education;
3. Life Skills for Youth and Adults;
4. Adult Literacy and Non-Formal Education;
5. Gender Equity; and
6. Quality of Education.

The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports has initiated consultation processes with other Ministries in terms of planning in order to reach the goals and objectives for EFA set by the Cambodian government and which are also consistent with the Framework for Action on EFA by 2015 at the World Education Forum held on April 2000 at Dakar, Senegal.

The National EFA Committee is now conducting a Mid-Decade Assessment in order to:

- Evaluate the country's development in education and to determine the attainment of the EFA goals in accordance to the National Strategy 2003-2015;
- Identify all activities in the framework that have facilitated or hindered progress towards attainment of education for all in terms of access and equity, regardless of economic status. gender, geography, physical disability, and ethnicity;
- Revise and modify existing plans and strategies for the next ten years in order to achieve the goals and objectives of EFA.

It is therefore important for the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport and all six Working Groups of the EFA Committee (cf. Mission Letter No. 821 dated 05 April 2001, MoEYS) to conduct an EFA Mid-Decade Assessment (MDA) through to the year 2005 to determine the investment outcomes during the last five years as well as to determine what more needs to be done between now and 2015. Quality of education, enrollment in schools, access, equity, availability of resources, financial management, partnerships and linkages, management and monitoring are just some of the key concepts and concerns that will guide policy-making and key activities in the future.

On behalf of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, the National EFA Committee would like to thank the members of all six EFA Working Groups who have contributed greatly to this undertaking and to UNICEF, UNESCO, and all development partners for providing technical and financial support to ensure the success of this assessment activity.

Background to the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment (MDA)

The *Dakar Framework for Action* adopted by the World Education Forum (Dakar, Senegal, 2000) foresaw the need for regular monitoring and reporting of progress and gaps in the achievement of Education for All as a basis for continuous review of national policy and international support towards education for all.

The Cambodian National Education For All Assessment Group examined progress achieved between the 1990 Jomtien Declaration and the 2000 Dakar Framework for Action in a *Country Report Assessment for the Year 2000*.[1] The present Mid-Decade Assessment for Cambodia assesses the progress and achievement on the six EFA goals since the World Education Forum held in Dakar in 2000, with a focus on quality and equality of access to education and on reaching the "unreached."

The Education for All (EFA) Mid-Decade Assessment is a major, global endeavor that aims to enable the participating countries (i) to construct a comprehensive picture of their progress towards their own Education for All goals since 2000; (ii) to identify priorities and promising strategies for overcoming obstacles and accelerating progress; and (iii) to revise national plans of action accordingly. The results should be useful for policy makers, planners and managers both within and outside government. The Assessment process will also provide an opportunity to refocus attention on the goals and targets of EFA and reinvigorate efforts to provide lifelong learning opportunities of good quality for all.

The EFA Mid-Decade Assessment calls for the holding of regional and national assessments aimed at identifying problems, issues, policies and strategies of education reform to ensure that education will reach the unreached groups. Where relevant data are available, statistical analysis focuses on the gaps in access to various levels of quality education across the diverse strata and groups in society. As the assessment relies on the most recent data available (i.e., from 2005-06), it covers the assessment of EFA progress and gaps half-way through the decade (2000-2010). In terms of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), the EFA MDA allows for reporting on the targets for Goals 2 and 3 and targeted planning to reach the 2015 MDG Targets.

While the Dakar EFA Reports of 2000 included male/female breakdowns and occasional references to rural/urban groups, the present Mid Decade Assessment emphasizes "unreached" populations, which requires more specialized disaggregation of data. Accordingly, most of the over 45 core indicators in this assessment include disaggregation by province, as well as by male/female and rural/urban/remote.

Mid Decade Assessment Process

The quality of the EFA mid-decade assessment relies on the quality of information and data gathered from all sources and the analysis of such data using the appropriate statistical and scientific methods. The results of these analyses represent actual progress of each sector of education and recommendations on activities, which need to be done in the future.

[1] National EFA 2000 Assessment Group, "Education for All (EFA) the Year 2000 Assessment Country Report," (Phnom Penh: Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, 1999).

The essential points of this assessment also respond to the problems related to improving all aspects needed to attain the EFA goals in all its target areas.
The framework for assessment focuses on:

- The quality, effectiveness, and efficiency of the delivery of all sectors of education in the pursuit of its vision, which includes equitable access to education for all regardless of disability, ethnicity, gender, economic situation, etc.;
- The provision of quality education for all students;
- The gradual improvement of the lives of individuals;
- The learning environment and the needed material and financial resources.

The six EFA Working Groups that correspond to the six areas of EFA are responsible for the evaluation of their respective areas for the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment 2005. The evaluation is based on the goals stated in the National EFA Plan 2003-2015, namely:

- Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children;
- Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality;
- Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programs;
- Achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults;
- Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equity by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality; and
- Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

The evaluation process for the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment has followed the following steps:

- Meet for the preparation of objectives, principles and framework, and strategy to be used in the mid-decade 2005 assessment, including the creation of indicators;
- Establish a baseline for comparative purposes based on the 2000 EFA Assessment Report. The baseline takes in essential points relating to results and outputs up to 2005.
- Identify key data sources and data collection methods such as questionnaires, focus group discussions, existing databases, MoEYS reports on education sector performance, reports of related Ministries, reports coming from donors in the education sector, and the results of quality monitoring;
- Analyze data using over 45 core EFA indicators as the basis for evaluating progress since the EFA 2000 Report, including many newly developed indicators. The results are expressed in terms of rates, ratios, coefficient of efficiency, and simple scores with the frequent use of tabular and graphic displays to present information, particularly highlighting evolutionary change and disparities in each area of education.
- Gather and compile the results of the preliminary evaluation and writing successive drafts of the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment 2005 Report;

- Organize a series of workshops to review the latest draft EFA Mid-Decade Assessment 2005 Report with participants coming from the EFA working groups, key Ministry and Department personnel, representatives from IOs and NGOs, and representatives from other concerned Ministries.
- Refine the EFA MDA document from the workshop and submit to the Secretary General of the National EFA Committee for final review and promulgation prior to dissemination;
- Print and disseminate the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment 2005 document to all relevant stakeholders.

The Education Sector in Cambodia

The National Strategic Development Plan (NSDP) 2006-2010 views the education sector as crucially important to Cambodia's development and one of the "success stories" in the history of socio-economic development in the country. The NSDP 2006-2010 mentions three distinct mechanisms that have contributed to this success.

The three mechanisms noted in the NDSP 2006-2010 are:

A. The Sector-Wide Approach (SWAp). This has provided a framework for negotiation and coordination among stakeholders (donors, Government, civil society).

B. The Education For All (EFA) Plan 2003-2015, which identifies long-term goals and indicators, with special emphasis on "quality" of education.

C. The Education Strategic Plan (ESP) and Education Sector Support Program (ESSP). The ESP defines medium-term educational policy and the ESSP is an annual process that indicates progress made and support provided to reach educational goals and implement policy.

The lessons learned from the experience of development efforts in the education sector during the 1990s were summarized by the Government as follows:[2]

- disappointing sector performance in achieving equitable access, quality improvement and efficiency targets, despite significant aid volumes,
- poor financial performance, including under resourcing of education by Government and inefficient salary/non-salary spending shares,
- unstated policy priorities and processes, including inconsistency between spending patterns and stated policy priorities and targets,
- under developed regulatory mechanisms, especially for ensuring student/teacher attendance and for effective management of parental contributions, weak sector monitoring/evaluation systems.

In the watershed year 2000, a new approach was proposed to frame the relationship between Cambodia and the agencies providing development assistance. The shift was to be from "do-

[2] Ministry of Education Youth and Sport, "Education Strategic Plan 2001-2005," (Phnom Penh: 2001), 4.

norship to partnership." This paradigm shift "drove the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (MoEYS) and its partners toward the SWAp process in the education sector."[3]

The Sector-Wide Approach was introduced through a seminar held by UNICEF/Sida in 2000. The introduction of the approach included all stakeholders and stressed an acknowledgement of Government leadership in setting priorities for the sector.

A. Education For All National Plan 2003-2015

The second key factor leading to the education "success story" mentioned in the National Strategic Development Plan 2006-2010 is the Education For All approach.

A World Conference on education held in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990 issued the EFA Declaration and outlined a concept of basic education objectives that Cambodia accepted, as follows:

> Education designed to meet the basic learning needs of all citizens-comprising literacy, oral expression, numeracy and problem solving, knowledge and skills, values and attitudes-for their development as individuals and participating members in their society.[4]

Shortly after Jomtien, on 2-6 September 1991, a National Education For All Conference was held in Cambodia to announce the recommendations of the Jomtien Conference and to "sensitize and mobilize the nation in order to obtain a firm commitment to the objectives of access and quality of basic education." The Conference resolved to study the education situation in Cambodia and prepare a plan of action to achieve EFA goals.[5]

In 2000, Cambodia committed to implementing the new Millennium Development Goals (MDG). Cambodia also endorsed the Education For All Framework for Action that was adopted in Dakar in 2000. The Dakar guidelines for setting goals and identifying indicators of progress toward targets were incorporated in the Cambodian Government's National Education For All Plan 2003-2015 in June 2003.

The central theme of the EFA National Plan is to provide universal access to nine years of high quality basic education, in line with the Millennium Development Goals, which also includes this goal.

The EFA Framework for Action adopted in 2000 in Dakar, like the MDG, represents a global consensus on long-term targets that exerts a powerful influence on the way donors organize their assistance. The EFA, like the MDG, includes a commitment from donor countries that sign the declaration, to provide the assistance needed by poor countries to reach the agreed objectives.

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[3] Council for the Development of Cambodia (CDC), "Practices and Lessons Learned in the Management of Development Cooperation: Case Studies in Cambodia," para 6.1.
[4] Quoted in National EFA 2000 Assessment Group, "Education for All (EFA) the Year 2000 Assessment Country Report," 1.
[5] Ibid., 8.

> The EFA Framework for Action adopted in Dakar 2000 provides guidelines for setting education goals, targets, strategies and action plans and declares that no countries seriously committed to education for all will be thwarted in their achievement of this goal by a lack of resources.[6]

The Education For All National Plan 2003-2015 is a product of the Royal Government of Cambodia responding to agreements and commitments at a global level. Adopting the EFA framework generates a strong guarantee that global donor support for the achievement of these goals will be forthcoming. The EFA National Plan 2003-2015 is thus akin to the subsequent National Strategic Development Plan 2006-2010, which incorporates the Cambodian Millennium Development Goals, and can rely on global donor support to achieve the MDG targets.

The EFA National Plan is a long-term plan that is reviewed every five years. The present Mid Decade Assessment covering the period 2000-2005 follows an earlier Assessment Report that was published in 2000.

B. The Education Strategic Plan (ESP) and the Education Sector Support Program (ESSP)

One of the early successes of SWAp was the achievement of a strategic plan for the sector. The exchanges among donors in the Education Sector Working Group (ESWG) and among donors, Government and NGOs in the Consultative Meetings led to agreement on an Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2001-2005 and a companion Education Sector Support Program (2001-2005).

The ESP 2001-2005 laid down the broad priorities and strategies for the sector, including the EFA goals. The ESSP 2001-2005 provided a sector-wide management framework and detailed medium-term priority programs, including institutional and capacity building programs. The ESP-ESSP framework, therefore, focuses on the education sector per se and is to be distinguished from the EFA framework, which is inter-sectoral and inter-ministerial in focus. Thus, the two frameworks complement and support each other. The ESP-ESSP process was an experiment in cooperation among Government, donors, and NGOs that turned out very successfully. This process is worth quoting at length, as it shows the commitment of the Ministry to take the lead in working closely with external partners and NGOs in this initial experience of negotiation under the new rubric of "partnership not donorship".

Since 2001 there has been an ESSP Review each year with contributions from the Ministry, donors and NGOs. The annual Ministry Performance Report represents a new and important commitment to quantitative monitoring and evaluation in the education sector. This analysis of trends utilizes data collected every year by the Educational Management and Information Systems (EMIS) Office.

The donor and NGO reports, which form the remainder of the annual ESSP Review provide detailed information on donors, their policies, programs and their financial support, including technical assistance. This is summarized in the Common Policy Implementation Matrix.

[6] Education Sector Working Group, "Cambodia Education Sector Donor Report Presented for the 2003 ESSP Joint Review," (Phnom Penh: 2003), 1.

The annual ESSP review process is understood by donors to be a mechanism for reviewing the sector, establishing priorities and developing programs to support the implementation of reforms from the perspective of the whole sector, rather than through *ad hoc* implementation.

From the Ministry point of view, the annual ESSP review process within the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport has expanded and evolved from a high-level review group at the Center to include all Directorates, Departments and Provincial Education Offices. Each unit now contributes its own progress and performance reports for the year to the larger Ministry-wide ESSP review process.

Subsequent ESP

In September 2004, a revised ESP and ESSP for 2004-2008 were reviewed and endorsed by development partners. The extremely elaborate consensus and confidence building process that had been needed to finalize the first ESP/ESSP.

The ESP 2004-2008 reviews lessons learned in 2001-2004 and seek to extend and consolidate the range of those reforms for 2004-2008. The revised ESP is specifically designed to be consistent with the new "Rectangular Strategy," which is the strategic development platform of the new Government elected in 2003.

The ESP 2004-2008 document is distinguished from earlier planning by its emphasis on the expansion of non-formal education skills training for young people. It also stresses the importance of expanding upper secondary and post secondary education opportunities through a well-regulated partnership between Government, parents, communities, and the private sector.

ESP and EFA

A new Education Strategic Plan 2006-2010 was launched with an indicative ESSP 2006-2010 included in the document. This plan emphasizes that:

> The Ministry intends to continue to give highest priority to equitable access and to high educational quality in basic education services, guided by the National EFA Plan, strategy and targets.[7]

In this latest strategic plan for the sector, a number of important refinements in performance reporting are introduced, such as provincial desegregation on disbursement and spending for all recurrent and capital priority programs. The plan anticipates a gradual shift to broader, program based budgeting (PBB) and management systems.

The plan also introduces important revisions to the performance monitoring framework to include indicators for access to non-formal training, quality and efficiency of re-entry programs, teacher merit and deployment, student learning performance, and institutional development indicators related to accounting and auditing at the local Budget Management Centers (BMC). None of these indicators is yet included in EMIS, but will no doubt be developed presently.

By design, the nature of the medium-term ESP is an evolving sector development program. The rolling nature of the ESP facilitates readjustments based on available resources and priorities. The recent revisions in the ESP demonstrate the flexibility of the process. In contrast, the

[7] Ministry of Education Youth and Sport, "Education Strategic Plan 2006-2010," (Phnom Penh: 2005), 1.

longer-term EFA National Plan provides an enduring set of goals and targets and facilitates a sustained focus on achieving basic and globally agreed objectives.

The character of the EFA National Plan as a Government commitment, rather than a Ministry plan, also has another important consequence. The EFA goals can, and must, mobilize effort across Ministry boundaries in Cambodia. For example, Life Skills Training, an important EFA goal, may include activities of the Department of Non Formal Education in the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport as well as activities related to Technical and Vocational Education, which have recently been relocated from the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport to the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training. Similarly, gender parity goals form a cross-cutting theme that requires cooperation among many Line Ministry participants, such as the Ministry of Women's Affairs.

Although the EFA National Secretariat is based in the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport, the inter-ministerial nature of EFA goals requires cooperation across Ministries to achieve them. This inter-ministerial cooperation is realized in the composition of the six EFA Working Groups, which have collaborated in the production of this EFA Mid Decade Assessment.

The EFA National Plan 2003-2015 is still in its early days. It will remain for future EFA reports and assessments to evaluate the success of the EFA in its progress towards long-term EFA targets and goals, as well as its success in furthering the nearer-term imperatives of the ESP and ESSP. The EFA will assure its success by continuing to work effectively with partners in all concerned Departments of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport and with other relevant Line Ministries and by continuing to identify partners among the donor and NGO communities to cooperate in achieving EFA goals.

Government Expenditure

The proportion of public expenditure on a sector, expressed as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP), is a measure often used to indicate the level of priority that a government assigns to a sector. The ESWG notes that Cambodian Government spending on education as a percentage of GDP has more than doubled from 0.9% in 1997 to 2.1% in 2004. However, the ESWG also notes that this proportion is still low compared to other countries in the region.

Priority Action Programs

Given the relatively limited government resources allocated to education, innovative schemes were piloted to seek solutions that would reduce the cost burdens on the poorest families and thus increase participation of their children in basic education. This innovation was styled a new "shift in education sector strategy" and was "operationalized" through the introduction of the Priority Action Program (PAP) in 2000.

The reform embodied by PAP involved several elements. Registration fees and other informal fees were abolished in primary and lower secondary schools while at the same time operational budgets were introduced to replace the school charges previously imposed on parents.[8]. In addition, schools were to provide remedial classes during the summer for children at risk of repetition or drop out. Schools were to receive

[8] World Bank, "Cambodia: Quality Basic Education for All," 4, 73.

The PAP scheme was designed by the Ministry of Economy and Finance to find a way of channeling budget funds to priority sectors and to by-pass "Chapter 11", which is a feature of the over-centralized budget execution process for school operations and maintenance expenses.

PAP is often acknowledged by Government analysts who note the importance of the decentralized Budget Management Centers (BMC) that were introduced. BMCs were placed in the 24 Provincial Education Offices and in 144 of the 185 District Education Offices. The BMCs were designed to manage their own budgets at the provincial and district levels. As part of this reform, there were dedicated accounts created in the provincial treasury offices for the BMCs. These accounts were intended to overcome the "rigidities and delays" that were apparently associated with a degree of discretion local treasury officials usually exerted over the disbursement of funds. The PAP innovation is described as follows:

> The PAP is the government's innovative budgeting scheme introduced to the education and health sectors in 2000. The PAP was intended to ensure that:
>
> (a) specific activities gain access to their full budget allocation by removing PAP funding from the discretionary cash allotment system;
> (b) introducing budget management centers (BMCs) at provincial and district levels, which manage their own budgets in accordance with pre-approved plans;
> (c) replacing pre-audit of spending actions by post-audit; and
> (d) creating dedicated accounts in provincial treasuries offices which are not subject to treasury discretions about cash release.[9]

The money is transferred from the National Treasury to the dedicated accounts in Provincial Treasuries. Provincial Treasuries then transfer the funds to the provincial Budget Management Center (BMC) of the PAP scheme. The province BMC then sends the funds to the district BMC or directly to the schools. All the PAP transfers from Treasury to BMC to school are in cash.

There are twelve PAP programs outlined in the ESSP. PAP 1 is intended to support "Education Service Efficiency and Performance." It provides teachers with targeted financial incentives, which are in addition to their salary.

PAP 2 is designed to support "Primary Education Quality and Efficiency." This is the largest source of public funding for primary schools. PAP 2.1 provides grants to schools for operational expenditures to replace charges that had previously been imposed on households. (The assumption made was that the fees charged in the past had been used for school maintenance expenses instead of providing supplements to the teacher's pay). PAP 2.2 provides funds for remedial classes during the summer for at risk youth.

In effect, these PAP funds are mainly directed at enhancing school operational expenditures as well as supporting teachers in the form of "overtime" and "performance" incentives.

[9] Council for the Development of Cambodia (CDC), "Practices and Lessons Learned in the Management of Development Cooperation: Case Studies in Cambodia," para 6.2.

Chapter One:

Early Childhood Care and Education

CHAPTER ONE: Early Childhood Care and Education

1.1 BACKGROUND AND GOALS

Measuring Progress toward EFA Goal 1: Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children

Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) is fundamental to lifelong learning and provides the foundation on which an education is based. Before school begins, practices in the home have tremendous impact on future school performance. Inputs such as proper nutrition, full immunization, Vitamin A supplementation, and access to iodized salt have a direct impact on later school performance, as does early learning and stimulation experiences prior to entering grade 1. While traditional indicators for ECCE focused only on formal pre-schools, in the Education for All framework, the Goal is expanded to reflect the importance of non-educational factors in the development and educational success of children.

> **Dakar Framework for Action Extended Text on ECCE:**
> *All young children must be nurtured in safe and caring environments that allow them to become healthy, alert and secure and be able to learn. The past decade has provided more evidence that good quality early childhood care and education, both in families and in more structured programmes, have a positive impact on the survival, growth, development and learning potential of children. Such programmes should be comprehensive, focusing on all of the child's needs and encompassing health, nutrition and hygiene as well as cognitive and psycho-social development. They should be provided in the child's mother tongue and help to identify and enrich the care and education of children with special needs. Partnerships between governments, NGOs, communities and families can help ensure the provision of good care and education for children, especially for those most disadvantaged, through activities centered on the child, focused on the family, based within the community and supported by national, multi-sectoral policies and adequate resources.*
>
> *Governments, through relevant ministries, have the primary responsibility of formulating early childhood care and education policies within the context of national EFA plans, mobilizing political and popular support, and promoting flexible, adaptable programmes for young children that are appropriate to their age and not mere downward extensions of formal school systems. The education of parents and other caregivers in better child care, building on traditional practices, and the systematic use of early childhood indicators, are important elements in achieving this goal.*

Early Childhood Care and Education is an important part of a child's mental, physical, and social development. In addition, children with experience in ECCE, especially those from marginalized and disadvantaged groups, are more likely to enroll in primary school and are less likely to drop-out or repeat grades. Moreover, ECCE experience eases the transition from home into primary school. For vulnerable or minority groups, ECCE provides an opportunity for education in the mother tongue or for addressing children with special needs.

Thus, ECCE improves the efficiency of primary school education and reduces wastage from grade repetition and dropout. In addition, ECCE programs reduce the number of under-age children in Grade 1, reducing the size of Grade 1 classes and improving the net enrolment rate (NER) in the primary level.

A holistic approach to ECCE integrates education, health, and nutrition in order to ensure psycho-social and physical development of young children. Generally, early childhood includes the pre-natal period to the early years of primary schooling; however, all countries define the ECCE age group differently. ECCE programs may be provided through the formal school system by the government, non-formally through NGOs and communities, or informally by families.

Currently, there are several kinds of pre-schools in Cambodia. However, they are relatively few in number so it is impossible for them to cover the needs of all the children of Cambodia, in terms of quantity and quality, especially of those in the rural and remote areas.

To respond to the commitment to "Education for All" and the National Education Goals, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport has cooperated with other line ministries and NGOs to expand services through private and community-based pre-schools and to develop pre-school curricula and pre-school manuals to serve the present pre-school model.

In the near future, the MoEYS will expand services to include home-based programs, through orientation of parents/care givers on early childhood development in order to reach all children, including those of the disadvantaged and marginalized populations.

1.2 MAIN PROGRAMS IMPLEMENTED IN 2000-2006

The various ECCE Programs operating in Cambodia are summarized in Table 1.1 below:

Table 1.1: Main Programs Implemented in ECCE 2000-2006

Program Name	Partner	Implementation Details
State Pre-Schools	UNICEF/Sida	• Capacity building support and the provision of materials in Kompong Speu, Kompong Thom, Svay Rieng, Stung Treng and Oddor Meanchey
	SCN	• Capacity building support and the provision of materials in Phnom Penh, Kompong Cham, Siem Reap, Kompong Chhnang, Pursat, and Preah Vihear
	-Enfant & Development -Krousa Youeng	• Capacity building support, the provision of materials, and assistance for infrastructure in Phnom Penh Kandal, Takeo, Kompong Speu, and Komopong Cham
	CYK	• Capacity building support, the provision of materials (e.g., toys), and assistance for infrastructure in Phnom Penh, Kandal, Kompong Chhnang, and Battambang
	Child Training	• Capacity building support, the provision of materials (such as clothes, textbooks, etc), breakfast, and assistance for infrastructure in Phnom Penh, Kandal, Kompong Speu, and Pursat

Program Name	Partner	Implementation Details
	Cambokids	• Capacity building support in Educational Psychology for children, teaching aid production, the provision of materials (such as story books), and assistance for infrastructure in Phnom Penh, and Baatambang
Community based Pre - School	UNICEF/Sida MoEYS MoWA MOI	• Provision of teaching materials and center buildings (6 provinces in children's rights programs) • Capacity-building support • Support for women's affairs, children, and community. • Support for commune councils and associated funding.
	-Enfant & Development -Krousa Youeng, -Plan International	• Capacity building support, the provision of materials, community mobilization, and other funding support in Phnom Penh Kandal, Takeo, Seam Reap, and Kompong Speu
	CYK	• Technique, materials, toys, fund, building, and community are done in (Phnom Penh, Kandal, and Battambang)
	UNESCO, SIPAR, CARE, SCADP, CYCD, PKO, KYCC, HAKA, DPA, AOG, OEB, CFC, SIELA, child training, KATOLIC, STEP, WORLD VISION WORLD CONCERN YWAM, CDL, COCO-NUT, OUR COUNTRY, SUNRISE, NEW HUMANITY, METODY, KHEMARA.	• Capacity building support, the provision of materials, and assistance for infrastructure (NGOs/various communities have implemented and supported Community-based Preschools in 1-2 provinces nationwide)
Home-based ECCD	SCN UNICEF/Sida PAP 2B	• Capacity building support, management, and monitoring of home-based ECCD, in cooperation with Provincial Offices of Education of Phnom Penh, Kompong Cham, Siem Reap, Siem Reap, Kompong Chhnang, Pursat, and Preah Vihear • Capacity building support in selected districts of Prey Veng, Svay Rieng, Kompog Thom, Kompong Speu, Stung Treng and Odor Meanchey. Specialized areas of support included mother's work, technical management, and central level inspection. • Teacher Training and province-level support for mother working groups in RatanaKiri, Modul Kiri, Pailin, Stung Treng and Preah Vihear (2003) • Subsequent expansion of teacher training and mother working groups to Kandal, Takeo, Kompot, Kratie, Oddor Meanchey, Koh Kong, Kep and Sihanouk Ville (2004). For 13 other provinces, scattered implementation in selected communes.
Private pre-school	-Khmer School -Chinese Schools -Khmer-English Schools -Khmer-Vietnamese Schools	• Capacity Building support and Teaching materials (little or no cooperation with MoEYS, except in Sihanouk Ville) • 7 out of 24 provinces have no information on cooperation or communication with PoE, including Kandal, Pailin, Svay Rieng, Seam Reap, Kampong Speu, Kratie, and Oddor Meanchey.

1.3 POLICIES AND REGULATIONS ISSUED FOR THE SECTOR IN 2000-2006

Major events and developments relating to policy and regulations in the ECCE sector include the following:

- The Department of Early Childhood Education was established in 2003, separated out from the Department of Primary Education
- Policy on early childhood education for children aged 3-5 was issued in 2000
- Policy on early childhood education for children aged 0-5 was drafted
- Structure, roles and responsibilities of provincial ECE office are in preparation

1.4 DEPARTMENTS AND MINISTRIES INVOLVED WITH WORKING GROUP 1 (EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND EDUCATION)

Relevant partners within Government that are cooperating with Working Group 1 (ECCE) include the following:

- The Departments of Primary Education, Teacher Training, Non-Formal Education, Pedagogical Research, Planning, and School Health of MoEYS (responsible for technical inputs and document preparation)
- The Ministry of Women's Affairs (responsible for preparing and managing community pre-school and home-based programs)
- The Ministry of Interior (responsible for commune council budget for community pre-schools)
- The Ministry of Health (responsible for health education and health-related support)

1.5 MAJOR MONITORING & EVALUATION ACTIVITIES CONDUCTED IN 2000-2006

Regular monitoring was conducted at all levels including:

- Central department officials conducted monitoring twice a year for the six UNICEF-supported provinces and once a year for the remaining 18 provinces using PAP 2B funds
- PoEs conducted monitoring twice a year for each district
- DoEs conducted monitoring once a year for each commune
- School principals and technical teams conducted monitoring every month.

1.6 SUCCESSES & REMAINING CHALLENGES IN IMPLEMENTATION OF EFA GOAL

The ECCE Working Group reported the following successes, challenges, and lessons learned during the reporting period:

Major successes and achievements

- Quality standards for the care and development of children aged 3-5 years old were developed
- An appropriate Curriculum for community pre-schools was developed
- Community pre-school teachers were trained
- Materials on thematic teaching methodology for children aged 5 years old were developed

- Technical and managerial capacity was upgraded among education officials, national and provincial trainers, and school directors
- The Curriculum for the national pre-school teacher training center was reviewed
- Quality standards for children aged 5 years old in the School Readiness Program were developed
- Eight-week School Readiness Program for children not attending pre-school was established
- ECCE services were expanded every year through increases in the number of classrooms, centers, teachers, and community volunteers for public pre-schools, community pre-schools, and home-based programs.
- Strong support was generated from leaders and stakeholders at all levels, including MoEYS leaders, local authorities, monks, parents, teachers, community leaders, international organizations, and NGOs.
- The School Readiness Program was found to be effective in reducing repetition and drop out rates and increasing promotion rates and school attendance.

Challenges remaining to be overcome

- More systematic data collection and statistics management are required, especially for community pre-schools, home-based programs, and private pre-schools
- No criteria have yet been established for disabled children
- The curriculum for children aged 5 needs to be finalized
- Coverage of home-based programs is still limited
- Monitoring and evaluation of teaching practice in ECCE environments often does not reach remote areas
- There is insufficient monitoring of private pre-schools
- ECCE coverage is still low among disadvantaged populations such as the poor, ethnic minorities, and disabled children, especially in remote areas
- There are not enough pre-school teachers at local level, especially in remote and disadvantaged areas.

Lessons learned

- *Public pre-schools:* Most pre-schools are far from home except in urban areas with shortages of materials and budgetary support. The MoEYS will provide increased budgetary support for pre-schools at higher grade levels in 2006.
- *Community pre-schools:* These tend to be close to children's homes. Children know teachers well. Communities appear to participate in classroom monitoring including child safety, and general prevention. Major constraints continue to adhere to teachers' capacity as well as the sustainability of classes.
- *Home-based education:* This is a very low cost program that involves parents in educating children by themselves. It requires educating the whole community to support child rights. Constraints include the fact that some parents are illiterate and/or too busy with their daily lives and cannot participate in the activities regularly.

1.7 ECCE SECTOR ANALYSIS

1.7.1 National GER & Enrolment Patterns in Early Childhood Care and Education

The importance of ECCE is that it provides organized learning experiences before entry to primary school. The cognitive abilities acquired in such pre-school experiences will later affect the

student's progress in school. Moreover, participation in ECCE programs helps shape attitudes towards learning and develops social skills that will also be important in affecting the student's learning experience in school.

The EFA goal to expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education is especially important for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children in the country. These are children most likely to enroll late, repeat grades, drop out early, and generally, remain relatively less reached by the progress of the education system in providing universal basic education to all Cambodian children.

Enrollment figures for pre-schools associated with the Ministry of Education Youth and Sport, which are usually attached to a primary school, are available in EMIS. As noted above, there are, in addition, pre-schools established by communities and private providers. There are also new, home-based, pre-schools beginning operation.

Success Story: Improving Promotion Rates through the School Readiness Program

In response to a rising rate of grade repetition at Grade 1, educators in Cambodia have recently been exploring new strategies to address poor learning at the critical juncture of school entry. One such proposed strategy has been the establishment of an 8-week *school readiness course* for Grade 1 children that builds foundational skills in academic subjects; promotes child friendly classroom environments; and strengthens learner confidence. The School Readiness Program (SRP) was designed by an interdepartmental grouping of Cambodian educators within MoEYS, with technical and material support from UNICEF, KAPE, and Save the Children/ Norway, and implemented at the beginning of the 2004/5 academic year. By introducing a readiness course in the first two months of a child's formal education, the Ministry hoped to compensate for the limited reach of formal pre-schooling and generally poor, early childhood development experiences that many Cambodian children experience. The School Readiness Program was piloted in school clusters in 2004 and has since expanded rapidly. Approximately 544 teachers participated in the pilot phase in Kampong Thom, Prey Veng, and Kampong Cham Provinces. An external evaluation of the program conducted by Kampuchean Action for Primary Education found that children in SRP classes outperformed those in a control group of similar composition. Across all subject areas, the study found that impacts on learning were moderate to major, particularly in the core subjects of Mathematics and Language, where children experience the most difficulty.

The total enrollment of children, of any age, in all forms of pre-school experience is expressed as a percentage of the total population of the age group 3-5 years in an academic year. This calculation provides the Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) for the year. According to EMIS statistics, there were 119,893 children (60,541 girls or 50.4% of the total) receiving ECCE support in 2005, which represented a GER of 11.97 (See Table 1.2). Among children receiving ECCE support, there appears to be a near even split between boys and girls. However, in spite of efforts to increase alternative forms of ECCE support such as through community and home-based preschools, enrolment continues to be clustered in state preschools. EMIS reported there to be 75,669 children enrolled in state preschools in 2005, which comprised 63% of total enrolment in the sector.

Table 1.2: ECCE Enrolment at National Level, 2000-2005

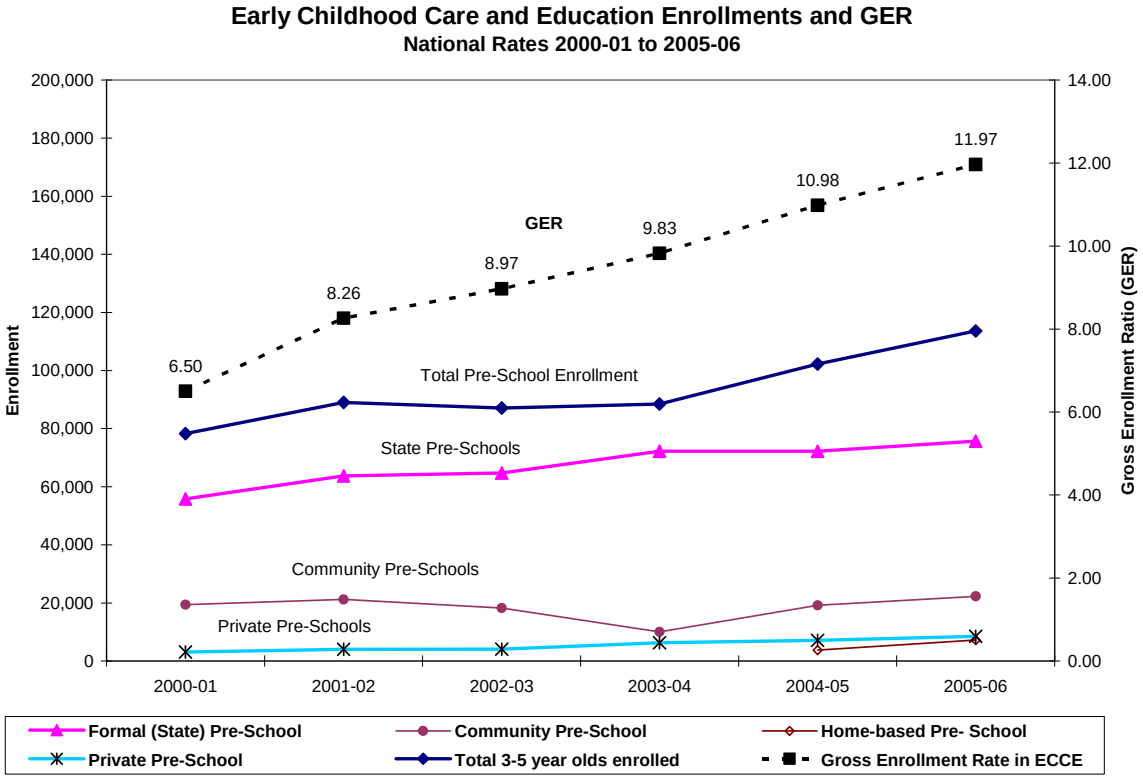
School Year	State Pre-School		Community Pre-School		Home-based Pre- School		Private Pre-School		Total enrollment		GER in ECCE
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	
2000-1	55,798	27,664	19,388	11,050	96	35	3,106	1,656	78,368	40,405	6.50
2001-2	63,747	31,640	21,204	10,858	211	101	4,067	1,978	89,229	44,577	8.26

2002-3	64,727	31,985	18,244	8,818	517	267	4,093	2,471	8,530	43,541	8.97
2003-4	72,224	35,929	10,007	10,061	1,969	985	6,239	1,987	88,470	48,962	9.83
2004-5	72,214	36,151	19,172	9,970	5,554	2,669	7,109	3,449	104,049	52,239	10.98
2005-6	75,669	37,787	22,265	11,801	13,447	6,770	8,512	4,183	119,893	60,541	11.97

Sources: EMIS office, Planning Department, MoEYS. Early childhood Education Department, MoEYS

The GER is a measure of the general level of participation of young children in Early Childhood Care and Education Programs. Although it has been increasing rapidly in the last several years, the GER for ECCE is currently still very low, indicating that only an extremely small portion of the age group that would benefit from the pre-school experience actually has access to a pre-school. The GER is rising steadily, however, indicating an increasing awareness among parents of the importance of the pre-school experience for their children. In this respect, it can be seen that GER for ECCE has risen from 6.5% in 2000 to nearly 12% in 2005, an increase of nearly 100% during the first five years of the decade (see Table 1.2/Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: Change in ECCE Enrolments and GER, 2000-01 to 2005-06



It is interesting to note that enrollments in state pre-schools comprised about 71% of the total ECCE enrolment in 2000. By 2005, however, this proportion had dropped to 63%, indicating that enrolment in non-state pre-schools has been increasing rapidly. In part, this can be explained by the observation that the base figure for enrolment in state pre-schools is very large while in non-state preschools it is very small. With a smaller base figure, it is comparatively easier to achieve apparently large increases in enrolment. Nevertheless, the fact that enrolment in non-state pre-schools is increasing quickly suggests that there has been great progress in pushing forward a key MoEYS initiative. It remains to be seen, however, whether quality is keeping up with quantitative expansion and this should be a focus in future efforts to improve ECCE provision. The data for state pre-schools are disaggregated by area and province, and can indicate some of

the significant disparities that exist. It will be important for the ECCE Department and EMIS to collect detailed data on alternative forms of pre-school education, to track GER adequately in future years.

Data analyses for the mid-decade assessment of EFA in the ECCE sector has also considered patterns of enrolment in urban, rural, and remote areas. The data cited through out this EFA MDA follows the definitions provided by EMIS of Urban, Rural, and Remote [10] Considering just the state pre-schools, the following table shows the remarkable finding that enrollments are consistently higher in the rural areas than in urban or remote areas (see Table 1.3). Of course, this should not be too surprising since the majority of Cambodia's population resides in rural areas. Thus, enrolment in rural state preschools comprised 74% of enrolment in 2005, which more or less reflects the large proportion of population living in rural areas. The enrollment of male and female in pre-schools is very close to equal and the GPI for enrolment has remained constant at about 0.99 during most of the the assessment period before increasing to 1.0 in 2005 (a GPI index of 1.0 indicates complete parity between the sexes).[11]

Table 1.3: Gender Parity and ECCE Enrolment by Demographic Area, 1999-00 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia		Urban		Rural		Remote		Female	Male	GPI
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female			
1999-2000	50,597	25,200	12,547	6,159	37,733	18,868	317	170	25,200	25,397	0.99
2000-2001	55,798	27,664	12,865	6,377	42,339	20,991	594	296	27,664	28,134	0.98
2001-2002	63,747	31,640	15,814	7,754	47,111	23,464	822	422	31,640	32,107	0.99
2002-2003	64,727	31,985	15,859	7,595	48,061	23,997	807	392	31,985	32,742	0.98
2003-2004	72,224	35,929	17,916	8,810	53,359	26,627	949	492	35,929	36,295	0.99
2004-2005	72,214	36,151	17,916	9,038	53,359	26,623	949	490	35,929	36,295	0.99
2005-2006	75,669	37,787	18,665	9,145	55,820	28,019	1,184	623	37,787	37,882	1.00

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2005-06

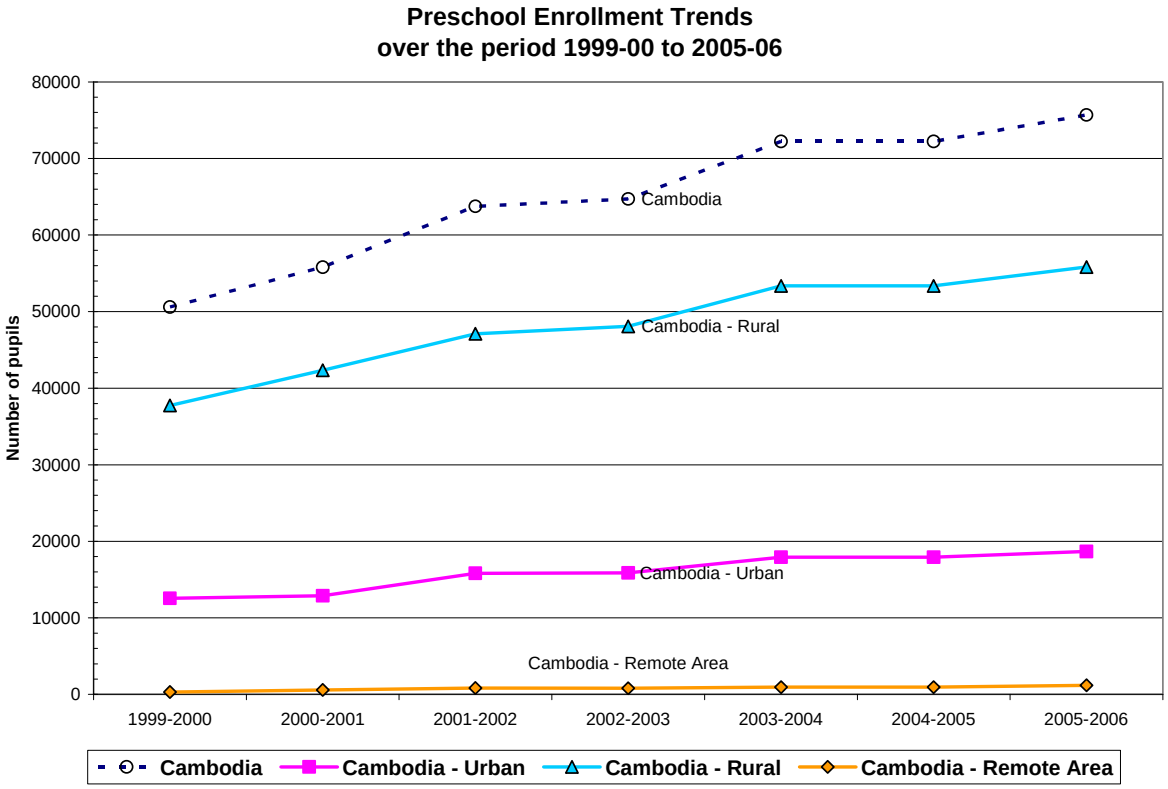
Trend data for enrolment in state pre-schools indicates that enrolment has been increasing very rapidly in rural areas, which is a considerable achievement considering the fact that base figure for enrolment in such areas is already large (see Figure 1.2). In this respect, it has been reported that enrolment in state pre-schools has increased by a margin of 48% during the period 1999 to 2005. This compares with a rate of increase of 49% in urban areas and 274% in remote areas. While rate increases sound more impressive in these other areas, it is really much more significant in rural preschools since we are dealing with much larger base enrolment figures. Thus, enrolment impacts in rural areas have been greater in numerical terms. For example, enrolments increased by 18,087 children in rural areas in comparison to 6,118 children in towns and cities and only 867 in remote areas during the reporting period. These numbers give a very different interpretation to the rate figures cited earlier.

[10] "**Urban, Rural, Remote Area**: Which school is in the urban, rural or remote area is determined by the respective District Education Office (DEO) and/or Provincial Education Service (PES). Usually however, schools located in large towns or cities are classified as urban schools whereas, those located in isolated areas where communication with and transportation to the schools are difficult are grouped as remote. The rest are rural schools. In this booklet, the urban area comprises the 4 Municipalities of Phnom Penh, Kep, Sihanoukville and Pailin and all Provincial Towns. Where population density of an area is less than 10 (i.e., <10 persons /km^2), the area is termed remote. The rest falls under rural area." EMIS (2006) p.iv.

[11] In this EFA MDA, the **Gender Parity Index** is obtained by dividing the rate for the indicator for females by the rate for the indicator for males. A GPI value equal to 1 shows equality for males and females for that indicator. A GPI value less than 1 indicates difference in favor of males. A GPI value of greater than 1 indicates a difference in favor of females. There is considered no gender disparity if the GPI ranges between 0.97 and 1.03.

In addition, it can be seen in Figure 1.2 that enrolment trends in state pre-schools in the country as a whole very much follow the same contours as those found in rural pre-schools. This suggests that changes in these areas are driving national patterns, which are clearly increasing quickly.

Figure 1.2: Trend Changes in ECCE Enrolment by Demographic Area, 1999-00 to 2005-06

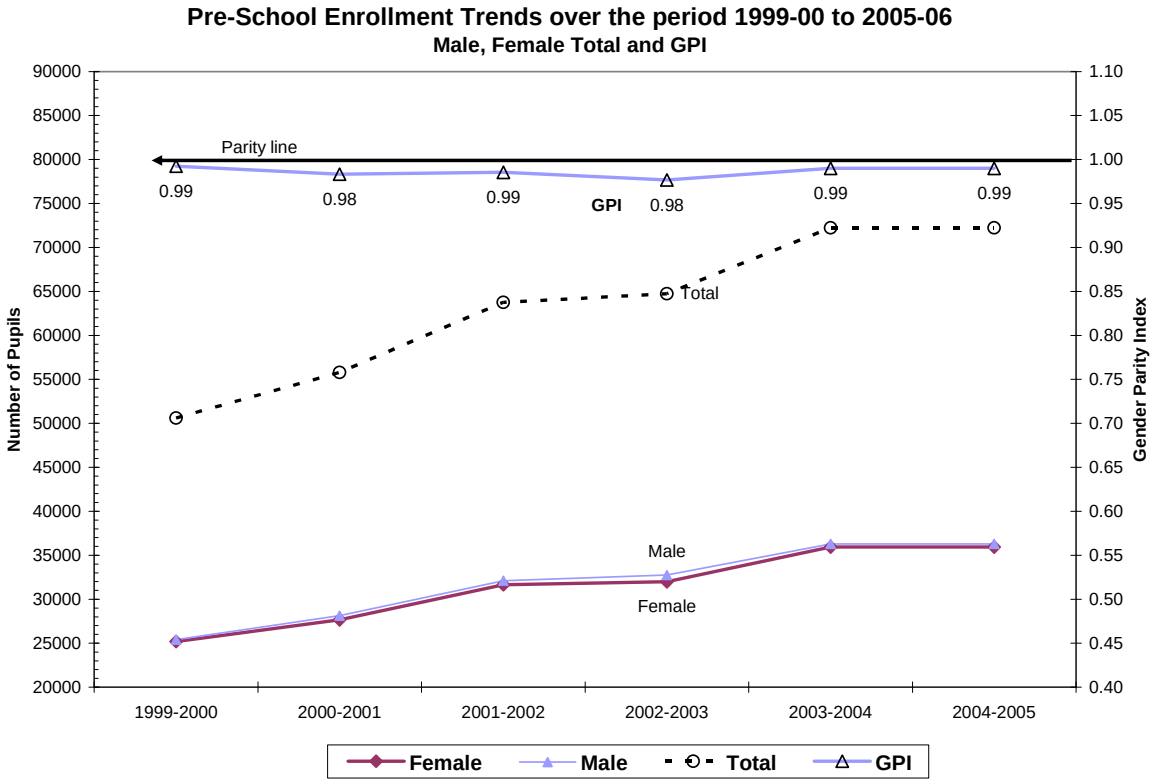


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2005-06

Analyses of gender parity for enrolment for the state pre-school system demonstrate very high levels of parity that have been relatively constant over the reporting period. As noted earlier, the Gender Parity Index is currently 1.0 (indicating total parity), having increased from 0.99 at the beginning of the decade. This finding is doubly significant because it indicates that historical patterns of parity have remained constant over the period 1999 to 2005 in spite of a rapid expansion in enrolment.

Frequently, when a system is in flux as the ECCE sector has been over the first part of the decade, there is the heightened possibility for disequilibrium to develop, particularly when it comes to the matter of male and female representation in enrolment. The trend data shown in Figure 1.3, however, demonstrates that this has not been the case for gender parity patterns in state preschool enrolment. In this respect, it can be seen that the number of boys and girls have remained in near lock step during the reporting period and that parity values have shadowed the parity line shown in Figure 1.3 very closely.

Figure 1.3: Gender Parity Trends in Preschool Enrolment, 1999-00 to 2004-05



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2004-05

1.7.2 Provincial Level Analyses of ECCE Enrolment

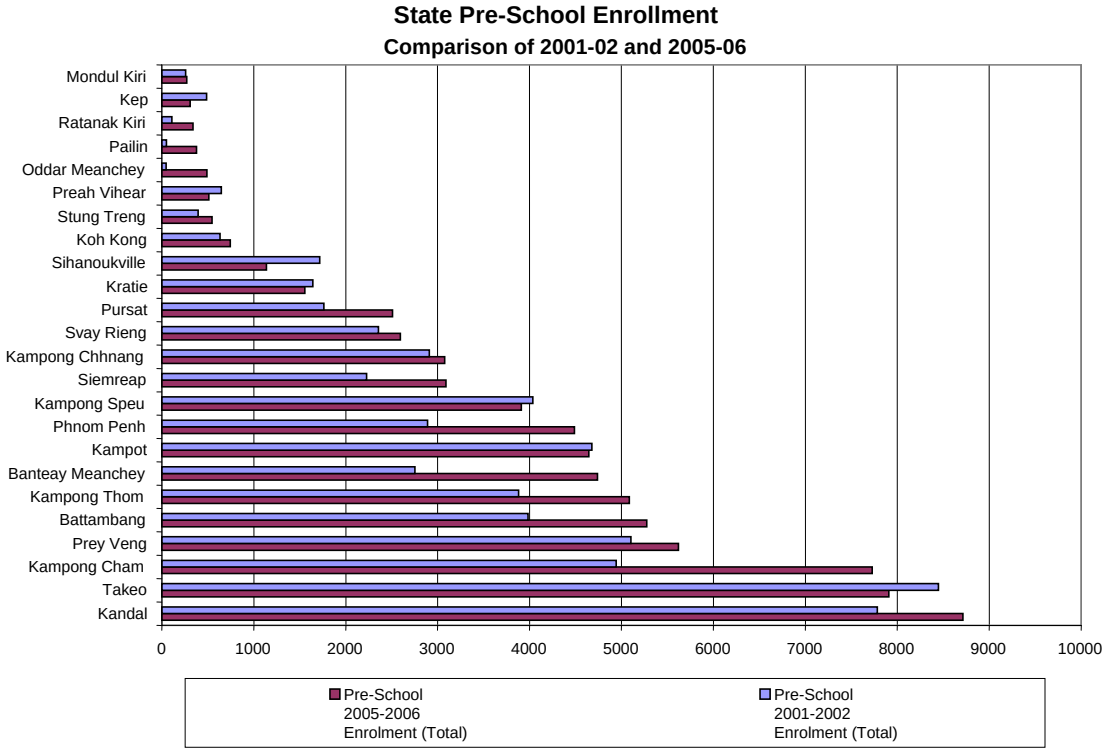
A longitudinal view of provincial level data is only possible for State Pre-Schools. The distribution of enrollments in these pre-schools shows contradictory trends. In this respect, 16 provinces/municipalities demonstrated increased enrolment in state preschools during the period 2001 to 2005 while 8, or a third of the total, showed declines (see Figure 1.4). In the provinces where there has been a significant decline in enrollments over the period, i.e., in the environs of the towns of Takeo, Kampot, Sihanoukville, and Kep, for instance, the declines may be due to a user shift to other pre-school providers (trends for which we do not have complete data sets). These declines might also reflect the fact that demographic analyses of the national population show that there is a dip in the number of children being born early in the decade that these trends will begin to impact the state schools in 2004, when enrolments will start to drop. These demographic trends are expected to continue until 2009.

The major finding of this disaggregation of data by province is to highlight the disparity among provinces, which follows population density fairly closely. For example, the high population areas of Kandal, Takeo, Kampong Cham, Prey Veng and Battambang have enrollments that are up to ten times the enrollments of the sparsely populated provinces in the northeast and north.

From the point of view of improving equity of access to ECCE for the remote areas, where minorities live, and in order to begin to overcome the tendency for overage enrollments in primary school, which are especially prevalent in the poorer and more remote areas, it is very important to strengthen Early Childhood Care and Education Programs with increased resources and

support. Increasing enrolment equity for ECCE in rural and remote areas, which are mostly inhabited by ethnic groups and poor children, will have very positive effects for enrolment trends at primary school level.

Figure 1.4: Enrolment in State Preschools by Province, 2001-02 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2001-02 & 2005-06

1.7.3 Percentage of Under-Fives Suffering from Malnourishment

There are three key indicators for malnourishment of children under five, **Stunting, Wasting, and Underweight**. These indicators are referenced to an international standard population, and are expressed in standard deviation units from the mean of the reference population.

Stunting is a measure of height for age. Children short for their age with moderate stunting or severe stunting are chronically malnourished. Stunting reflects failure to receive adequate nutrition over a long period of time. It is also affected by chronic and recurrent illness. Stunting reflects the long-term effects of malnutrition and does not vary according to recent dietary intake.

When a large proportion of children is stunted, the causes are primarily environmental, suggesting one or more of the following: (a) poor maternal health and nutrition, (b) poor access to quality food, (c) poor quality care, (d) unclean environment, or (e) poor health. Stunted children are more likely to die or become ill and are less responsive to opportunities for play and learning. Stunting is associated with poor mental development in both pre-school and school-aged children.

Wasting is a measure of body mass in relation to length and describes current nutritional status. Children who are thin with moderate or severe wasting have failed to receive adequate

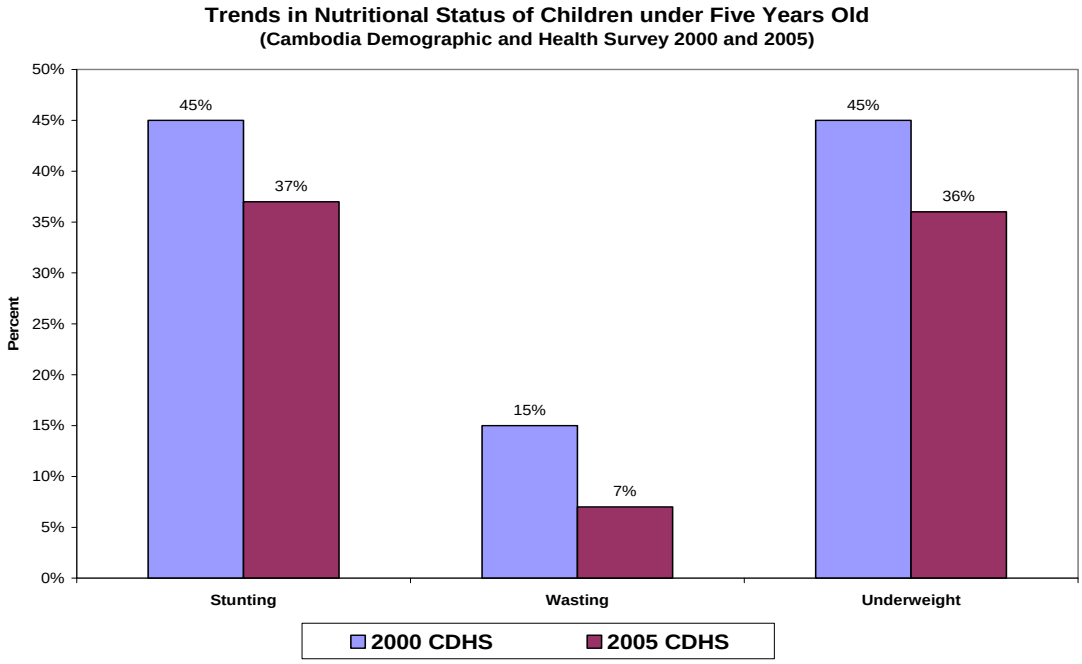
food intake or experienced a recent episode of severe illness before the measurement was taken. This loss of weight indicates the onset of malnutrition.

Being **underweight** is a composite index of stunting with wasting. It takes into consideration both acute and chronic malnutrition.

The Cambodian national average for moderate Stunting is 37.3% of all children under five; for moderate Wasting, it is 0.8% and for moderate Underweight, it is 35.6%. Over one-third of Cambodian children under five are classified as malnourished by the measures of Stunting and Underweight. The picture of malnourishment by wealth quintile is even more dramatic. According to national data, nearly half of the children in the poorest quintile (i.e., the poorest 20% of the population) are stunted. This compares with a proportion of nearly one-fifth of the children in the richest quintile who are also stunted. Increasing wealth and the educational level of the mother are both associated with decreased levels of stunting.

Malnourishment among Cambodian children under 5 has been declining since the beginning of the decade, although the rates for the three indices of malnourishment still remain relatively high. In this respect, the percentage of stunted children fell by 8% during the period 2000 to 2005 (from 45% to 37%) (see Figure 1.5). Similarly, the proportion of children suffering from wasting also fell by 8% (from 15% to 7%) while the proportion of underweight children fell by 9% (from 45% to 36%). The relatively high levels of malnutrition are clearly associated with the poverty levels in Cambodia and with the high levels of inequality in consumption. The data presented in the charts below suggest that a supplementary feeding program linked to increased access to pre-schools would help alleviate the most debilitating effects of inadequate nutrition for these children.

Figure 1.5: Change in Different Categories of Malnourishment for Children Under 5, 2000 & 2005



Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005

National Level Data on Malnourishment:

A review of national level data on malnourishment indicates that stunting and being underweight are by far the most common nutritional problems among children under 5 years old. Rates of moderate occurrence are both in the double digits for these measures while the general pattern of incidence for wasting is in the single digits (except for children aged 12-23 months) (see Table 1.4).

Table 1.4: Malnourishment among Children 5 Years and Under on Three Measures (Stunting, Wasting, and Underweight), 2005

	Height for Age=**Stunting**		Weight-for-Height=**Wasting**		Weight-for-Age=**Underweight**	
Age (months)	% Severe	% Moderate	% Severe	% Moderate	% Severe	% Moderate
<6	0.2	5.6	0.6	3.6	1.2	4.7
6-8	0.9	9.3	0.9	4.9	1.7	9.6
9-11	5.1	20.4	2.1	8.9	11	34.7
12-17	11.3	34.4	0.9	11.6	5.7	36.4
18-23	15.3	49.3	1.1	12.2	6.6	45.3
24-35	13.3	39.1	0.5	6.9	7.9	40.2
36-47	17.3	43.6	0.5	6.5	9.6	41.5
48-59	17.7	47.7	0.7	5.1	6.6	38.4

Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005

While it is not surprising that poverty should be closely associated with malnourishment, the apparent gap between the poorest and richest quintile of Cambodian society is still startling. According to national level data in Table 1.5, severe stunting is more apparent among the poorest children by a margin of more than three times in comparison to the richest quintile of the population while being severely underweight is more common by a margin of nearly 4. Strangely, there is not much difference in children by quintile of origin in terms of wasting.

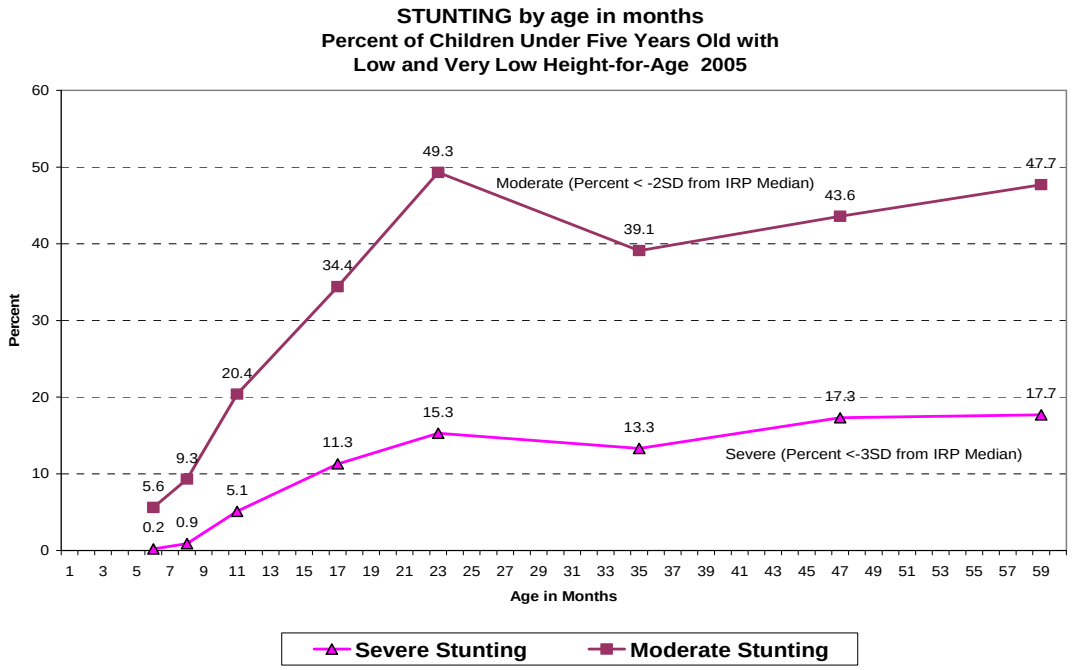
Table 1.5: Children Under 5 Classified as Malnourished, By Poverty Quintile, 2005

	Height for Age=**Stunting**		Weight-for-Height=**Wasting**		Weight-for-Age=**Underweight**	
	% Severe	% Moderate	% Severe	% Moderate	% Severe	% Moderate
National Average	**12.9**	**37.3**	**0.8**	**7.3**	**6.9**	**35.6**
Poorest Quintile	19.4	46.7	0.9	8.3	10.4	42.9
2nd	15.0	42.5	0.8	9.2	9.0	39.8
3rd	11.6	36.5	0.3	5.5	5.0	33.5
4th	9.7	35.5	1.1	6.0	5.5	34.3
Richest Quintile	5.6	19.4	0.7	6.7	2.8	23.1

Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005

Stunting: Moderate stunting is apparent even among children 6 months old (6%), and the rate of stunting increases with age, reaching 49% for children 18-23 months of age. National level data indicates that there is little difference in stunting by gender (see Figure 1.6).

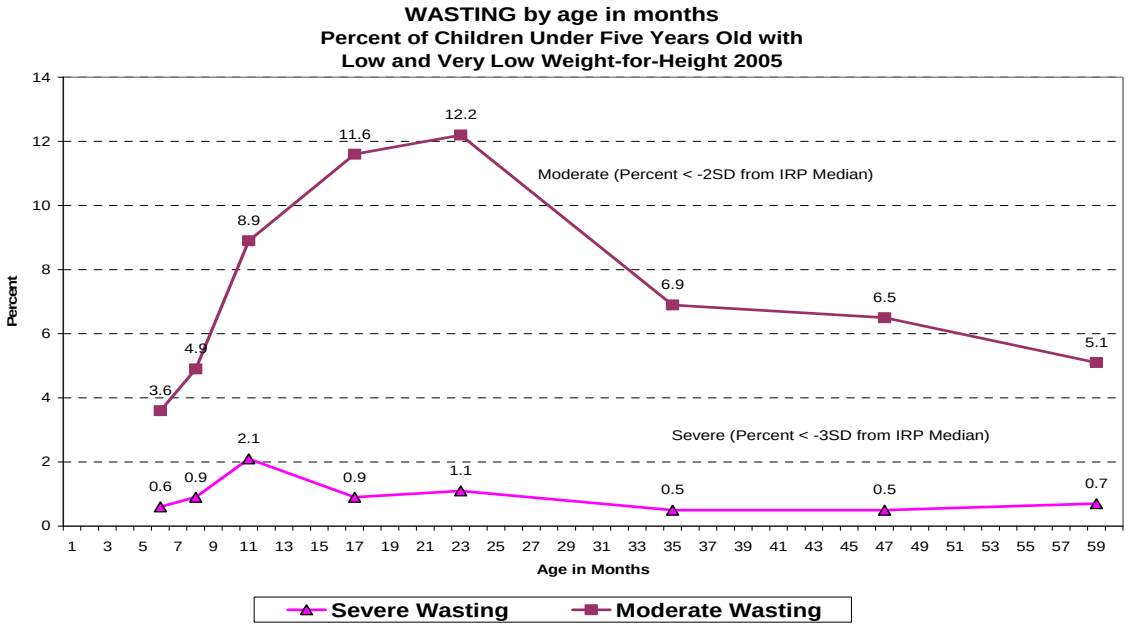
Figure 1.6: Trends in Moderate and Severe Stunting by Age, 2005



Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005

Wasting: Wasting at rates higher than the national average (7.3%) is prevalent among children from age 9 to 23 months. Wasting (both severe and moderate) appears to taper off significantly as children get older. Moderate wasting peaks at 23 months while severe wasting peaks at 11 months (see Figure 1.7)

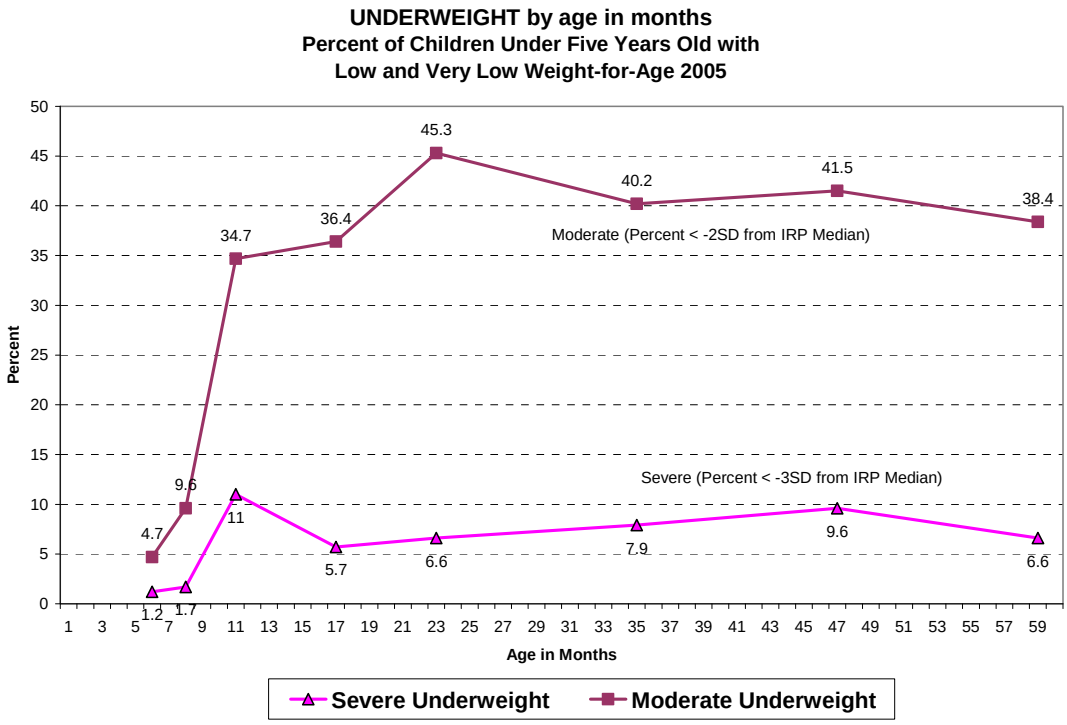
Figure 1.7: Trends in Moderate and Severe Wasting by Age, 2005



Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005

Underweight: There is a sharp increase in the incidence of underweight children from 5% among children aged under 6 months to 10% among children 6-8 months (see Figure 1.8). The problem of being underweight seems to peak at 18-23 months, where it reaches 45% of children in this age group. This pattern in underweightedness is probably due to inappropriate or inadequate feeding practices after complementary feeding begins.

Figure 1.8: Trends in Moderate and Severe Underweight by Age, 2005



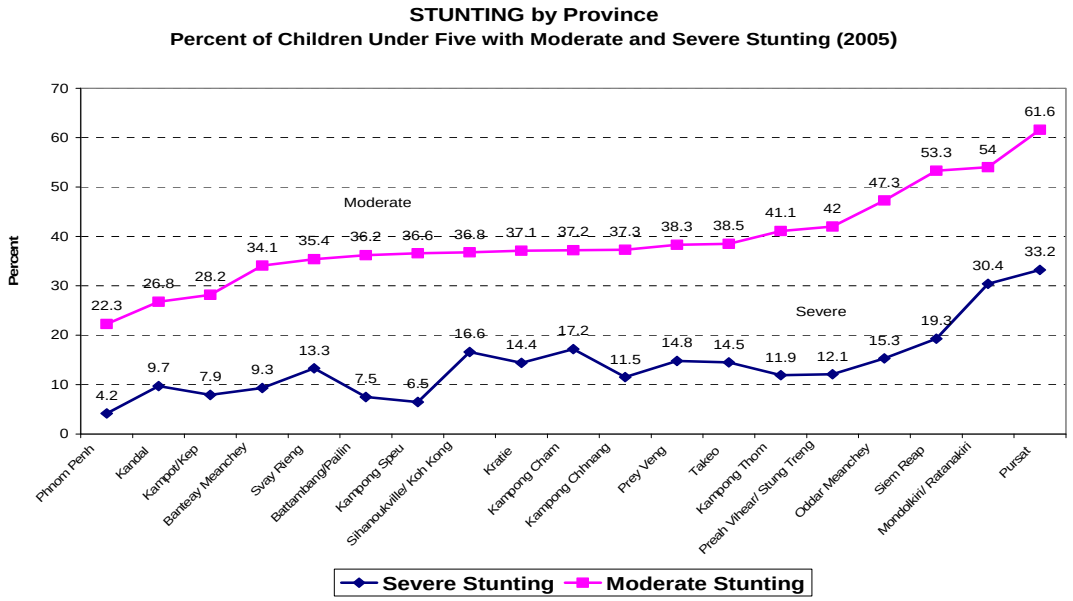
Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005

Provincial Level Data on Malnourishment

The disparities of wealth found at national level are in general also reflected in the disparities of malnourishment indices at provincial level. However, there are some unexpected findings for some provinces.

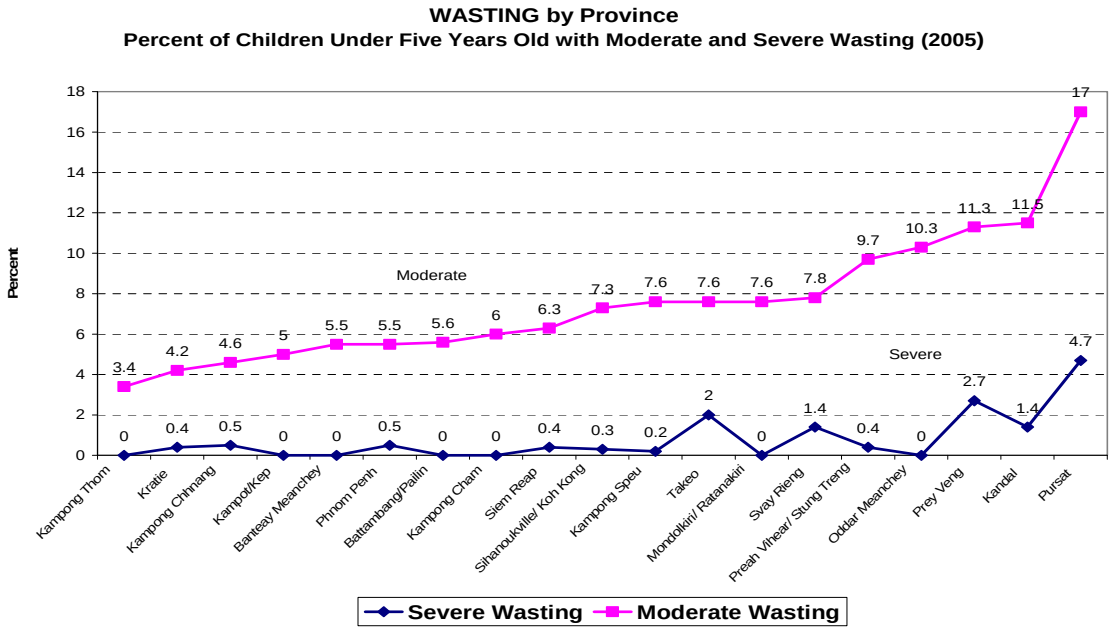
Stunting: Pursat has the highest rate of stunting (61.6%) and wasting (17%) of any province and the second highest rate of being underweight (48.6%) for children under five in the country (see Figures 1.9 and 1.10). The need for medical and nutritional interventions for the young children in this province, who are apparently chronically malnourished at very high rates, is strongly indicated. The populous provinces near the capital (Kandal, Kampot, Kep) including Phnom Penh itself have the lowest rates of stunting. Stunting there is well below the national average for both moderate (37.3%) and severe stunting (12.9%). Conversely, the provinces in the North and Northeast have markedly higher rates of stunting than the national average. This includes Preah Vihear, Stung Treng, Oddar Meanchey, Siem Reap, Mondolkiri, Ratanakiri, and Pursat Provinces. It is noticeable that the trends for moderate malnourishment and for severe malnourishment follow one another quite closely.

Figure 1.9: Levels of Moderate and Severe Stunting among Children under 5 by Province, 2005



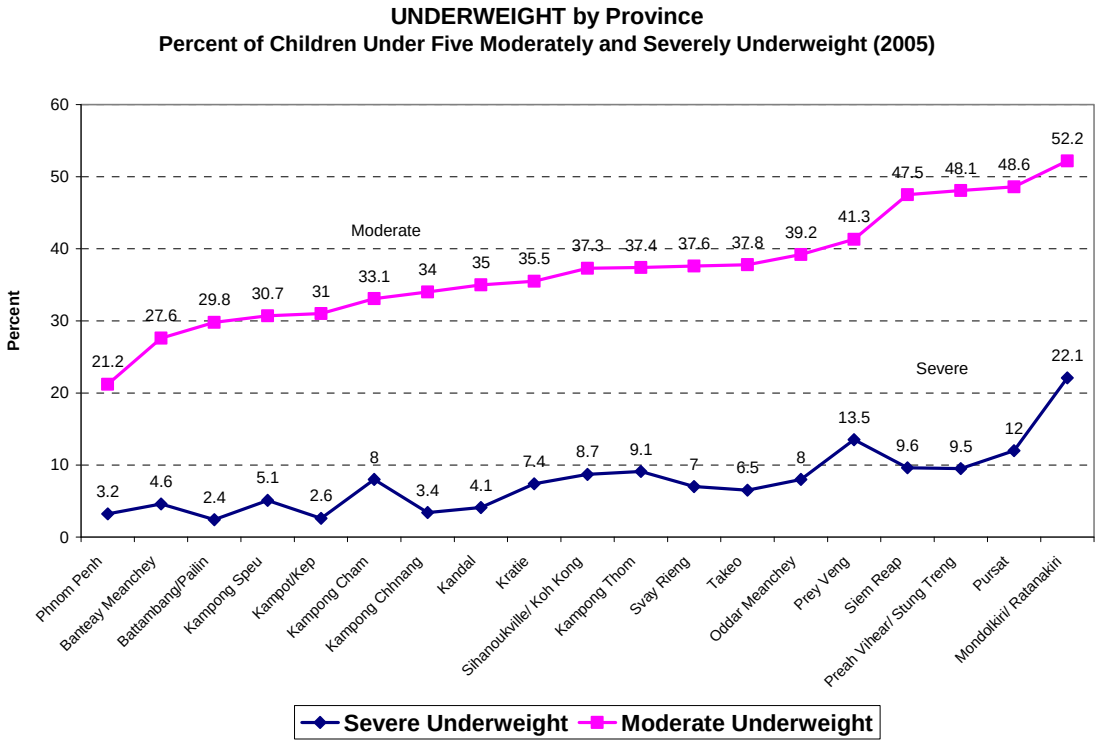
Wasting: Wasting is closely related to recent nutritional deprivation and may be affected by the season in which the measurements were taken. The striking rise in wasting rates for Pursat is consistent with the findings for stunting. The high rates, well above the national average for both moderate (7.3%) and severe wasting (0.8%), seen in Kandal and Prey Veng may be due to a seasonal fluctuations in food availability (see Fig. 1.10). The lean months before the rice harvest (i.e., December-January) are often times of hunger and distress for the poorest farmers. High rates of moderate wasting in Preah Vihear, Stung Treng, and Oddar Meanchey highlight these provinces as having consistently high rates of malnourishment among under-fives.

Figure 1.10: Levels of Moderate & Severe Wasting among Children under 5 by Province, 2005



Underweight: The provinces of Prey Veng, Siem Reap, Preah Vihear, Stung Treng and Pursat all have high rates of moderately and severely underweight children under five years of age. The incidence of being underweight is much higher than the national average (moderate - 35.6%, severe - 6.9%) in these provinces (see Figure 1.11). The provinces with the highest proportional incidence of underweight children, however, are Mondulkiri and Ratanakiri with rates of 52% and 22% for moderately and severely underweight children, respectively. This may reflect methods of agriculture among the indigenous, hill tribe populations in these provinces, which still rely heavily on slash and burn techniques.

Figure 1.11: Levels of Moderate & Severe Underweightedness among Children under 5 by Province, 2005



1.7.4 Percentage of Households Consuming Iodized Salt

Iodine deficiency is the single most common cause of preventable mental retardation and brain damage in the world. It also decreases child survival, causes goiters, and impairs growth and development. Children with Iodine Deficiency can grow up stunted, apathetic, mentally retarded, and/or incapable of normal movement, speech or hearing.

The prevention of iodine deficiency is of major importance for optimal child development. Iodization of all salt for human and animal consumption is the most effective strategy for elimination of iodine deficiency. The percentage of households consuming iodized salt is the main indicator of success in distributing iodized salt and in raising awareness of the importance of consuming only iodized salt. The target for universal salt iodization is that >90% of households in any community regularly consume iodized salt. That is a national goal, and a goal for all provinces and districts. Any communities with less than 90% consumption are considered un-protected from the dangers of iodine deficiency.

National Level Data on Consumption of Iodized Salt: By the measure of 90% dissemination of iodized salt, Cambodia as a whole, is still iodine deficient with only 72.5% of households consuming iodized salt. This deficiency is evident in both urban and rural households where only 84.8% and 70.5% of households are reportedly using iodized salt, respectively (see Table 1.6).

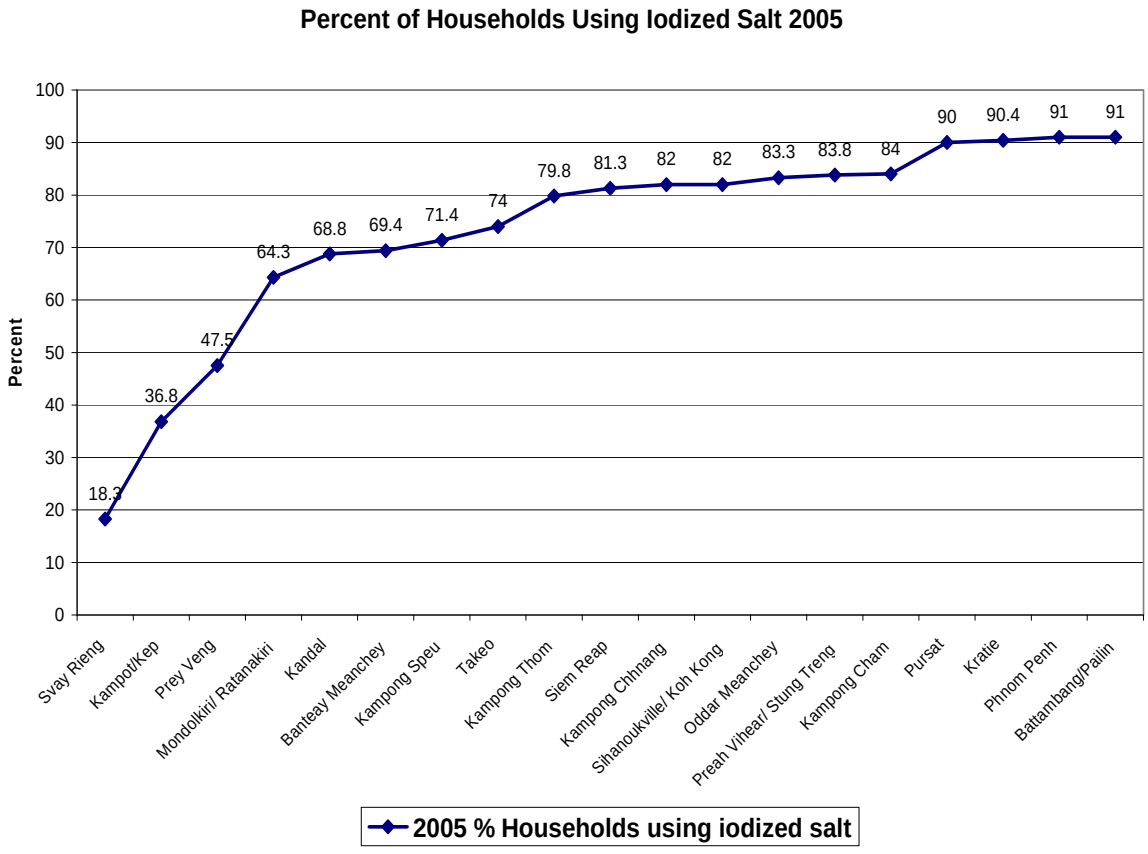
Table 1.6: Consumption of Iodized Salt by Household and Demographic Area, 2005

Residence	2005 % of Households Using Iodized Salt
National	72.5%
Urban	84.8%
Rural	70.5%

Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005

Provincial Level Data on Consumption of Iodized Salt: Only a few of Cambodia's provinces have adequate iodized salt consumption, greater than 90% (see Figure 1.12). They are Pursat (90%), Kratie (90.4%), Phnom Penh (91%), and Battambang/Pailin (91%). All other communities fall below the 90% target. The extremely low rates of household iodized salt consumption, lower than 50%, in the populous provinces of Svay Rieng (18.3%), Kampot/Kep (36.8%), and Prey Veng (47.5%) indicate the need for urgent action to achieve adequate coverage and availability of iodized commercial salt for household use. Inadequate amounts of iodine in the diet are related to serious health risks for young children.

Figure 1.12: Households Utilizing Iodized Salt by Province, 2005



Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005

1.7.5 Vitamin A Supplementation Coverage Rate

This indicator is a measure of the proportion of children between 6 and 59 months of age who received at least one dose of Vitamin A supplement in the last six months. Vitamin A supplementation is an important indicator of access to basic health services (including immunization). Vitamin A deficiency increases the risk of morbidity and mortality in children. In severe cases, the child's eyesight is affected. Vitamin A deficiency also slows recovery from illnesses and increases the severity of illnesses like measles and diarrheal diseases in children.

The target coverage of >80% for Vitamin A supplementation is considered necessary to achieve expected benefits for a community. Low or fluctuating coverage is evidence of poor access to preventative health services for children in the community.

National Level Data on Vitamin A Supplementation: With respect to a target of 80% coverage for Vitamin A Supplementation, Cambodia is falling far short of providing adequate access to preventative health care for its young children. The national average of supplementation in 2005 was 34.5%, which is significantly below the target of 80%. The trend shows an increase of six percentage points at the national level, from 28.5% in 2000 to the 2005 level of 34.5% (see Table 1.7). In the same period, the rural rate rose nearly eight percentage points, from 27% in 2000 to 34.9% in 2005. In contrast, the urban rate of vitamin A supplementation dropped six percentage points in the same period, from 38.8% in 2000 to 32.5% in 2005. It may be that urban dwellers have increasingly better access to vitamin A rich foods such as milk, eggs, liver, fish, butter, dark green leafy vegetables, mangos, papayas, carrots and pumpkins, and accordingly seek or require less Vitamin A supplementation.

Table 1.7: Change in Coverage Level of Vitamin A Supplementation among Children under 5, 2000 & 2005

	Vitamin A Supplements 2005	Vitamin A Supplements 2000
National	34.5	28.5
Urban	32.5	38.8
Rural	34.9	27

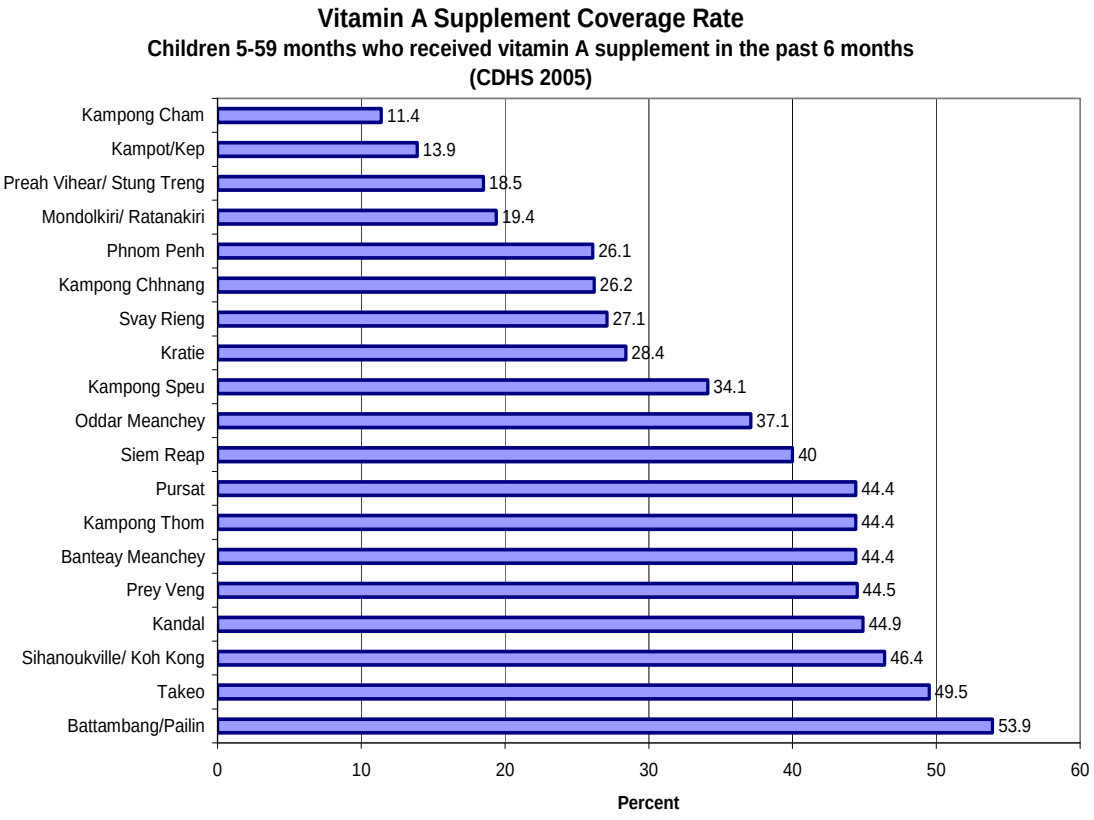
Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005,
Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2000

Provincial Level Data on Vitamin A Supplementation: According to provincial reports, Kampong Cham Province appears to have the very lowest coverage rate of vitamin A supplementation with a rate in 2005 of only 11.4%, about one fifth of the rate in Battambang/Pailin (see Figure 1.13). The low rate of coverage in this province is surprising and of concern because it is the largest province in Cambodia in terms of population with over 1.8 million people residing there. Thus, low coverage in Kampong Cham translates into a very large proportion of the national population of children under 5 who are not receiving this vital service. Other Provinces with less than 20% coverage include Kampot/Kep (13.9%), Preah Vihear, Stung Treng (18.5%), Mondulkiri, and Ratanakiri (19.4%). Even the very highest provincial rate, in Battambang/ Pailin, at 53.9% falls far short of the 80% target for this indicator.

If Vitamin A supplementation is a reliable proxy for access to basic health care services, the findings described above would suggest that Cambodian children have inadequate access to these services. The Ministries of Education and Health should coordinate their activities to in-

crease coverage, especially in poor rural areas and in provinces where health care access is demonstrably sub-optimal, to assure that young children (and their mothers) gain greater awareness of the combined benefits of pre-school educational experience and early childhood health measures, including immunizations.

Figure 1.13: Coverage Rate for Vitamin A Supplementation by Province, 2005



1.7.6 Public Expenditure on ECCE Programs as a Percentage of Total Public Expenditure on Education

Since there is no direct data available that would make it easy to ascertain the proportion of public expenditure on education that was devoted to various departments or activities of the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport, an indirect approach must be taken using the Priority Action Program (PAP) budgets. In this regard, the extremely low rates of budgetary allocation (about quarter of one percent of PAP funding in 2005), suggest that Early Childhood Care and Education ranks very low in priority. Given the important gains demonstrated for participants in school readiness programs and the empirical relationship that exists between preschool education and improved learning later in the school cycle, the policy of low priority and funding for ECCE should be revised.

Another perspective on the proportion of PAP budgets for various Departments in the Ministry is provided in a report from the Finance Department in the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport. This report compares the PAP "budget transferred" and the "actual implementation" for each Budget Management Center (BMC). At the central level, there are several BMCs that are directly responsible for the budgets for EFA activities. There is a BMC in the ECCE Department, so

this PAP budget (PAP 2B) data can serve to indicate the relative priority given to ECCE in the Education Budget, over the last few years. Once again, it is clear that the ECCE programs receive an extremely tiny fraction of PAP funds each year.

If the benefits of early childhood education are going to be realized, and EFA goals reached, a much greater allocation of resources must be made to this area. The present level of less than 1% of PAP funding will perpetuate extremely low access rates to this important educational service by Cambodian families.

Chapter Two:

Achieving Universal Primary/Basic Education

CHAPTER TWO: Achieving Universal Primary/Basic Education

2.1 BACKGROUND AND GOALS

Measuring progress toward EFA Goal 2: Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to a complete free and compulsory education of good quality

Universal primary education aims not only to expand access to primary education for all children, but also the improvement of the education system's internal efficiency so that all pupils actually complete the primary cycle. It entails ensuring that adequate resources and infrastructure are available and used effectively. Education systems should be accessible to ALL children and should provide quality education. The goal also brings particular attention to girls and children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, who constitute a significant proportion of the un-reached groups.

Dakar Framework for Action Extended Text on UPE:

All children must have the opportunity to fulfill their right to quality education in schools or alternative programmes at whatever level of education is considered 'basic'. All states must fulfill their obligation to offer free and compulsory primary education in accordance with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and other international commitments. The international agreement on the 2015 target date for achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) in all countries will require commitment and political will from all levels of government. For the millions of children living in poverty, who suffer multiple disadvantages, there must be an unequivocal commitment that education be free of tuition and other fees, and that everything possible be done to reduce or eliminate costs such as those for learning materials, uniforms, school meals and transport. Wider social policies, interventions and incentives should be used to mitigate indirect opportunity costs of attending school. No one should be denied the opportunity to complete a good quality primary education because it is unaffordable. Child labour must not stand in the way of education. The inclusion of children with special needs, from disadvantaged ethnic minorities and migrant populations, from remote and isolated communities and from urban slums, and others excluded from education, must be an integral part of strategies to achieve UPE by 2015.

While commitment to attaining universal enrolment is essential, improving and sustaining the quality of basic education is equally important in ensuring effective learning outcomes. In order to attract and retain children from marginalized and excluded groups, education systems should respond flexibly, providing relevant content in an accessible and appealing format. Education systems must be inclusive, actively seeking out children who are not enrolled, and responding flexibly to the circumstances and needs of all learners. The EFA 2000 Assessment suggests a wide range of ways in which schools can respond to the needs of their pupils, including affirmative action programmes for girls that seek to remove the obstacles to their enrolment, bilingual education for the children of ethnic minorities, and a range of imaginative and diverse approaches to address and actively engage children who are not enrolled in school.

In undertaking the Mid-Decade Assessment, the EFA examines several factors that affect access to schooling, the teaching and learning process and its outcomes, as well as the efficiency of the primary education system. For example, factors such as the physical condition of schools and classrooms; the availability of drinking water, functioning toilets are considered under the indicator "disadvantaged schools."

2.2 MAIN PROGRAMS IMPLEMENTED IN 2000-01-2005-06

The various programs operating in the Basic Education Cycle are summarized in Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1: Main Programs Implemented in Basic Education, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Program Name	Partner	Implementation Details
PAP	Government	• 2000: Piloted in 10 provinces on high repetition rate at primary • 2001: Expanded to 24 provinces (primary and secondary) • 2001-03: Provided extra classes to failing, poor students during vacation • 2004-2005: Provided extra classes to failing, poor students during the school year proper (primary)
Cluster School Development Program	UNICEF/Sida KAPE No support	• 1992 onwards: Implemented in 5 provinces: Banteay Meanchey, Battambang, Takeo, Kompong Thom, Svay Rieng • Expanded in 2001 to: Kompong Speu, Prey Veng, and Odor Meanchey • 1999 onwards: Supported general cluster school development activities in Kompong Cham (21 clusters) • -12 provinces remaining
Basic Education Project	Save the Children Norway (SCN)	• Implemented in Kompong Cham, Phnom Penh, Kompong Chhnang, and Siem Reap, Pursat (on-going since 1991)
Basic Education in Reconciliation Areas	World Bank/JSDF/SCN	• 2001-03: Implemented in Siem Reap and Oddar Meanchey • 2003-05: Implemented in Preah Vihear
EQIP Project	World Bank/Government	• 3 provinces implemented (Kandal, Takeo and Kampot)
Mixed Education Program	DAC Krousar Thmei	• Piloted in Svay Rieng, Prey Veng, Kampong Thom, Kampong Speu, Battambang and Sihanouk Ville • Piloted in 9 provinces: Svay Rieng, Prey Veng, Sihanouk Ville, Kampong Cham, Siem Reap, Kampong Thom, Kampong Speu, Banteay Meanchey and Purat
Education Program for Cambodian-Thai border children	UNICEF/Sida	• 2000-2005: Implemented in schools on the Thai-Cambodian border (Banteay Meanchey, Battambang and Pailin)
School Breakfast Program	WFP/Government/ KAPE	• Implemented in: Kampong Cham, Kompong Thom, Svay Rieng, Kampong Speu, Takeo, and Kompot
Child Friendly School Pilot	UNICEF/Sida/ Government & KAPE SCN (not as a discrete project)	• 2001: 1st Pilot started in Kampong Cham (7 clusters) and Kampong Thom (2 clusters) • 2002-2005: Pilot expanded to Kampong Speu, Prey Veng, and Svay Rieng. • 2002-2005: Supported CFS activities in Phnom Penh, Siem Reap, Kampong Chhnang, Pursat

Program Name	Partner	Implementation Details
		and Preah Vihear
School Readiness Program (SRP)	Government/UNICEF/ Sida/KAPE/SCN	• 2004: Pilot in Kampong Cham, Prey Veng, and Kampong Thom • 2005 onwards: National expansion
Mines and HIV/AIDS Awareness Program	UNICEF/Sida & World Education	• Implemented in provinces on Thai-Cambodian Border (Battambang, Pailin, Banteay Meanchey and Odor Meanchey)
OPTIONS: Combating Child Trafficking and Exploitation	US Dept of Labor/World Education/KAPE/CARE	• 2003-2007: Implemented in Prey Veng, Kampong Cham, and Bantheay Meanchey
Educational Support to Children in Underserved Populations (ESCUP)	USAID/CFS Steering Committee/World Education/KAPE/CARE	• 2005 (-2008): Outreach activities to remote schools in Kampong Cham, Kratie, and Mondulkiri
Cambodia Basic Education Project (CBE)	USAID/Research Triangle Institute/Government	• 2004 (-2007): Development of National Curriculum Standards
Highland Children's Education Program (HCEP)	CARE/Government	• 2003 (to Present): Development of Community Schools and Bilingual Education Models in Ratanakiri
Basic Education and Teacher Training (BETT)	Belgian Aid	• 2003 - 2009: Implemented in Siem Reap, Kampong Cham, and Oddar Meanchey
Environmental Education Project (Eco-clubs)	Mlub Baithong (Green Shade)	• 2000 to present • Support for improved understanding of environmental protection through concrete action in schools and clubs.
Proactive Learning Project (PLP)	Centro Italiano Aiuti all'Infanzia	• 2003 onwards: Implemented in primary schools in Phnom Penh
Improving Primary School Access in Disadvantaged Communes	ADB-UNICEF-Government	• 2005-2007: Mondulkiri, Ratanakiri, Stung Treng, Preah Vihear, Kratie, and Koh Kong
Cambodia Education Sector Support Program	Government-World Bank	• 2005 –2010: National Coverage with major focus on secondary education
Class Group Program	Government	• Implemented in 22 provinces except Phnom Penh and Svay Rieng

2.3 POLICIES AND REGULATIONS ISSUED FOR THE SECTOR IN 2000-01 to 2005-06

The following policies and regulations were developed by various departments working collaboratively together in the basic education sector. These departments included the Departments of Primary Education, Secondary Education, Teacher Training, and Pedagogical Research. Many donors and NGOs also worked with government in the drafting of these policy documents. Because the development of several of these policies spanned the mid-decade assessment period as well as the post mid-decade period, they are still included here, even though in several cases they were not completed or disseminated until after 2005.

- Child-Friendly School Policy (drafted in 2006)
- Inclusive Education Policy (drafted in 2006)
- New Basic Education Curriculum (Grades 1-9) (issued in 2006)
- Curriculum Standards for Grades 3, 6 and 9 (issued in 2006)

- Teacher Standards for Basic Education (drafted in 2006)
- Instruction Number 04 MoEYS-SNN of the implementation of Sub-decree No 9 on assigning duty and extra duty
- Instruction No 1998 MoEYS-SNN on activity implementation of extra classes (for failing, poor students) during vacation
- Instruction No 3138 MoEYS-SNN on measures to address irregular incidents in primary schools

2.4 DEPARTMENTS AND MINISTRIES INVOLVED WITH WORKING GROUP 2 (BASIC EDUCATION)

The following departments and Ministries were involved in improving basic education during first five years of the decade:

- Departments of MoEYS: included Primary Education, Secondary Education, Teacher Training, Planning, Personnel, Finance, Pedagogical Research, School Health, Early Childhood Education, and the Inspectorate of Education
- Relevant Ministries included the Ministries: Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, Ministry of Health, and Ministry of Social Affairs, Veterans and Youth Rehabilitation

2.5 MAJOR MONITORING & EVALUATION ACTIVITIES CONDUCTED IN 2000-2006

There were many monitoring and assessment activities carried during the reporting period and it is not possible to list them all. The following is an illustrative summary of data collection and evaluation activities:

- No organization or individual department took overall responsibility for monitoring and evaluation of the many development activities occurring in the Basic Education. Rather, each department took responsibility for specific activities under its jurisdiction, in collaboration with the relevant project or organization. Lead departments in the sector included the Departments of Primary and Secondary Education, which each took responsibility for management and technical oversight of activities according to their respective grade level (Grades 1 to 6 for Primary and Grades 7 to 9 for Secondary).
- Each department developed appropriate tools for data collection and monitoring such as the School Self-Assessment tool developed under CFS programming. Many activity specific tools were developed to monitor and evaluate key programs such as PAP, School Readiness Program, and other key government initiatives.
- Annual data collection was undertaken by the Planning Department of the MoEYS (i.e., EMIS) and is reported in Annual Statistical Yearbooks.
- There were several key assessment reports compiled during the assessment period including, (a) Evaluation of Unicef's Child-Friendly School Project in Cambodia (UNICEF, 2005); (b) Annual Sida Advisory Team Reports (Sida); (c) Student Repetition in Cambodia: Its Causes, Consequences, and Relationship to Learning (UNICEF-KAPE, 2000); (d) Cambodia: Quality Basic Education for All (World Bank); and (e) Annual Cambodia Education Sector Donor Performance Reports (ESWG).

2.6 SUCCESSES & REMAINING CHALLENGES IN IMPLEMENTATION OF EFA GOAL

The following is a brief listing of important achievements and remaining challenges to be overcome in the years ahead.

Major successes and achievements

- The number of schools, classes, students, and teachers increased significantly at both primary and lower secondary levels (see Table 2.2 below).
- Introduction of PAP increased admission, enrolment, and transition rates from primary to lower secondary school.
- In an independent evaluation, the School Readiness Program was found to be effective in reducing repetition and drop out rates and increasing promotion and school attendance in Grade 1.
- The Child Friendly School Program improved the quality of education, effectiveness of teaching, and classroom environments during initial pilot activities.
- The School Breakfast Program improved students' school enrolment and attendance
- The Inclusive Education Program increased school attendance of disabled children
- Multi-grade teaching interventions appeared to improve completion rates in remote areas.

Table 2.2: Changes in Key Indicators of Educational Supply, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Criterion	Primary		Lower Secondary	
	2000-01	2005-06	2000-01	2005-06
Schools	5,468	6,277	511	911
Classes	55,448	61,901	6,860	11,783
Students	2,408,109	2,558,467	283,578	588,333
Teachers	45,152	50,378	15,518	18,579
Pupil Teacher Ratio	53.3	50.8	18.3	31.7
Pupil Class Ratio	43.4	41.3	41.3	49.9

Challenges remaining to be overcome

- School enrolment still low among disadvantaged population including remote, ethnic minority, poor, and disabled children.
- Low enrolment at lower secondary school level.
- High repetition rate at primary level, especially at lower grades.
- High dropout rate at upper primary and lower secondary levels.
- Lack of qualified teachers leads to poor educational quality, especially in remote areas.
- Teacher shortages in many provinces, particularly those with large rural populations.
- Lack of classrooms and school buildings in urban and remote areas.
- School Readiness program implementation yet to be expanded to all schools in the country.
- Child-friendly School concepts not fully understood among stakeholders.
- School Breakfast program can be implemented only in some places, especially in disadvantaged areas.
- Community participation in education not so active in some areas.
- Level of teacher salary still low: difficult to attract and keep qualified teachers.

2.7 BASIC EDUCATION SECTOR ANALYSIS

2.7.1 Gross Admission Rate (GAR) in Primary Education

National Level Data on Gross Admission:

Pro-poor reforms introduced in 2001-02 abolished formal school fees for primary students. The reforms included a plan to provide operating budgets for schools to replace the fees collected from households. The result, apparent in many of the charts shown below, has been a surge of

students seeking admission and enrollment to take advantage of the reduced costs of schooling. Many of these children were overage, raising the **Gross Enrolment Rate (GAR)** steeply in the year of the reforms, after which time, there was a tapering off in rates of increase. The observation that GAR is well over 100% indicates a large proportion of overage enrolment.

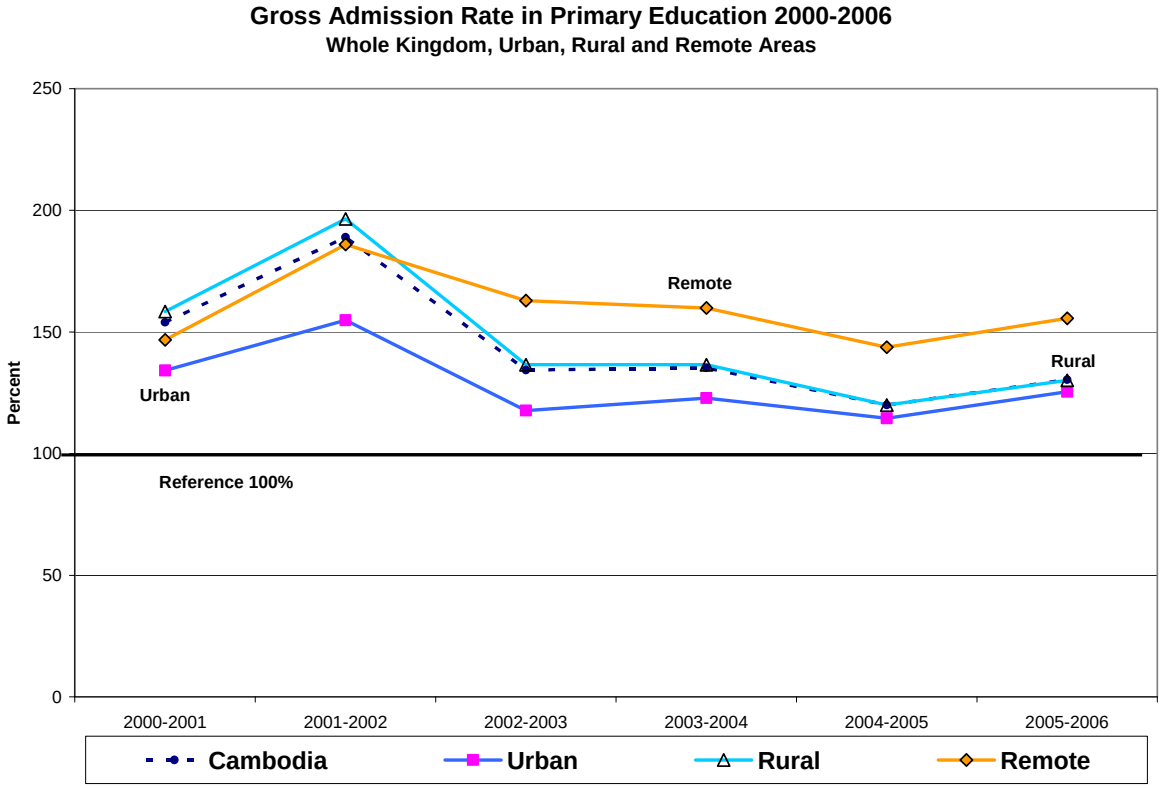
The surge in admission in Cambodia as a whole registered a 23% increase in GAR from the year before the reforms, 2000-01, to 2001-02 when the reforms came into effect (see Table 2.3). Urban areas showed a slighter impact on enrolment patterns with a 15% increase in GAR between 2000-01 and 2001-02. This suggests that the fees were not as significant an element in the cost of schooling in urban locations, as they were elsewhere. Rural areas showed an increase that was slightly higher than the national average, with a 24% increase in GAR between 2000-01 and 2001-02. The surge was particularly strong in remote areas, which showed a 28% increase in GAR in the same time period.

Table 2.3: Gross Admission Rate at Primary Level, 2000/1-2005/6

	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote	Female	Male	GPI
2000-2001	154.0	134.2	158.4	146.8	149.3	na	na
2001-2002	188.9	154.8	196.5	186.0	181.8	196.2	0.93
2002-2003	134.4	117.7	136.5	162.9	127.3	141.3	0.90
2003-2004	135.2	122.8	136.5	159.9	130.4	139.7	0.93
2004-2005	120.0	114.5	120	143.7	113.4	126.7	0.89
2005-2006	130.4	125.4	130.1	155.6	125.1	135.6	0.92

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 2.1: Trend Changes in Gross Admission Rate in the Primary Education Sector by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

The trends in enrolment described above imply that school fees had been a significant barrier to primary school entry, especially in remote areas. When this barrier was lowered, many overage children who had earlier not enrolled in school were subsequently more able to enter Grade 1. The resulting decline in overage enrollment, reflected in declining GAR after the surge (see Figure 2.1), may indicate that the basic education sector has reached a stable pattern of overage intake. On the other hand, it could also indicate that there has been an incremental reintroduction of fees on an informal basis, particularly in urban areas where demand is better able to absorb such fees. The GAR in rural areas has fallen to close to urban area levels. The GAR for remote areas has also declined since 2001-02, but has remained higher than in rural or urban Areas. By 2005-06, the GAR had stabilized at 130.4% for Cambodia as a whole, 130.1 for rural areas, 125.4 for urban areas and 155.6% for remote areas.

National Level Data on Overage Admissions:

EMIS statistics also provide specific information on overage (6+) students each year. The following table shows overage admission to primary school for urban, rural and remote areas in Cambodia (see Table 2.4). The findings expectably parallel the findings above for GAR.

Table 2.4: Overage Admissions at Primary School Level, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	50.4	43.0	50.9	67.8
2001-2002	57.3	48.5	58.3	69.6
2002-2003	41.9	33.1	42.3	62.0
2003-2004	41.8	37.2	41.6	59.3
2004-2005	32.5	28.5	32.3	49.2
2005-2006	36.6	33.3	36.2	53.0

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

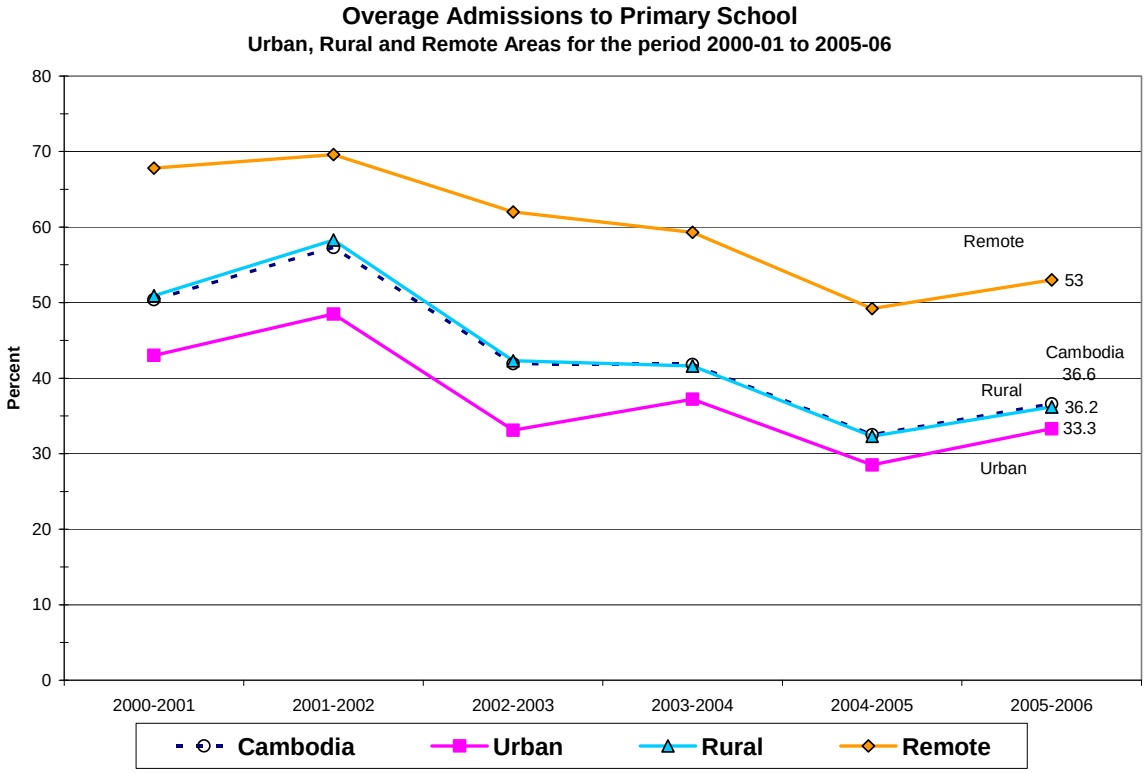
In 2005-06, over half the children admitted to first grade in remote areas were overage (53%). In urban areas, one third of the children admitted to first grade were overage (33.3%) while in rural areas the rate was just over one third of children (36.2%). The national average rate of overage admission was 36.6% (see Table 2.4). Trend data shown in Figure 2.2 clearly shows that the overall pattern is for overage enrollment at the time of admission is one of decline. This is true of all areas but particularly so in rural and remote areas where the margin of difference between 2000-01 and 2005-06 is over between 14 and 15%.

The significant trend of overage entry to primary school is evidently a national phenomenon, although more pronounced in remote areas. This demographic difference is probably due to cultural and contextual factors. Parental concern about security is high in remote areas, as many observers note that children may have to travel long distances along desolate roads to get to school. But urban and rural parents also may have security concerns for their young children that affect their decisions about sending them to school at age 6, with the resulting high GAR and overage admission rates.

The findings on stunting and wasting (see Chapter 1) also suggest that parents may withhold children from school because they are small for their age and only enroll them when they are bigger and older. The lack of school readiness programs and low pre-school enrollments reflected in the very low GER for preschool (see Chapter 1.1) may further reduce the psychosocial development of children at age 6, which may also contributes to late enrollment.

Yet additional factors complicating the interpretation of "overage" enrolment are the diverse local practices in assigning age to children, lack of official birth certificates, and the ease of revising birth date on existing documentation for different purposes.

Figure 2.2: Trend Changes in Overage Admissions in the Primary Education Sector by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

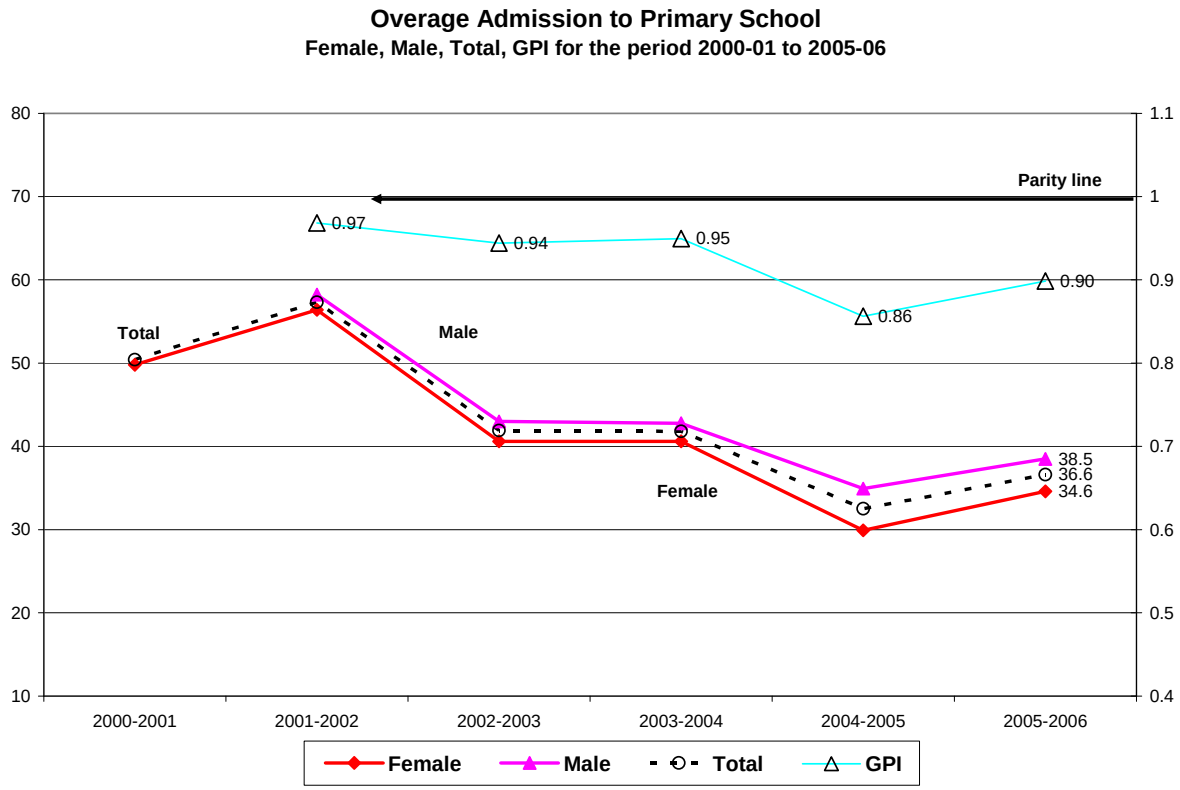


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Gross admission rates among females and males seen in Table 2.3 demonstrate that gender parity levels are relatively high (over 0.90 on average) though not yet at parity. GPI for gross admission fluctuated between 0.89 and 0.93 during the mid-decade assessment period before stabilizing at 0.92 in 2005. The slightly higher rates of gross admission among boys (135.6% in 2005) in comparison to girls (125.1%) suggests that other considerations than security may be at play in making decisions about entrance to primary school. Cambodian parents may also be making an assessment about the relative readiness of young girls and boys for school at age 6, and may delay enrolling boys to reduce the expected costs of repetition.

GPI levels for overage admissions appear to remain constant during the early years of the reform period at 0.94 to 0.97 (2001 to 2003) but then drop noticeably in 2004 to 0.86, only to recover slightly to 0.90 in the year after (see Figure 2.3). This indicates that being overage at the time of enrolment is slightly more of a dominant pattern for boys than for girls. The GPI for overage enrolment is consistently well below the parity line seen in Figure 2.3. To some extent, these findings are counterintuitive since it is commonly assumed that cultural and security concerns cause delays in the enrolment of girls rather than boys. The rates reported above, however, do not support this conventional wisdom.

Figure 2.3: Trend Changes in Overage Admissions in the Primary Education Sector by Sex, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Provincial Level Data on Gross Admission:

In the context of EFA guidelines, it is important to disaggregate equity and access data by gender and by sub-national categories. The relevant sub-national categories in Cambodia are "Urban, Rural and Remote," as well as the twenty-four provinces and municipalities of the Kingdom. The former have the virtue of being limited in number and relatively easy to summarize in a table or chart. The latter are more cumbersome and difficult to summarize neatly but have the virtue of reflecting the institutional organization of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, which has offices responsible for education in each of these jurisdictions. As the decentralization process continues, these offices become the significant focal points for any interventions or actions required by Ministry priorities and policies.

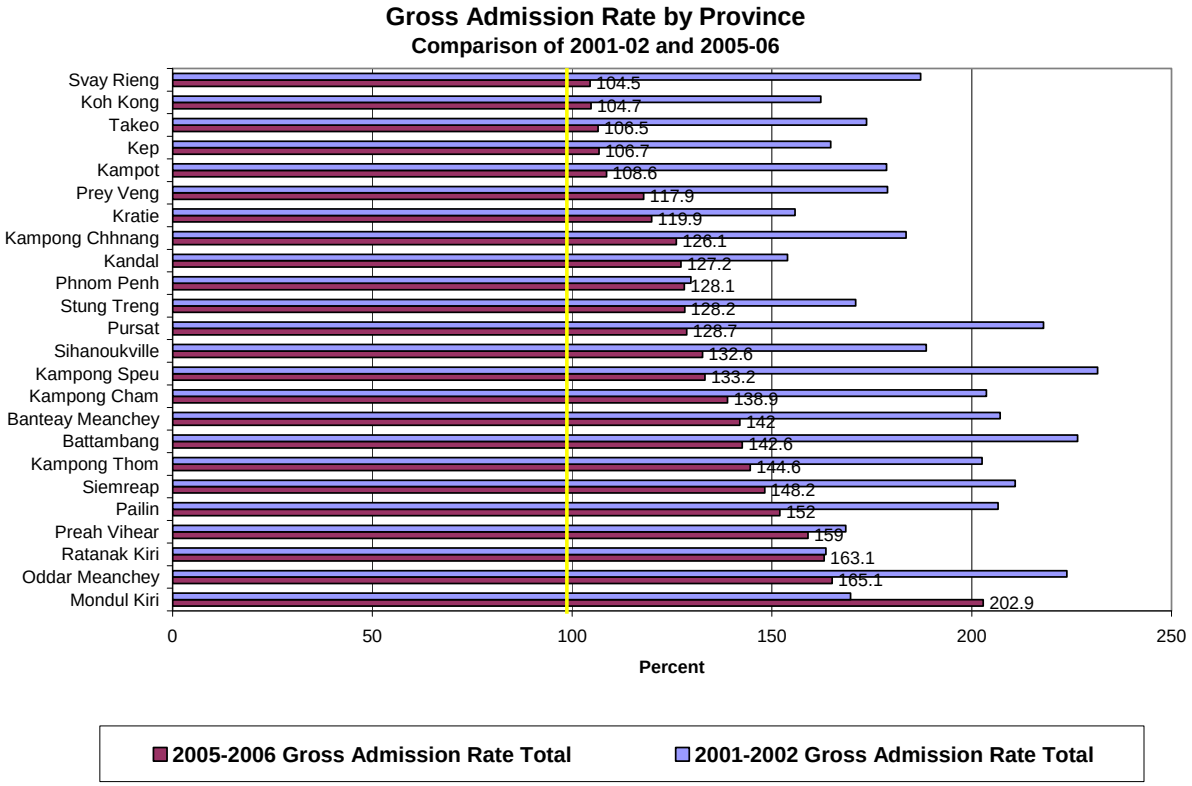
A longitudinal view of GAR trends by Province can be obtained by comparing the rates in the surge year of 2001-02 with the latest data from 2005-06. In Figure 2.3, the provinces are sorted by GAR magnitudes in 2005-06.

Disaggregation to the province level sharpens the focus of differences suggested in the national data. All provinces, except Mondulkiri, show a drop in GAR from the surge year to the level reported in 2005-06 (see Figure 2.4). In this respect, Mondulkiri, with a high ethnic minority population, shows a GAR of over 200% in 2005-06. As noted earlier, such large changes usually occur because the base figure in such remote provinces is usually very small. That is, even small changes are magnified disproportionately to the absolute value of the change. Thus, other rela-

tively remote provinces such as Pailin, Oddar Meanchey, and Preah Vihear, former Khmer Rouge areas, and Ratanakiri, provinces with substantial ethnic minority populations, also show GAR of greater than 150%. These provinces are all on the far borders of the Kingdom, newly adjusting to post-conflict conditions and are evidently enthusiastically embracing the opportunity for schooling provided by the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport.

Five provinces in the south of the country, Svay Rieng, Koh Kong, Takeo, Kep and Kampot all have GAR less than 110. Overage enrollment is hardly a problem in these areas, probably because they have benefited from a longer period of stability. The remaining provinces that are above the national average of 130.4% for 2005-06 include Sihanoukville (132.6), Kampong Speu (133.2), Kampong Cham (138.9), Banteay Meanchey (142), Battambang (142.6), Kampong Thom (144.6) and Siem Reap (148.2). In these provinces, overage enrollment is a particularly strong pattern, probably reflecting genuine cultural preferences.

Figure 2.4: Trend Changes in Gross Admissions in the Primary Education Sector by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06

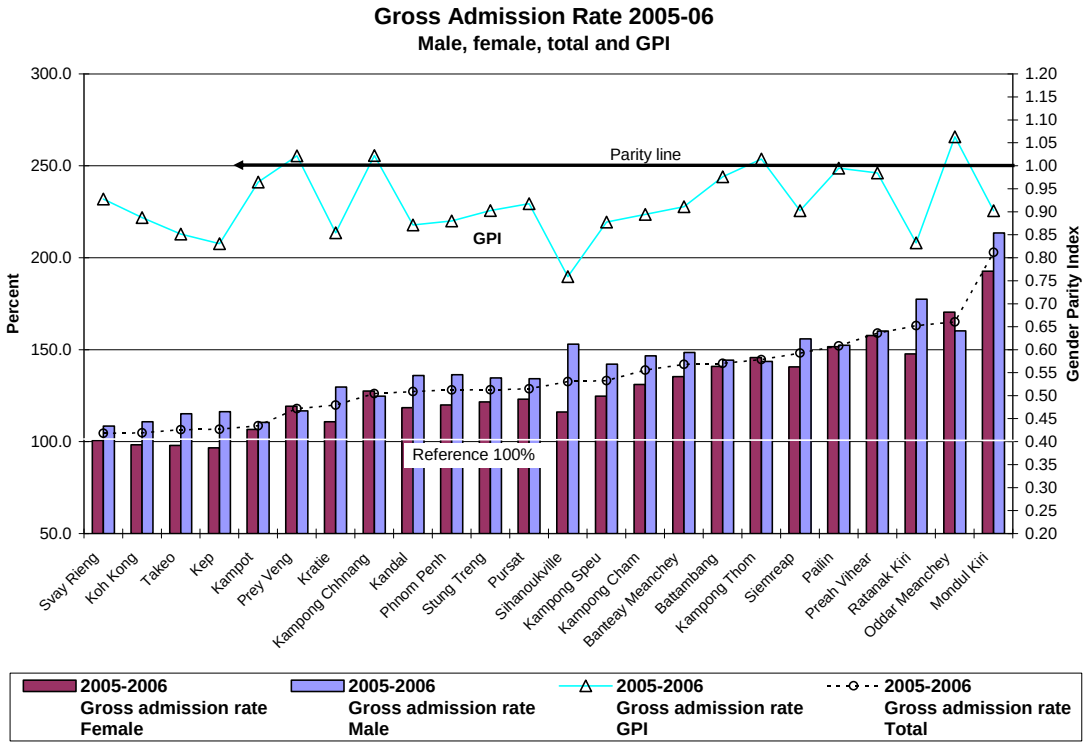


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2001-02 & 2005-06

Province disaggregation showing male and female gross admission rates reveals that several provinces have achieved gender parity (or near parity) in GAR (see Figure 2.5). These are Battambang (0.98), Preah Vihear (0.98), Pailin (0.99), Kampong Thom (1.01), Prey Veng (1.02), Kampong Chhnang (1.02), and Oddar Meanchey (1.06). This is particularly surprising in the reconciliation areas such as Preah Vihear, Pailin and Oddar Meanchey where national schooling is a relatively new opportunity. Sihanoukville shows a relatively low GPI of 0.76, suggesting that improved gender awareness and outreach for female entry in first grade is required in this prov-

ince.

Figure 2.5: Gross Admission Rate in the Primary Education Sector by Province and Sex, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005/6

2.7.2 Net Admission Rate in Primary Education

National Level Data on Net Admission:

The **Net Admission Rate (NAR),** in EMIS usage, or Net Intake Rate in EFA usage, is the total number of entrants to first grade of the official correct entry age (6 years old) expressed as a percent of the total potential entrants of the correct (official) entry age (6 years old) in the population. The NAR is considered a finer gauge of access to primary education than the GAR as it measures the extent of access of the (official) school-entrance age population. Because the NAR does not include over or under age entrants, the NAR will always be less than the GAR.

In the Cambodia context, where late admission and overage enrollment are factors that will continue to be a persistent characteristic of the education system, the Gross Admission Rate will probably continue to be the more informative indicator.

In any case, a higher NAR suggests a higher rate of access of correct age entrants to primary school and a higher proportion of same-age entrants in Grade 1. It is a measure of how well primary education is being "universalized"—reaching all potential pupils of correct entry age. 100% NAR would indicate that all children age 6 had entered Grade 1. A high NAR with a low GAR would suggest that first-time entry enrolment would be age-homogeneous, with fewer places taken by over or underage pupils. This is the ideal toward which much education reform

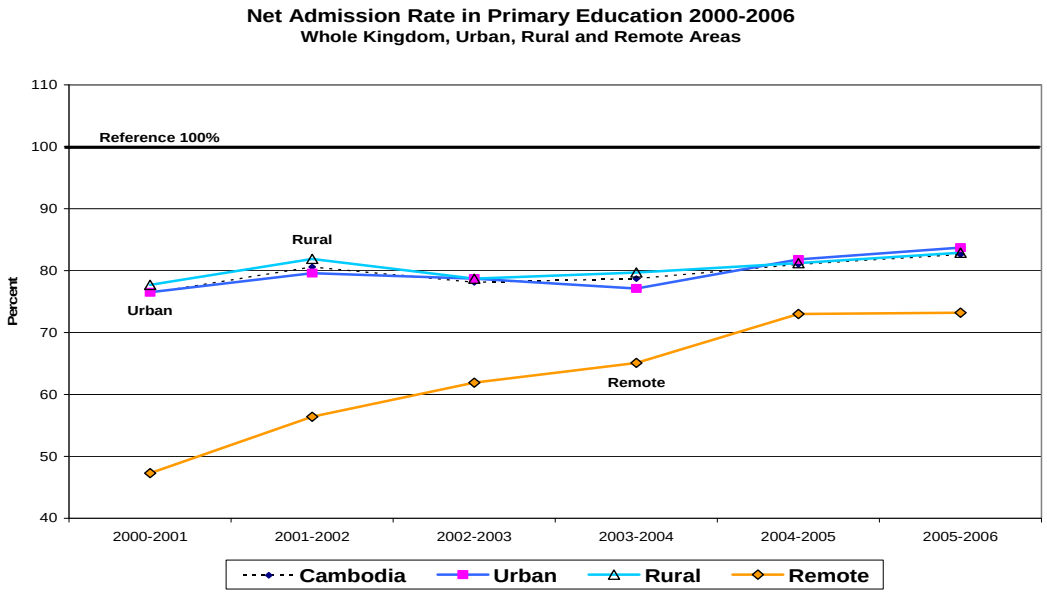
aspires, based on a priority of physical/social development criteria in modern mass public schooling.

Table 2.5: Net Admission Rate at Primary School Level, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote	Female	Male	GPI
2000-2001	76.4	76.5	77.7	47.3	74.9	na	na
2001-2002	80.6	79.6	81.9	56.4	79.2	82.0	0.97
2002-2003	78.1	78.7	78.7	61.9	75.7	80.6	0.94
2003-2004	78.7	77.1	79.7	65.1	77.4	80.0	0.97
2004-2005	81.0	81.8	81.2	73	79.5	82.5	0.96
2005-2006	82.6	83.7	82.9	73.2	81.8	83.5	0.98

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 2.6: Trend Changes in Net Admissions Rate in the Primary Education Sector by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



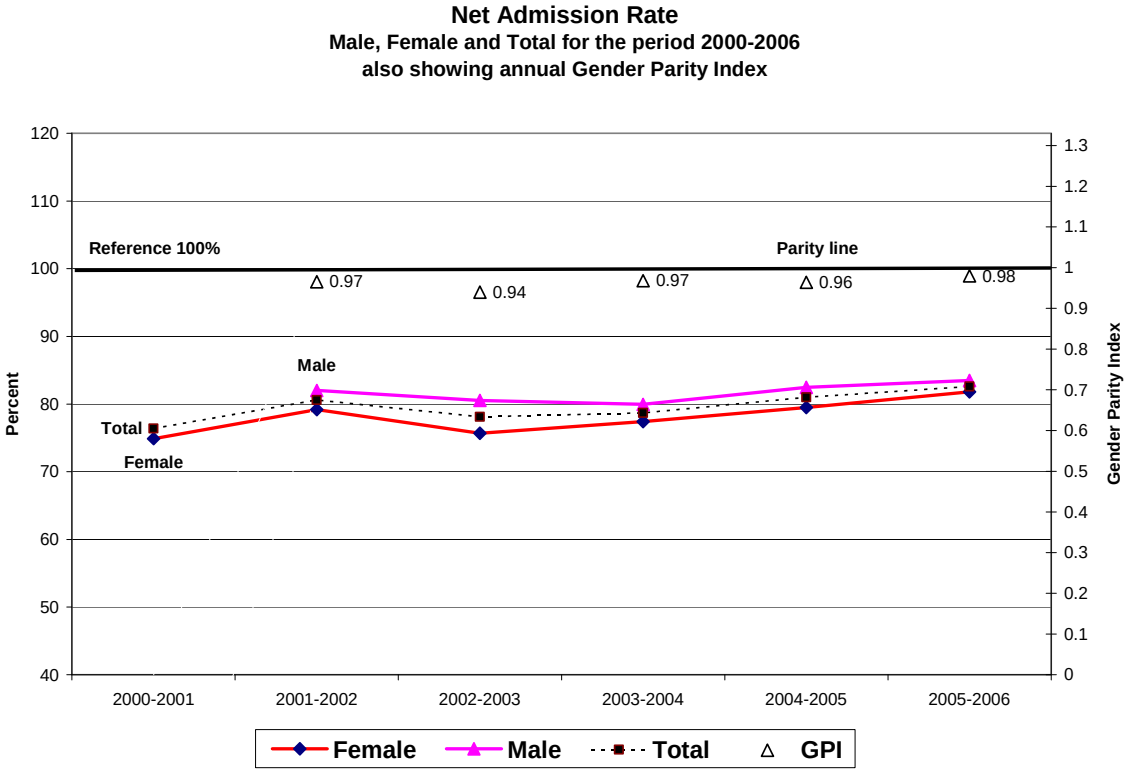
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Cambodia's overall rate of net admissions stood at 82.6 in 2005-06, up slightly from 76.4 in 2000-01 (see Table 2.5). The NAR for urban and rural areas has remained fairly constant during the reporting period, with a slight rise from around 77% in 2000-01 to about 83% in 2005-06 (see Figure 2.6). NAR for remote areas of Cambodia, by contrast, has rocketed upwards from a rate of 47% in 2000-01 to 73% in 2004-05, followed by a leveling off after that. The trend in NAR in all areas appears to be inching upwards since 2003. This trend has probably been facilitated by the increase in educational supply as demographic trends since 2004 have led to a dip in the number of children of school age. Thus, demand is decreasing while supply has been steadily increasing. Demographic analyses of the sector do not anticipate an increase in enrolments until 2009.

The success in improved NAR for remote areas reflects a national enrollment campaign rolled out by the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport to improve the service offered to students in these locales. These inputs are also reflected, for instance, in an improvement in level of aca-

demic qualification and training of teachers in Remote Areas (see below).

Figure 2.7: Trend Changes in Net Admissions Rate in the Primary Education Sector by Sex, 2000-01 to 2005-06



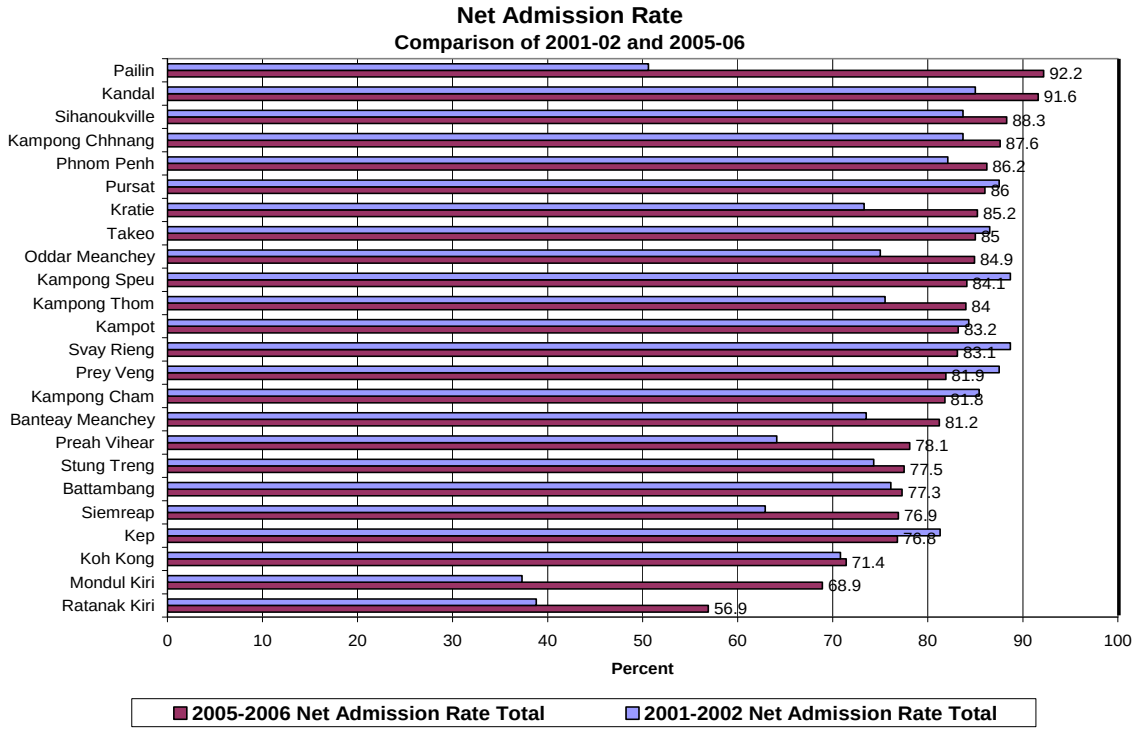
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

The NAR for males and females displays a steady trend of improving parity. In 2005-06 the GPI was 0.98, which in EFA terms is parity achieved (see Figure 2.7).

Provincial Level Data on Net Admission:

The chart below provides a longitudinal perspective on Net Admission Rate at the province level by comparing the NAR for 2001-02 and 2005-06 (see Figure 2.8). The provinces are sorted by decreasing NAR for 2005-06. Pailin leads the list of provinces with the greatest increase in NAR. In this respect, it can be seen that from 2001-02 to 2005-06, the former Khmer Rouge center in Pailin has shown a dramatic rise in correct age admission with NAR rising from 50.6 to 92.2 over the reporting period. The two ethnic minority provinces, Mondulkiri and Ratanakiri, also show a significant rise in NAR. In Mondulkiri, the NAR in 2001-02 was 37.3, but had reached 68.9 in 2005. In Ratanakiri, the NAR in 2001-02 was 37.3 but by 2005-06 had risen to 56.9. Other provinces show more modest gains in correct age intake. An important caveat to remember of course is that the provinces that have shown the greatest change in NAR also have relatively low NAR levels in absolute terms when compared to the rest of the country. In this regard, it can be seen that Ratanakiri, Modulkiri and Koh Kong, all remote areas, continue to show NAR of less than 75%. Although there have been improvements, these persistent intake disparities suggest that continued careful, culturally sensitive interventions are needed in the remote border provinces to maintain the momentum towards the EFA goal of universal access to basic education (see Case Study Box).

Figure 2.8: Trend Changes in Net Admissions in the Primary Education Sector by Province, 2001-02 and 2005-06



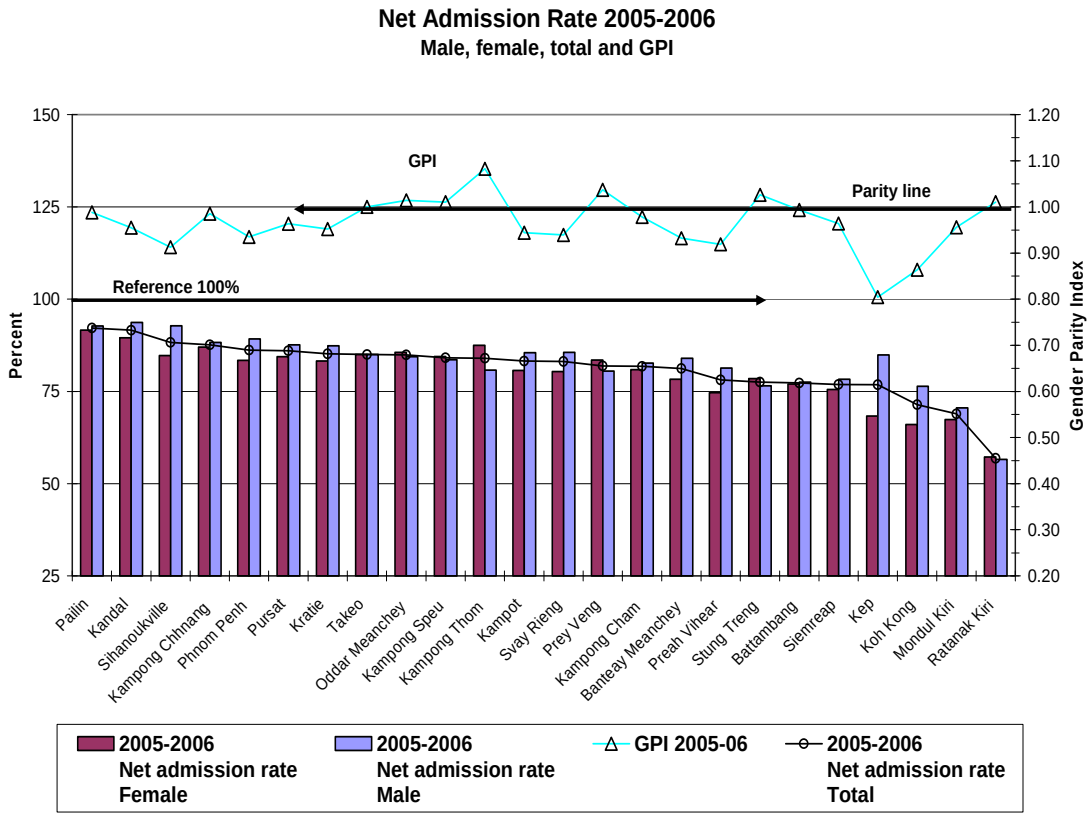
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

In 2005-06, 16 provinces reported higher NAR for boys than girls, six reported the opposite trend, and two reported no difference (see Figure 2.9) Nevertheless, eleven (or 46%) of Cambodia's 24 provinces and municipalities had achieved gender parity by 2005-06 in Net Admission Rate (defined as a deviation of ±0.03 or less from the parity line, cf. footnote 11). However, gender disparity is still a significant problem for several provinces such as Kep (GPI=0.80) and Koh Kong (GPI=0.86), both of which areas also had rather low NAR in 2005-06 (Kep NAR is 76.8, Koh Kong NAR is 71.4). Correct age intake, especially for girls, remains a challenge for targeted attention in these two provinces.

Innovations in Outreach to Minority Groups in Remote Provinces: Highland Children's Education Program (HCEP)

In 2003, MoEYS and CARE began exploratory activities in the provision of bilingual education to Tampuan and Kreung minority groups in Ratanakiri Province. This was the beginning of the now well-known *Highland Children's Education Program* (HCEP). Because target villages did not possess state schools at that time, CARE raised funds to build Community Schools (Grades 1-3) in close collaboration with community leaders. The program also recruited native speaking young people from the local area as teachers. These teachers were trained intensively using a specially developed bilingual education curriculum in the native language of students. The program has demonstrated excellent results with high enrolment rates and learning achievement among local children. As the program has matured, MoEYS has begun to absorb the HCEP Community Schools into the state school system and has even begun posting state teachers to the schools.

Figure 2.9: Net Admission Rate in the Primary Education Sector by Province and Sex, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

Comparison of GAR and NAR: The gap between the Gross Admission Rate and the Net Admission Rate over time indicates the deviation from correct age intake at Grade 1. The GAR and NAR can be graphed so that they can be compared with one another in order to highlight changes over time. In Figure 2.10 below, the current 2005-06 values for GAR and NAR for each province are plotted, with provinces sorted by increasing current GAR. For longitudinal comparison, the average GAR and NAR for the last seven years are also plotted with dotted lines.

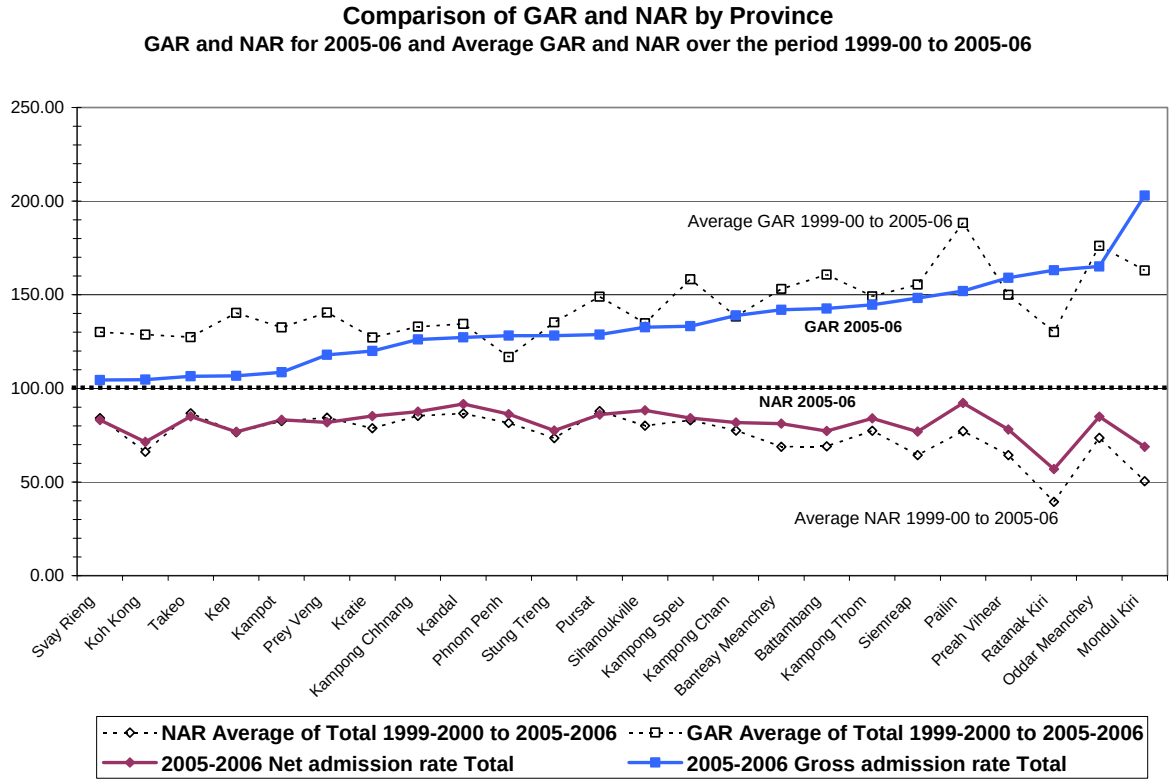
The comparison of GAR in 2005-06 with the average GAR from 1999-00 to 2005-06 shows that only three provinces have a current GAR that is higher than the seven year average for GAR. For every other province, the overage admission trend has declined from the seven-year average. The three provinces showing higher current rates of overage admission are the municipality of Phnom Penh and the two ethnic minority provinces of Ratanakiri and Mondulkiri. The increasing rate of overage admission in the capital is likely due to an increasing influx of migrants to the city seeking employment who take advantage of the relatively accessible schooling for their children, even though they may be over the official age of entry. Improved infrastructure and teacher deployment may also have increased access, but changing cultural factors in the ethnic minority areas probably account for the continued upward trend of overage intake in the northeast provinces.

Comparison of NAR in 2005-06 with the average NAR from 1999-00 to 2005-06 shows that all Cambodian provinces show a trend of improved correct age intake. The trend is no doubt due in

part to the nationwide efforts of the Ministry and its partners to improve local awareness of the importance of correct age primary school intake in order to reach EFA goals.

The provinces with relatively high overage admissions, or higher GAR, show the largest improvement in current correct age admissions compared to the seven year NAR average. Two processes seem to be at play here. On the one hand, since the decline of political conflict, intense efforts to improve access to schooling in the reconciliation areas and ethnic minority areas have resulted in improved correct age intake. On the other hand, there is a persistent and broad gap between GAR and NAR especially in areas north of the capital, around the great lake and on middle and upper courses of the Mekong and in distant border areas. This seems to reflect a genuine demographic demand at variance with current "correct age" policy. The demand is probably based in economic and ecological realities that differ systematically from the conditions in the lower flood plain areas south of the capital.

Figure 2.10: Divergence and Convergence in GAR and NAR by Province, 1999-2000 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-2000 and 2005-06

Training of primary school teachers who are deployed to the areas of endemic high overage intake should include specific skills and pedagogical techniques that are appropriate for classrooms in which children will likely be overage and show very wide age variation so that older children in the lower grades can be reached effectively.

Training in accelerated learning for older children will help more mature pupils in lower grades advance more quickly and rejoin their age mates. This provision for rapid progression for older children will require greater flexibility and understanding on the part of both teachers and school

directors in managing the progress of overage children in the school system.

2.7.3 Gross Enrollment Rate in Primary Education

National Level Data on Primary Gross Enrollment:

The **Gross Enrollment Rate** for a level of schooling, in the present case Primary Education, is the total enrollment of pupils of any age in the primary grades (Grades 1 through 6) as a percent of the age group population of the correct age for Primary Education (6 years to 11 years of age). Because of overage (or underage) enrollment due to late (or early) entry to Grade 1 and repetition in primary grades, the GER may exceed 100%.

The GER is widely used to show the general level of participation in the primary school system as it shows the actual overall coverage of the primary system in relation to the population eligible for primary education. The total participants are given as a percentage of the potential candidates for the primary level. A GER value of >100% shows high participation, whether of correct age or not, but does not indicate the proportion of correct age to overage pupils enrolled. Overage pupils may be enrolled in large numbers, but there may also be many correct age pupils who have not entered or enrolled.

A GER above 100% shows that the school system is capable of accommodating all the pupils in the school age group of the population, although if correct age enrollment improves and overage enrollment does not decline, the school system could face a challenge of capacity to accommodate all the students seeking basic education.

By 2005-06, GER in Cambodia had reached 124% for the country as a whole compared with 109.8% in 2000-01 (see Table 2.6 and Figure 2.11). These trends occurred across all demographic areas with increments of 10% in urban areas, 14% in rural areas, and an astonishing 43% in remote areas.

Table 2.6: Gross Enrolment Rate at Primary School Level, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote	Female	Male	GPI
2000-2001	109.8	112.1	110.5	79.1	103.2	NA	NA
2001-2002	125.1	121.7	127.0	97.3	118.1	132.6	0.89
2002-2003	118.0	109.5	120.7	97.3	112.0	123.8	0.90
2003-2004	119.9	117.3	120.9	108.0	115.1	124.5	0.92
2004-2005	119.7	118.6	120.2	114.3	114.4	125.0	0.92
2005-2006	124.0	122.5	124.4	122.3	118.6	129.4	0.92

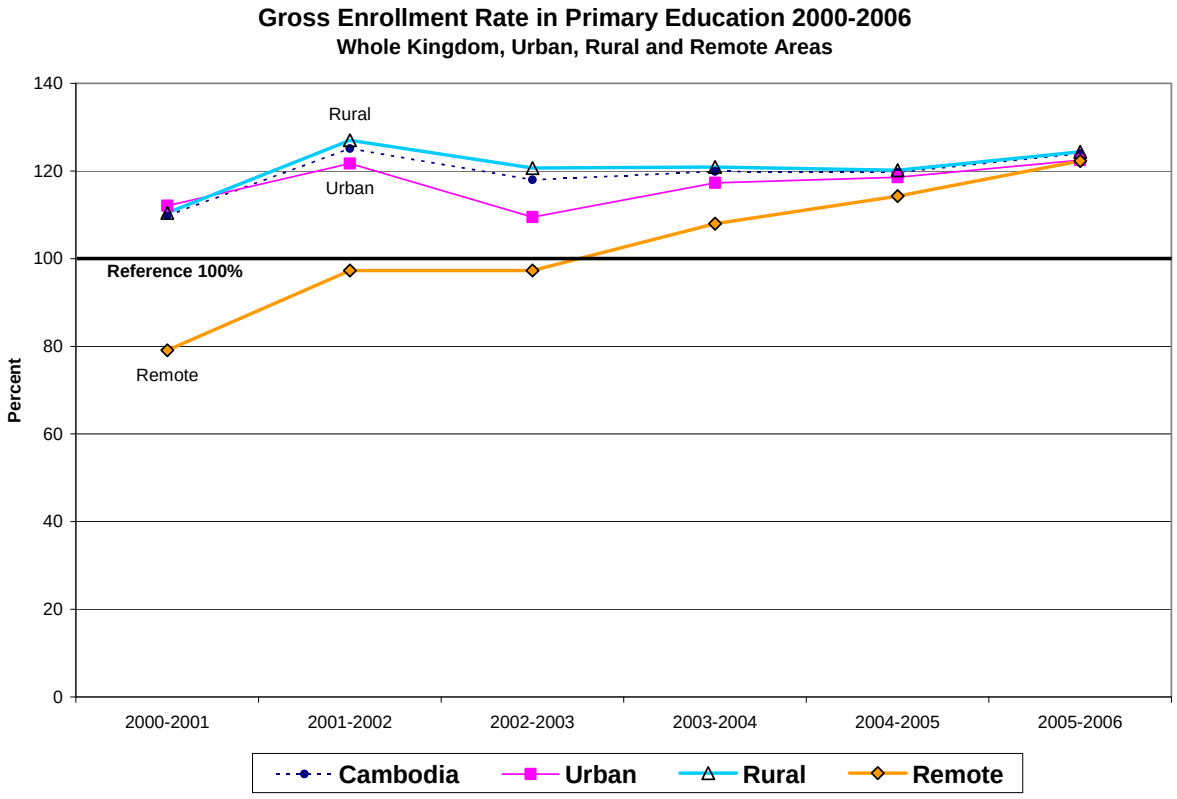
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

The trends in enrollment in primary education in Cambodia are unmistakably upward. There are many reasons why this is happening but two, which are both structural in nature, are probably foremost among them. One of these refers to the pro-poor reforms introduced by MoEYS at the start of the decade that included, among other things, the abolition of school fees. As noted earlier, this had the effect of greatly stimulating educational demand, especially among members of poorer income quintiles. The second reason refers to the observation that educational supply has been increasing steadily, due mainly to the expansion in infrastructure while at the same time, the number of children in the population aged 6 to 11 has been decreasing since 2004. This trend is both an opportunity as well as a threat because the number of teachers has not been increasing greatly; indeed, it has just only been keeping up with present-day demands.

Thus, when current demographic trends shift, causing enrolments to start increasing once again, the education system will start to come under tremendous strain, which may threaten the advances achieved during the first five years of the decade.

The continued rise in national GER itself indicates increased access to primary education but at the same time increased overage enrollment as well. Demand for education among overage children, particularly significant in the remote areas, but also an important factor nationally, and repetition, are probably the main causes for rising GER.

Figure 2.11: Trend Changes in Gross Enrolment in the Primary Education Sector by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



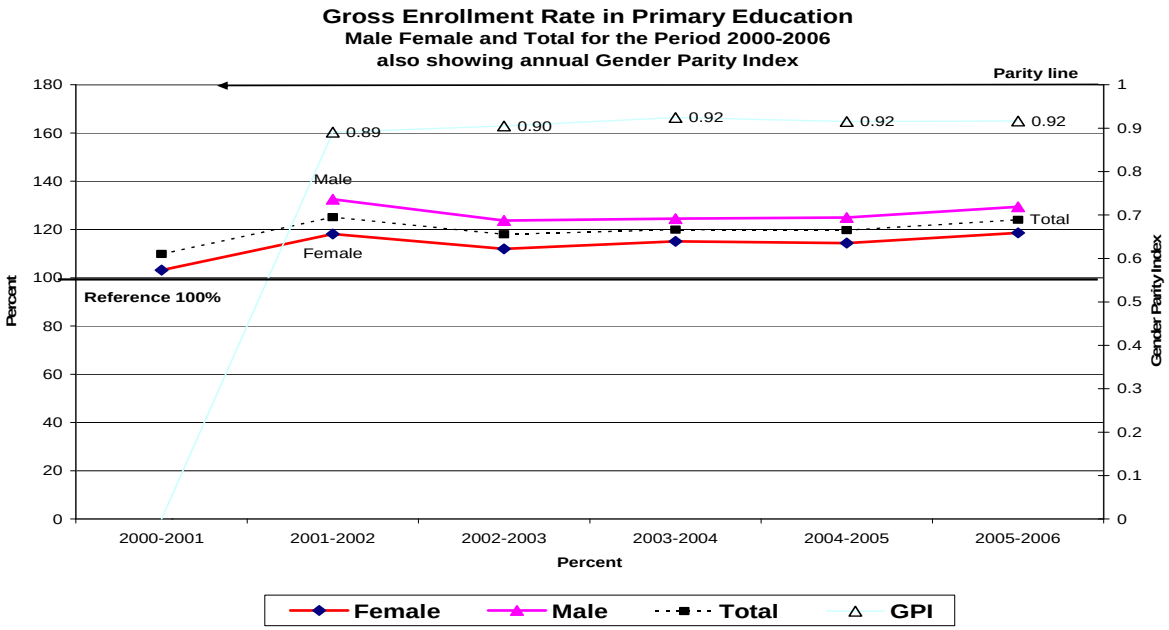
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Increasing Enrolment in Remote Areas: Basic Education Project in Reconciliation Areas

A temporary school in Preah Vihear

In 2001, Save the Children Norway and MoEYS worked together to build a basic education program in reconciliation areas in Siem Reap and Oddar Meanchey Province using funds provided under the Japan Social Development Fund, which is administered by the World Bank. The project was known as the Basic Education Project in Reconciliation Areas. Because of its success in expanding enrolment, the project was renewed for a second round in Preah Vihear Province in 2003-05. The project made major investments in school construction, community mobilization, school mapping, and teacher training. There was also significant experimentation with interesting new interventions such as Culture Centers, temporary classrooms, and bilingual educaiton.

Figure 2.12: Trend Changes in Gross Enrolment in the Primary Education Sector by Sex, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

The GER for males and females shows a consistent pattern of enrollment year on year with higher rates among males than females (see Figure 2.12). To some extent, this may be influenced by consistently higher repetition rates for males than females in all primary grades, which in turn contributes to overage enrolment.

The GPI has risen marginally from 0.89 in the surge year of 2001-02 to a GPI of 0.92 in 2003-04, where it has been stable for the past three school years. Continued efforts to increase female enrollment and retention in primary school, regardless of age, are essential to reaching EFA goals of gender parity.

Provincial Level Data for Primary Gross Enrolment:

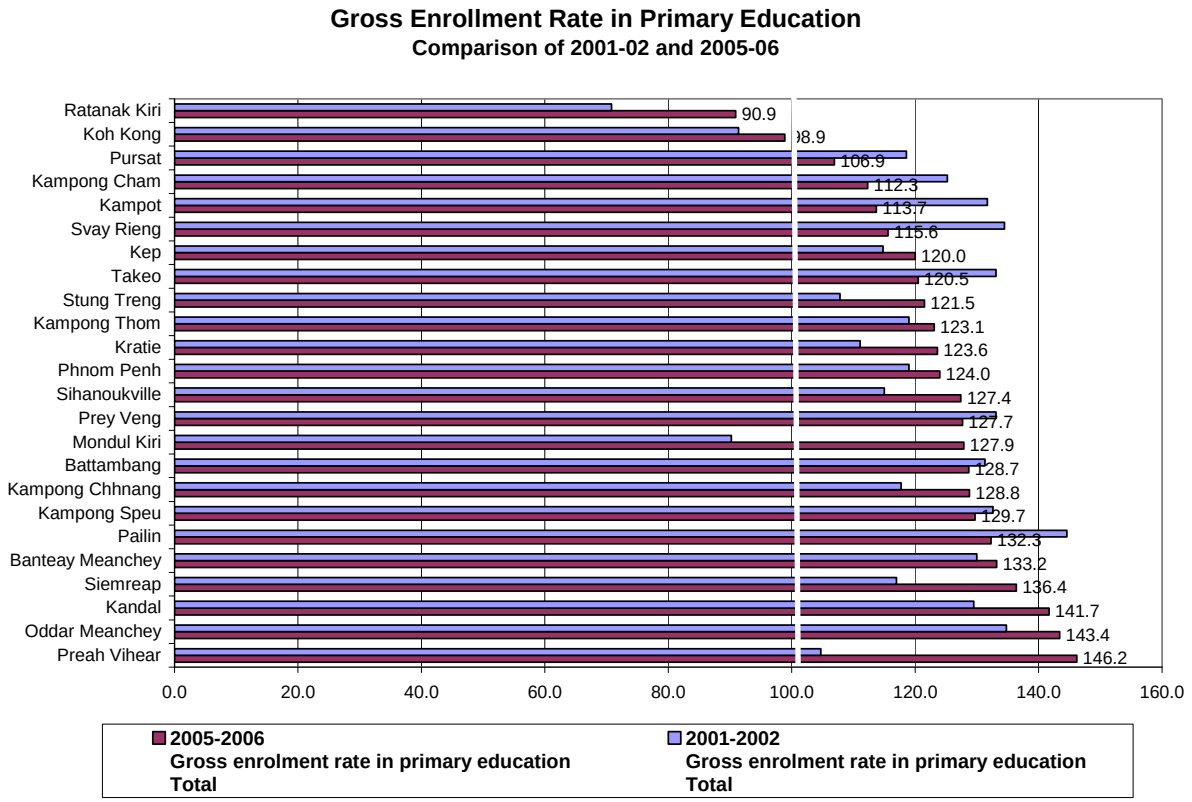
A longitudinal view of **Gross Enrollment Rates** at provincial level can be found by comparing the GER for 2001-02, the surge year, and in 2005-06. This comparison has been presented in Figure 2.13, where GER is sorted by descending magnitudes in 2005-06. According to this analysis, nine of Cambodia's 24 provinces show a slight decrease in Gross Enrollment Rate between 2001-02 and 2005-06. These provinces include Pursat, Kampong Cham, Kampot, Svay Rieng, Takeo, Prey Veng, Battambang, Kampong Speu and Pailin. The largest declines in GER were found in Svay Rieng and Kampot with decreases in GER of over 18%, followed by Kampong Cham, Takeo and Pailin with decreases in GER of over 12%.

All other provinces showed increases in GER. The largest gains in gross enrollment were found in the ethnic minority provinces. In this respect, Preah Vihear showed a gain of 41.5% in GER over the four year period; Mondulkiri showed a gain of 37.7%; and Ratanakiri showed a gross enrollment gain of 20.1%. In addition, Siem Reap showed a large gain of 19.4% in gross enrollment. Other provinces had more moderate gains.

The above observations must again be tempered by the fact that two remote provinces showed a Gross Enrollment Rate in 2005-06 of less than 100%. They are Ratanakiri (90.9%) and Koh Kong (98.9%). These two provinces are evidently not providing adequate coverage for potential primary school pupils. A GER of <100% suggests low participation, whether of correct age or not, in primary schooling. Koh Kong had a Gross Admission Rate in 2005-06 of 104.7%, one of the lowest in the country. Koh Kong also has an extremely low Net Admission Rate of 71.4%. Ratanakiri has a high Gross Admission Rate of 163.1% for 2005-06, suggesting that it is enrolling large numbers of overage children, but its Net Admission Rate is even lower than Koh Kong at 56.9%. In these two provinces there are evidently significant barriers for correct age children to access primary school.

Meanwhile, in Kandal, the populous province around the capital, and Oddar Meanchey and Preah Vihear, former Khmer Rouge strongholds in the remote north of the country, all show GER over 140%, suggesting very strong coverage by the primary system in these areas, including large proportions of overage children.

Figure 2.13: Trend Changes in Gross Enrolment in the Primary Education Sector by Province, 2001-02 and 2005-06

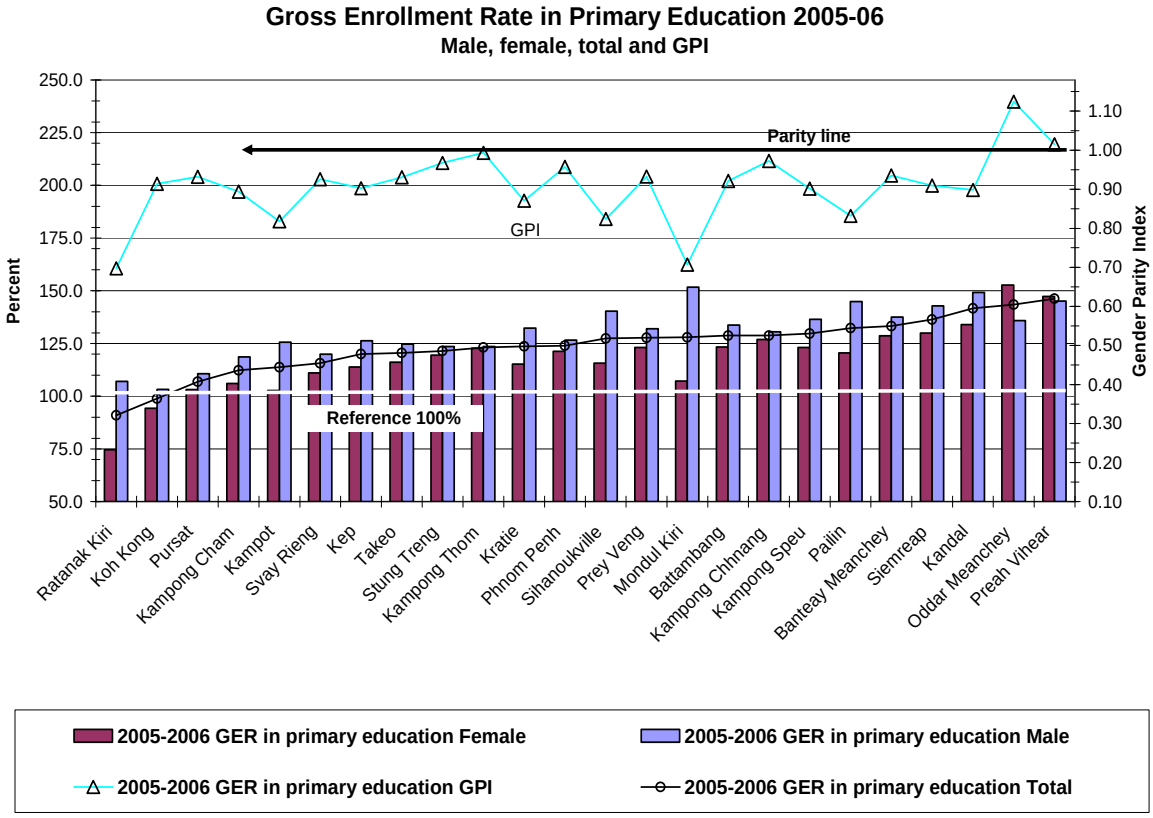


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2001-02 and 2005-06

Gender disaggregation at the province level reveals that four provinces had achieved gender parity (GPI = 0.97 to 1.03) for GER by 2005-06. They are Preah Vihear (GPI = 1.02), Kampong Thom (GPI = 0.99), Kampong Chhnang (GPI = 0.97), and Stung Treng (GPI = 0.97) (see Table 2.14). Oddar Meanchey (GPI = 1.12), and Preah Vihear, reconciliation areas with very high overage enrollment, reflected in the highest GER in the country, are also evidently enrolling more girls than boys in primary school, since their GPI values exceed 1.00.

In contrast, Mondulkiri, (GPI = 0.71) and Ratanakiri, (GPI = 0.70), provinces with large ethnic miinorities in the northeast, show the nation's lowest Gender Parity Index values for GER, which suggest significant disparities in enrollment between boys and girls at primary level.

Figure 2.14: Trend Changes in Gross Enrolment in the Primary Education Sector by Province and Sex, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

2.7.4 Gross Enrollment Rate in Lower Secondary Education

National Level Data on Secondary Gross Enrolment:

The **Gross Enrollment Rate** for lower secondary schools in Cambodia shows three prominent features. First, there has been a significant increase in enrollment rates over the period from 2000-01 to 2005-06, and especially since 2003-04. This upward trend in enrollment is attributable to increasing efforts of the Ministry to provide a complete basic education, defined as Grades 1-9, to Cambodian youth. Lower secondary schools are increasingly enrolling the children being promoted from primary school. Meanwhile, the Ministry and donors have been expanding lower secondary facilities, including the launch of a new and massive building program, the results of which will begin to be apparent in 2006-07. Ministry and partners also inaugurated pro-poor scholarship programs in 2003-04, based on prototypes developed by NGOs in Kampong Cham and Kandal, which especially target girls, ethnic minorities, and vulnerable groups to improve their access to secondary education (see case study box). Expansion of lower secondary school opportunities is also expected to stimulate greater demand at primary level.

The second trend clearly visible in gross enrollment is a significant stratification of access by region. Students in urban areas are much more likely to enroll in lower secondary school than students in rural areas, and students in rural areas are much more likely to do so than students in remote areas. The disparities by location may be ameliorated by the infrastructure expansion program underway if it is accompanied by corresponding improvements in teacher development and deployment and distribution of textbooks and classroom materials.

In 2005-06 the GER for LSS for Cambodia as a whole was 55.3%. For Urban Areas the rate was 88.5%, while for rural and remote areas it was 50.2% and 17.8%, respectively. GER for remote areas is thus only about one-fifth that of urban areas (see Table 2.7).

Table 2.7: Gross Enrolment Rate at Lower Secondary School Level, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote	Female	Male	GPI
2000-2001	27.0	47.7	23.0	2.9	20.3	--	--
2001-2002	32.7	54.9	28.5	3.8	25.6	41.6	0.62
2002-2003	36.5	56.9	32.8	5.3	29.5	43.4	0.68
2003-2004	39.3	61.1	35.5	8.1	33.3	45.2	0.74
2004-2005	45.8	72.8	41.4	11.6	40.3	51.2	0.79
2005-2006	55.3	88.5	50.2	17.8	50.0	60.5	0.83

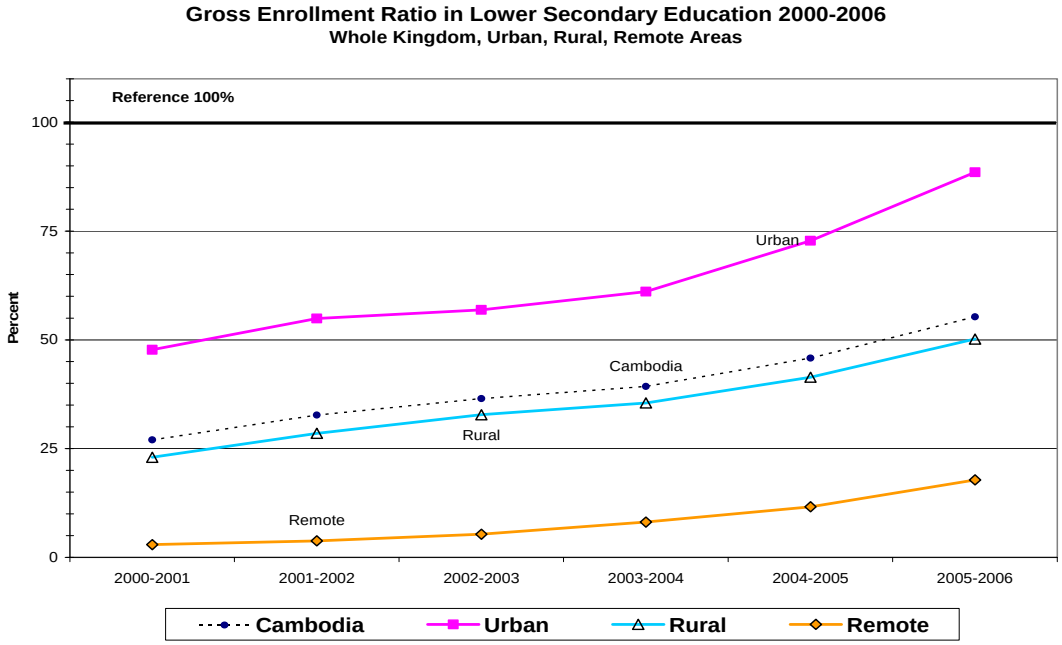
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

The third feature of GER trends at lower secondary school level is the comparatively low rate of enrollment against the overall population of children of lower secondary school age. The observation that GER is less than 100% suggests that the LSS system presently does not have the capacity to serve the available potential candidates. A GER of less than 100% indicates that current participation in lower secondary education, both among correct age candidates and the expectably large contribution of overage candidates, suggests that either capacity is inadequate or demand is weak or both. In Cambodia, the opportunity costs for secondary education are very great given the value of labor among adolescents (and the foregone income that this entails when a young person stays in school). This factor, in combination with the much higher direct costs of secondary education required by the purchase of a bicycle, unofficial teacher fees, and other special costs, each has the effect of greatly depressing educational demand. The Cambodian EFA commitment to provide basic education up to Grade 9 for all may be achievable for urban areas by 2015, but there is a danger that increasing numbers of children completing primary education in rural and remote areas may be unable to access lower secondary school and complete their basic education for a number of reasons that reflect both supply and demand issues.

Scholarship Programming: A Front-line Strategy to Stimulate Demand for Secondary Education

In 2002, the Asian Development Bank engaged Kampuchean Action for Primary Education to assist MoEYS to conduct a feasibility study for a national scholarship program based on an LNGO prototype developed earlier. These efforts were a model of cooperation between government, an international organization, and a local NGO. The study led to the development and implementation of a three-year scholarship program funded by the Japan Fund for Poverty Reduction (JFPR) and ADB in which Government started the first national scholarship program in Cambodia. The JFPR program was implemented in 90 lower secondary schools focusing on vulnerable girls. The program provided $45 per year per child to subsidize the direct costs of education. The success of the JFPR Program led to sister programming funded by Belgian Aid (2003) and World Bank (2005).

Figure 2.15: Trend Changes in Gross Enrolment in the Lower Secondary Education Sector by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



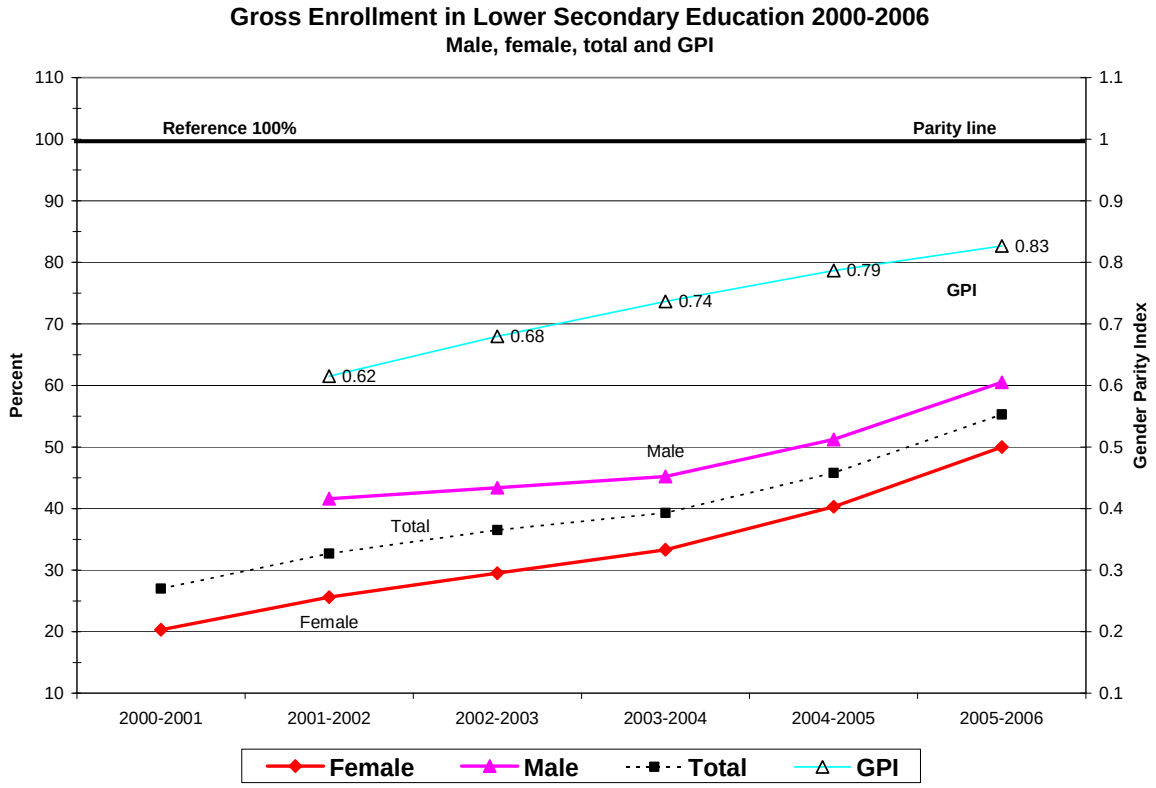
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

GER has been increasing much more quickly in urban areas during the reporting period and was significantly higher than the national average in 2005-06 (88.5% versus 55.3%). In 2000-01, the gap between urban and rural GER was 24.7% but by 2005-06, this gap had widened to 38.3% (see Table and Figure 2.15). Not surprisingly, GER in remote areas was still relatively low in absolute terms (17.8% in 2005-06) when compared to either rural or urban populations. Nevertheless, in relative terms, GER in remote areas had reportedly jumped by 514% during the reporting period (from 2.9 to 17.8%).

The above observations suggest that the expansion in capacity in the lower secondary education sector (particularly increases in teacher numbers) appears to have been benefiting mainly urban populations in spite of the pro-poor focus of reforms introduced early in the decade. It is also likely, however, that the emerging phenomenon of middle class affluence is mainly an urban one and that this has reduced access barriers to secondary education in cities and towns that are primarily financial in nature. Nevertheless, narrowing the urban-rural gap will be a key challenge for the future.

Male enrollment predominates in lower secondary school, however there is a distinct trend of improvement in female enrollment, which is likely due to the impact of the scholarship programs that have mainly targeted girls. In this respect, the Gender Parity Index in 2001-02 was 0.62 but has since risen steadily and steeply to the present value in 2005-06 of 0.83 (see Figure 2.16). This represents an increase of 0.053 each year. If this rate of increase continues, GER should achieve parity by 2008.

Figure 2.16: Trend Changes in Gross Enrolment in the Lower Secondary Education Sector by Sex, 2000-01 to 2005-06

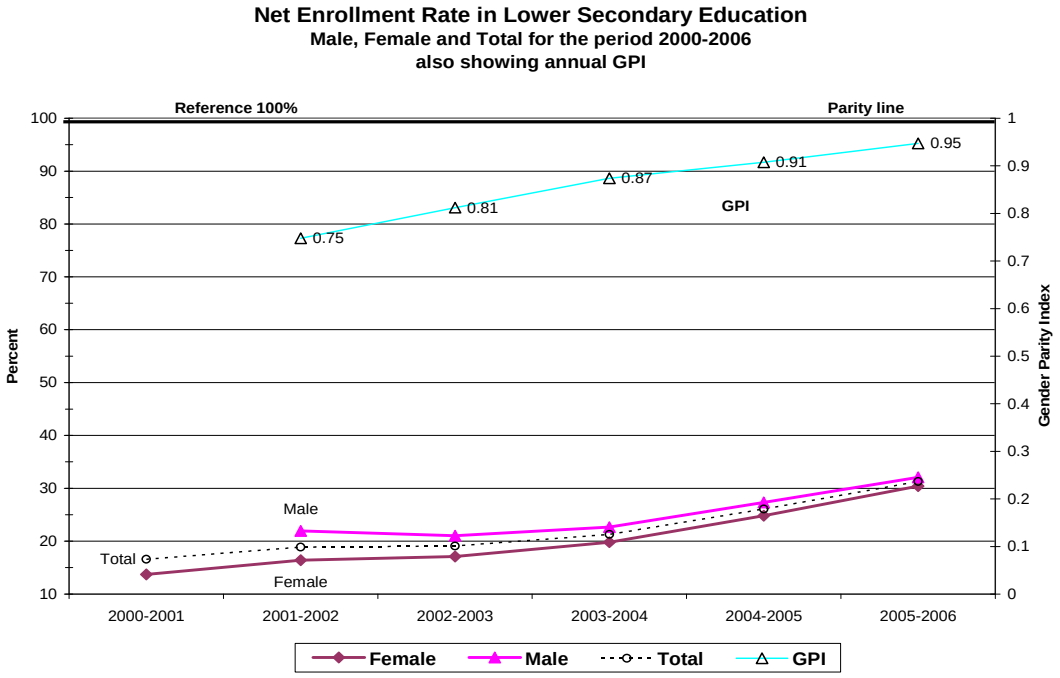


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Gender parity levels for Net Enrolment are much more sanguine than they appear to be for Gross Enrolment. In this respect, male and female correct age enrollment rates in lower secondary school seem to be converging, which gives rise to a much improved Gender Parity Index for NER in the sector over time. This convergence can be seen very clearly in Figure 2.17. For example, in 2001-02, the GPI for Net Enrolment in the sector was 0.75, but by 2005-06, the index had reached 0.95. By defining parity as any GPI value that falls within a range of 0.97 to 1.03, this would indicate that NER is nearly at parity already, in contrast to GER, which is still a couple of years away from achieving parity at current rates of increase. Indeed, the gap between male and female enrolment that can be seen in Figure 2.16 contrasts markedly with the convergence seen in Figure 2.17. As noted earlier, the marked improvements in female enrollment in the lower secondary education sector is likely due to the scholarship programs and the extensive awareness raising campaigns that have been associated with them, beginning in 2003-04.

The lower GPI for GER in the sector also suggests that much of the overage enrolment implied by current enrolment values is comprised of boys, since correct age enrolment values are already at parity.

Figure 2.17: Trend Changes in Net Enrolment in the Lower Secondary Education Sector by Sex, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

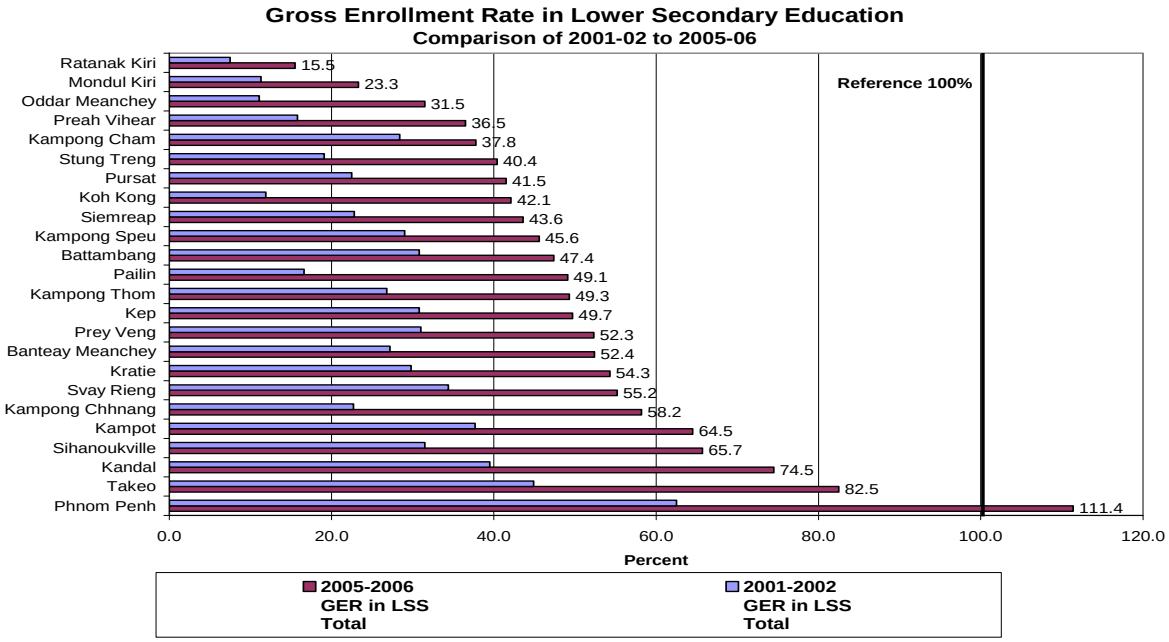
Provincial Level Data for Secondary Gross Enrolment:

A longitudinal view of gross enrollment trends for lower secondary education, with disaggregation to the province level, can be obtained by comparing data from 2001-02 with present values from 2005-06. The results show improvements in enrollment rate over the period for every province in the country, without exception (see Figure 2.18).

The results also show the disparities in access to lower secondary school very clearly. In 2005-06, the GER in Phnom Penh (111.4%) was the only value greater than 100%. The three most densely populated provinces in the country, Phnom Penh, Takeo (82.5%), and Kandal (74.5%) had GER above 70%, distinctly higher than all other provinces. Three more provinces had rates higher than the national average (55.3%), namely, Sihanoukville (65.7%), Kampot (64.5%) and Kampong Chhnang (58.2%).

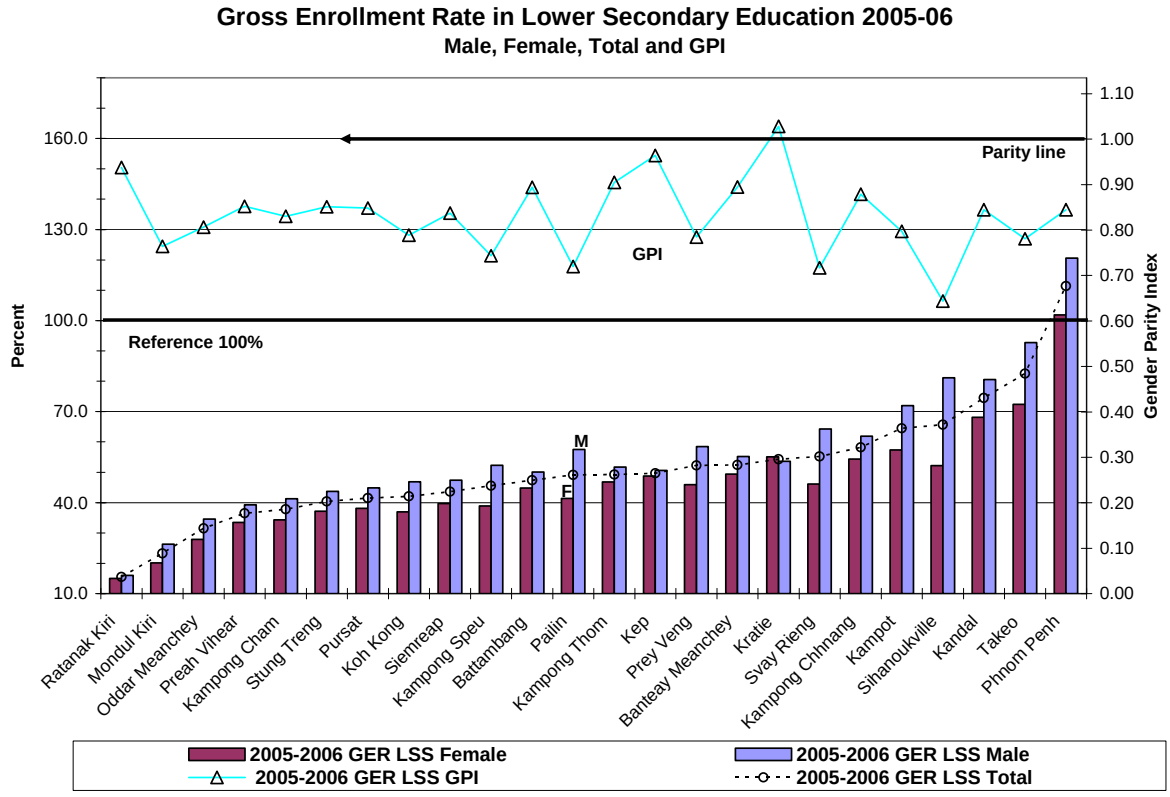
At the other end of the scale, the two mountainous ethnic minority provinces had GER less than 25%. These include Ratanakiri (15.5%) and Mondulkiri (23.3%). A startling finding is that Kampong Cham Province, the most highly populated province in the country, had a GER value in the bottom five provinces (37.8%) and was only marginally better than Mondulkirii and Ratanakiri. There is no adequate explanation to this finding, other than that the province has many remote areas in spite of its population. Because of its large population, this province should be a priority for enrollment enhancing interventions. Other provinces that had a GER of less than 40% included Oddar Meanchey (31.5%) and Preah Vihear (36.5%), both of which were former Khmer Rouge areas.

Figure 2.18: Gross Enrolment in the Lower Secondary Education Sector by Province, 2001-02 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2001-02 & 2005-06

Figure 2.19: Gross Enrolment in Lower Secondary Education by Province & Sex, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

In 2005-06, only one Cambodian province had achieved gender parity for GER in LSS, and that was Kratie (GPI for GER in LSS 1.03) (see Figure 2.19). The reasons for this unexpected finding are not known.

2.7.5 Net Enrollment Rate in Primary Education

National Level Data on Primary Net Enrolment:

The **Net Enrollment Rate** provides a more precise, or narrower, measure of participation of correct age school children in any given sector. NER is based on the official national entry age and assumes no repetition. NER in primary education is the number of students of the correct age for primary school enrolled in primary school, as a percent of the correct/official school age population for primary school in the country.[12]

An NER that increases over time reflects improving participation in primary education. The difference between 100% and the actual NER is a measure of the proportion of primary school children (of the official ages) not enrolled in primary school. The measure is not exact because some children could be enrolled in preschool or at lower secondary school. The difference between GER, which considers the enrollment of children of any age, and NER, which considers the enrollment of correct age children, is a measure of the overage and underage enrollment in the level.

National NER stood at 91.3% in 2005-06, up by 7.5% since 2001. The NER for urban and rural areas has remained generally close and has moved steadily upward over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06, although leveling out in the last two years of the reporting period (see Table 2.8 and Figure 2.20). This slowing in the movement forward highlights the challenge for future efforts to enhance access, which is to get the last 10% of the school age population in school. The NER for remote areas of Cambodia, by contrast, has risen steeply from an NER in 2000-01 of 62.3% to an NER in 2005-06 of 83.7%. The NER is clearly following the trend for increased intake in primary schools in the remote areas that was noted earlier in the net admission rate for the period, and reflects continued retention of the increasing enrollment.

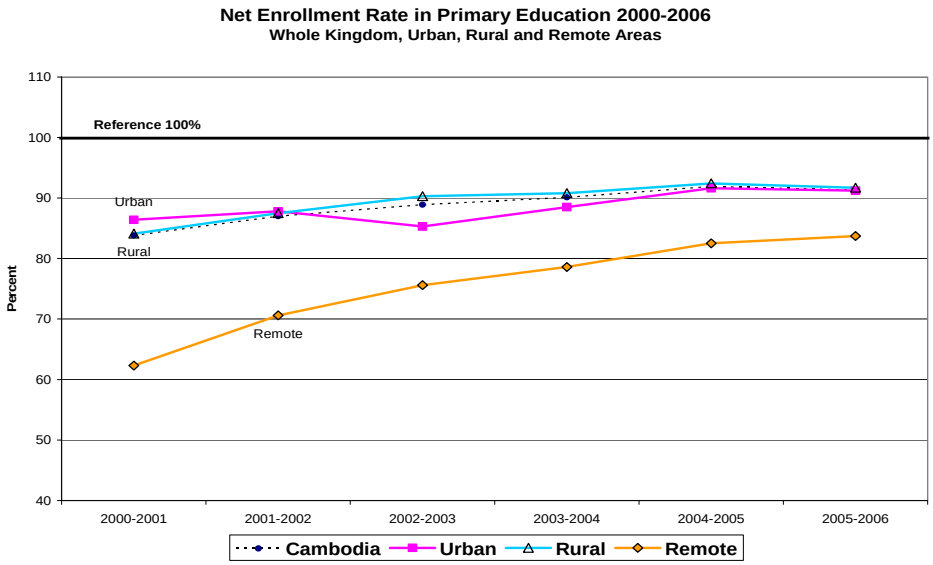
Table 2.8: Net Enrolment Rate at Primary School Level by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote	Female	Male	GPI
2000-2001	83.8	86.4	84.1	62.3	80.7	na	na
2001-2002	87.0	87.8	87.5	70.6	84.2	90.0	0.94
2002-2003	88.9	85.3	90.3	75.6	86.8	91.0	0.95
2003-2004	90.1	88.5	90.8	78.6	88.6	91.5	0.97
2004-2005	91.9	91.6	92.4	82.5	90.7	93.1	0.97
2005-2006	91.3	91.2	91.7	83.7	89.7	93.0	0.96

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

[12] By its nature, the NER focuses on the narrow band of pupils that are of the correct school age for each cycle, and does not consider overage pupils, regardless of their success in the system. The NER would not count a 12 year old in grade 6, since primary school correct age is defined as 6-11. But the NER would count an 11 year old in Grade 1. These considerations lead many authorities to prefer the Gross Enrollment (or Admission) Rates for conditions like those in Cambodia, where overage admission and enrollment is such a salient factor.

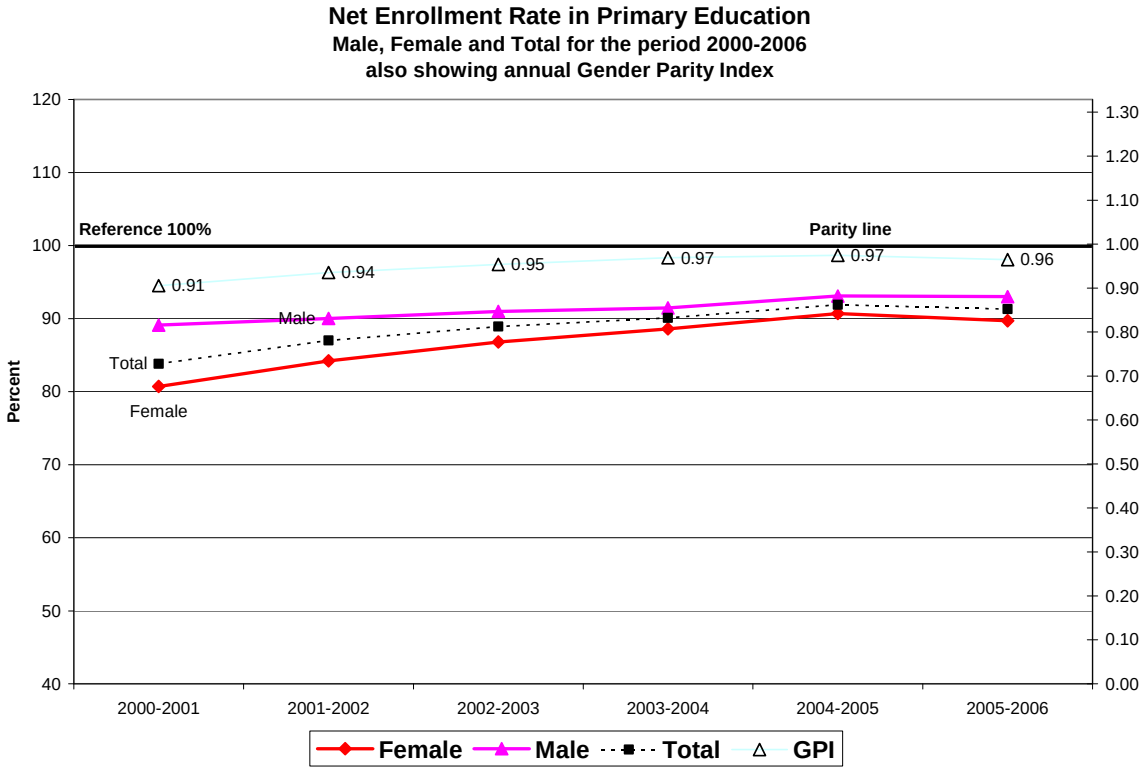
Figure 2.20: Trend Changes in NER in Primary Education by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

As noted above, the **Cambodia national figure for primary level NER in 2005-06 was 91.3%**. The figure is about the same for urban and rural areas. Meanwhile, remote areas seem to show a proportion closer to 16% of primary school age children not enrolled in primary school.

Figure 2.21: Trend Changes in NER in Primary Education by Sex, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

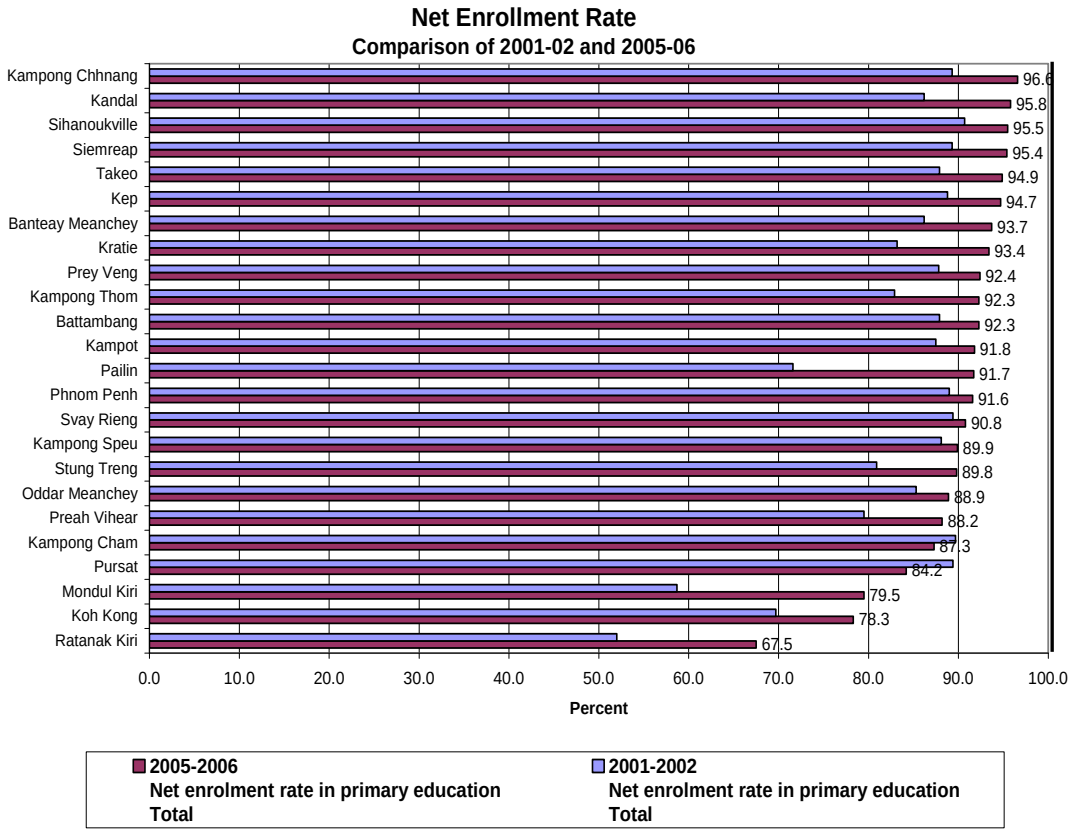
In contrast to NER, the **national figure for GER at primary level in 2005-06 was 124%**, and is close to the values for urban, rural, and remote areas. The difference between the present national GER (124%) and the national NER (91.3 %) is 32.7%. That suggests that nationwide about one third of primary pupils are over (or under) age. The proportion is somewhat greater in Remote Areas at about 40%. The persistent trend for over/underage entry to primary school in Cambodia is a reality to which the school system and teachers should accommodate, at least in the short to mid-term. The desire for correct age and homogeneous age classes must come to terms with the actual demographic and cultural demand for primary education by overage children. Appropriate modifications of classrooms and pedagogy may be necessary to reach this significant component of the primary school population effectively. It is also worth noting that "correct" age is an arbitrary figure that can vary from country to country.

The trend in NER for males and females shows a steady improvement in gender parity, with some slight losses in the latest figures. In 2003-04 and 2004-05 gender parity was reached at .0.97, but the GPI had slipped to 0.96 in 2005-06. Equitable access for correct age male and female children in primary school seems fairly secure.

Provincial Level Data for Primary Net Enrolment:

Primary school coverage for correct age children can be viewed longitudinally at the province level in Figure 2.22, which compares NER for 2001-02 and 2005-06. Provinces are sorted by decreasing NER in 2005-06.

Figure 2.22: Net Enrolment in Primary Education by Province, 2001-02 & 2005-06

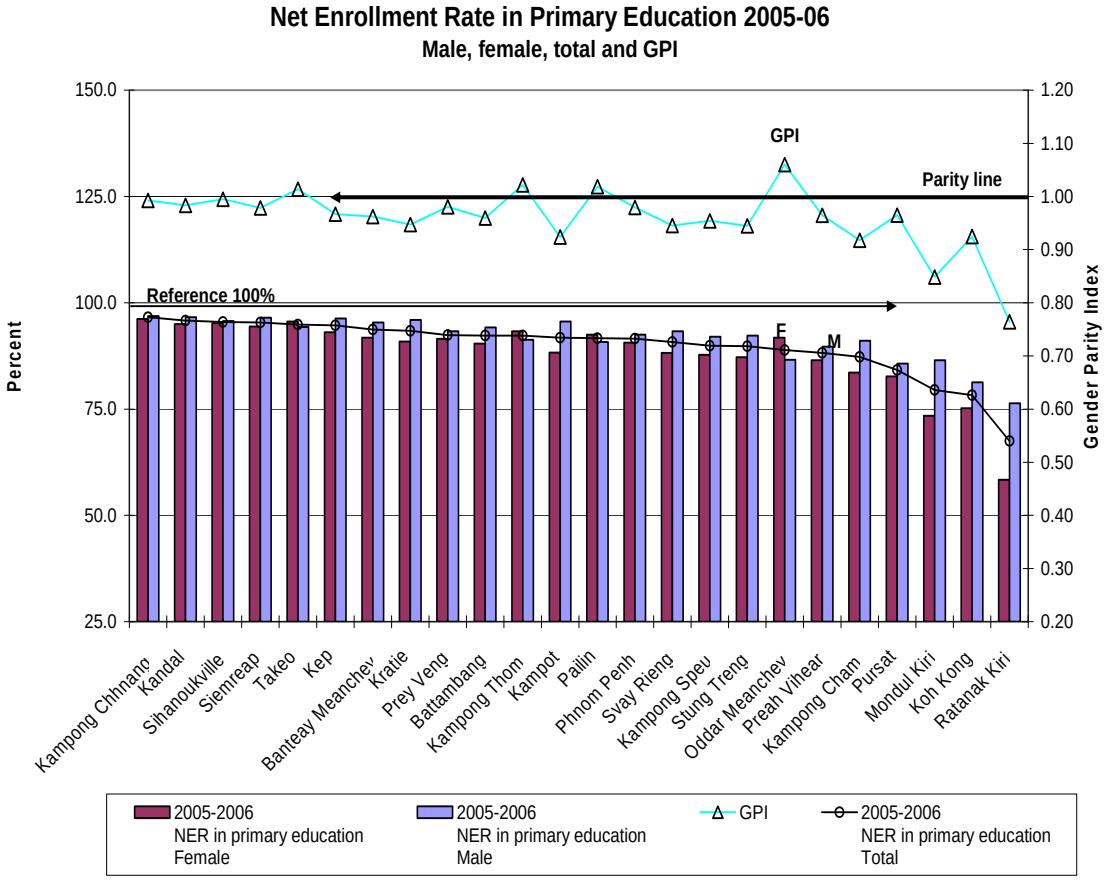


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2001-02 & 2005-06

Only two provinces show a slight decrease in NER from 2001-02 to 2005-06, namely Kampong Cham and Pursat. The decline in NER in Kampong Cham should be of some concern since nearly one-sixth of all Cambodians reside in this single province, thus giving it a weighting that exceeds its relative size. All other provinces showed an increase in Net Enrollment Rate from earlier to present levels, giving rise to the observed national trend of increased primary school enrollment.

Three provinces showed dramatic gains in NER over the last four years. In this respect, Pailin, the former Khmer Rouge center, increased its NER 20.1% from 71.6% in 2001-02 to 91.7% in 2005-06. Mondulkiri showed a gain of 20.8% and Ratanakiri showed a gain of 15.5% over the period. Nevertheless, the latter two ethnic minority provinces still emerge with very low net enrollment in primary education in absolute terms. The present rate for Mondulkiri is 79.5% and for Ratanakiri 67.5%. Another low enrollment province is Koh Kong with an NER in 2005-06 of 78.3%. These three poor performers have both low net admission rates and low net enrollment rates, showing persistent problems in reaching their primary school populations.

Figure 2.23: Net Enrolment in Primary Education by Province and Sex, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

In 2005-06, eleven of the twenty-four provinces of Cambodia had achieved gender parity in net enrollment rate (see Figure 2.23). However the two ethnic minority areas of the northeast continue to show the poorest access for correct age girls in primary enrollment. Mondulkiri showed a GPI of 0.85 while GPI in Ratanakiri was only 0.76, the lowest in the nation. Correct age enrollment in these provinces and in Koh Kong, lags significantly behind all the other provinces.

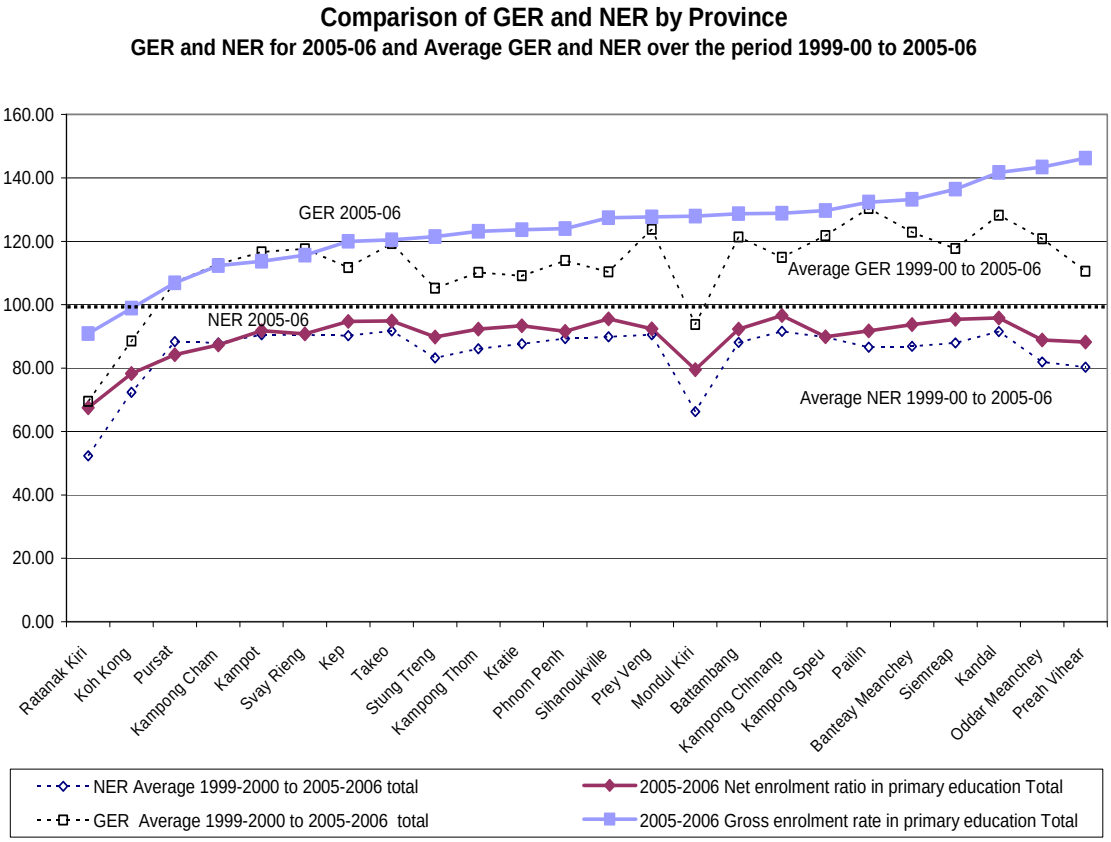
These findings on NER mirror the findings on NAR, to reinforce the conclusion that these three provinces require specifically targeted interventions to remove the persistent disparities in primary school access that the data reveal.

Comparison of GER and NER in Primary Education:

A comparison of the GER and NER averages by province from the seven year period 1999-00 to 2005-06 with current 2005-06 GER and NER values for each province highlights the improvement in enrollment in primary education (see Figure 2.24). Only two provinces show an NER in 2005-06 that is lower than the seven year average, namely, Pursat and Kampong Cham. Similarly, only four provinces show a GER in 2005-06 that is slightly lower than the seven year average including Pursat, Kampong Cham, Kampot and Svay Rieng. In all other cases, the GER and NER show elevated enrollments in 2005-06 from the period averages.

Ratanakiri and Koh Kong show improvement in 2005-06 over the seven year average, but they still clearly have the lowest GER (below 100) and lowest NER in the country. These provinces need special attention to improve the coverage for primary education. Mondulkiri has shown dramatic improvement in both NER and especially GER, but correct age enrollment is still relatively low. The persistent and increasing gap between NER and GER across most provinces of the Kingdom supports the conclusion that overage enrollment is a durable feature of the Cambodian educational landscape. Thus, appropriate modifications of educational policy to respond to this demographic demand should be considered.

Figure 2.24: Gross and Net Enrolment Rate by Province, 1999-00 to2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2005-06

2.7.6 Net Enrollment Rate in Lower Secondary Education

National Level Data on Secondary Net Enrolment:

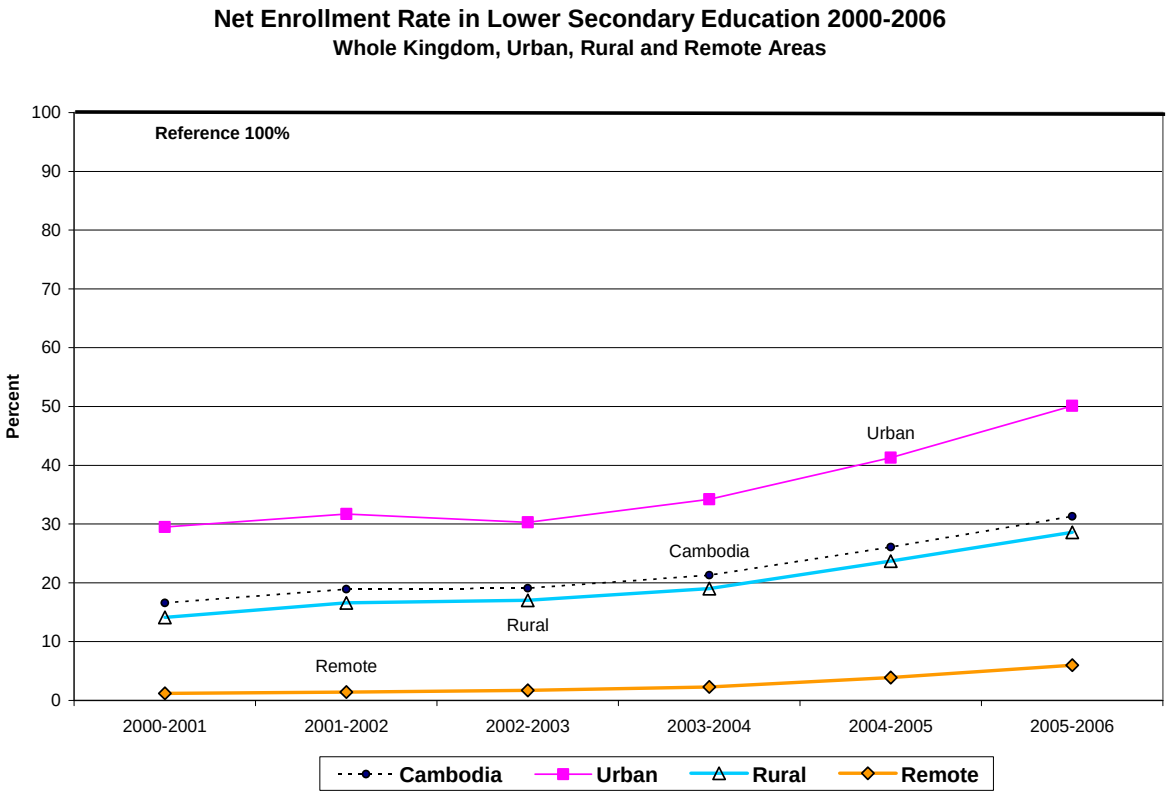
Net Enrollment Rate of correct age students in Lower Secondary School shows the continuing trends of overage enrollment at this level noted earlier. Persistent overage enrolment is a consequence of late entry to primary school and excessive repetition throughout the basic education cycle. Overall, NER at lower secondary stood at 31.3% in 2005 up from 16.6% in 2000-01 (see Table 2.9).

Table 2.9: Net Enrolment Rate at Lower Secondary School Level by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote	Female	Male	GPI
2000-2001	16.6	29.5	14.1	1.2	13.7	--	--
2001-2002	18.9	31.7	16.6	1.4	16.4	21.9	0.75
2002-2003	19.1	30.3	17.0	1.7	17.1	21.1	0.81
2003-2004	21.3	34.2	19	2.3	19.8	22.7	0.87
2004-2005	26.1	41.3	23.7	3.9	24.8	27.3	0.91
2005-2006	31.3	50.1	28.6	6.0	30.4	32.1	0.95

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 2.25: Net Enrolment in Lower Secondary Education by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Overage enrollment in lower secondary schools in 2005-06, according to EMIS statistics was 43.5% for Cambodia as a whole, 43.4% in urban areas, 43.2 in rural areas and 66.2% in remote areas. These very low NER values indicate very high proportions of children of correct school age who are not enrolled in lower secondary school. Many of these children may still be in primary school as overage pupils, while others are likely out of school youth, due to the lack of alternative educational options. Viewing the nation as a whole, in 2005-06 approximately 69% of Cambodian youth of lower secondary school age were not enrolled in lower secondary school. Approximately 50% of correct age urban youth were not enrolled, 71% of rural youth and about 94% of youth in remote areas were not accessing lower secondary education at the correct age.

The extremely low NER values in rural and remote areas are partly a consequence of the pattern of overage admission to primary school, which perpetuates a trend of overage enrollment in later grades. Thus, many children at the correct age for lower secondary school may still be in primary school. The very low values for correct age enrollment in lower secondary school in remote areas are also no doubt due to the lack of school facilities near enough to be considered accessible by local families. Both overage enrollment and paucity of schools at reasonable distance from homes, especially in remote areas are matters of concern in an EFA program with a commitment to "reach the un-reached."

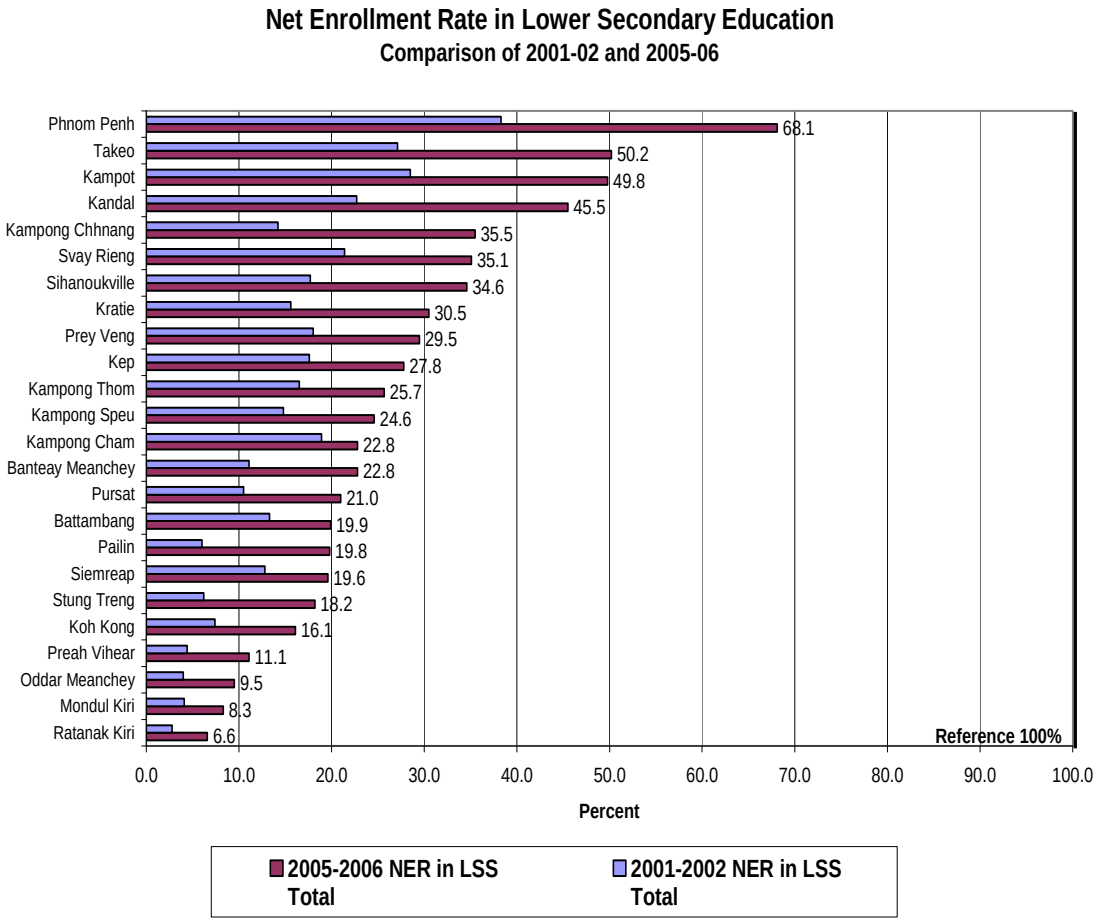
Provincial Level Data on Secondary Net Enrollment:

The longitudinal results by province for net enrollment rate in lower secondary school mirror the results for GER. Without exception, there is a rise in NER between 2001-02 and 2005-06 for all Cambodian provinces. It is important to note, however, that the magnitude of these increments during the reporting period varies widely from province to province and that clear regional patterns are indicated.

Again, the very highest rates of net enrolment among a handful of provinces are significantly above the remainder and far exceed the national average of 31.3% mentioned earlier. The provinces with the highest NER were Phnom Penh (68.1%), Takeo (50.2%), Kampot (49.8%), and Kandal (45.5%) (see Figure 2.26). Interestingly, all of these provinces are geographically contiguous, suggesting the possibility of some regional dynamic. Moving from these provinces to the next highest NER value, one notices that values drop by 10%. These findings demonstrate that past efforts to boost access to lower secondary school has been most successful in the capital and nearby population centers. Alternatively, it could simply be that existing conditions in these provinces lend themselves more easily to increased access rather than being any reflection on national efforts to increase enrolments.

At the other end of the scale, the provinces least reached by the lower secondary education system are Ratanakiri, (NER=6.6%), Mondulkiri (8.3%), Oddar Meanchey (9.5%) and Preah Vihear (11.1%). The contrast to the earlier mentioned provinces is doubly underscored by the observation that NER in Ratanakiri is less than one-tenth the rate that is found in Phnom Penh. All these provinces are in the rugged and remote areas of the north, bordering on Vietnam, Laos, and Thailand. Extending basic education to these border regions is not just an EFA imperative. There are sensible strategic reasons that Cambodia would want to assure that all its citizens, especially in the sparsely populated border areas, were literate in Khmer and included in the social and economic development of the Kingdom.

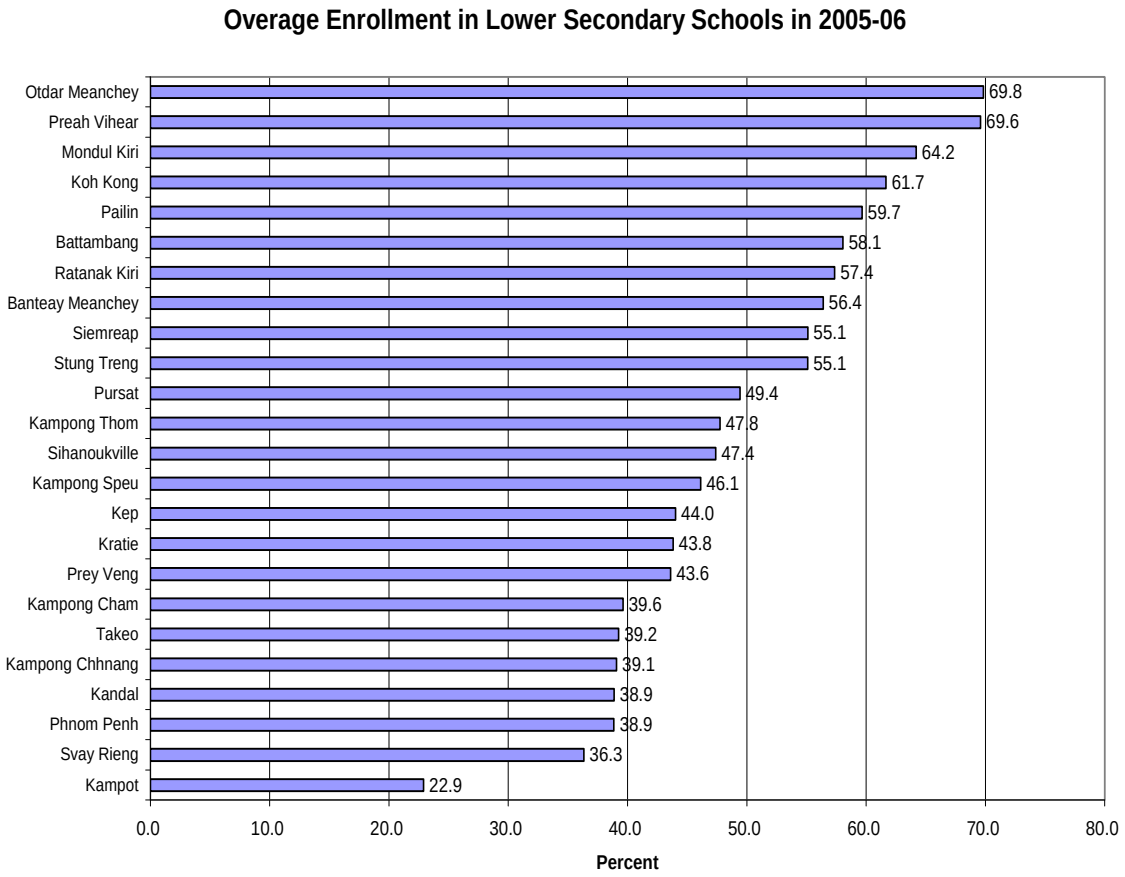
Figure 2.26: Net Enrolment in Lower Secondary Education by Province, 2001-02 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2001-02 & 2005-06

Almost a mirror image of the Net Enrollment Rate is the rate of over age enrollment in lower secondary school (see Figure 2.27). The provinces with the highest levels of overage enrolment at lower secondary level include Oddar Meanchey (69.8%), Preah Vihear (69.6%), and Mondulkiri (64.2%). These are also the same provinces with among the lowest rates of NER that were identified above. Thus, there appear to be clear regional patterns regarding where overage enrolment is clustered. For example, the provinces around the capital and in the southern deltaic flood plains and on the coast with a higher NER, show lower overage enrollment. In contrast, the provinces around the Tonle Sap Lake and in the mountainous North with a lower NER show generally a higher overage enrollment. These differences notwithstanding, it is important to note that even in provinces where overage enrolment appears to be least of a problem, it still accounts for more than one-third of total enrolment, except in Kampot where it accounts for about one-fifth of enrolment. These proportions are significant in that they greatly increase the sector's exposure to a high incidence of dropout. This is because the opportunity costs associated with schooling tend to be greater for older students than for younger ones (i.e., the income earning potential for older students is greater; thus, the costs that go along with foregoing that income in order to stay in school are also greater).

Figure 2.27: Overage Enrolment in Lower Secondary Education by Province, 2005-06



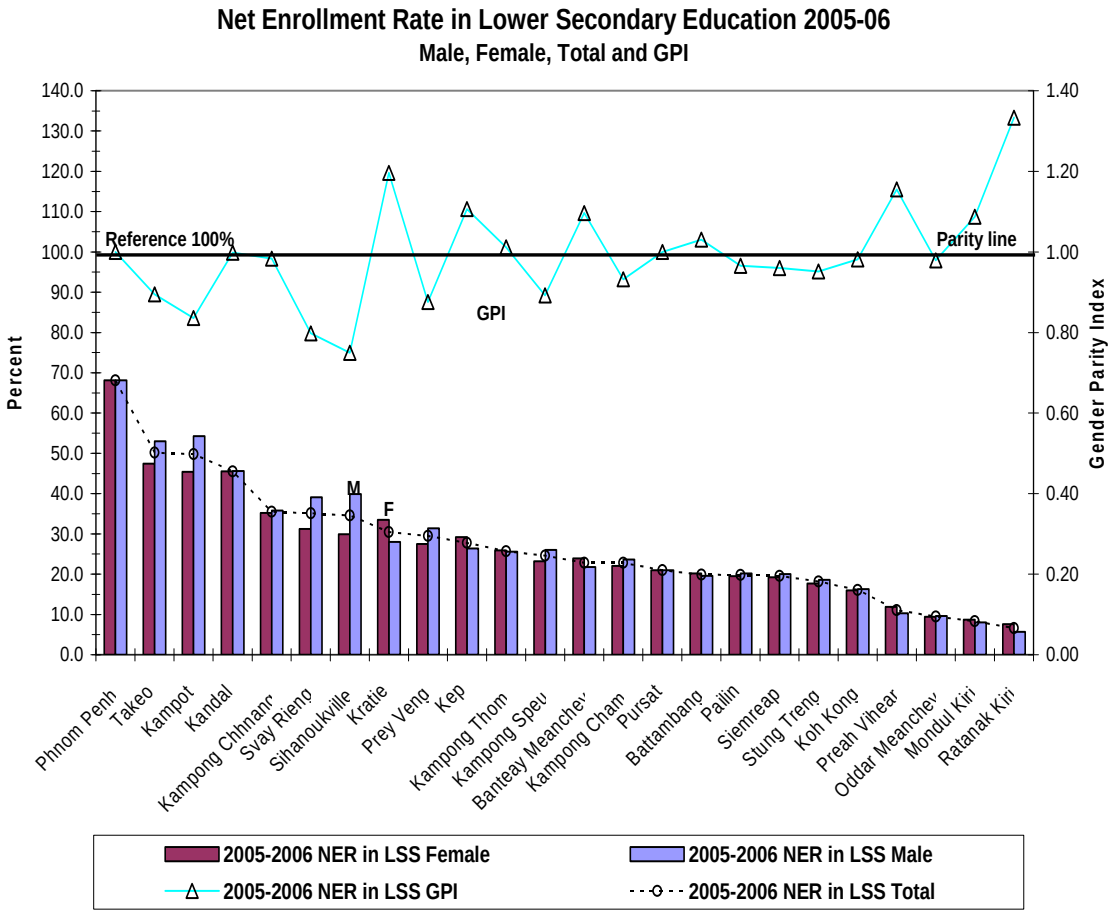
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

The rates at which females are seeking lower secondary education in some provinces are truly impressive. Fifteen of Cambodia's twenty-four provinces have registered GPI values for NER at lower secondary school level that exceed 1.0, in spite of the small enrolments sometimes involved (see Figure 2.28). For example, in Ratanakiri, with the lowest NER, the GPI is 1.33, meaning four girls are enrolled for every three boys. The other very high GPI provinces include Kratie (1.20), Preah Vihear (1.16) Kep (1.11), Banteay Meanchey (1.10) and Mondul Kiri (1.09). GPI values in these provinces nevertheless indicate an imbalance in gender parity since there are more girls than boys (i.e., GPI values exceed 1.03). Other provinces that show more truly balanced levels of gender parity in 2005-06 include Battambang (1.03), Kampong Thom (1.01), Phnom Penh (1.00), Pursat (1.00), Kandal (1.00), Kampong Chhnang (0.98), Koh Kong (0.98), Oddar Meanchey, (0.98) and Pailin (0.97).

The above findings on the eagerness of families in many of the poorest and most remote areas to enroll correct age girls in lower secondary school can probably best be explained by the impact of recent programs that have sought to reduce the direct cost barrier to access. The incentive schemes of the Japanese Fund for Poverty Reduction, financed through the Asian Development Bank (JFPR/ADB), the World Bank's Cambodia Education Sector Support Program (CESSP), the Belgian Technical Cooperation Basic Education and Teacher Training (BETT) program, as well as the Ministry's Priority Action Program (PAP 12) have provided scholarships to poor girls in 7th, 8th, and 9th grades since 2003-04. These programs probably account for the

increasing willingness and ability of families to send their daughters to lower secondary school. There will soon be need to consolidate these various pilot scholarship programs into a single National Scholarship Program, built on the best practices identified and incorporating the lessons learned from the pilots. Such a program might also consider extending the cash incentive program down to the primary grades, where dropout is also a serious problem.

Figure 2.28: Net Enrolment in Lower Secondary Education by Province and Sex, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

2.7.7 Primary Repetition Rates in Grades 1 to 5

Repetition rates above 0% represent inefficiency or wastage of educational resources. For given expenditures in education, repetition represents a reduction in the desired output, which is promoted students. That reduction translates into inefficiency and increased cost per output. When there is repetition, spaces in school are occupied by repeaters, affecting the access to education by other students. The burden on teachers is also augmented by increasingly crowded classroom conditions and overage classroom composition.

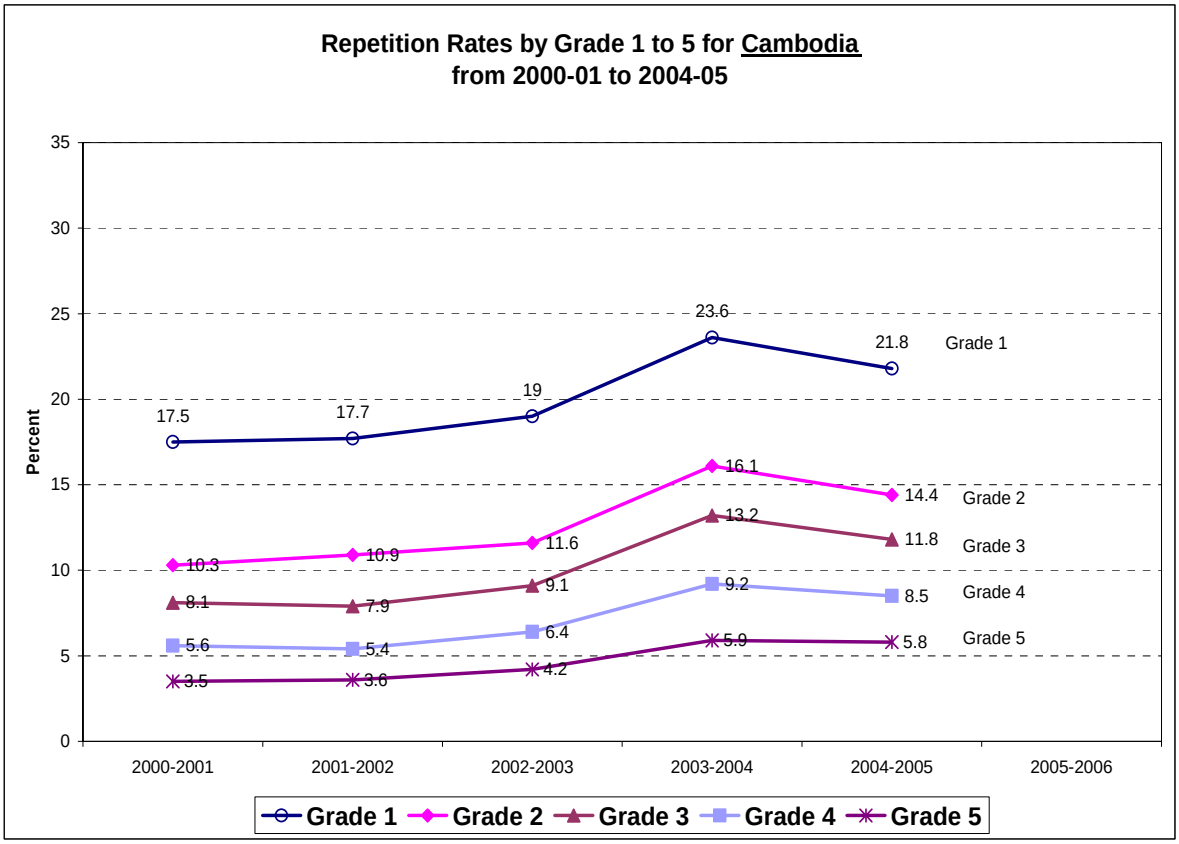
High repetition rates typically indicate problems in the internal efficiency of the educational system and are generally understood to reflect poorly on the quality of instruction provided. But the phenomenon of repetition is often more complex in its causes than a simple by-product of poor instruction. For example, a major study on repetition that was funded by UNICEF/KAPE early in the decade found that poor student attendance accounted for most of the variance in the incidence of repetition. When controlling for attendance, other causes such as income and educa-

tion level of parents dropped out as significant factors. This was a major finding because it accounted for the perplexing failure of millions of dollars in donor investment in supply-side factors to have any effect on rates of repetition during the latter part of the last decade. That is, investments in infrastructure, textbooks, and teacher training had had no appreciable effect on repetition because many children were not attending school regularly enough to benefit from these investments. Supply-side investments are, therefore, a necessary but insufficient input by themselves to reduce repetition. These findings lent support to a major change in MoEYS policy during the present decade to devote more resources to demand-side investments such as school operating budgets under PAP 2 (enabling the abolition of school fees), scholarships, and school breakfast programs to enhance attendance. In addition, the study also reported the surprising finding that schools with strong management tended to have higher repetition rates than those with weaker management. This finding suggests that the validity of data from better-managed schools is less suspect, while there may be validity concerns in data reporting in more poorly managed schools. Such findings also suggest great caution in interpreting repetition data.

National Level Data on Primary Repetition Rates:

The pattern of repetition in Cambodia shows an astounding feature. This refers to the observation that repetition rates are absolutely perfectly stratified by grade level. The reason is probably that teachers feel it necessary to fail a consistent percentage of students in each grade but that this percentage decreases progressively each year as students move through the primary education cycle. It may also indicate that there is a screening effect so that only the faster learners are moving to higher grade levels, which would also depress repetition rates.

Figure 2.29: Trend Changes in Repetition in the Primary Education Sector, 2000-01 to 2004-05

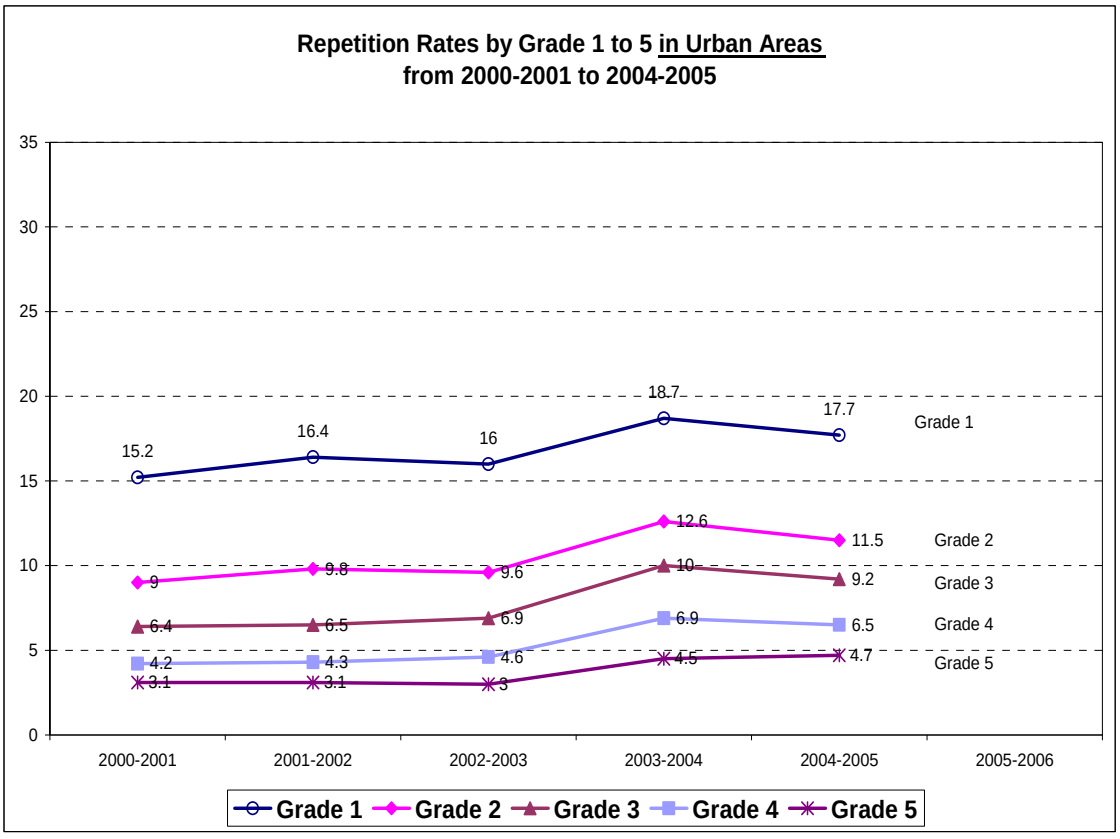


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2004-05

This pattern by which Grade 1 repetition rates exceed those in Grade 2, while those in Grade 2 exceed those in Grade 3 and so on, appears to be consistent over time, from 2000-01 to 2004-05 (see Figure 2.29). The pattern is exactly the same whether for Cambodia as a whole, or for urban, rural, or remote areas. The figures below show this orderly pattern very clearly (see Figures 2.30, 2.31, & 2.32). The overall contours and descending pattern in repetition magnitudes as one moves to higher grade levels are quite similar by demographic area although absolute values for repetition tend to be higher in remote and rural areas than is true of urban schools.

There is a second consistent feature of student repetition that is found in Cambodia as a whole, as well as in urban, rural, and remote areas and for all grade levels. This refers to an unmistakable surge in repetition rate in 2003-04, though to be sure, this surge is less pronounced in urban areas. The reason for the surge is not known, but may be connected to a phasing out of summer remedial classes in that year. Since 2004, the Ministry has gradually reintroduced remedial classes during the school year as opposed to the summer, resulting in a dip in repetition rates in the post-surge period. It should also be noted that the Ministry introduced a School Readiness Program in 2004-05 for Grade 1 students, which may also have contributed to the drop in repetition since 2004-05. The surge noted here should be compared with a surge in repetition in lower secondary schools in 2004-05, and a separate surge in upper secondary schools in 2002-03 (see Chapter 5). There may be policy implementation reasons that account for these findings.

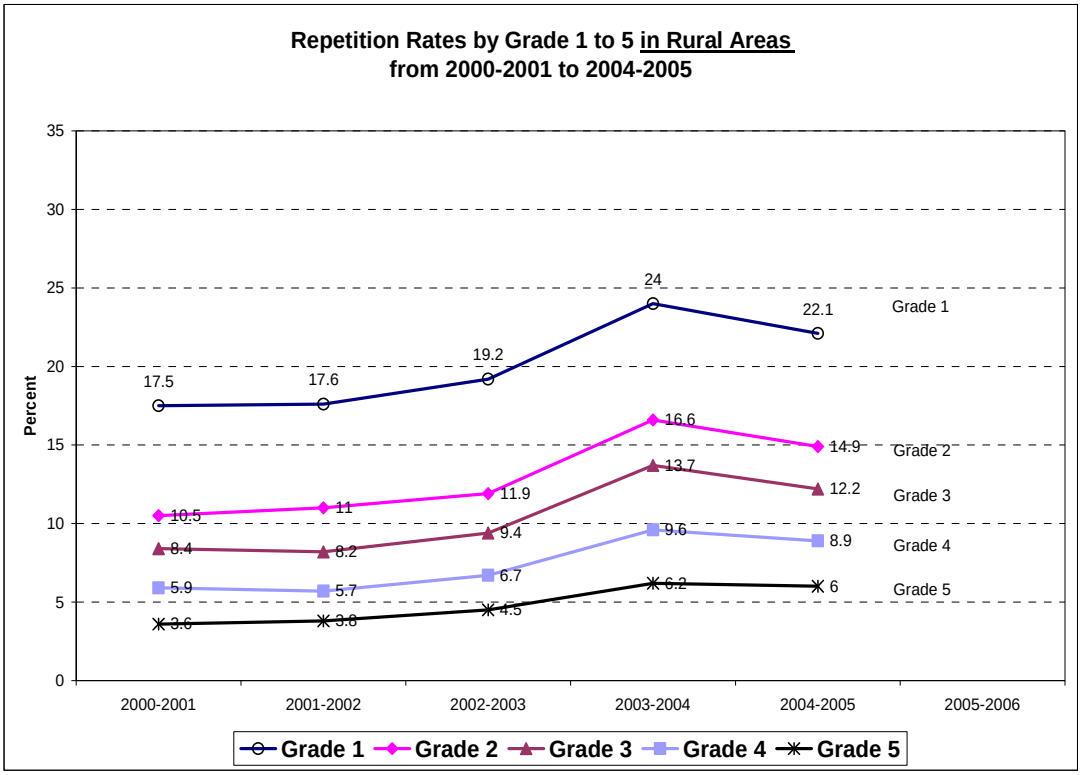
Figure 2.30: Trend Changes in Urban Repetition in the Primary Education Sector, 2000-01 to 2004-05



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2004-05

The surge in repetition in 2003-04 is relatively shallow in urban areas, probably because the additional funds provided for remedial classes are less significant as a salary enhancement for urban teachers than is true for rural land remote teachers. It may also be that the parents of children in urban schools are more likely to resist student failure decisions from teachers than is true of less sophisticated parents in rural and remote areas.

Figure 2.31: Trend Changes in Rural Repetition in the Primary Education Sector, 2000-01 to 2004-05

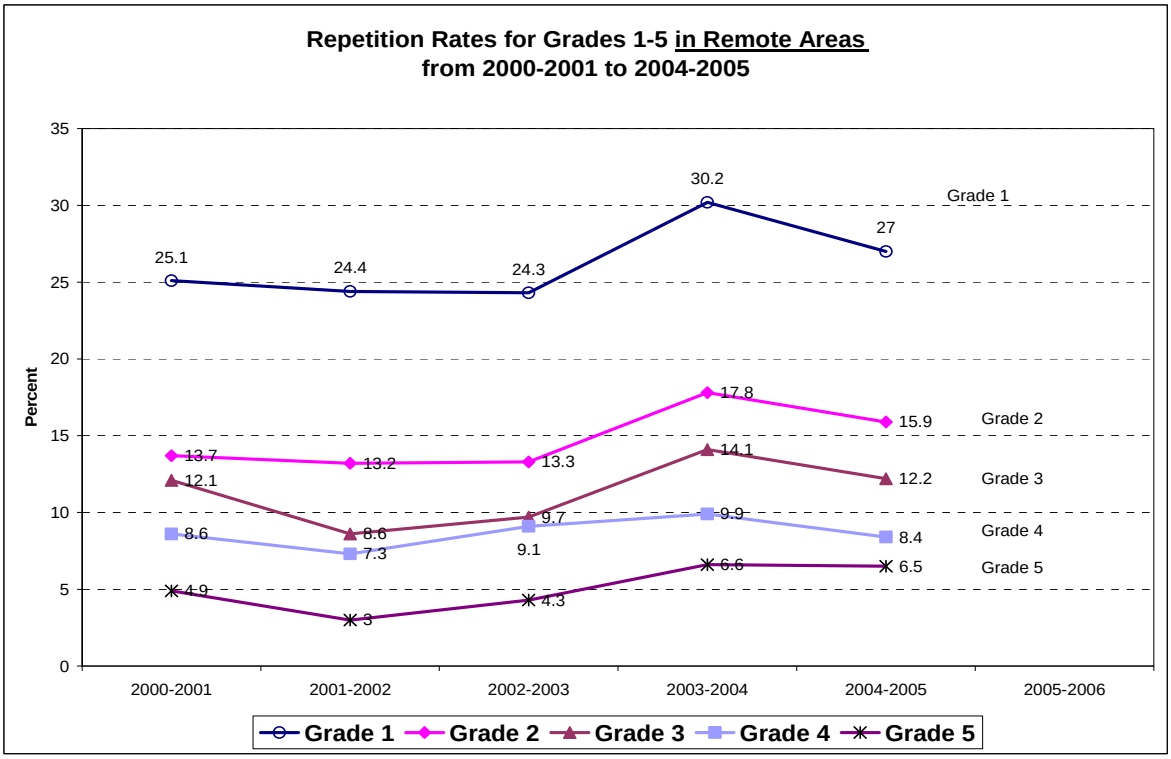


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2004-05

The particularly high repetition rate for Grade 1 in remote areas may also be due to the preponderance of ethnic minority children in these areas who do not speak Khmer as their mother tongue. Clearly, children with such backgrounds who are studying with state teachers who do not speak their language would have significant problems in their academic performance than is true of non-minority children in less remote areas. Attention to these factors through bilingual education would likely make a great impact on reducing repetition in Grade 1 in these areas.

Repetition levels in Cambodia may also be affected by the manner in which it is officially defined. In this respect, it has frequently been noted that children who miss more than 30 days of school are officially not allowed to sit for the final examination at the end of the year. More often than not, these absent children drop out only to re-enroll the following year in the same grade as repeaters. Thus, some question whether the magnitude of repetition that one sees in Cambodia is more a dropout/attendance phenomenon rather than one relating to repetition per se. These considerations further underline the point made earlier that student repetition is a complex phenomenon and that caution is advised before linking its incidence too hastily with poor instruction or inadequately trained teachers.

Figure 2.32: Trend Changes in Remote Repetition in the Primary Education Sector, 2000-01 to 2004-05



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2004-05

What could be the reason for the stratification observed in the repetition rates by grade level over time? The simplest hypothesis is that many teachers in Cambodia tend to follow an unwritten rule regarding promotion and failure decisions. This rule may not have the observed repetition rates as an intended goal, but it impacts on repetition rates in predictable ways, nevertheless.

What could the rule be?

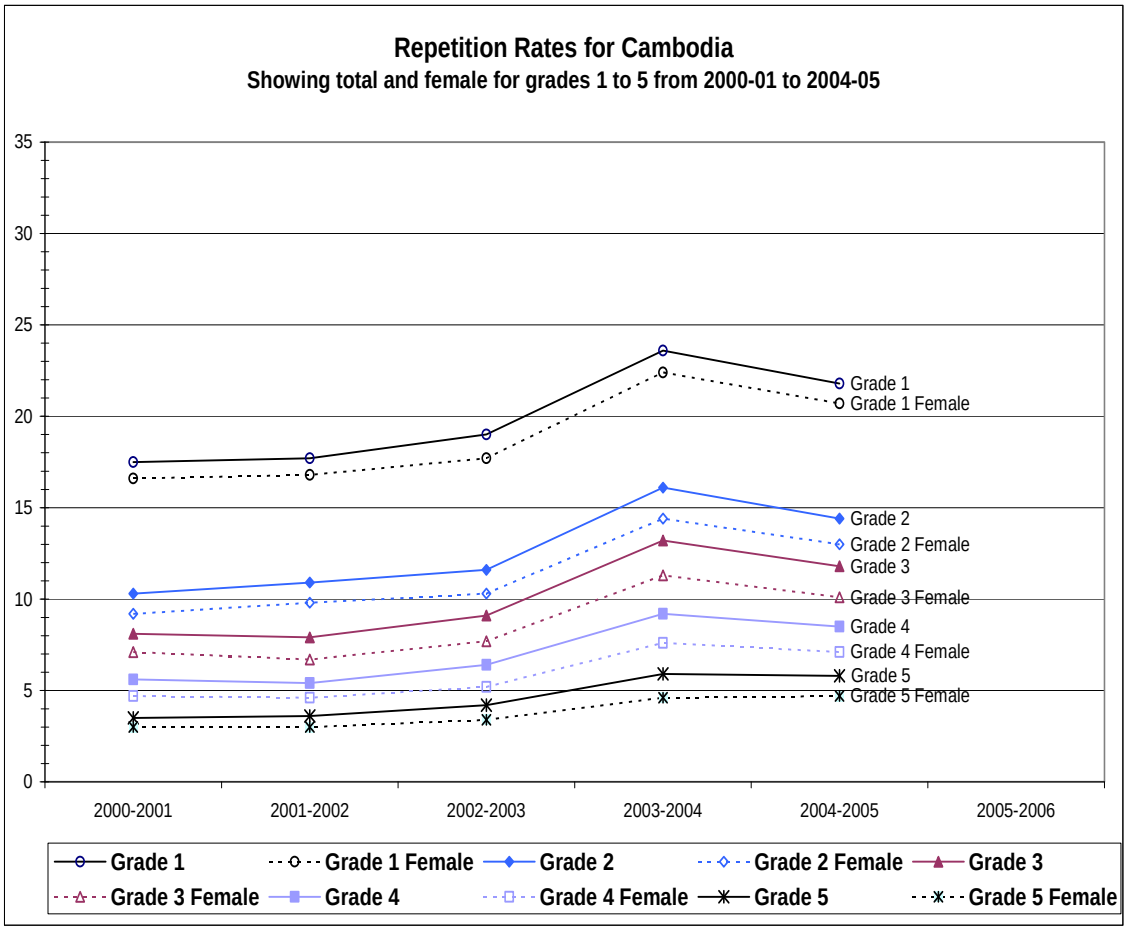
One simple hypothesis is that the assignment of scores in a class may be pre-determined by an unwritten rule that ensures a certain proportion of children will fail. The rule appears to vary by grade level but would hold that for any scoring event, there must always be a certain percentage of children in the class who will be assigned failing scores. The net result of the consistent application of this rule throughout the educational system is that there will be a fairly consistent rate of failure and repetition for each grade level. In other words, my hypothesis is that the systematic wastage observed in stratified repetition rates may be a consequence of pre-determined grading such that a standardized number of children will always fail.

There may be additional rules, concerning the number of absences allowed per semester or year for example, which automatically yield failures, regardless of performance scores. The patterns in absence (due to illness, lack of transport, and other family needs), varying by age, may also contribute to the finding of a systematic stratification of repetition rates by grade.

The pattern of decreasing repetition rate with increasing grade level is also observed when total and female repetition rates for any grade are compared. The female rate is observed always to be below the total for the grade, but above the rate for the next higher grade (see Figure 2.33).

Performance patterns among boys and girls whereby the former are more likely to repeat while the latter are more likely to dropout are common in many countries of the world, not only in Cambodia. The consistently lower repetition rate for girls in Grades 1 to 5 may reflect the fact that girls are better able to adapt to school disciplines and requirements than are boys of this primary school age.

Figure 2.33: Trend Changes in National Repetition in the Primary Education Sector by Sex, 2000-01 to 2004-05



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2004-05

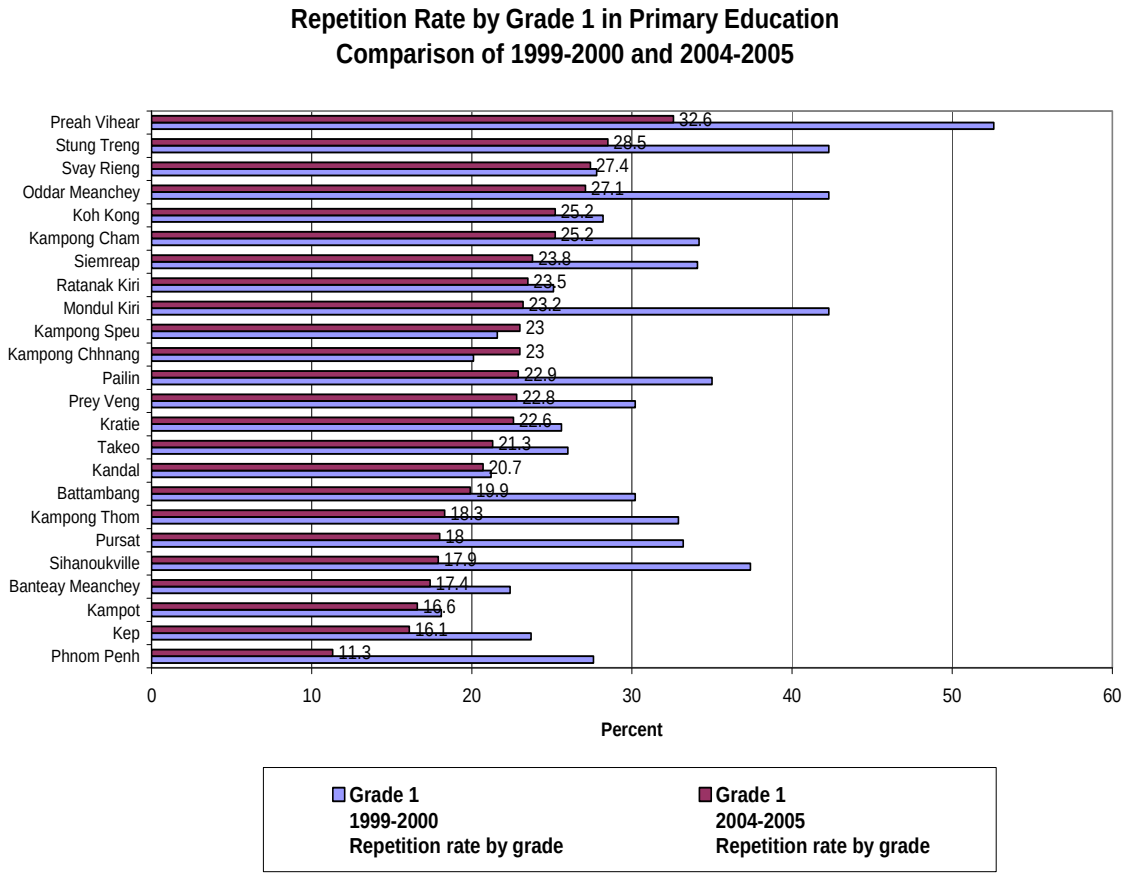
Provincial Level Data on Primary Repetition Rate:

A longitudinal view of repetition rates for each grade can be obtained by comparing the rates from 1999-00 to 2004-05. This time frame will help to put the effect of the bulge in 2003-04 in better perspective.

Grade 1: Figure 2.34 below shows the repetition rate for Grade 1 by province. The rate of repetition in 2004-05 in all Cambodian provinces except two (Kampong Speu and Kampong Chhnang) had fallen from earlier levels. This general nationwide improvement, however, was marked by striking disparities. For example, the remote reconciliation area of Preah Vihear (32.6%) showed remarkable improvement in reducing its repetition rate, but in 2004-05 its rate was still nearly three times the rate of the capital Phnom Penh (11.3%). Thirteen provinces

showed rates that were more than double that of the capital including, Kratie, Prey Veng, Pailin, Kampong Chhnang, Kampong Speu, Mondulkiri, Ratanakiri, Siem Reap, Kampong Cham, Koh Kong, Odar Meanchey, Svay Rieng, and Stung Treng. This gap is not surprising given higher education levels of parents in the capital as well as the widespread practice of teacher payments for special tutoring.

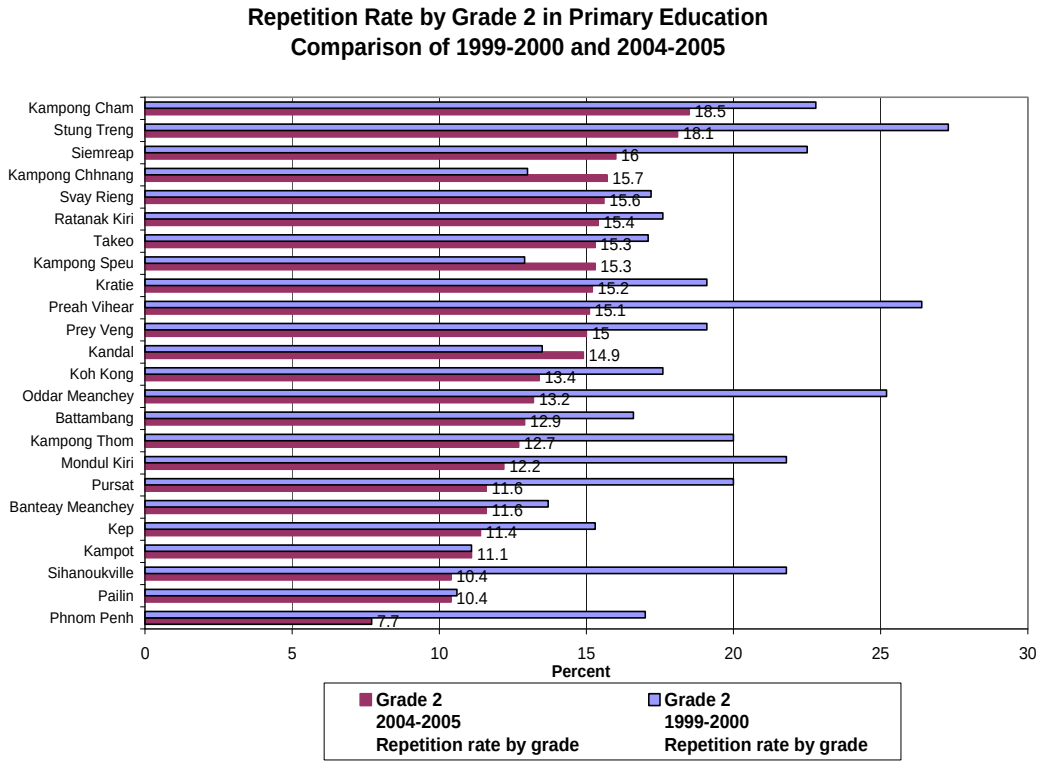
Figure 2.34: Trend Changes in Repetition Rate at Grade 1 in the Primary Education Sector by Province, 1999-00 to 2004-05



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2004-05

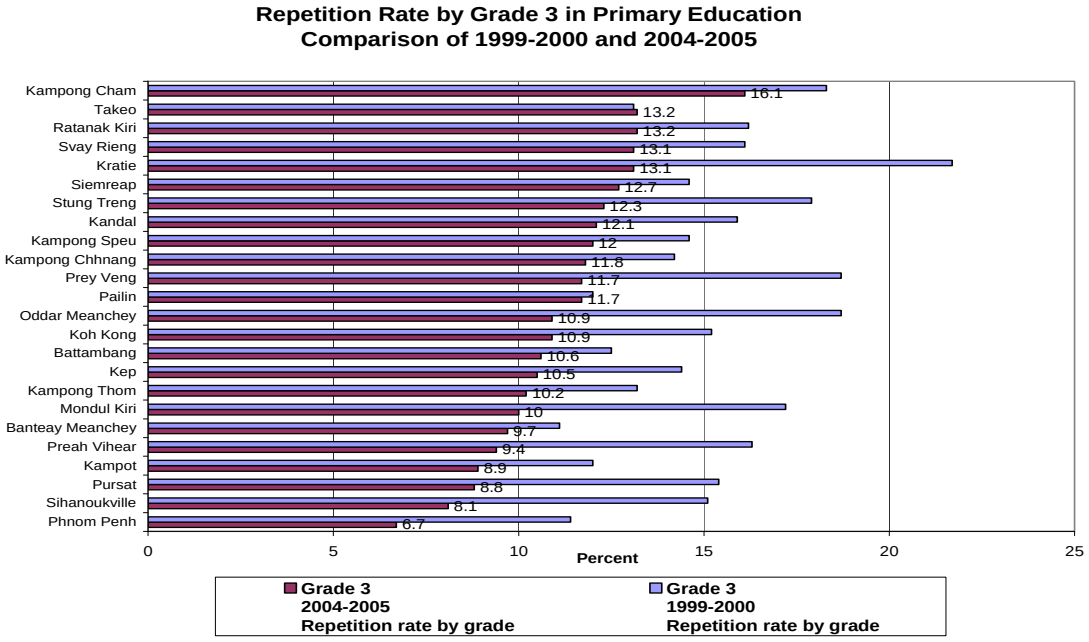
Grade 2: The repetition rates in all Cambodian provinces but three (Kampong Speu, Kampong Chhnang and Kandal) had decreased in 2004-05 from 1999-00 levels (see Figure 2.35). This general picture of improvement was nevertheless marked by distinct disparities. Kampong Cham, Stung Treng, and Siem Reap reported the highest rates of repetition at this grade level in the country. In addition, the repetition rate in six provinces was more than double that of the capital, Phnom Penh (7.7%). These six provinces include Ratanakiri (15.4%), Svay Rieng (15.6%), Kampong Chhnang (15.7%), Siem Reap (16%), Stung Treng (18.1%) and Kampong Cham (18.5%).

Figure 2.35: Trend Changes in Repetition Rate at Grade 2 in the Primary Education Sector by Province, 1999-00 to 2004-05



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2004-05

Figure 2.36: Trend Changes in Repetition Rate at Grade 3 in the Primary Education Sector by Province, 1999-00 to 2004-05

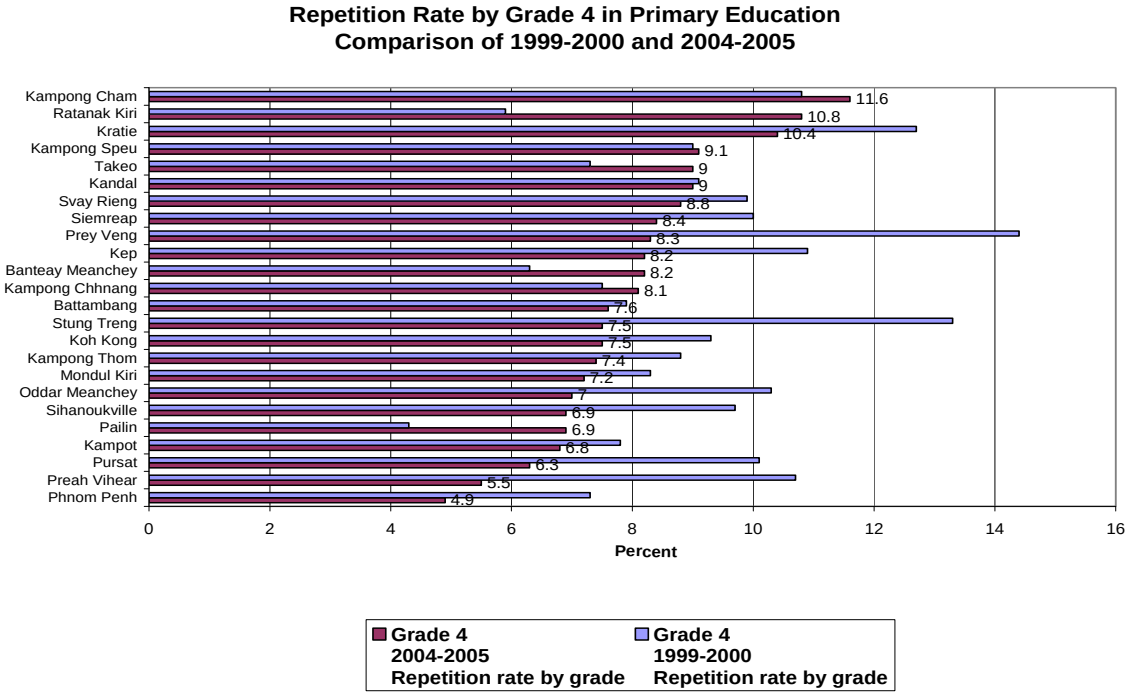


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2004-05

Grade 3: All Cambodian provinces, without exception, showed reduced repetition rates in 2004-05 from 1999-00 levels. This general pattern of improvement is also marked by disparities as was true for Grades 1 and 2 (see Figure 2.36). Kampong Cham once again leads all other provinces with the highest repetition rates (16.1%) followed by Takeo (13.2%) and Ratanakiri (13.2%).

Grade 4: Six provinces out of twenty-four showed an increase in repetition rate from 1999-00 to 2004-05, while the remainder reported a decrease (see Figure 2.37). This pattern in repetition (and also that in Grade 5, see below) reverses a trend for provincial repetition rates to decrease as grade levels increase. That is, only 3 provinces reported an increase in repetition at Grade 2, while none reported an increase at Grade 3. At Grade 4, however, the number of provinces reporting an increase jumps back to six (and at Grade 5 this jumps yet again to ten). The provinces reporting an increase in repetition at Grade 4 include Kampong Chhnang, Banteay Meanchey, Takeo, Kampong Speu, Ratanakiri and Kampong Cham. The three provinces with the highest repetition rates in Cambodia include Kampong Cham (11.6%), Ratanakiri (10.8%), and Kratie (10.4%).

Figure 2.37: Trend Changes in Repetition Rate at Grade 4 in the Primary Education Sector by Province, 1999-00 to 2004-05



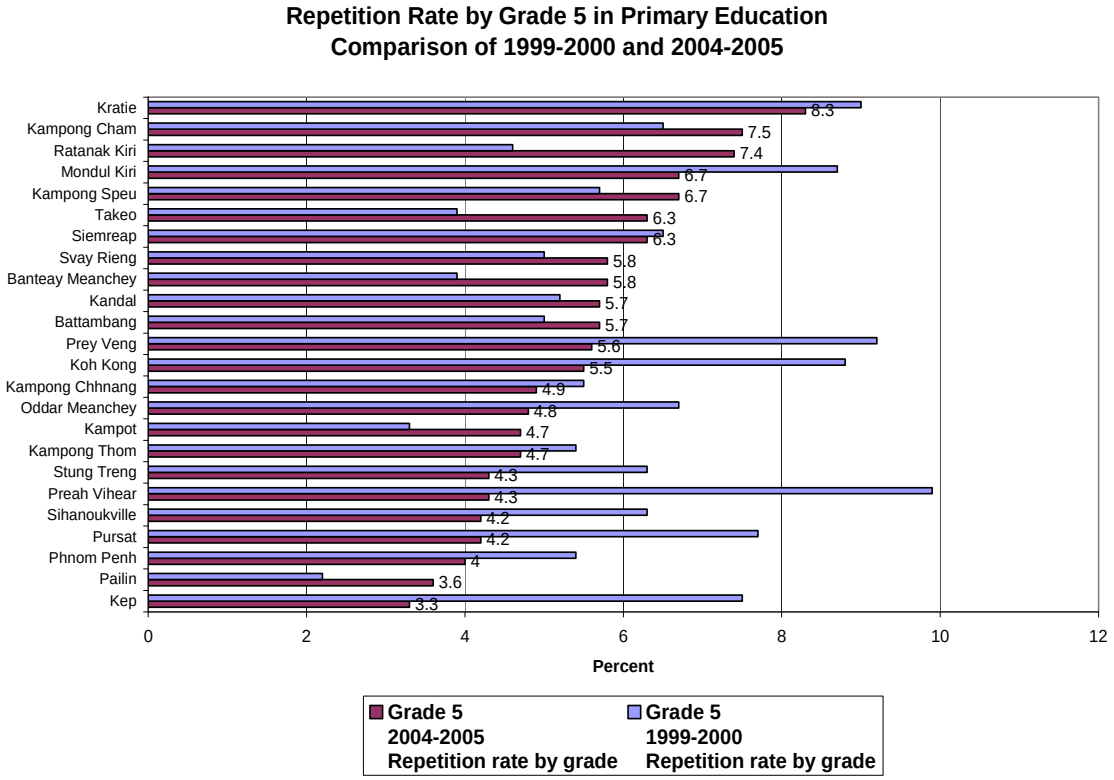
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2004-05

Grade 5: Ten provinces showed higher repetition rates in Grade 5 in 2004-05 when compared to the rates reported in 1999-00 (see Figure 2.38). The remaining fourteen provinces showed lower rates. This is a decreased improvement compared to the lower grades. As noted above, this follows a trend for more and more provinces to report increasing repetition after Grade 3.

The ten provinces with higher repetition rates in Grade 5 in 2004-05 than was reported in 1999-00 are Pailin, Kampot, Battambang, Kandal, Banteay Meanchey, Svay Rieng, Takeo, Kampong

Speu, Ratanakiri and Kampong Cham. Five provinces showed more than double the repetition rate of the capital Phnom Penh (3.3%). They are Kampong Speu (6.7%), Mondulkiri (6.7%), Ratanakiri (7.4%), Kampong Cham (7.5%) and Kratie (8.3%).

Figure 2.38: Trend Changes in Repetition Rate at Grade 5 in the Primary Education Sector by Province, 1999-00 & 2004-5



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 & 2004-05

Summary of Repetition Rate Findings at Provincial Level

One way to identify the most significant disparities in repetition is to note which provinces are found most frequently to have the highest repetition rates in 2004-05 and which provinces are found most frequently to have the lowest repetition rates.

The six provinces with the highest persistent repetition rates (i.e., those in the top quarter) are Kampong Cham (in the highest quarter for all five grade levels), Ratanakiri (in the highest quarter for four grade levels), Kratie, Svay Rieng and Takeo (found in the highest quarter for three grade levels). Provinces with the lowest persistent repetition rates are Phnom Penh, Pursat and Sihanoukville (in the lowest quarter for all five grade levels), Kampot (in the lowest quarter for four grade levels) and Banteay Meanchey, Kep, Pailin, and Preah Vihear (in the lowest quarter for three grade levels).

The disparities between these groups of provinces are clear enough. The reasons for the disparities are not known. These findings can assist researchers to organize their investigations to learn how some provinces have achieved reduced repetition rates, while other provinces show much less improvement in this area.

2.7.8 Survival Rate to Grade 5[13]

Survival rate to Grade 5 is the percentage of a cohort of pupils entering Grade 1 in a given year who are expected to reach Grade 5. This rate is computed using data from successive years concerning promotion and repetition. The completion of Grade 5 is seen as significant because it implies that students reaching this level have gained the requisite basis for sustainable literacy. The survival rate to Grade 5 should, ideally, be 100%. That is, all children in a cohort who enter Grade 1 should reach Grade 5. Values less than 100% are found because children drop out of primary school before reaching Grade 5. The survival rate to Grade 5 measures the power of the school system to hold or retain pupils to grade five. It is a measure of the internal efficiency of the school system, as children who drop out are an aspect of wastage, like repetition. The lower the survival rate to Grade 5, the lower the retention of the system, and the higher the incidence of dropout during the earlier primary grades. As noted earlier, the intended output of the school system is promoted students. The expenditure on pupils who repeat a grade or who have to drop out from school is expenditure wasted or lost. The wasted expense due to repetition or dropout adds to the cost per pupil promoted.

National Level Data on Survival Rate to Grade 5:

The survival rate is based on student flow rates and is disaggregated by gender, region, and province to highlight differences in retention and dropout. The national survival rate to Grade 5 shows little improvement over the period considered (i.e., 1999-00 to 2004-05). The national rate has remained in the middle to upper 50% range, suggesting no significant improvement in reducing dropout over the period (see Table 2.10).

Table 2.10: Survival Rate for Grades 1-5 by Sex and Demographic Area, 1999-00 to 2004-05

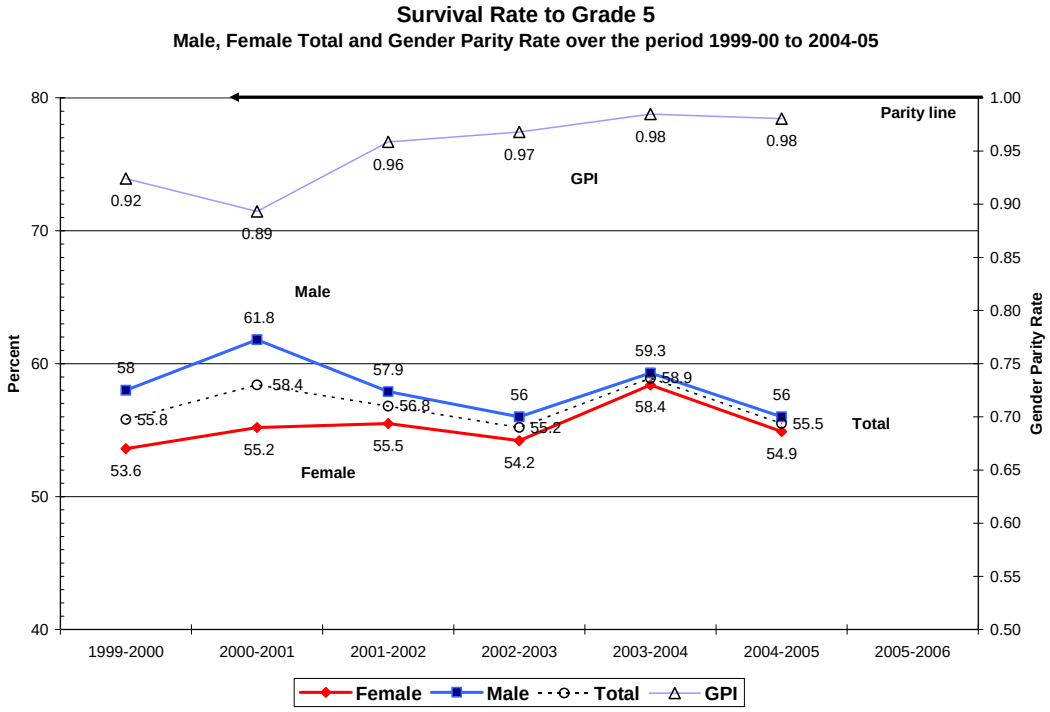
Year	Female	Male	Total	GPI	Urban	Rural	Remote
1999-2000	53.6	58.0	55.8	0.92	--	--	--
2000-2001	55.2	61.8	58.4	0.89	--	--	--
2001-2002	55.5	57.9	56.8	0.96	--	--	--
2002-2003	54.2	56.0	55.2	0.97	--	--	--
2003-2004	58.4	59.3	58.9	0.98	67.4	58.3	38.7
2004-2005	54.9	56.0	55.5	0.98	65.4	54.7	37.2

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2004-05

On the other hand, there has been great improvement in parity between male and female children in their survival rate to Grade 5. Since 2002-03 gender parity has been achieved, with a GPI of 0.97 and greater since 2002 (see Figure 2.39). The data on survival to Grade 5 for urban, rural, and remote areas is only available for the last two years. The superior performance of urban schools in retaining children is reflected in much higher survival rate values than for rural/remote areas. Remote areas, as expected, show the poorest performance in retaining pupils to Grade 5.

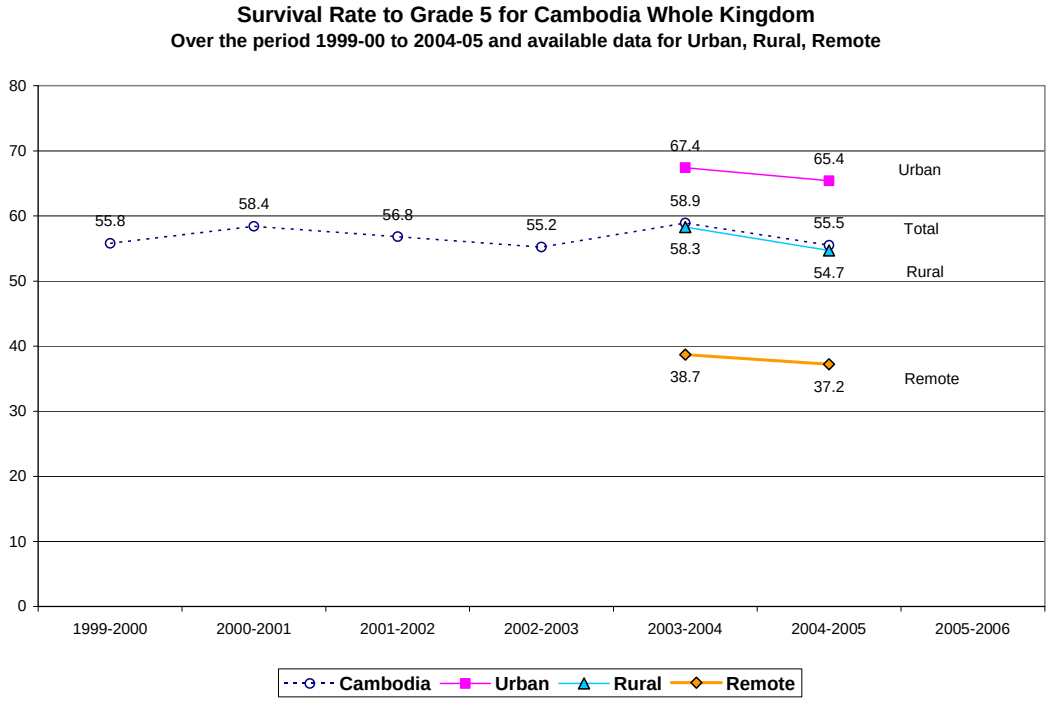
[13] The UNESCO Technical Guidelines for the Education For All Mid-Decade Assessment, and the data provided in EMIS calculate survival rate according to the "reconstructed cohort approach." This statistic is not referenced to population and thus indicates completion probabilities for those entering grade 1. A revised approach, the Gross Survival Rate is perhaps more accurate in measuring progress towards universal primary completion. Subsequent EFA Assessment exercises may include one or both of these measures, as consensus is established among educational statisticians as to the most informative approach to use. See Section 2.7.9 below.

Figure 2.39: Trend Changes in Survival Rate to Grade 5 by Sex, 1999-00 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2005-06

Figure 2.40: Trend Changes in Survival Rate to Grade 5 by Demographic Area, 1999-00 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2005-06

Although the data is sparse, there is a discernable downward movement in survival rates in all

geographical areas (see Figure 2.40), suggesting that the problem of dropout in early primary grades needs much more attention for Cambodia to reach its Education for All goals.

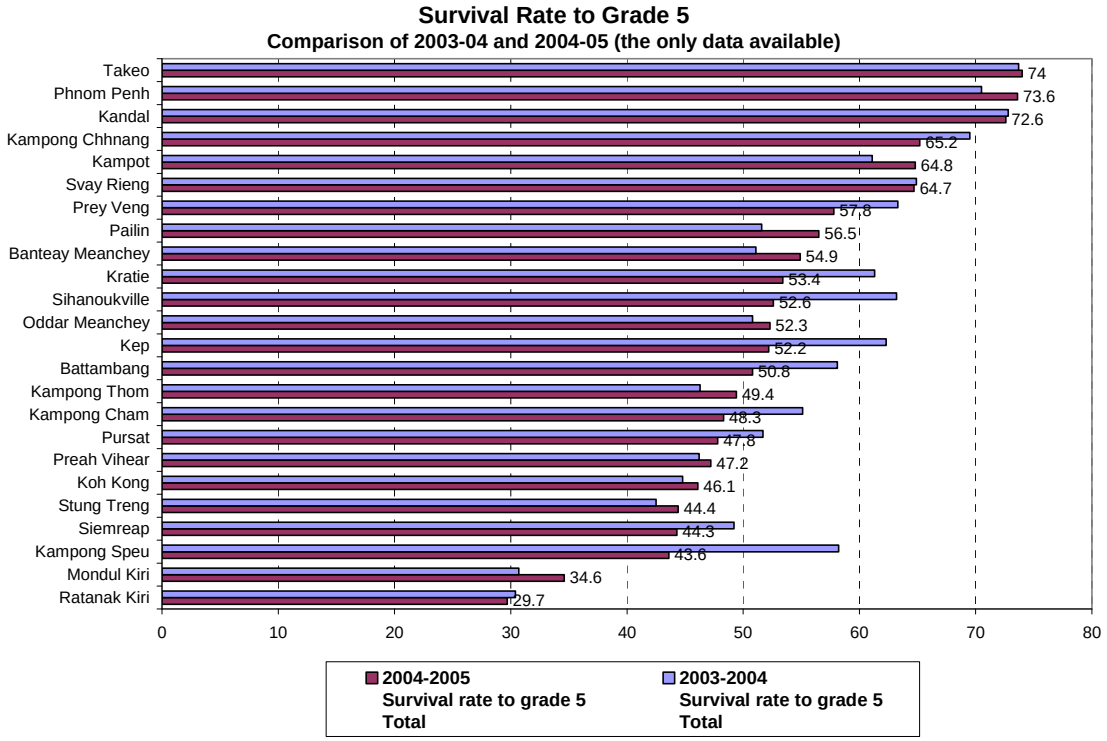
Provincial Level Data on Survival Rate:

Only a limited longitudinal perspective on survival rate is possible with the data available. Comparison of the survival rates to Grade 5 for 2003-04 and for 2004-05 can be made. Thirteen of the twenty-four provinces show rates in 2004-05 that are lower than they were in 2003-04. Only eleven provinces showed improvement or increase in survival rate to Grade 5 over this two year period.

The highest survival rates to Grade 5 in 2004-05 are found in the neighborhood of the capital, Takeo (74%), Phnom Penh (73.6%) and Kandal (72.6%) (see Figure 2.41). The next highest rates are likewise found in provinces in the center and south of the country: Kampong Chhnang (65%), Kampot (64.8%) and Svay Rieng (64.7%). The lowest survival rates to Grade 5 in 2004-05 are found in the remote northeast in the ethnic minority areas: Ratanakiri (29.7%) and Mondulkiri (34.6%). The disparity between these two provinces and the rest of the country is apparent in that they have less than half the survival rate, or more than double the dropout rate, of the best performing provinces around the capital. The rates for Kampong Speu (43.6%), Siem Reap (44.3%), Stung Treng (44.4%), and Koh Kong (46.1%) are also among the lowest in the country.

Urgent measures are needed to improve retention in primary schools in these high-poverty areas to assure that a foundation for literacy is achieved and to increase opportunities for access to a complete basic education.

Figure 2.41: Trend Changes in Survival Rate to Grade 5 by Province, 2003-04 & 2004-05



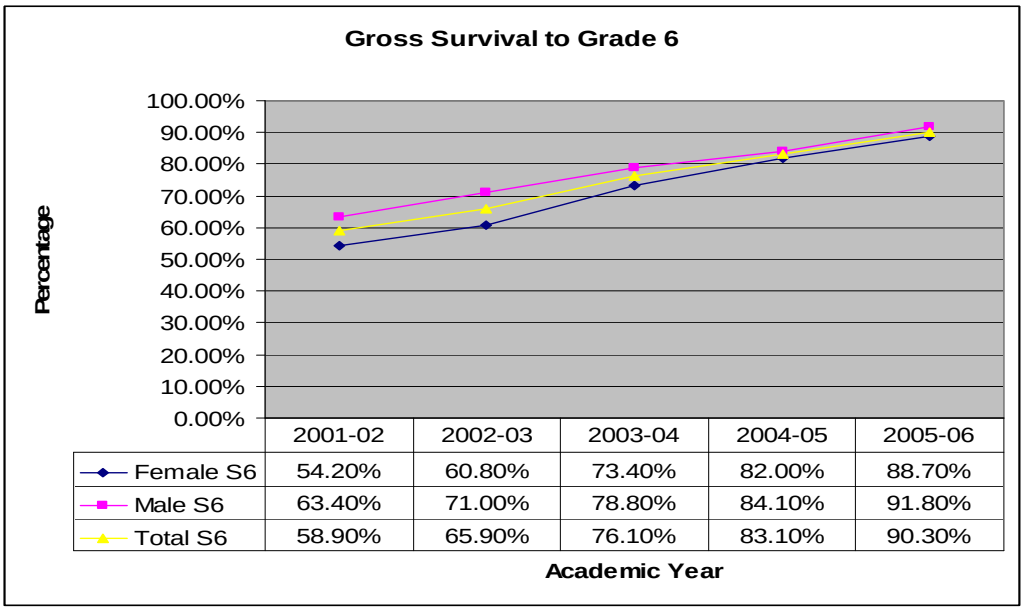
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2003-04 & 2004-05

2.7.9 Gross Survival Rate to Grade 6 (Grade 6 Gross Intake Rate)[14]

The above reconstructed cohort analysis provides an indication of the expected survival rate of those students currently enrolled in Grade 1. In addition to this indicator, it is critically important to also examine the present Gross Survival Rate to Grade 6 (or as it is sometimes referred to as the *Grade 6 gross intake rate*). This measure is referenced against the age population and so specifically tracks progress towards the achievement of UPE. Using this measure, a consistent year on year achievement of 100% indicates that UPE, at least in terms of survival, has been attained.

In Cambodia, despite persistent high repetition and drop-out levels, student survival to Grade 6 has greatly improved, alongside diminishing gender inequity[15], over the past five years. Once again, this provides strong evidence that the increases in enrolment are occurring alongside greater levels of overall student retention (see Figure 2.42).

Figure 2.42: Trend Changes in Gross Survival Rate to Grade 6 by Sex, 2001-02 to 2005-06



	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2004-05	2005-06
Female S6	54.20%	60.80%	73.40%	82.00%	88.70%
Male S6	63.40%	71.00%	78.80%	84.10%	91.80%
Total S6	58.90%	65.90%	76.10%	83.10%	90.30%

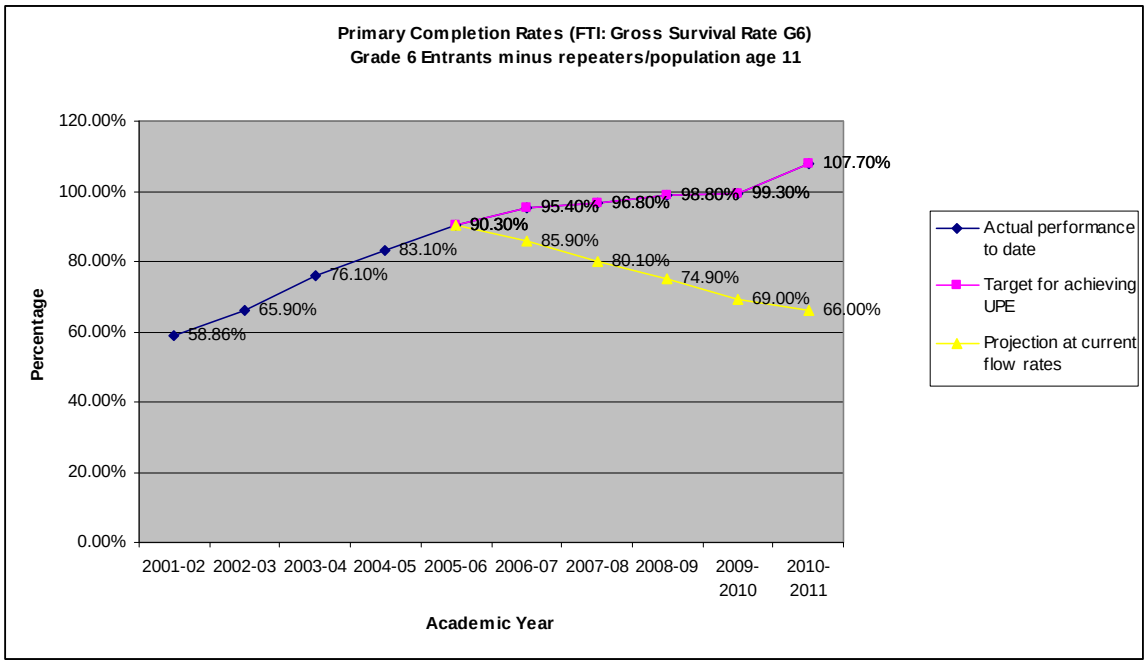
However, the current rates of repetition and dropout do pose a serious threat to these significant gains. Through applying the gross survival rate to Grade 6 measure to the reconstructed cohort approach, a 5-year projection of the Grade 6 gross intake can be made. As with the reconstructed cohort analysis, this projection is based on the assumption that repetition and dropout rates will remain constant over this period and so must be viewed with caution. However, the analytical approach also enables analysis of the degree of change in these rates that would be required to enable UPE to be achieved within this timeframe.

The chart below plots the actual achievement to date (2005-06) and then diverges to provide the projection based on current flow rates and a projection that achieves, and indeed surpasses UPE, by 2010-11 (see Figure 2.43). The flow rates for these two projections are provided below

[14] This section was contributed by David Quinn, EC Advisory Team Leader
[15] Standard UIS measure applied to FTI-EFA assessments. New Grade 6 intake / population age 11

the chart.

Figure 2.43: Projected Primary School Completion Rates, 2001-11



The flow rates used to generate the predictions described in Figure 2.43 are presented below. The target flow rate to achieve UPE is effectively based on reducing the present dropout and repetition rates by 50% and increasing the promotion rate accordingly[16] (see Table 2.11).

Table 2.11: Actual and Target Flow Rates for Grades 1-6

Actual flow rates 2005-06				Target flow Rates to achieve UPE (Grade 6 Gross intake > = 100%)			
Grade	Promotion	Repetition	Drop-out	Grade	Promotion	Repetition	Drop-out
1	66.4%	21.8%	11.8%	1	83.2%	10.9%	5.9%
2	73.9%	14.4%	11.7%	2	87.0%	7.2%	5.9%
3	76.8%	11.8%	11.4%	3	88.4%	5.9%	5.7%
4	79.6%	8.5%	11.9%	4	89.8%	4.3%	6.0%
5	81.8%	5.8%	12.4%	5	90.9%	2.9%	6.2%
6	86.7%	2.6%	10.7%	6	93.4%	1.3%	5.4%

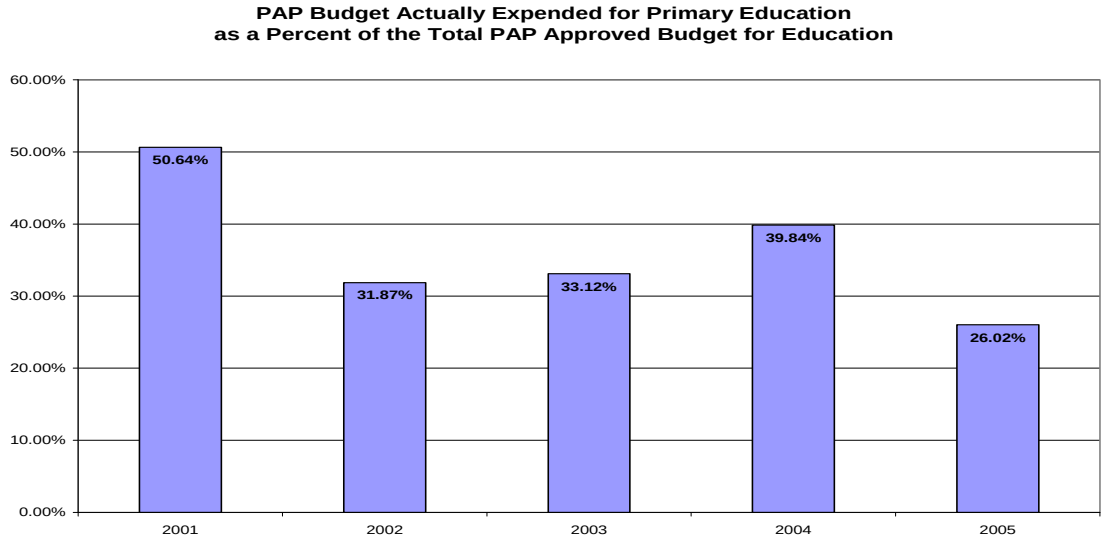
[16] Note that some alternate variations on the target rates would also enable UPE to be achieved, the most critical factor being the level of the reduction in drop-out rate. However, given the close correlation between drop-out and repetition rates, the 50% reduction for both rates adopted in the model appears to be the most appropriate model to present.

2.7.10 Public Expenditure on Primary Education as a Percentage of Total Public Expenditure on Education

Since there are no data available from the Ministry that would make it easy to ascertain the proportion of the public expenditures on education that were devoted to various departments or activities of the Ministry, an indirect approach must be taken. The Priority Action Program, (PAP) budgets have been reported by the Ministry. This data can be utilized as proxies for several of the EFA MDA indicators, but must be handled with care.

The Ministry of Education has provided an overview of the National Budget and the Education Budget (see Chapter 6). That data also included the total PAP Approved Budget for each year over the period 2001-2005, and the PAP Expended Budget for Primary Education for each year. Figure 2.44 below shows an impressive proportional share for primary education (expended) as a percentage of the total PAP (approved) budget. It would seem from this analysis that primary education is a high priority within the Ministry expenditure plan, although the trend generally seems to be drifting downward over time. This is especially true in 2005.

Figure 2.44: Actual PAP Expenditure Rates in Primary Education, 2001-05



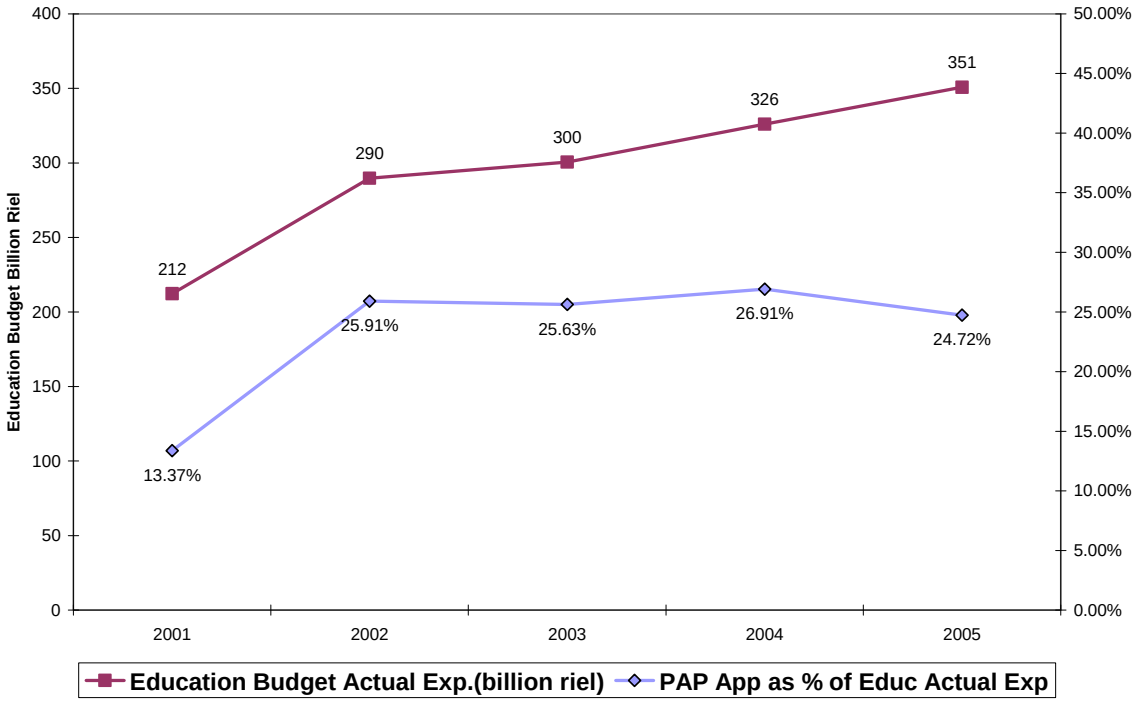
Department of Finance, MoEYS (October 2006) *Current Budget Expenditure for Education Sector*

A qualification on the proportions given above for the share of primary education in the total PAP budget is that the values come from comparison of unlike items. As the introductory chapter on Education Finances discussed, the total PAP budget actually disbursed each year is different (usually less) than the total PAP approved or allocated budget each year. Accordingly, the proportional expenditures for primary education given in the chart above may be underestimations, based on expended primary education budgets as a percentage of an inflated "approved" total, rather than as a percentage of the actual (reduced) disbursements for each year.

The use of the PAP Expended Budget for Primary Education as a proportion of Total PAP Approved Budget as a proxy for the level of Ministry priority for primary education is subject to another qualification. The use of the proxy depends on a stable figure for the PAP Approved Budget as a proportion of the total National Education budget over the timeframe considered. Figure 2.45 below shows some recent slight decline in the share of PAP in the total National

Budget for Education. This suggests that the proxy PAP Expenditure for Primary Education as a proportion of PAP Approved Budget would be reasonable, at least for the years 2002-2005.

Figure 2.45: PAP Budgets as a Proportion of Actual Education Budget, 2001-05



Department of Finance, MoEYS (October 2006) *Current Budget Expenditure for Education Sector*

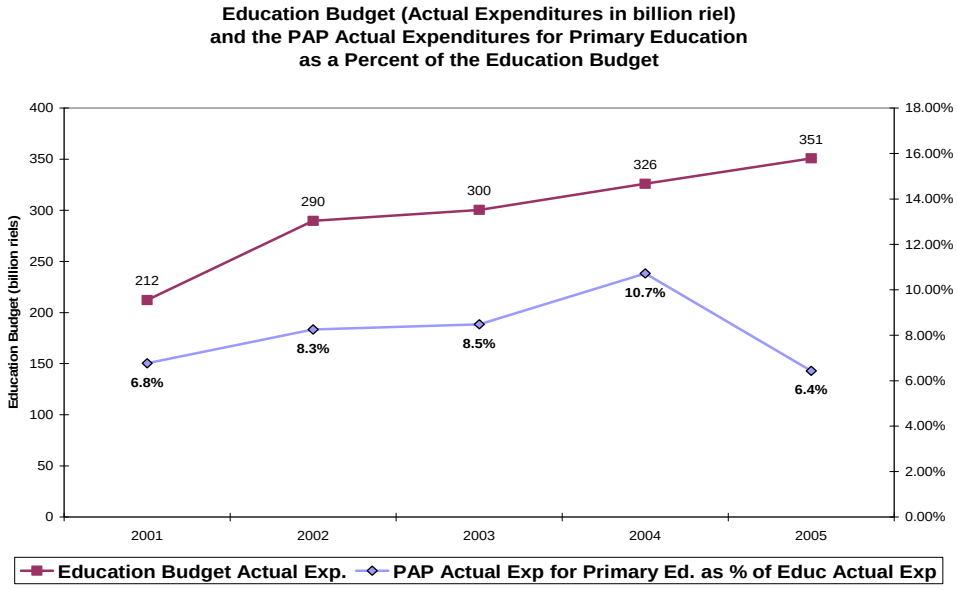
The data provided in Ministry documentation gives the PAP Expended Budget for Primary Education that can be compared directly with the Education Sector Budget Expended. This will no doubt give a deep underestimate for the proportional share for primary education in the total education budget, since there are expenditures for primary education that are not PAP expenditures. Nevertheless, the figures are interesting for the trend they reveal.

The trend shows a sharp decline in proportional expenditure in 2005, after a steady rise for four years, in the primary education portion of PAP expended funds as a percentage of total expended funds for education. This suggests that the relative priority of Primary Education has fallen recently, at least as far as this proxy measure can indicate.

Another perspective on the proportion of PAP budgets for various Departments in the Ministry is provided in a report from the Finance Department in the MoEYS. This report compares the PAP "budget transferred" and the "actual implementation" for each Budget Management Center (BMC)(see Figure 2.46). At the central level, there are several BMCs that relate directly to the budgets for EFA activities. These budgets can be taken as proxies for the relative priority given to several of the EFA MDA goals within the Cambodian Education Budget. For example, there is a BMC located directly in the Primary Education Dept. Accordingly, the PAP budget expended by the Primary Education BMC, as a percentage of total PAP Expended Budget, can be taken as a proxy for the relative priority for basic education in the education budget. Other BMCs in

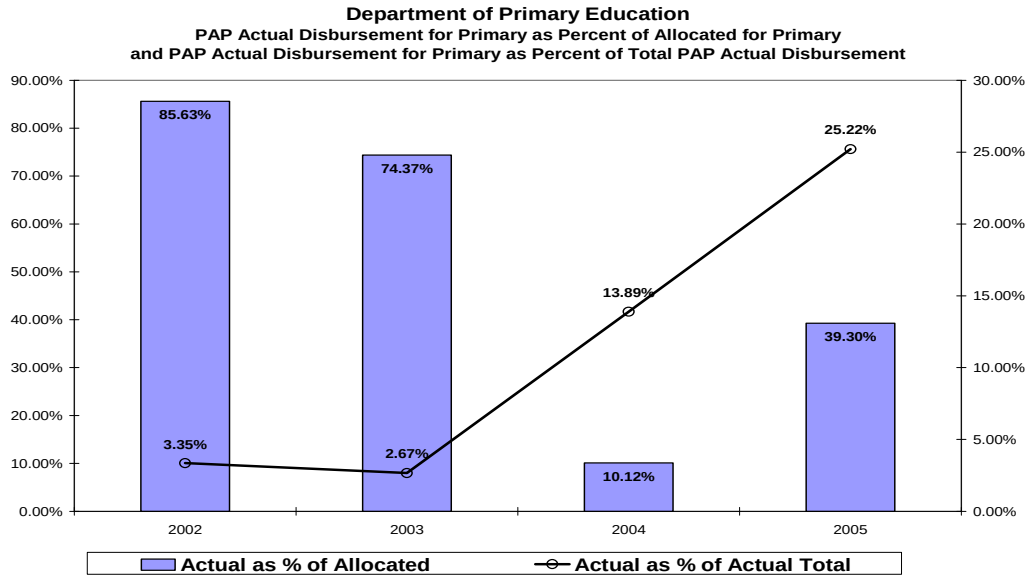
the Central Administration of the MoEYS, aside from those mentioned as EFA proxies include the BMCs for the Personnel Department, the Secondary Department, TVET Department (until 2005, when it was transferred to the Ministry of Labor), the Higher Education Department, the Teacher Training Department, the Directorate General of Education, the Department of School Health, the Department of Finance, the Department of the Inspectorate, the Department of Planning, and several other smaller budgets for youth and sport.

Figure 2.46: PAP Actual Expenditure in Primary Education as a Proportion of the Education Budget, 2001-05



Department of Finance, MoEYS (October 2006) *Current Budget Expenditure for Education Sector*

Figure 2.47: Actual PAP Disbursements for Primary as a Proportion of Allocations, 2002-03 to 2005-06



Dept of Finance, MoEYS "Report on analyzing PAP Budget Management and Implementation from 2002 until 2005"

The data from the Finance Department shows both the amount approved and expended for each BMC for the years 2002-2005. Accordingly, a plot can be made of the amount expended (implemented) as a proportion of the amount approved (allocated). This is shown as a column in Figure 2.47 and is one indication of the willingness in the Ministry to devote PAP funds that were allocated to the actual expenditure needs of the BMC. The data from the Finance Department also gives the total funds expended at each BMC and the total PAP expenditures for the year for all BMCs. Accordingly, a plot has been made of the BMC expended budget as a percentage of the total PAP expended for all BMCs each year. That plot is represented by a line in Figure 2.47.

Figure 2.47 shows well the fluctuation in expenditure as a proportion of allocated PAP funding. This fluctuation ranges from 10% to 85%, in a seemingly random manner over the years concerned. Nevertheless, expenditures for the Primary Education BMC as a percentage of total PAP expended funding shows a sharp rise from 2003 to 2005. The use of the PAP Central Level data as a proxy for the priority of primary education in Ministry spending indicates that primary education was expending about 25% of the total PAP expenditures in 2005. This chart provides a useful correction for the comparison of un-like items on an earlier chart, which compared "expended" funds as a percentage of "approved" funds. It should be noted, however, that the data in Figure 2.47 relates to Central Level Administration PAP budgets only. Additional expenditures of PAP funding at the Province level will likely increase the amounts for the Department's activities. However, these proportions of Central Level expenditures may serve as a proxy indication for the levels of priority in the Ministry for the Primary Education Department.

2.7.11 Expansion in the Number of Schools Providing Basic Education

National Level Data on Basic Education Expansion:

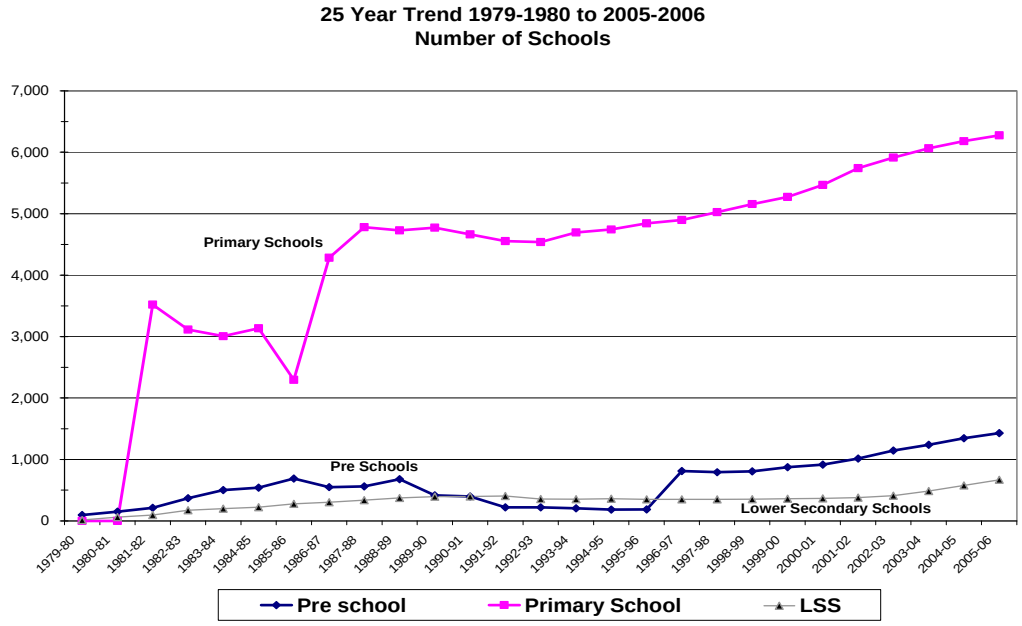
The Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport and its development partners have made remarkable progress in providing schools for Cambodian pupils, since the dark years of the Pol Pot regime. Table 2.12 highlights the dramatic expansion in the number of schools for the current decade while Figure 2.48 shows the increase in schools over the last 25 years, highlighting the attention to providing primary schools, and to a lesser extent pre-schools. In order to cope with the projected increased demand for complete basic education (Grades 1-9), there are several important projects presently underway to build additional lower secondary schools (e.g., Cambodia Education Sector Support Program/CESSP). The dramatic results of this school construction activity will appear in subsequent EFA reports.

Table 2.12: Change in the Number of Primary and Secondary Schools, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Total Primary Schools	Total Lower Secondary Schools
2000-2001	5,468	367
2001-2002	5,741	379
2002-2003	5,915	411
2003-2004	6,063	486
2004-2005	6,180	578
2005-2006	6,277	670
Increase from 2000 to 2006	**809**	**303**

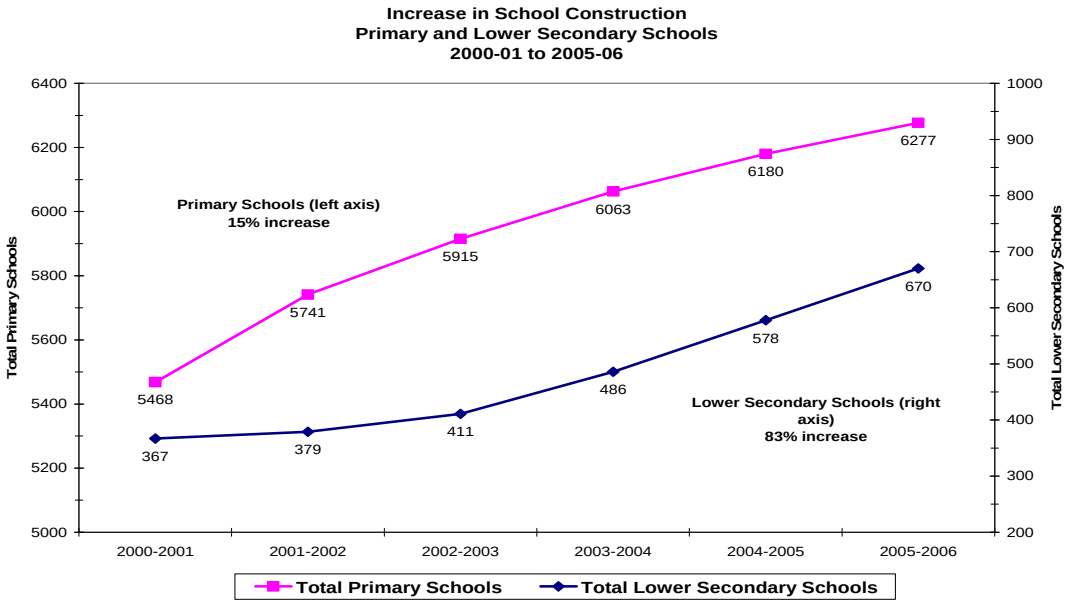
Source: EMIS (2001) 2000-2001; EMIS (2002) 2001-2002; EMIS (2003) 2002-2003; EMIS (2004) 2003-2004; EMIS (2005) 2004-2005, EMIS (2006) 2005-2006.

Figure 2.48: Change in the Number of Pre-schools, Primary Schools, and Lower Secondary Schools, 1979-80 to 2005-06



Nationwide, there has been major progress in building schools in Cambodia over the last six years (see Table 2.12 and Figure 2.49). Over the last six years, 809 primary schools have been built, or an increase of 15% over the period 2000-2006. In the same period, 303 lower secondary schools have been built, or an increase of 83% since the year 2000.

Figure 2.49: Change in the Number of Primary and Secondary Schools, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

When EMIS data on the number of schools by the highest grade taught is examined, however, it becomes clear that in spite of the progress in construction, many of Cambodia's schools remain

incomplete. If a primary school is incomplete, (i.e., if it does not have all 6 primary grades), there is little likelihood a pupil at this school will be able to transition to Lower Secondary School or even complete upper primary school. Likewise, if a Lower Secondary School is incomplete, there is little chance a pupil at this school will be able to complete Grade 9, meaning that they will not receive a complete basic education. Pupils in an incomplete primary or lower secondary school are at risk of not being reached by the efforts to guarantee a complete basic education.

EMIS data distinguishes between schools on the basis of location, as urban, rural, or remote. This is often a useful distinction to make to highlight trends at a sub-national level in Cambodia. The tables below show the progress made in constructing new primary and lower secondary schools in the urban, rural, and remote areas of the Kingdom. The tables also indicate the success in reducing the proportion of incomplete primary schools, as construction of schools has advanced over the last six years.

Total and Incomplete Primary Schools

The proportion of incomplete primary schools nationwide has dropped from 45.4% in 2000-01 to 27.4% in 2005-06, which is a reduction of 18% or nearly half of all incomplete primary schools. This is a major achievement (see Table 2.13). At the same time, the total number of primary schools in the Kingdom has increased by 15%.

Similar progress is seen for the sub-national categories of schools. Urban incomplete primary schools have dropped from 26.9% to 16% or a difference of 10.9%. Rural incomplete primary schools have dropped from 45% to 25.4% or a difference of 19.6%. Remote incomplete schools have dropped radically from 84.3% in 2000-2001 to 61.8% in 2005-2006 or a difference of 22.5%.

Table 2.13: Comparison of Complete and Incomplete Schools by Demographic Area in the Primary Education Sector, 2000-01 to 20005-06

	2000-2001			2005-2006		
	Total Schools	Incomplete Schools	% Incomplete Schools	Total Schools	Incomplete Schools	% Incomplete Schools
Whole Kingdom	5,468	2,484	45.4%	6,277	1,719	27.4%
- Urban Area	569	153	26.9%	663	106	16.0%
- Rural Area	4,581	2,063	45.0%	5,101	1,296	25.4%
- Remote Area	318	268	84.3%	513	317	61.8%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

In spite of this progress, **a nationwide rate of 27.4% incomplete primary schools** suggests that one school in four primary schools is still incomplete across the Kingdom. It is also clear that the high proportion of incomplete primary schools in remote areas of the Kingdom (over 60% of the total or nearly four times the proportion in urban areas) means that the children in remote areas have significantly reduced access to primary education and are not benefiting from advances in UPE in other areas.

Total and Incomplete Lower Secondary Schools

The construction of lower secondary schools has seen a very robust increase in the Kingdom over the six-year period 2000-01 to 2005-06. However, a significant proportion of these new lower secondary schools evidently remain incomplete. In the Kingdom as a whole, total lower

secondary schools have increased by 83% over the six-year period, but a quarter of them remain incomplete in 2005-06. In the remote areas the total number of lower secondary schools has increased by 61% over the six year period, but the proportion of incomplete schools is still a fairly high 38.7%.

Table 2.14: Comparison of Complete and Incomplete Schools by Demographic Area in the Lower Secondary Education Sector, 2000-01 to 2005-06

	2000-2001			2005-2006		
	Total Schools	Incomplete Schools	% Incomplete Schools	Total Schools	Incomplete Schools	% Incomplete Schools
Whole Kingdom	367	21	5.7%	670	173	25.8%
- Urban Area	49	2	4.1%	84	18	21.4%
- Rural Area	312	19	6.1%	555	143	25.8%
- Remote Area	6	0	0.0%	31	12	38.7%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

The sub-national categories urban, rural, and remote are useful for highlighting national trends, but they do not correspond to any institutional structures or coherent constituencies around which targeted interventions can easily be organized. From the point of view of highlighting the needs of specific underserved areas and finding ways of "reaching the unreached," it is preferable to disaggregate data by province. Appropriate actions might then be contemplated that involve the participation of the Ministry's education offices in the provinces and in the specific districts where incomplete schools are found.

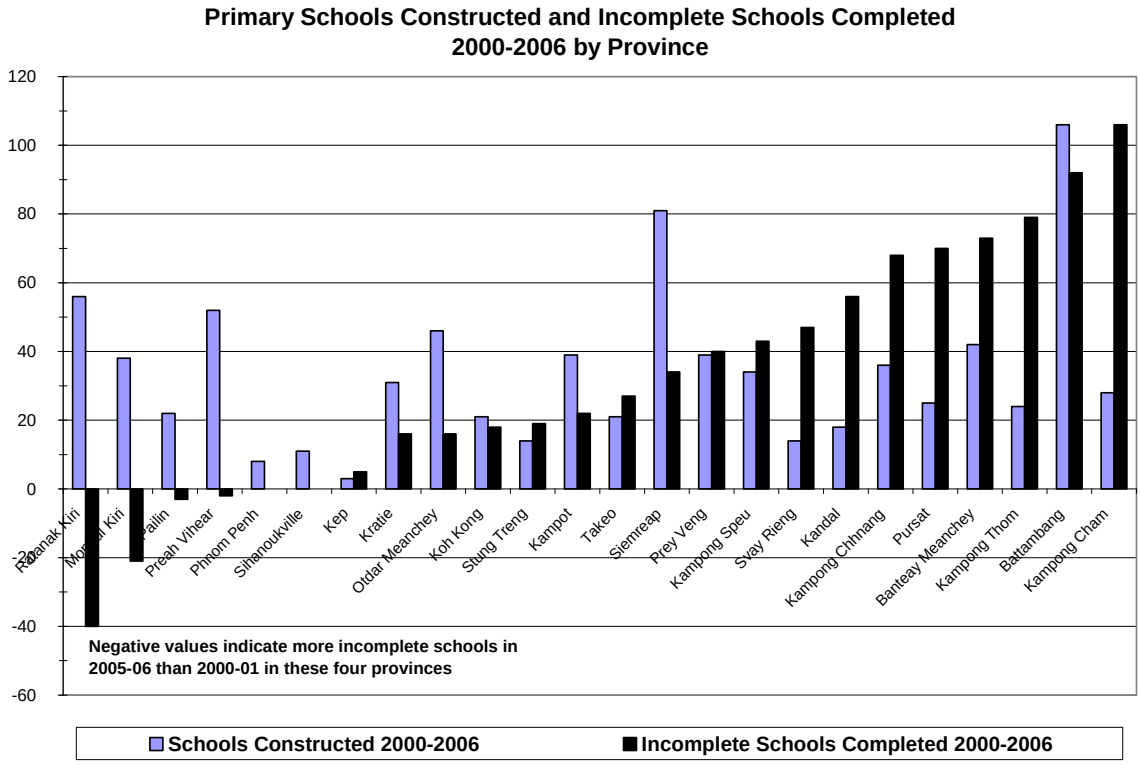
Provincial Level Data on Incomplete Primary Schools:

Figure 2.50 below shows the progress in building primary schools in each province over the period 2000-2001 to 2005-2006. The reduction in incomplete schools is also shown for each province as the difference between the number of incomplete schools in 2000-2001 and 2005-2006. These two efforts to improve the delivery of basic education have been advancing simultaneously and reflect concerted efforts by MoEYS to achieve EFA goals.

Nearly all the provinces show a strong reduction in incomplete schools over the first half of the decade, and successful movement forward on EFA goals. However, in four provinces, Ratanakiri, Mondulkiri, Pailin, and Preah Vihear a negative value for reduced incomplete schools has been reported. In these provinces, there are more incomplete schools now than there were in 2000-2001. This indicates that some of the schools recently constructed are not complete primary schools. This is particularly pronounced in Ratanakiri, where 56 schools have been built in the last six years, but 40 of them remain incomplete and in Mondulkiri, where 38 schools have been built, but 21 of them are incomplete.

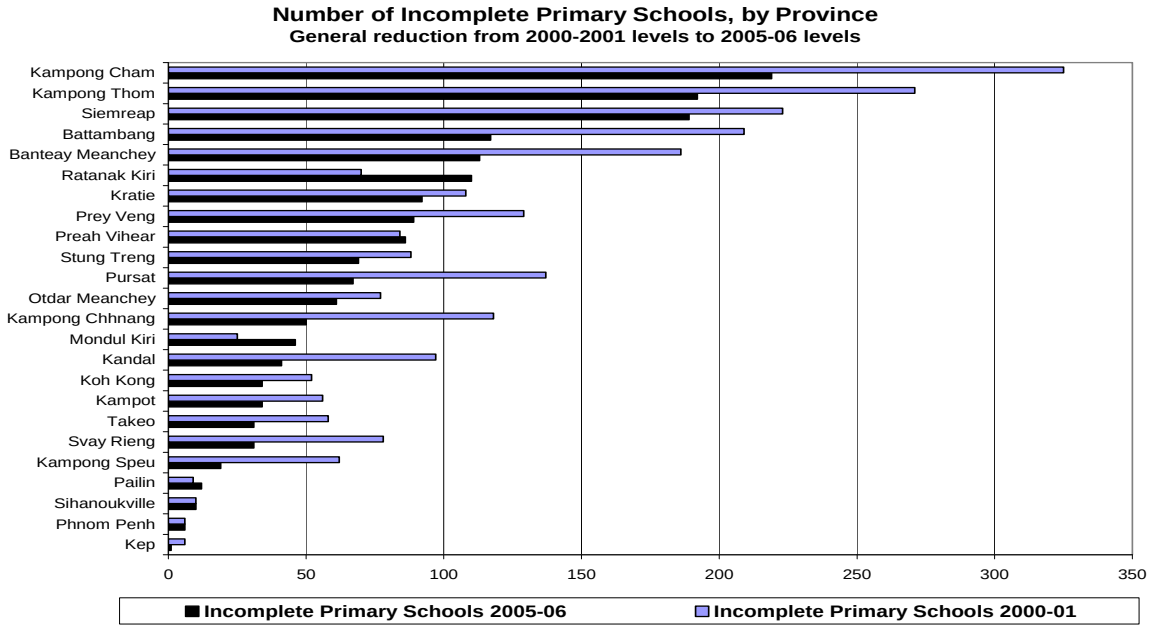
Figure 2.51 indicates the provincial distribution of the remaining 1,719 incomplete primary schools in the Kingdom. In this respect, the chart shows that the provinces with a hundred incomplete primary schools or more include Ratanak Kiri with 110 incomplete primary schools, Banteay Meanchey with 113, Battambang with 117, Siemreap with 189, Kampong Thom with 192 and Kampong Cham with 219 incomplete primary schools in 2005-06.

Figure 2.50: Comparison of Primary School Construction and Incomplete Schools Completed by Province, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

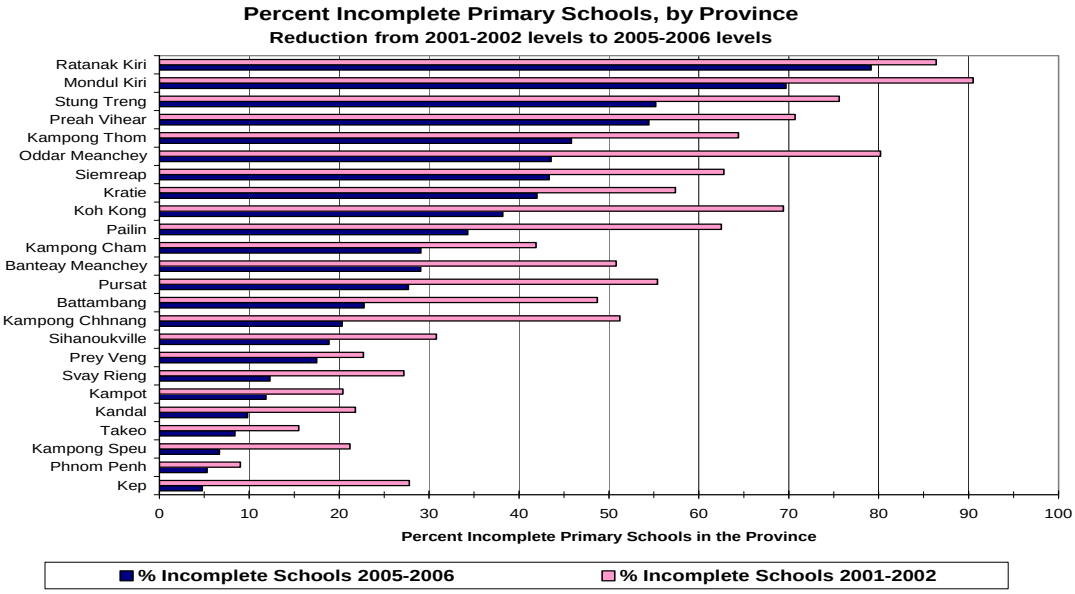
Figure 2.51: Distribution of Incomplete Primary Schools by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

Figure 2.52 below shows the reductions achieved in the proportion of incomplete primary schools in every Cambodian province between 2001-0 and 2005-06. The present proportion of incomplete primary schools still remains very high in many areas.

Figure 2.52: Trend Changes in Incomplete Primary School Reduction, 2001-02 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2001-02 & 2005-06

Four provinces, Preah Vihear, Stung Treng, Mondulkiri and Ratanakiri, all in the far "remote" Northeast, have rates of incomplete primary schools above 50%. One out of every two primary schools in these provinces is incomplete. Five more provinces have rates of incomplete primary schools above 33%. They are Pailin, Koh Kong, Kratie, Siem Reap, Otdar Meanchey and Kampong Thom. One out of every three primary schools in these provinces is incomplete. Five more provinces have rates of incomplete primary schools above 20%. They are Kampong Chhnang, Battambang, Pursat, Banteay Meanchey and Kampong Cham. One out of every five primary schools in these provinces is incomplete.

The above discussion should not obscure the observation that reducing the number of incomplete schools in the Kingdom is not only a matter of school construction. Rather, it also depends equally as much on the availability of teachers. Indeed, some recent projects have demonstrated that it has been possible to add grade levels to incomplete schools through such measures as local recruitment to Provincial Teacher Training Colleges (where candi-

Innovative Approaches to Addressing the Problem of Incomplete Schools

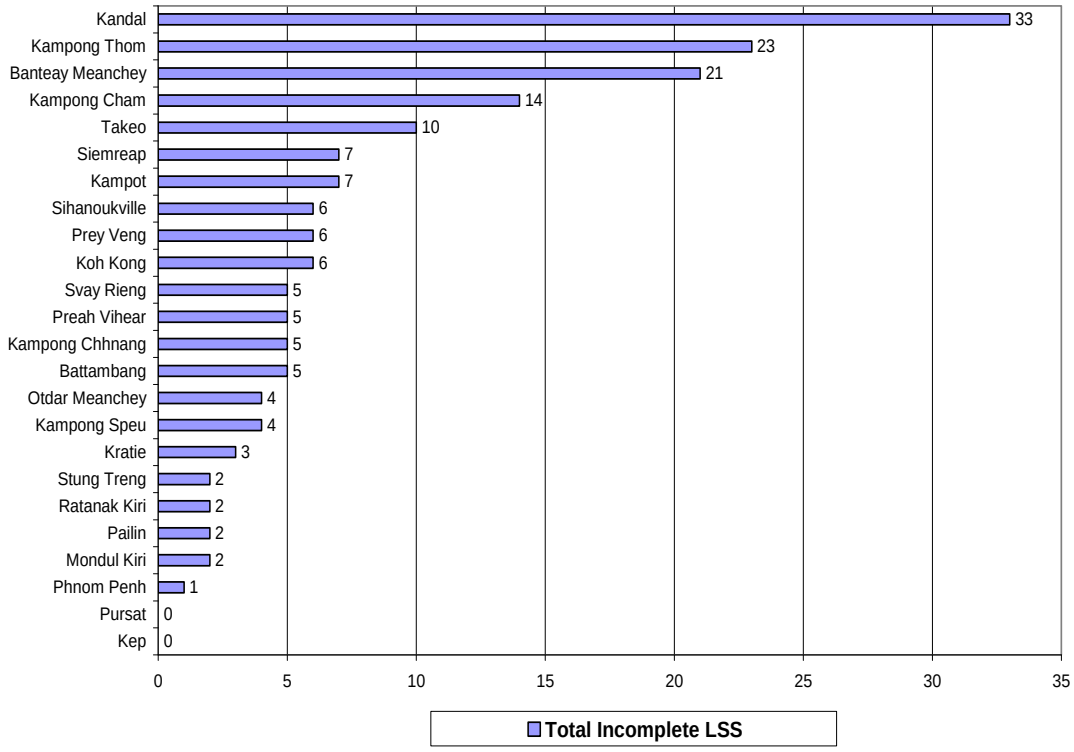
In 2004, the MoEYS introduced a new policy that identified certain communes with severe teacher shortages and a preponderance of incomplete schools. The Ministry invited local authorities and NGOs to use this policy to promote local recruitment and other interventions to address the problem of incomplete schools. In 2005, the MoEYS entered into an agreement with the *Educational Support to Children in Underserved Populations Program* (ESCUP) to provide scholarships to locally recruited PTTC candidates in target communes identified under the new Ministry policy. MoEYS also encouraged the project to recruit and train locally recruited Community Teachers who would be fielded to state schools as an interim measure until PTTC candidates could be fielded after the completion of their studies. Within one year, the Provincial Offices of Education, Youth, and Sport in three provinces reported that 68% of incomplete schools in target areas had added a grade level.

dates are posted back to their communes of origin) and support for Community Teachers who are recruited in areas with severe teacher shortages (see Case Study Box). MoEYS has, therefore, been active in ensuring that its approach to reducing incomplete schools is not unidimensional but focuses on multiple interventions such as flexible teacher recruitment, targeting communes with the greatest problems, and PTTC scholarships for locally recruited candidates.

Provincial Level Data on Incomplete Lower Secondary Schools:

There are currently 173 incomplete Lower Secondary Schools nationwide. The five provinces with the largest number of incomplete Lower Secondary Schools are Takeo (10 schools), Kampong Cham (14 schools), Banteay Meanchey (21 schools), Kampong Thom (23 schools) and Kandal (33 schools)(see Figure 2.53).

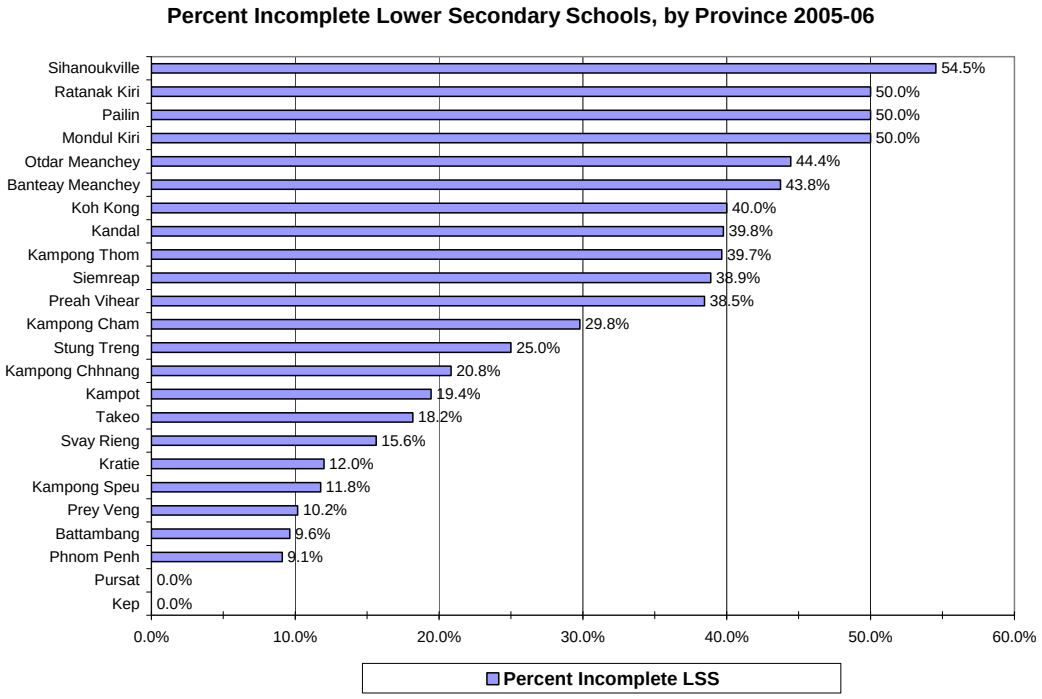
Figure 2.53: Incomplete Lower Secondary Schools by Province, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

Figure 2.54 below shows the number of incomplete lower secondary schools as a percentage of total schools in each province. Four provinces have reported proportional levels of incomplete lower secondary schools greater than 50%. They are Mondulkiri, Pailin, Ratanakiri and Sihanoukville. Seven provinces have proportional levels above 33%. They are Preah Vihear, Siem Reap, Kampong Thom, Kandal, Koh Kong, Banteay Meanchey, and Otdar Meanchey. An additional three provinces have proportional levels above 20%. They are Kampong Chhnang, Stung Treng and Kampong Cham. This information helps to put some of the data presented above in better perspective, since some provinces with the largest absolute number of incomplete lower secondary schools (such as Kandal and Kampong Cham) actually have lower proportional rates of incompletion than smaller provinces.

Figure 2.54: Incomplete Lower Secondary Schools as a Percentage of All Schools by Province, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

If local primary or lower secondary schools are incomplete, the school children served by those schools will not be able to obtain a basic education. Where there are incomplete schools, there are "unreached" students, from the perspective of the EFA Goal 2, and the commitment to providing every child with a basic education.

The data above indicates that the problem of incomplete schools is by no means confined to the "remote" mountainous provinces of the Northeast, home largely to tribal minorities. The proportional level of incomplete primary and lower secondary schools is over 20% in 14 out of 24 provinces in Cambodia. The high proportion of incomplete schools is a significant bottleneck to achieving EFA Goal 2 and constricts the availability of basic education across the nation. The solution to the problem may involve not only improving physical school structures but also effective deployment of human resources and other innovative policies discussed above. Where class size is small, multi-grade teaching may also be an effective solution. This would require specific pedagogical training for the teachers assigned to such schools.

In an incomplete school, when a child completes the highest grade level taught and cannot move to the next grade because it does not exist at the school, it is very likely that the child will either dropout at that point or repeat the highest grade again to stay in school. In either case, if explanations for the drop out or repetition are sought, the first factor to consider is what services the local school itself provides. Then it may be appropriate to consider additional factors such as the socio-economic or cultural profile of the students.

Chapter Three:

Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

CHAPTER THREE: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Measuring Progress toward EFA Goal 3: Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programs.

3.1 Introduction

The 1990 Jomtien Declaration defined life skills as 'essential learning tools and basic learning content required by human beings to be able to survive, to develop their full capacities….and to improve the quality of their lives." A decade later, the 2000 Dakar Framework for Action revisited the definition, expanding the life skills approach to include the acquisition of knowledge, values, attitudes and skills through the **Four Pillars of Learning**: learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and with others, and learning to be. In an effort to provide greater specificity on the skills covered within Education for All, three typologies have been identified, namely: ***basic skills*** (literacy, numeracy etc), ***psycho-social skills*** (reflective, personal and interpersonal skills including problem solving, agency, communication, team work, etc) and ***practical/functional skills*** (manual skills relating to specific vocations or for a specific behavior such as health). There are a variety of meanings accorded to the term life skills. It is hoped that the Mid Decade Assessment will provide an opportunity for reflection by readers on what skills are needed by young people and adults and how these are reflected within the national EFA plans.

The concept of ***lifelong learning*** underpins this Goal, with an emphasis on continuous learning for improved knowledge, skills and competencies within personal, civic, social or employment related perspectives. As such, this notion extends to all areas and phases of life and is crucial in framing young people and adults' needs to extend and acquire new skills in a rapidly changing world. For the purposes of this document, the definition of young people is taken to include those aged 10 to 24 and thereby of adults from over age 25.

Dakar Framework for Action Extended Text on Life Long Learning and Life Skills:

> *All young people and adults must be given the opportunity to gain the knowledge and develop the values, attitudes and skills that will enable them to develop their capacities to work, to participate fully in their society, to take control of their own lives and to continue learning. No country can be expected to develop into a modern and open economy without a certain proportion of its work force having completed secondary education. In most countries this requires an expansion of the secondary system.*
>
> *Young people, especially adolescent girls, face risks and threats that limit learning opportunities and challenge education systems. These include exploitative labour, the lack of employment, conflict and violence, drug abuse, school-age pregnancy and HIV/AIDS. Youth-friendly programmes must be made available to provide the information, skills, counseling and services needed to protect them from these risks.*
>
> *All young people should be given the opportunity for ongoing education. For those who drop out of school or complete school without acquiring the literacy, numeracy and life skills they need, there must be a range of options for continuing their learning. Such opportunities should be both meaningful and relevant to their environment and needs, help them become active agents in shaping their future and develop useful work-related skills.*

The assessment of life skills can be made through consideration of four broad areas: inputs (resources, teachers); processes (teaching/learning methods); outcomes (social/emotional skills,

behavior) and impact (safety, welfare, health, livelihood, civic participation). This Mid Decade Assessment provides opportunity for Cambodia to further clarify the manner in which skills are taught, and how those skills support the overall well-being of young people and adult learners.

Due to the nature of this Goal and the relatively limited attention paid until recently on defining relevant indicators and corresponding monitoring tools, progress to date is portrayed with the case-study accounts that are available.

Definition of Life Skill

Life skill is an ability which everyone necessarily needs for effective personal living, high safety in family, community, and participation in national development.

Objective

The objective of Life Skill:

- Provision of knowledge and simple careers to out of school youth, widows, disadvantaged women, poor people, disabled people, labour child, and minority for daily living.
- To reduce unemployment and poverty effectively.
- Enable them to take part in social activities and national development.

3.2 Main Programs Implemented in 2000-2005

The various programs that relate to life skills education during the reporting period are summarized in Table 3.1 below:

Table 3.1: Main Programs Implemented in Life Skills Education, 2000-2005

Program Name	Partner/ Implementer	Detail of implementation
Community Learning Centers (CLC). (Target Groups: Out of school youth, widows, minorities, child laborers, and people in poor communes)	UNESCO, Department of Non-Formal Education, MoEYS	• At 19 Community Learning Centers (CLCs) including 6 UNESCO supported centers poor communes and districts, life skills programs have been implemented in 18 areas (e.g., sewing, hair cutting, cosmetician, hair dresser, soldering, human rights, traditional music, motorbike repair, modern music, mushroom planting, animal raising, electronics, weaving, foreign language, computer, HIV/AIDS awareness, trafficking awareness, and drug awareness). • The provision of skills helps target groups to make income such as through work in garment factories, changed attitudes, and reduction of violence, drug abuse, sex trafficking, and HIV/AIDS.
Mobile School Vehicle. (Target Groups: Out of school children and youth in poor communes.	UNESCO, Department of Non-Formal Education, MoEYS	• The Mobile School Vehicle program aims to provide opportunities for disadvantaged young populations to know, understand, and utilize ICT, especially in rural/remote areas. • The program has been implemented at 154 locations in 20 provinces with 5,030 participants (2,279 females) aged 6-18 years. Inputs aim to reduce sex trafficking, HIV/AIDS, drug abuse, child rights awareness, human rights awareness, and help students know how to use computers.
Life Skills for HIV/AIDS Educa-	DFID, UNFPA, UNICEF, EC, World	• Under the coordination of the Inter-departmental Com-

Program Name	Partner/ Implementer	Detail of implementation
tion Program. (Target Groups: Out of school children and youth; public school students.	Education, Dept of School Health, Dept of Research and ICHA, MoEYS	mittee for HIV/AIDS (ICHA), life skills programs under this project focused on the development of positive attitudes and skills to prevent high-risk behavior associated with HIV/AIDS, early sexual initiation, pregnancy etc. The project has been implemented in 14 provinces. There are 127,657 students receiving inputs, 50% of whom are female.
Local Life Skills Program (LLSP) (Cambodia Basic Education Project/CBE)	USAID/Research Triangle Institute, UNICEF, Departments of Pedagogical Research, Primary and Secondary Education	• Based on MoEYS Policy for Life Skills Education, implementation of local life skills programs has been implemented at primary and secondary school levels through one-time school grants of $300, where schools organize lessons of their own choice in order to make the national curriculum more relevant to local needs and context.
Other training courses: Trained Soldiers	Ministry of National Defense	• Provision of foreign language training courses, active soldier courses, doctor/physician training courses, nursery courses, financial work training, and land mine removal courses. There are 1,581 beneficiaries of this program.
Librarian Training Course. (Target Groups: Individuals with no access to library facilities (e.g., monks in temples, schools with no libraries, etc.)	Ministry of Culture and Fine Arts	• This course is designed to train librarians who operate mobile school vehicles. The readers include 40,730 monks, 31,056 students, and 227,626 children in primary schools.
Vocational Training Program for Disabled Women and Children	Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA)	• MoWA implements vocational training courses for disabled women and children on topics such as sewing, hair dressing, make-up, cooking, etc. in Kompong Speu, Kompot, Prey Ven, Kompong Chhnang, Preah Vihea, Kompong Cham, Kratie, Pursat, Svay Rieng, Siem Reap, Kep, Mondul Kiri, Sihanouk Ville, and Banteay Meanchey. The number of participants totaled 4,776 individuals from 2001 to 2005. • At collection centres, women receive capacity building to run personal businesses where they are provided materials and credit which is paid back in instalments.
Technical training programs:	Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training (MLVT)	• MLVT provides/supports the following technical training courses: basic, intermediate and advanced public technical training courses; short-term training courses; private technical training courses; and NGO-supported training courses. • Beneficiaries who complete the course are assisted with labor marketing.
OPTIONS: Combating Child Trafficking and Exploitation (Target Groups: Children at risk of dropping out of school)	US Dept of Labor/World Education, KAPE, & CARE in collaboration with MoEYS, MoWA, and MoSA	• This was a four-year program (2003-07) implemented in 3 provinces (Prey Veng, Kampong Cham, and Bantheay Meanchey) to provide preventative interventions such as life skills training to keep children in school. • A sub-program called, 'My Better Futures' was developed under this program that provided practical vocational training to girls and boys who had left school. • Over 14,000 children at risk received support through

Program Name	Partner/ Implementer	Detail of implementation
		this program.
Child Friendly School Initiative (Target Groups: children in Grades 5, 6, & 7)	UNICEF/Sida, KAPE and Dept of Primary Education	• Development and implementation of community-based life skills programming in primary and secondary skills that facilitated local research by children and recruitment of local community resource persons to provide prevocational training based on children's choices.
Computer Lab Development Program	Room to Read/KAPE	• Provision of over 30 computer labs to lower secondary schools benefiting over 20,000 students.
Safe Migration Program	Street Friends and The Asia Foundation	• Development of specialized skills training to ensure that child migrants do not fall into the sex trade.
Child Protection Shelters	Vulnerable Children's Action Organization (VCAO)	• Provision of vocational skills training to abused/rescued children in selected provinces (e.g., Kampong Cham, Takeo, Phnom Penh) .

3.3. Policies and Regulations Issued for the Sector in 2000-2006

The following policies and guidelines were developed and issued during the reporting period:

- Policy for Curriculum Development 2005-2009 issued in 2004: The policy provides guidelines for local life skill education in state schools amounting to 2 to 5 hours a week.
- Guidelines for cross-curricular themes in science and social studies in the basic education curriculum (Grades 1 to 3) to enhance teaching quality.
- Guidelines to introduce subject electives in Grades 11 and 12 by adding study hours for each subject and reducing some subject requirements to keep time for students to learn the subject chosen.
- Formal dissemination of Non-formal Education Policy (13 August 2002), which provides opportunities for life-long learning by enhancing literacy and further education with provision for credit, careers, and vocational training for happy living. The policy also regularly provides information on vocational knowledge, techniques, and science to every one.
- Formal identification of target groups with respect to life-long learning and vocational training including: poor and vulnerable people, child laborers, out of school children and youth, ethnic minority youth, and adults aged 15 to 45 years. Special attention is paid to girls and women who live in low-access rural and remote areas as well as integration areas.
- National Plan to Implement the Policy for Curriculum Development 2005-2009 developed in 2006
- Policy for Life Skills in non-formal and Formal Education (issued in 2006).
- Life skills are defined as mental, inter-personal, and vocational skills, which can help in decision-making, effective relationships and that can promote self-control, i.e., skills promoting comfort and productive life). The MoEYS determined that there are 2 kinds of life skills:
  - Basic skills: necessary skills, which provide a strong base for living. Basic skills include general and pre-vocational skills.
  - Career skill: basic vocational identification to determine a clear career in the future. Career skills are simple skills and vocational skills.
- New Basic Education Curriculum (Grades 1-9) was issued in 2006 specifies basic skills to be taught to every student. This includes important topics like health education, safe-

ty, nutrition, relaxation, illness protection, other ways to good health (e.g., hygiene food), traffic safety, drowning awareness, landmine awareness, HIV/AIDS awareness, drug awareness, bird flu, games, and environmental protection. The policy also ensures provisions for personal development, self-value, group work skills, peaceful living, and peaceful challenges-solution.

3.4 Departments and Ministries Involved and NGOs with Working Group 3 (Life Skills and Lifelong Learning)

The following departments and ministries have been involved in the development o f Life Skills programming:

- Departments of Non-Formal Education, Pedagogical Research, School Health, Primary Education, Secondary Education of MoEYS
- Ministry of Culture and Fine Arts
- Ministry of National Defense
- Ministry of Rural Development
- Ministry of interiors
- Ministry of Women Affairs
- Ministry of Health
- Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training
- Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishery
- NGOs and IOs: SCADP, Street Friends, World Education, KAPE, World Vision, VCAO, Maryknoll, SEILA, LWF, CEDAC, CWS, CHS, KSSA, WVJ, CARITAS, AFESIP, OCAA, SIDCE, CARE, CWCC, DONBOSCO, ILO/IPEC, SIPAR, CWDA KHEMARA, Room to Read.

3.5 Major Monitoring and Evaluation Activities Conducted in 2000-2006

The following is a summary of monitoring and evaluatioin activities that have occurred during the reporting period.

- Monitoring and evaluation of the quality and effectiveness of life skills programs has been regularly done in 2000-2005. The working group led by the Department of Non-formal Education of MoEYS has closely worked with the Ministries of Labor and Vocational Training, CLCS, Culture and Fine Art, Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishery, Rural Development, Women's Affairs and Health with financial, material and technical support from UNESCO, UNICEF, ILO/IPEC and others.
- Surveys of government officials who are trained and who cooperate with the Offices of Education in provinces and municipalities are conducted through monitoring and evaluation based on the Priority Action Program in each school year.
- There is a final exam to test the ability at the end of each government training course, which is conducted with the supervision of government officials in provinces and cities as well as the management of Community Leaning Centers.

3.6 Successes and Remaining Challenges in Implementation of EFA Goal

A. Major successes and achievements

- PAP budget was allocated to support the operation of 33 skills training institutions in Phnom Penh and 9 institutions in provinces

- The number of Community Learning Centers (CLCs) and CLC-based training programs increased from 30 CLCs to 60 CLCs using PAP funds.
- The coverage of literacy combined with skills training programs for out-of-school youth expanded through observance of International Literacy Day, 8 September, requiring the dissemination of posters, leaflets, and brochures, as well as programming disseminated through TVK (awareness programs)
- Private school participation increased in skills training in various areas such as foreign languages (Japanese, Chinese, Korean and so on), computer, and electronic repair and tourist's guide.
- Inter-ministerial coordination/cooperation improved.
- There is a good cooperation with NGOs, which are important partners in vocational training.
- Vocational training is conducted with gender mainstreaming in the needs analysis of skills on a regular basis.
- Total Number of Participants in Life Skills Training Programs in 2000-2006 reached 763,295 individuals (see Table 3.2)**:**

Table 3.2: Total Participants in Life Skills Training Programs, 2000-06

Ministry/Institution		Male	Female	Total	Female %
MoEYS					
	Training at CLCs	35,917	34,447	70,364	48.25
	Literacy with Vocation. Ed.	113,476	264,176	377,652	69.95
	Re-entry Program	3,280	25,649	56,929	45.05
	ICTraining by mobile truck	2,751	2,279	5,030	45.30
	Training at private schools	59,166	52,229	111,395	46.88
	Training with NGOs	20,597	46,853	67,450	69.46
Ministry of Women's Affairs		0	4,776	4,776	100.00
Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training		41,587	28,112	69,699	40.33
Total		304,774	458,521	763,295	60.07

- We noted that most of the targets in this table are women learning income generation skills who comprise 60.7% of reported beneficiaries. This suggests that more women get outside jobs.

B. Challenges remaining to be overcome

- Insufficient budget to expand skills training programs to needy populations requiring more support and scholarship.
- Disparities exist in terms of the coverage of skills training programs between men and women, urban and rural/remote areas, and rich and poor, suggesting different viewpoints regarding the need for education for women.
- Training programs sometimes do not match the real needs of trainees as well as the job market demands. In addition, marketed products do not sellwell.
- Locally available human resources and materials have yet to be fully utilized, which limits market demand.

- The cooperation/coordination between different departments, Ministries, and private companies needs to be further improved to ensure better coherence and synergy among different skills training programs in order to meet labour market needs.
- The lack of systematic and comprehensive data collection mechanisms continue to be major constraints. There are many tools that have yet to be established to provide accurate and up-to-date information on skills training programs.

3.7 Life Skills Education Sector Analysis

3.7.1 Youth Literacy Rate (15-24 Years)(See also Chapter 4)

The Youth Literacy Rate is the percentage of the population between 15 and 24 years of age who can read and write a short simple statement on everyday life, with understanding. This indicator reflects the effectiveness of the primary and secondary education systems over the previous ten years or so, as experience in school is assumed to be how literacy was attained. Youth Literacy is also often used as a proxy or indirect measure of social progress and economic achievement in a country, based on the effectiveness of the school system. The data on Youth Literacy has some gaps, but the trends are visible.

Table 3.3: Youth Literacy Rate (15-24 years)

Year	Cambodia	Cambodia - Phnom Penh	Cambodia - Other Urban	Cambodia - Rural	Female	Male	GPI
1998	76.3	--	--	--	71.1	81.8	0.87
1999	81.5	94.5	82.8	79.6	76.7	86.6	0.89
2000-2001	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2001-2002	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2002-2003	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2003-2004	80.5	96.4	86.5	77.5	76.6	84.3	0.91
2004	83.4	93.7	88.7	81.3	78.9	87.9	0.90

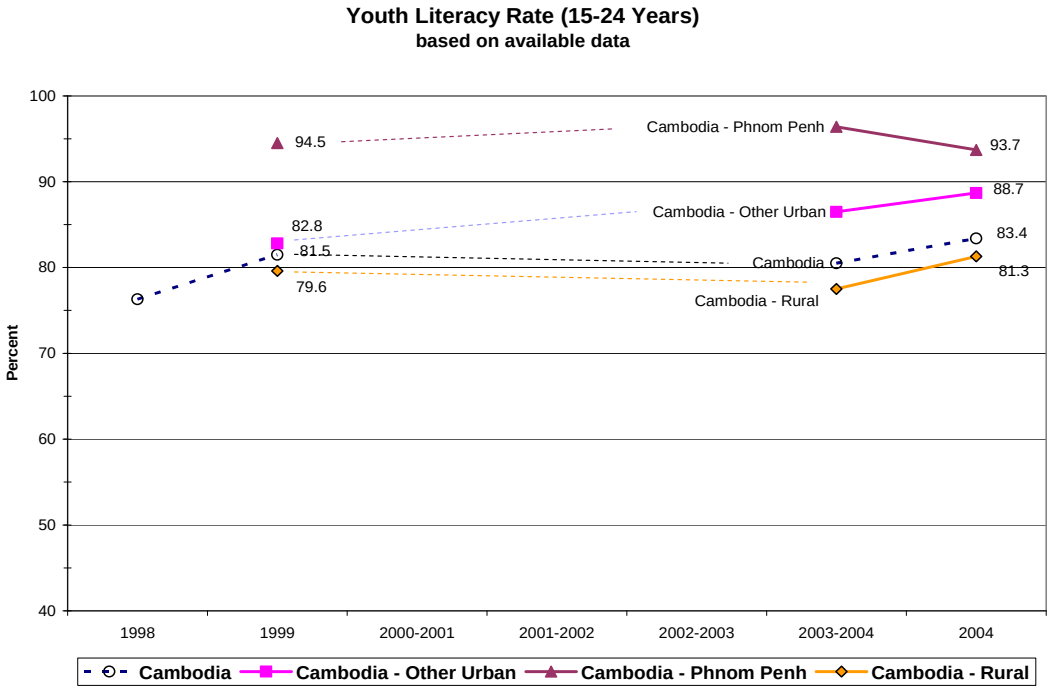
Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics
MoP, Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys (CSES), National Institute of Statistics
MoP, General Population Census of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics, 1998.

According to Table 3.3 and Figure 3.1, the national youth literacy rate has increased from 76.3% in 1998 to 83.4% in 2004. The latter figure reflects the expansion of access to primary education nationwide in the last ten years, which was also demonstrated in the admission and enrollment statistics discussed in Chapter 2.

Phnom Penh and other urban centers (provincial capitals and several municipalities) show much higher rates of literacy than the national average, also reflected in the higher rates of admission and enrollment to primary and lower secondary education in urban areas than in rural or remote ones. The apparent decline in Phnom Penh figures from 2003 to 2004 is probably due to increased migration to the city by illiterate villagers looking for wage employment. This trend of internal migration to urban centers is likely to continue. It should be matched by increasing opportunities for these migrants to obtain the skills in literacy and numeracy they will need to improve their pursuit of gainful employment in urban areas.

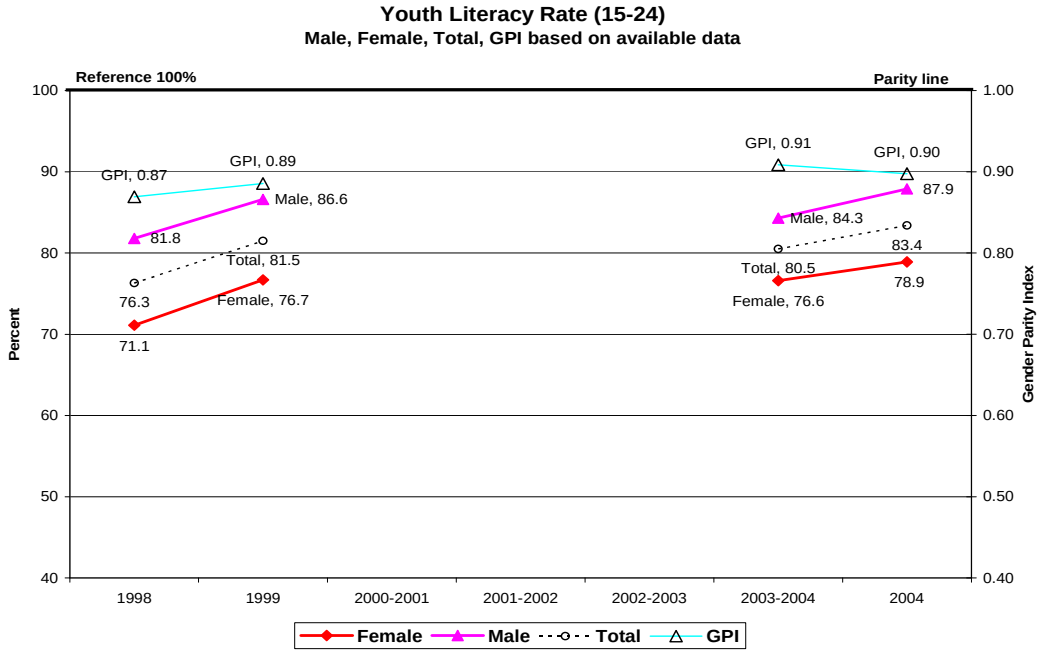
Nevertheless, these figures indicate that urban areas have been the primary beneficiaries of improvements in youth literacy, with only marginal improvements in rural areas. In this respect, the youth literacy rate for rural areas has improved only slightly from 79.6% in 1999 to 81.3% in 2004, reflecting poorly on the increased access to primary and lower secondary schooling in the rural and remote areas of Cambodia over the last decade.

Figure 3.1: Trend Changes in Youth Literacy Rate by Demographic Area, 1998-2004



Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS)
National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning. Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys (CSES),
National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, General Population Census of Cambodia,
National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

Figure 3.2: Trend Changes in Youth Literacy Rate by Sex, 1998-2004



Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics
MoP, Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys (CSES), National Institute of Statistics
MoP, General Population Census of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics, 1998.

Female youth literacy continues to lag behind that of male youth, reflecting the higher enrollment rates of males in primary and lower secondary education over the past ten years (see Figure 3.2). However the gap is narrowing, as seen in the steady increase in the Gender Parity Index. In 1998 the GPI for youth literacy was 0.87, but by 2004 it had reached 0.90.

3.7.2 Transition Rate between Primary and Lower Secondary Levels

Transition Rate measures the opportunity for mobility in the educational hierarchy. The Transition Rate from primary to secondary level indicates the ability of the primary level to produce graduates, and the ability of the lower secondary level to provide access to these graduates. This indicator helps assess the equitability of the educational system by providing a measure of which students are excluded from lower secondary school learning opportunities and by what magnitude. Transition rates are used as a measure of life skills provision since students at this age-level have high readiness to benefit from pre-vocational training and preparations for making important choices in life.

A high Transition Rate between Grades 6 and 7 indicates high access to lower secondary level and reflects the capacity of the lower secondary level to absorb those completing primary school. A high Transition Rate indicates the progress being made towards the goal of providing all Cambodian youth a full nine years of basic education.

A low Transition Rate between primary and lower secondary education indicates problems in bridging movement from one level to another. The problems could be inadequate capacity to admit the numbers seeking entrance, a supply issue, as well as inadequate interest or demand in attending lower secondary school, even if supply existed. As one might imagine, the problems of addressing demand related issues are more complex than those of supply, since this requires changing perceptions of stakeholders towards education. Such efforts must go hand in hand with improving educational relevance, which links strongly with issues relating to life skills education. In addition to direct educational cost concerns, demand for lower secondary education could also be depressed by factors largely outside the ability of the education sector to control. For example, the inability of the economy to absorb graduates from secondary school level would be a great disincentive for youth to make the sacrifices needed to move to or stay in secondary school. Low transition could also reflect problems due to deficiencies in the examination system, which serves to restrict access to those completing primary school.

National Level Data on Lower Secondary School Transition Rate:

The national Transition Rate to lower secondary as well as the rates for urban, rural, and remote areas all show a steady rise from 2000-01 and then a leveling off recently to present levels in 2005-06 which are slightly below 2004-05 (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Change in National Transition Rate to Lower Secondary School, 2000-01 to 2005-06

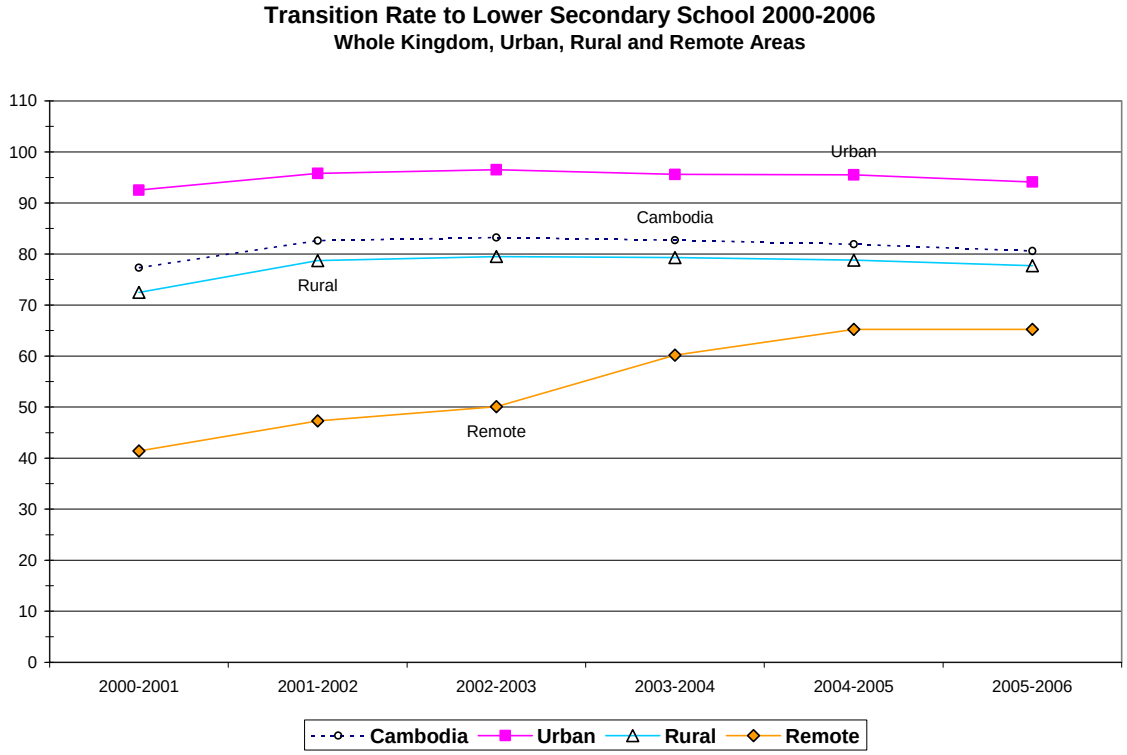
Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote	Female	Male	GPI
2000-2001	77.3	92.5	72.5	41.4	71.1	--	--
2001-2002	82.6	95.8	78.7	47.3	77.9	87.6	0.89
2002-2003	83.2	96.5	79.5	50.1	79.1	86.5	0.91
2003-2004	82.7	95.6	79.3	60.2	79.8	85.1	0.94
2004-2005	81.9	95.5	78.8	65.2	79.6	83.9	0.95
2005-2006	80.6	94.1	77.7	65.2	78.7	82.3	0.96

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Urban levels show consistently higher transition than is found in rural and remote areas, staying above 90% through out the period. Children in urban areas were transitioning from primary to lower secondary level at the rate of 94.1% in 2005-06. Remote Areas have seen a remarkable improvement in transition over the period. The sudden increased rate noted in 2003-04 is probably due to the availability of scholarships for 7th graders introduced that year, which were specifically aimed at poor communes, primarily in rural and remote areas (see Figure 3.3). Nevertheless, remote areas have a much lower transition rate from Grade 6 to 7 than rural or urban areas. In this respect, children in remote areas were transitioning from primary to lower secondary school at the rate of 65.2% in 2005-06, while rural children in Cambodia were transitioning at a rate of 77.7% in 2005-06. To a large extent, the recent slowing of transition does not so much reflect a reduction in the number of children moving to lower secondary school but rather a rapid increase in the number of children who are reaching Grade 6. As this base figure increases more rapidly than increments in the number of children going to Grade 7, transition rate will slow or even decline in comparison to previous years when the base figure was smaller, even if more children are actually moving on to Grade 7 than was true earlier. Thus, in part, the education system has become a victim of its own success. These observations demonstrate again that accelerating transition is complex and not simply a matter of building more schools.

Nevertheless, the current expansion of building lower secondary schools, by nearly doubling the number of schools operating, is still expected to have a dramatic impact on capacity of the lower secondary level to meet growing demand. Continued expansion of a National Scholarship Program is also likely to lower the cost barriers to transition between Grades 6 and 7, thereby also increasing transition, especially in rural and remote areas. Both these factors will contribute to achieving the EFA goal of providing a basic education to all Cambodian children.

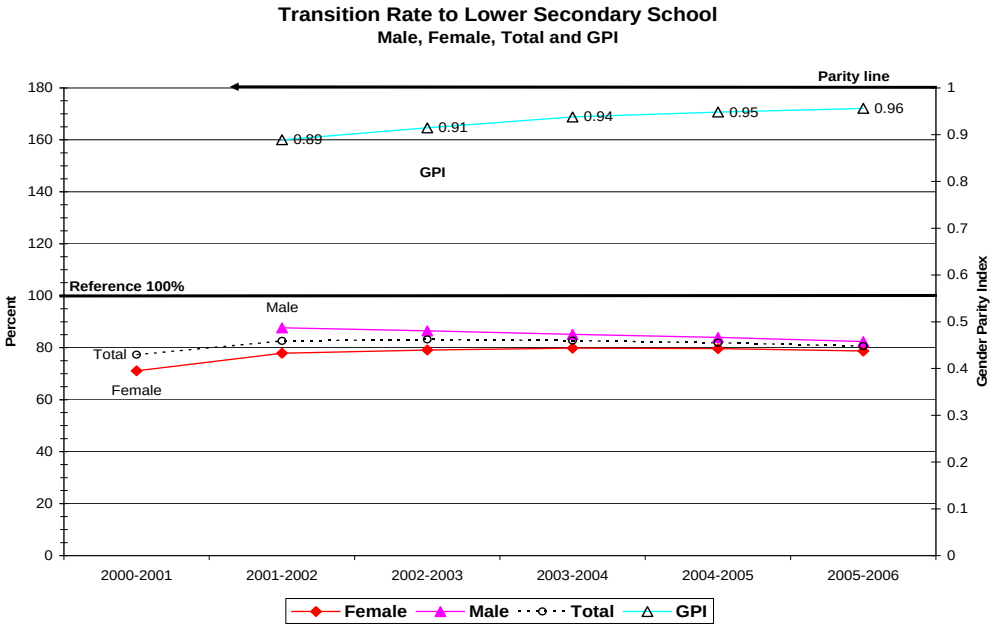
Figure 3.3: Trend Changes in Lower Secondary Transition by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Although female transition to lower secondary school lags behind male rates, the gap is steadily closing as GPI continues to rise. The sudden increase in GPI in 2003-04 probably again reflects the impact of scholarships for 7th graders that were primarily targeted at poor girls in rural and remote ethnic minority areas. By 2005-06 the GPI for Transition Rate from primary to lower secondary had reached 0.96, just under what EFA considers to be parity (see Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4: Trend Changes in Lower Secondary School Transition Rate by Sex, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Provincial Level Data on Lower Secondary School Transition Rate:

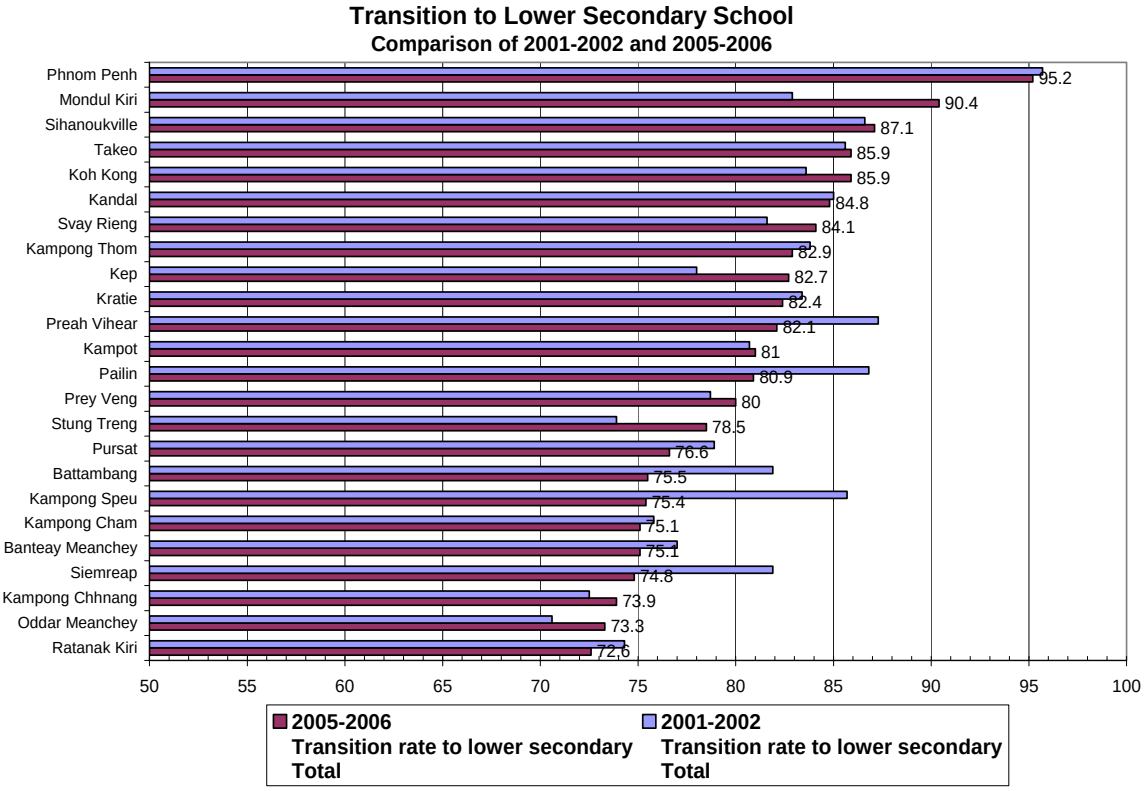
A longitudinal view of transition rates can be obtained by comparing rates in 2001-02 with rates in 2005-06. Thirteen of Cambodia's twenty-four provinces show a decline in Transition Rate to lower secondary school over the period, contributing to the national finding of a slight lowering of the average rate in Cambodia as a whole.

Several provinces show particularly marked drops in Transition Rate (see Figure 3.5). Preah Vihear slid from a rate of 87.3% in 2001-02 to a rate of 82.1% in 2005-06. Pailin dropped from a rate of 86.8% to 80.9% while Battambang dropped from 81.9% to 75.5% over the period. Similarly, Kampong Speu dropped from 85.7% to 75.4% and Siem Reap dropped from 81.9% to 74.8%. The likely reasons for these unexpected declines in Transition Rate to lower secondary probably reflect the explanation given earlier that base enrolment figures for Grade 6 are increasing much faster than transition levels, even though in absolute terms, the latter are still increasing. For example, government reported Grade 7 intake to be only 129,366 in 2000-01 but by 2005, this number had increased to 263,347 or an increase of over 100%. Thus, it is clear that more children are attending Grade 7 than ever before but that pro-poor enrolment policies have likely led to even larger increases in Grade 6 enrolment.

Disparities between provinces are also highlighted by this disaggregation. At the lowest end of the scale, Ratanakiri (72.6%), Oddar Meanchey (73.3%), Kampong Chhnang (73.9%) and Siem Reap (74.8%) are all below a Transition Rate of 75%, which is considered a normative rate.

Meanwhile rates above 90%, as expected, are found in Phnom Penh where the rate was 95.2% in 2005. But unexpectedly, Mondulkiri reported a very healthy rate of 90.4%. The comparative weakness of transition in the ethnic minority province of Ratanakiri and the strength of transition from Grades 6 to 7 in its neighboring minority province Mondulkiri warrants investigation to learn the practices that account for Mondulkiri's success in transitioning pupils from the primary to the secondary level.

Figure 3.5: Trend Changes in Lower Secondary School Transition Rate by Province, 2001-02 & 2005-06



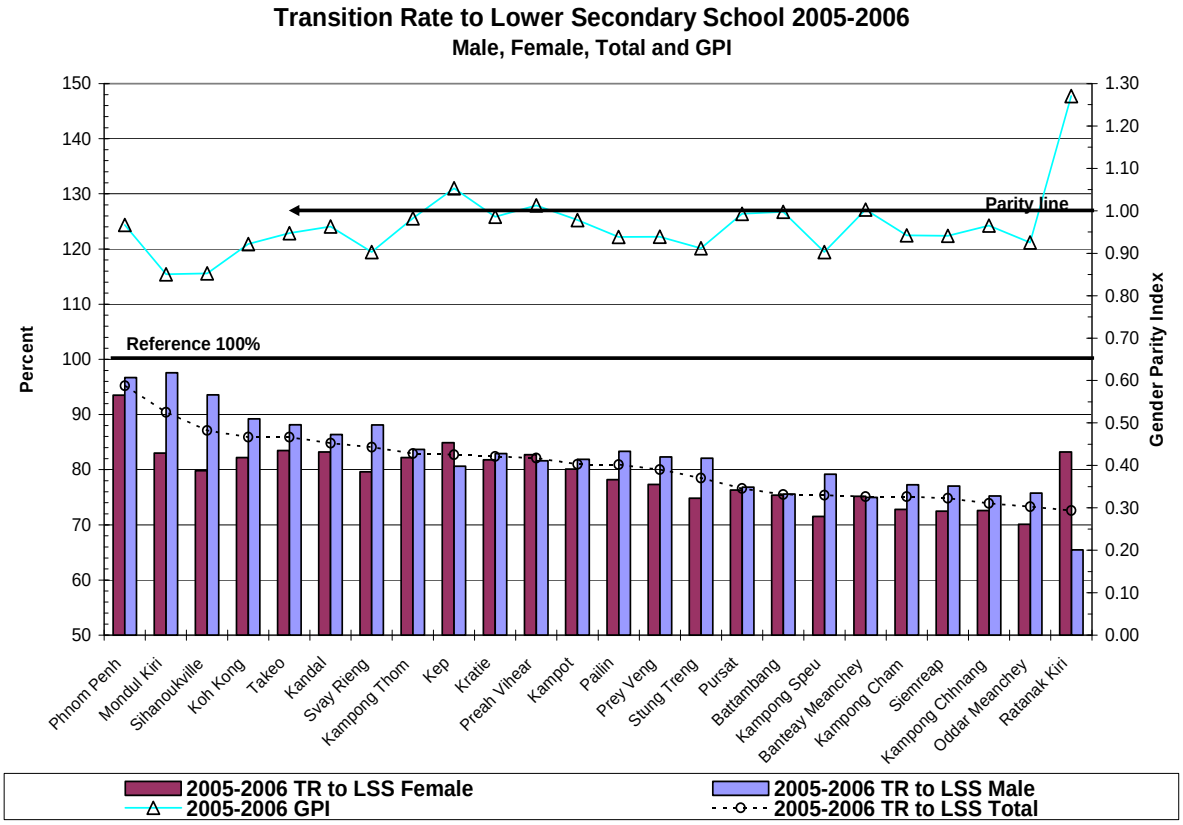
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2001-02 & 2005-06

Eleven of Cambodia's twenty-four provinces have attained gender parity in Transition Rate to lower secondary level, by showing a Gender Parity Index of 0.97 or greater (see Figure 3.6). These include Kampong Chhnang (0.97), Phnom Penh (0.97), Kampot (0.98), Kampong Thom (0.98), Kratie (0.99) and Pursat (0.99). In addition, there were five provinces that showed a higher rate of girls transitioning to 7th grade than boys in 2005-06, giving a GPI of 1.00 or greater. These provinces include Battambang (1.00), Banteay Meanchey (1.00), Preah Vihear (1.01), Kep (1.05) and Ratanak Kiri (1.27).

The remarkably high GPI for Ratanakiri contrasts with the very low GPI to be found in Mondulkiri (0.85). Although Ratanakiri is transitioning relatively few students from Grade 6 to 7, they appear to be largely girls. In contrast, Mondulkiri has been much more successful in achieving a high transition rate, but the pupils transitioning are largely boys. Phnom Penh, with the highest transition rate in the country (95.2%) has also achieved gender parity with a reported index of 0.97. But Sihanoukville, with a transition rate of 87.1%, third highest in the country after Phnom Penh and Mondulkiri, shared the lowest GPI with Mondulkiri, at 0.85.

Other provinces, too, with relatively low transition rates were reporting a large proportion of females in Grade 7 intakes. This includes Pursat with a transition rate of 76.6%, Battambang (75.5%), Banteay Meanchey (75.1%), Kampong Chhnang (73.9%), and, as already noted, Ratanakiri (72.6%), which have all achieved gender parity with indices of 0.97 or greater. There may be contrasting local practices and policies that account for these observed disparities relating to high transition rates but low access for female students or vice versa. These disparities should be followed-up for lessons that can be learned.

Figure 3.6: Lower Secondary School Transition Rate by Province and Sex, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

3.7.3 Transition Rates between Lower and Upper Secondary Levels

The transition rate to upper secondary school is computed by taking the number of students admitted to Grade 10 in a given year as a percentage of the number of the students enrolled in Grade 9 in the previous year. In Cambodia, the transition to upper secondary depends on successful completion of the National *Diplome* Examination at the end of Grade 9. Additional factors that may affect the Transition Rate to upper secondary are the accessibility of facilities and the ability of students to meet the increased costs associated with enrollment at this level. This refers in particular to the cost of textbooks, which are not provided for free as in the basic education cycle. In Cambodia, upper secondary schools are located in urban centers, provincial capitals, and some district centers. Students from rural and remote areas often have to live away from home in order to access upper secondary school. MoEYS started to introduce upper secondary schools to remote areas in 2004-05. This expansion should further stimulate demand for lower secondary schooling.

National Level Data on Transition to Upper Secondary School:

Over the reporting period, there has been a slight, but unsteady, increase in Transition Rate to upper secondary at the national level, particularly for urban areas (see Table 3.5 and Figure 3.7). Urban areas are transitioning students to upper secondary at a rate of 90.1%. Rural areas are far behind with a rate of 56.5%; remote areas are even worse off with a rate of only 19.2%.

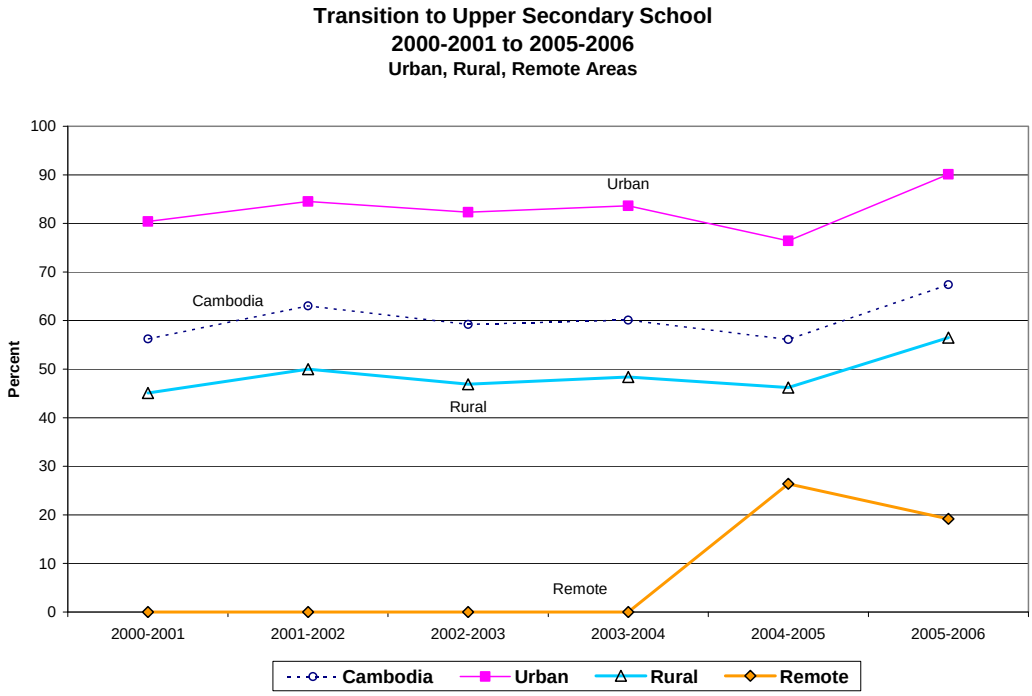
Table 3.5: Change in National Transition Rate to Upper Secondary School, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote	Female	Male	GPI
2000-2001	56.2	80.4	45.1	0	57.9	--	--
2001-2002	63	84.5	50	0	66.1	60.1	1.10
2002-2003	59.2	82.3	46.9	0	62.8	57.2	1.10
2003-2004	60.1	83.6	48.4	0	62.6	58.7	1.07
2004-2005	56.1	76.4	46.2	26.4	58	54.9	1.06
2005-2006	67.4	90.1	56.5	19.2	68.3	66.8	1.02

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Access to upper secondary school, and the opportunity for higher level employment prospects and further education seem mainly to be within the reach of city dwellers. Villagers from rural and remote areas are far less likely to access these advantages, which will exacerbate the growing urban-rural divide in Cambodian society. Remote areas have experienced sharp increases in Transition Rates to upper secondary in the last couple of years, probably due to newly opened schools in the town centers in remote provinces where there had been none before. The slight dip in Transition Rates for national, urban, and rural sectors in 2004-05 may be related to program implementation pauses during the long delay in forming a government after the elections in 2003 and until the new government mandate was finalized in mid 2004.

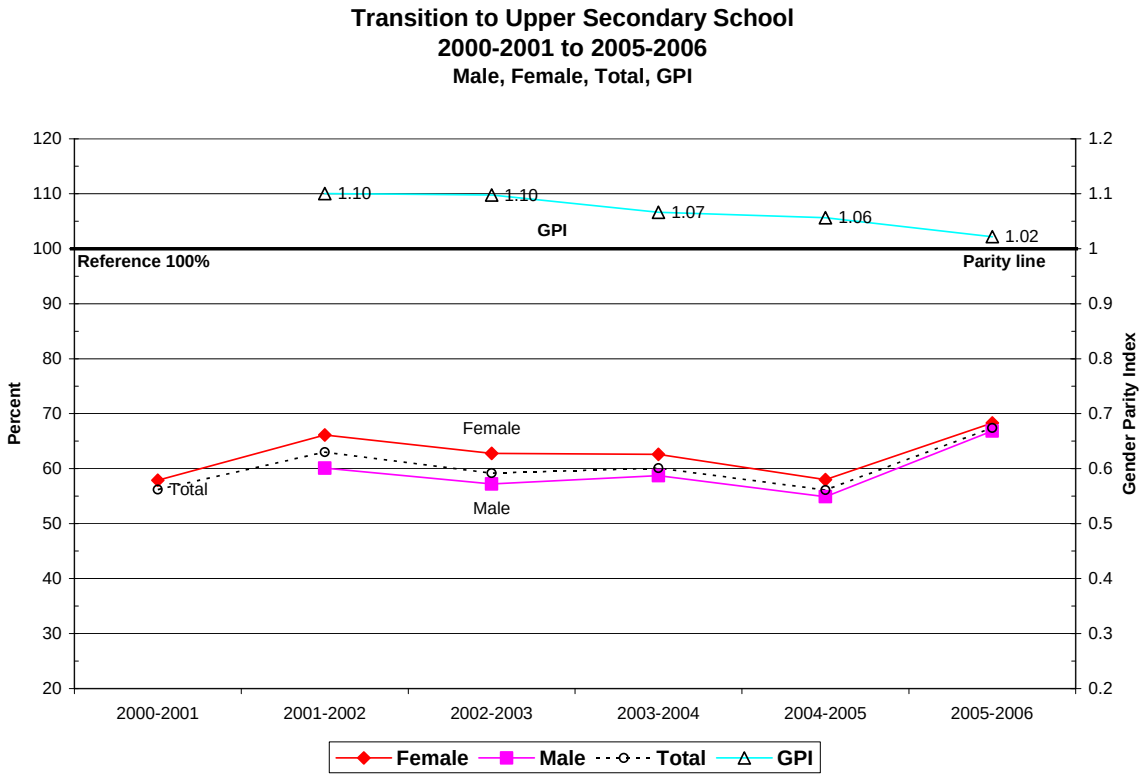
Figure 3.7: Trend Changes in Upper Secondary Transition by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

The gender aspect of Transition Rate to upper secondary school shows a truly remarkable feature. The trend over the last five years has been that females transition from 9th to 10th Grade at a higher rate than males (see Figure 3.8). This gives rise to a GPI, which consistently exceeds 1.00 for the last five years. (Data from 2000-01 is missing for males, but would probably confirm the trend). However, there is also a discernable trend for the male and female Transition Rates to upper secondary to converge, resulting in a decline in GPI over the period, even if still above 1.00. High GPI levels for upper secondary school transition rates probably reflect the results of a screening effect in which only the most tenacious girls, backed by their (wealthy) families, make it to the end of lower secondary school. Since transition rates for girls are calculated on the basis of female enrolment only, it makes sense that a strong screening effect among girls would yield higher transition rates than is true among boys, where such an effect is much less robust. Thus, a screening effect among girls better explains the high GPI levels for transition to upper secondary school rather than any major social transformation in Cambodian society. This explanation is bolstered by the observation that total enrolment for girls in Grade 10 was only 36,062 compared to 53,321 for boys in 2005 or a GPI for enrolment (as opposed to transition) of only 0.68.

Figure 3.8: Trend Changes in Upper Secondary Transition by Sex, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Provincial Level Data on Transition to Upper Secondary School:

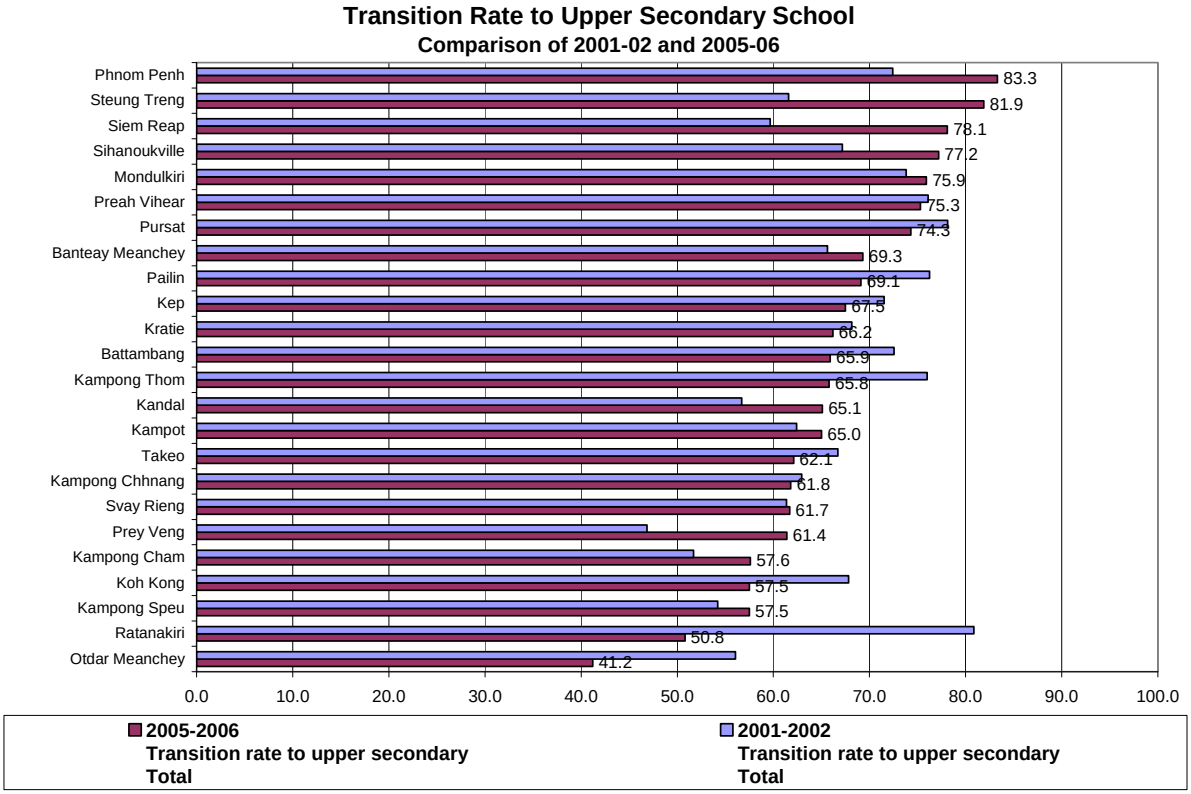
As with the other indicators treated, a longitudinal view of provincial level transition to upper secondary school has been constructed in Figure 3.9. We find that there are twelve provinces with rates that have risen over the period 2001-02 to 2005-06 and twelve provinces with rates that have fallen over the period. However, the pattern of change in either direction tends to be quite steep. That is, those provinces with rising rates reported that they have done so sharply

whereas those with declining rates similarly reported that they have declined sharply.

The current transition rate in Phnom Penh, highest in the country, is 83.3%. This is a steep rise from 72.4% in 2001-02. Stung Treng, next highest in the country, currently has a rate of 81.9%, steeply up from 61.6% in 2001-02. Siem Reap, currently third highest in the country, has a rate of 78.1%, steeply up from 59.7% in 2001-02. Sihanoukville next highest, currently has a rate of 77.2%, considerably up from 67.2% in 2001-02. Mondulkiri, next highest rate in the country, currently has a rate of 75.9%, moderately above its earlier rate of 73.8%. At the other end of the scale, Oddar Meanchey currently has the lowest Transition Rate to upper secondary level in the country with only 41.2% of Lower Secondary students transitioning to Grade 10. This is a sharp fall from the rate of 56.1% in 2001-02. Next lowest is Ratanakiri whose rate fell from 80.9% (the highest in the country at the time) to 50.8%. Koh Kong, which has a current rate of 57.5%, is down sharply from a rate of 67.8% in 2001-02. If one compares the average rate of increase/decline in the top three provinces with the bottom three, one finds that the average increase was 16.5% while the average decrease was 18.4%, steep changes either way.

Identification of such disparities should help educational planners allocate resources so that a more even distribution of improvement among provinces can be achieved. For example, Phnom Penh has a Transition Rate that is just about double that found in Oddar Meanchey. The remote and poor provinces of Odar Meanchey, Ratanakiri, Kampong Speu, Koh Kong as well as Kampong Cham all had Transition Rates to upper secondary below 60% in 2005-06 compared to rates over 80% in Phnom Penh and the remote Stung Treng. These disparities must be due to specific structural factors and local policies, which should be identified and addressed.

Figure 3.9: Trend Changes in Upper Secondary Transition Rate by Province, 2001-02 & 2005-06

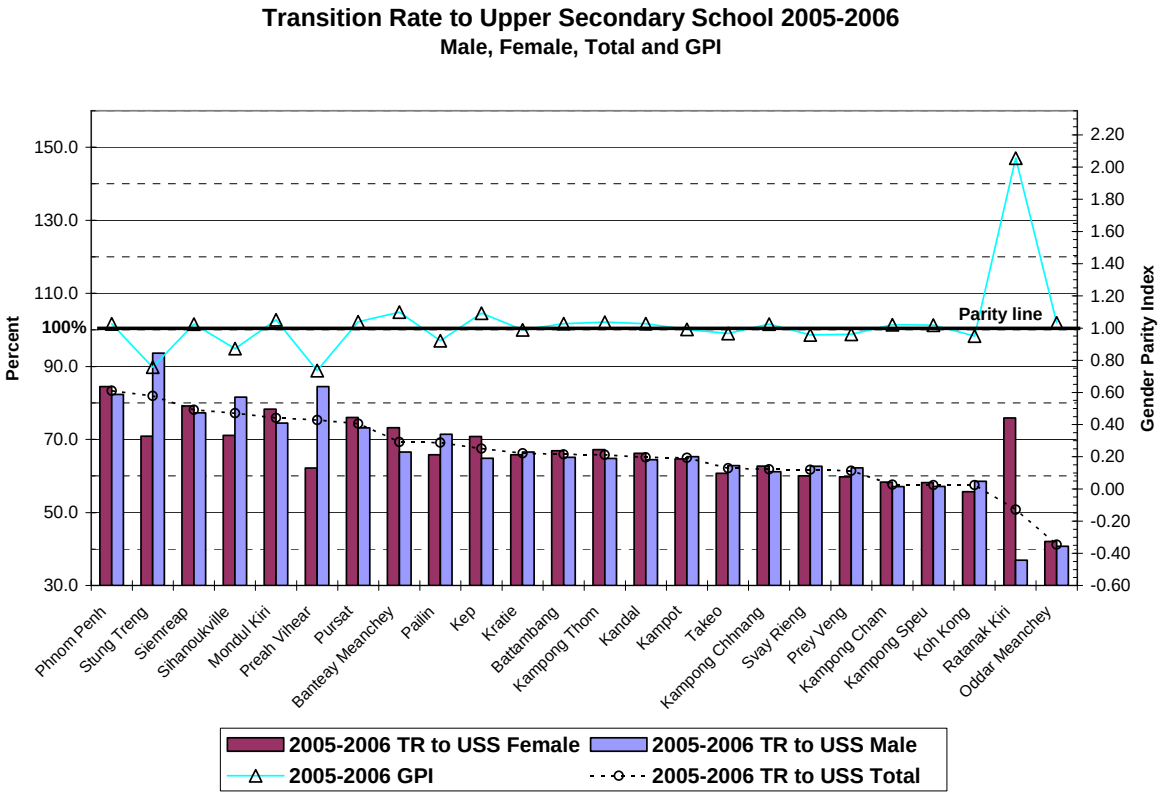


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2001-02 and 2005-06

The gender perspective on provincial Transition Rates to Upper Secondary is very revealing. Only seven of Cambodia's twenty-four provinces have a GPI less than 0.97 (see Figure 3.10). The other seventeen provinces have achieved gender parity, by EFA standards. But the distribution of low and high GPI is also uneven. For example, Stung Treng, Sihanoukville and Preah Vihear have among the six highest Transition Rates to upper secondary school in the country, but the very lowest GPI in the country in 2005-06. Stung Treng GPI is 0.76. Sihanoukville GPI is 0.87. Preah Vihear GPI is 0.74. High transition rates have been strongly favoring males in these provinces. Meanwhile, Ratanakiri, with the second lowest Transition Rate in the country in 2005-06 has managed to achieve an astonishing Gender Parity Index of 2.06, which means extreme disparity in favor of females. In Ratanakiri, 50.8% of students are transitioning to upper secondary, but of the students transitioning, there are proportionally twice as many girls as boys in comparison to base enrolment figures for each respective sex.

Once again, a word of caution is advised in interpreting the meaning of these transition rates since they do not necessarily mean that there are more girls than boys enrolled at upper secondary schools. Indeed, enrolment data indicates just the opposite. What these figures do suggest, however, is that a proportionally very large number of girls transition to Grade 10 when compared to the total number of girls enrolled in Grade 9. In absolute terms, however, boys still outnumber girls by a considerable margin in terms of total enrolment.

Figure 3.10: Upper Secondary School Transition Rate by Province and Sex, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

Chapter Four: Literacy

CHAPTER FOUR: Literacy

Measuring Progress towards EFA Goal 4: Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults

4.1 Introduction

Literacy is a key determinant for long-term human development and a significant factor to the social and economic improvement of individuals and a country. Generally, the term 'literacy' embraces also 'numeracy' or the ability to make simple arithmetic calculations.

To have a complete picture of progress in achieving EFA, the diverse policy actions and measures undertaken to develop literacy and other non-formal basic learning programs intended to meet the learning needs of the various categories of adult learners, i.e. the population 15 years of age and above, are considered. These include basic literacy courses and skills development programs with a literacy component. Attention is given to how well such programs address the specific learning needs of women, ethnic and cultural minorities, socially disadvantaged groups, and other learners with special learning needs.

The EFA Mid Decade Assessment aims to raise the following questions: To what extent have public authorities and their partners been successful in expanding basic literacy, post-literacy and continuing education opportunities for the adult population? Are these programs successful in creating 'literate environments' and are adequate resources and infrastructures available to achieve these objectives?

Dakar Framework for Action Extended Text on literacy:

All adults have a right to basic education, beginning with literacy, which allows them to engage actively in, and to transform, the world in which they live. There are still some 880 million people who cannot read or write in the world; two-thirds are women. The fragile levels of literacy acquired by many new literates compound the problem. Yet the education of adults remains isolated, often at the periphery of national education systems and budgets.

Adult and continuing education must be greatly expanded and diversified, and integrated into the mainstream of national education and poverty reduction strategies. The vital role literacy plays in lifelong learning, sustainable livelihoods, good health, active citizenship and the improved quality of life for individuals, communities and societies must be more widely recognized. Literacy and continuing education are essential for women's empowerment and gender equality. Closer linkages among formal, non-formal and informal approaches to learning must be fostered to respond to the diverse needs and circumstances of adults.

Sufficient resources, well-targeted literacy programmes, better trained teachers and the innovative use of technologies are essential in promoting these activities. The scaling up of practical, participatory learning methodologies developed by non-government organizations, which link literacy with empowerment and local development, is especially important. The success of adult education efforts in the next decade will be essentially demonstrated by substantial reduction in disparities between male/female and urban/rural literacy rates.

The language issue in literacy acquisition is also of paramount importance. Therefore, information about literacy acquisition in languages other than Khmer gives valuable insights regarding the literacy achievement levels of the minority populations in the country.

Government spending for literacy and non-formal education, family contributions, and community support are proxy measures of actual interest and commitment, and also an indication of the relevance of the literacy training offered to the demands and concerns of the target populations.

Definition of Literacy

Literacy is the ability to read and write with understanding a simple statement related to one's daily life. It involves a continuum of reading and writing, and often includes basic arithmetic skills (numeracy).

4.2 Main Programs Implemented in 2000-2006

The various programs that relate to Literacy during the reporting period are summarized in Table 4.1 below:

Table 4.1: Main Programs Implemented in Literacy, 2000-2006

Program Name	Partner/ Implementer	Detail of implementation
Adult Functional Literacy	SEILA, World Education, LWS, CARE, UNICEF (Sith Komar)	The Adult Functional Literacy Program aims to deliver literacy, numeracy, and essential life skills to the target group. Essential life skills include problem-solving, critical thinking, information gathering, decision-making, communication, negotiation, and learning how to learn. These skills will enable people to better address their own priorities (childcare, income-generation, wage earning, health, and nutrition, community decision-making, etc) and to independently pursue their own livelihood and learning needs. The current curriculum totals 200 hours of structured learning.
Community Learning Centers (CLCs)	UNESCO, NFUAJ,	Each center offered and will offer and support several or all of the following learning activities: 1. Adult functional literacy and family life improvement; 2. Income-generation skills and entrepreneurship; 3. Primary and lower secondary equivalency for children and youth; 4. Post-literacy and continuing education materials and information; 5. Family education for early childhood development
Equivalency Programs	ILO, IPEC, UNESCO	In order to meet the needs of out of school youth and children, flexible, part-time "equivalency" programs aimed at the primary and lower secondary levels (and later at upper secondary level) are urgently required. Eventually, the same will be required for upper secondary studies. The aim of this program is not to create a parallel system competing with the formal school. Rather, the purpose is to use the methods and flexibility of the non-formal education approach to provide a recognized basic education certification (at the Grade 6 and Grade 9 levels) to those children and adolescents of an age and / or life situation at which they cannot enter or re-enter the formal system on a full-time basis. Additionally, it is critical to fulfill the constitutional guarantee of nine years of basic education as well as meet the millennium goals. Equivalency must allow for both the possibility of further study and/or for entering the world of work. As much as 75% of the content may be equivalent to the formal system but 25% is typically

Program Name	Partner/ Implementer	Detail of implementation
		replaced by work / community experience.
Re-entry programs	World Education, Save the Children/ Norway (Operation Rescue)	The "re-entry" program is a short-term activity aimed at bringing recent primary school drop-outs back into the formal primary system. It is focused on children, aged 10 to 14 years, who have recently dropped out of primary school. The format of the program is two-month intensive tutorial courses, focused primarily on Khmer Language and mathematics skills, to allow students to complete their current level of study and re-enter the formal system at the next level. There are 180 to 200 hours of total curriculum and classes are small, usually with no more than 25 students.
Bilingual Literacy Programs	ICC, CARE, UNESCO	Cambodia is committed to achieving EFA. Thus, the Department of Non-Formal Education (DNFE) has formed policy coordination, planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluation to reduce illiteracy, poverty, and promote human resource development. Under the scope of Non-formal education, DNFE has included ethnic minorities as target beneficiaries.

4.3 Policies and Regulations Issued for the Sector in 2000-2006

The following policies and guidelines were developed and issued during the reporting period:

- National Policy for Non-Formal Education issued on 02 August 2002
- National Non-Formal Education Action Plan issued in 2003

4.4 Departments and Ministries Involved with Working Group 4 (Literacy)

The following departments and ministries have been involved in the development o f Life Skills programming:

- Departments of Non-Formal Education, Early Childhood Education, Primary Education, General Secondary Education, Teacher Training, Pedagogical Research,… MoEYS
- Ministry of Women Affairs
- Ministry of Rural Development,
- Ministry of Cult and Religion
- Ministry of Social Affairs, Veteran and Youth Rehabilitation
- Ministry of Interior (SEILA)
- Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery
- Ministry of Health
- NGOs and IOs

4.5 Major Monitoring and Evaluation Activities Conducted in 2000-2004

An intensive monitoring of literacy programs conducted in 2004 using stakeholders' surveys and interviews. The following are the key findings from the monitoring:

A. Literacy/equivalency program students

Most of the surveyed students claim that the literacy classes are very useful because they teach them how to read, write, calculate, and reason as well as how to deal with daily life. It is found that 45% of literacy/equivalency program students come to class regularly, whereas 55% miss

classes often because of various engagements at home or at work. The majority of the students report that the knowledge gained from the programs is useful for their daily life, including farming, and has contributed to the improvement of their living standards. The test results related to the four areas:

- Reading: Very good 30%, good 31%, fair 24%, and weak15%.
- Writing: Very good 20%, good 30%, Fair 25%, and weak 25%
- Calculation: Very good 10%, good 25%, fair 34%, and weak 31%.
- Analysis: Very good 1%, good 28%, fair 22%, and weak 49%.

B. Community/parents

The majority of the surveyed community members claim that they appreciate local literacy classes to reduce illiteracy. They report that since having a literacy class, the productivity of their community in animal raising, farming, weaving, sewing etc. has been improved.

C. Literacy/equivalency program teachers

90% of the surveyed teachers have good health, but the remaining 10% have suffered from diseases such as cold, dizziness, and headache. Regarding the living standard, 15% of the teachers rated it medium while 85% rated it poor because of their low salary level. Regarding their training, 80% of the teachers reported that they had completed the training course on adult teaching methods, psychology, lesson planning, and classroom management prepared by MoEYS for the period of 10 to 15 days. 70% of the teachers answered that the MoEYS literacy programs meet the local demands, as they provide not only reading/writing skills but also other livelihood skills such as vegetable planting, animal-raising, and hygiene for family development. All surveyed teachers reported that they prepare lesson plans for each unit.

D. Commune/Sangkat literacy class managers and local authority

It is reported that literacy/complementary teachers have collaborated well with commune/Sangkat councils, village heads, community members, NGOs, and district/provincial offices of education. Local authorities play key roles in arranging literacy classes, selecting literacy teachers, and advocating the importance of literacy to the community. Local authorities are also responsible for providing regular monitoring and support to literacy teachers in terms of teaching materials, classroom environment, lesson plans, teaching methods, and classroom management and student attendance.

4.6 Successes and Remaining Challenges in Implementation of EFA Goal

A. Major successes and achievements

- Enrollment increased significantly in the functional literacy programs, especially among females (see Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1)
- Number of CLC facilitators trainers, and literacy teachers increased
- Number of donor partners supporting literacy programs increased
- The coverage of literacy activities for disadvantaged populations expanded including those for rural, poor and female population
- Those who have completed literacy programs are actually utilizing the acquired skills and knowledge to improve their daily life
- The number of women and ethnic minority trainers and literacy teachers increased

Table 4.2: The Results of Adult Literacy Program 2000-2005

Year	Number of classes	Total Enrolment	Female Enrolment	Total Graduates	Female Graduates
1999-2000	1,578	30,449	23,044	16,730	11,835
2000-2001	2,637	59,855	32,102	38,391	29,582
2001-2002	3,483	71,236	51,093	42,368	29,703
2002-2003	5,039	105,034	71,484	69,533	50,339
2003-2004	5,206	105,430	71,688	76,619	53,085
2004-2005	5,410	119,686	70,394	76,984	52,021
2005-2006	4,317	87,008	47,032	67,865	42,053

Source: Non-Formal Education Department, MoEYS

Figure 4.1: Literacy Classes, Enrolment, and Graduates, 1999-2005

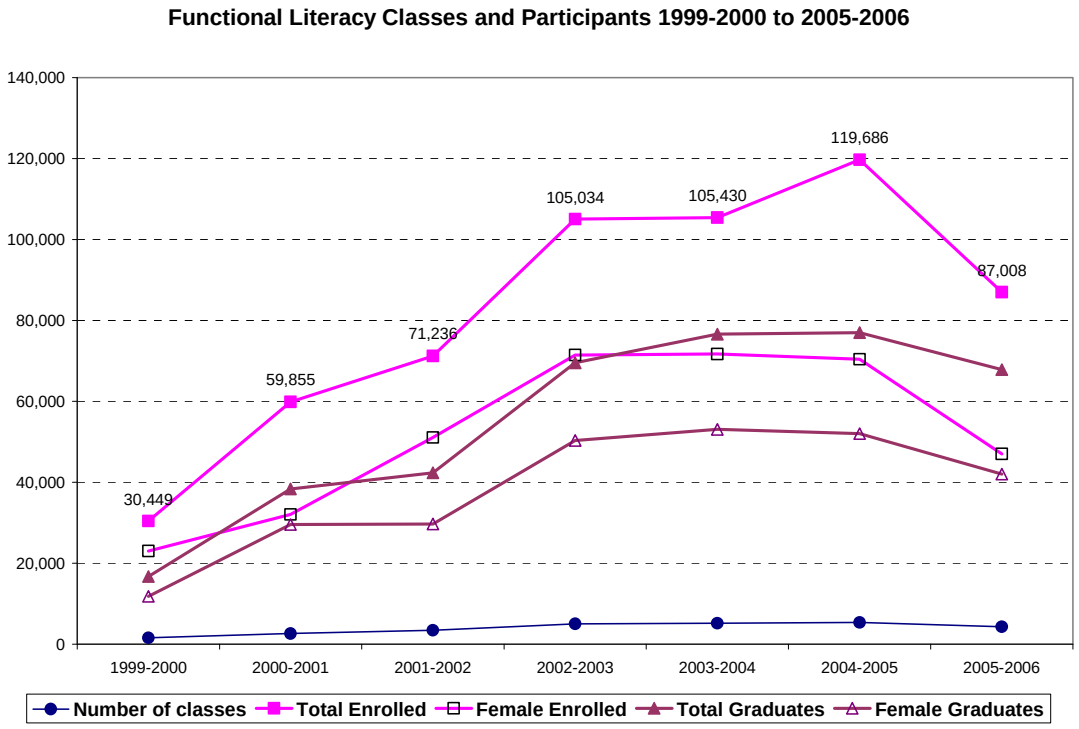
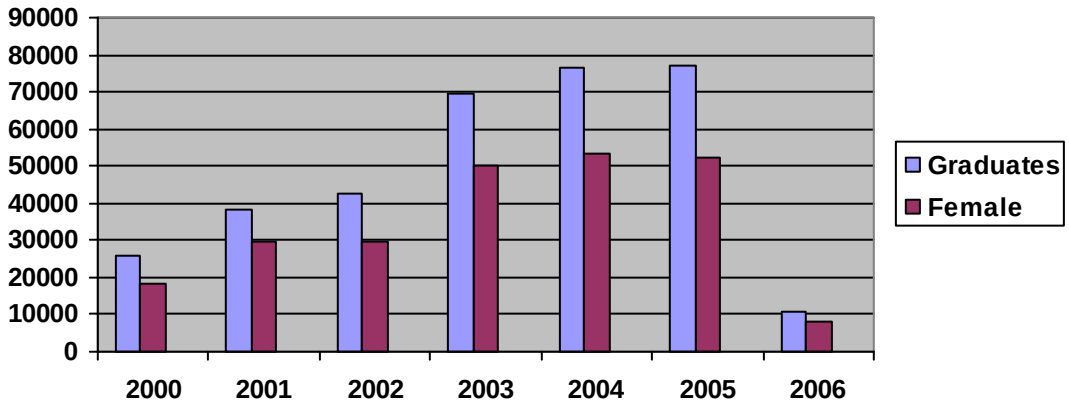


Figure 4.2: Graduates of Functional Literacy Programs by Sex, 2000-06



B. Challenges remaining to be overcome

- Irregular attendance of literacy class students due to many other engagements either at home or at work
- Low level of and delayed payment of salaries for literacy teachers
- Lack of classrooms and materials for literacy classes
- MoEYS literacy classes paused in 2005-2006 because the Approval letter for contracted teachers from the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport was delayed.

4.7 Non-formal Education Sector Analysis

4.7.1 Adult Literacy Rate (age 15+)

Low adult literacy suggests persistent gaps and challenges in access to quality primary education over recent history. In Cambodia, the social upheavals since the 1940's associated with the end of colonial rule, Independence, civil war, the Khmer Rouge elimination of education, and continuing unsettled civil conditions after the Paris Peace Accords until the late 1990's are reflected in depressed literacy rates for adults.

Many Cambodians, especially in the rural areas, and especially women, do not have the ability to use the written word or make simple arithmetic calculations in daily life. Illiterate and poor parents, especially mothers, may not be able to provide their children with the support they need to succeed in school, now that social conditions have settled and access to primary education has improved. The result is reflected in high rates of repetition and dropout of the poorest children, and a vicious cycle of continuing poverty, especially in rural areas.

Illiteracy and lack of schooling are also barriers to success as many rural poor migrate to the urban centers seeking employment.

The data on patterns of low literacy in Cambodia can assist in targeting interventions to break the illiteracy/poverty cycle by providing adult literacy opportunities in communities for both males and females.

National Level Data on Adult Literacy:

Assessments of change in adult literacy are made difficult by the spotty nature of data. Overall, however, national literacy rates appear to have inched up from 67.3% in 1998 to 73.6% reported in 2004 (see Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3). Urban areas, mainly provincial capitals and municipalities, show a marked increase in literacy in comparison to changes in rural areas. Although literacy rates in Phnom Penh are the highest in the nation in absolute terms, they have not changed much since 1998. Indeed, Phnom Penh and rural area literacy rates have moved little between 1999 and 2004. In this respect, Phnom Penh has gained 0.7% from an adult literacy rate of 88.1% in 1999 to 88.8% in 2004, which is nevertheless the highest rate of literacy in the nation. Rural rates have only increased by 1.7% from an adult literacy rate of 69.2% in 1999 to 70.9% in 2004, the lowest rate in the nation. Thus, the main gains in literacy have largely been made in the provincial towns and municipalities, indicated by 'Other Urban' in Table 4.3. These rates have increased 7.2% from a rate in 1999 of 72.9% to 80.1% in 2004. These gains in Other Urban areas are probably due to higher quality primary education and lower dropout in urban schools than in rural areas.

Improved primary school access and quality in rural areas may eventually be reflected in im-

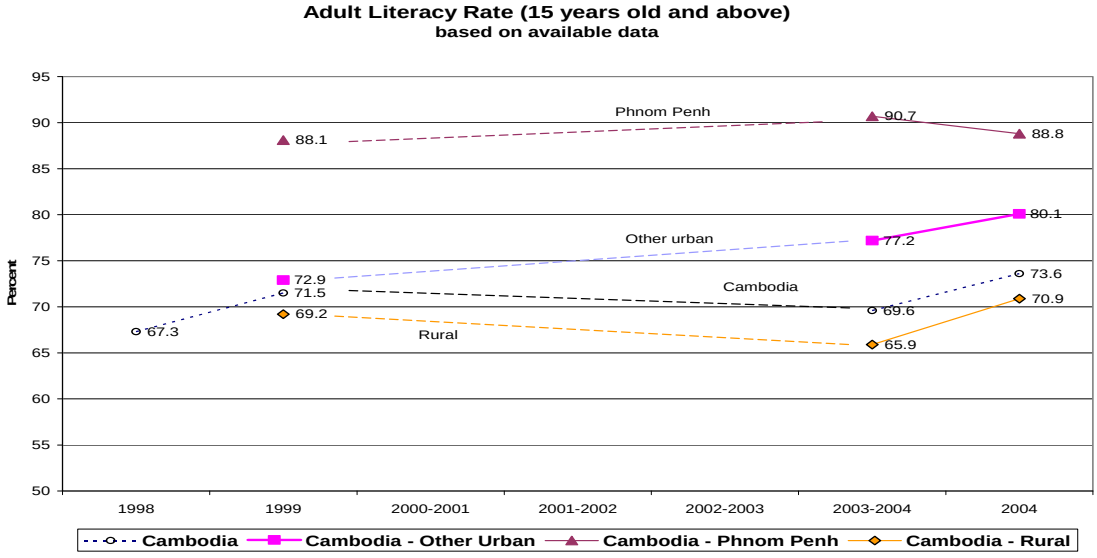
proved literacy rates for the population aged 15 and above. This expected improvement in rates may begin to be evident in about five to ten years from now. Specific and sustained interventions in rural localities are needed now to improve access to the skills of literacy and numeracy for adults fifteen years and above, who are generally beyond the reach of primary and lower secondary schooling. Alternative educational opportunities for these adults will help reduce the pernicious urban-rural divide.

Table 4.3: National Literacy Rates by Demographic Area, 1998-2004

Year	Cambodia	Cambodia - Phnom Penh	Cambodia - Other Urban	Cambodia - Rural	Female	Male	GPI
1998	67.3	--	--	--	57.0	79.5	0.72
1999	71.5	88.1	72.9	69.2	61.7	83.1	0.74
2000-2001	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2001-2002	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2002-2003	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2003-2004	69.6	90.7	77.2	65.9	60.1	80.2	0.75
2004	73.6	88.8	80.1	70.9	64.0	84.7	0.76

Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, 2004
MoP, Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys (CSES), National Institute of Statistics,
MoP, General Population Census of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics, 1998.

Figure 4.3: Trend Changes in National Adult Literacy Rates for Those 15 and Above by Demographic Area, 1998-2004

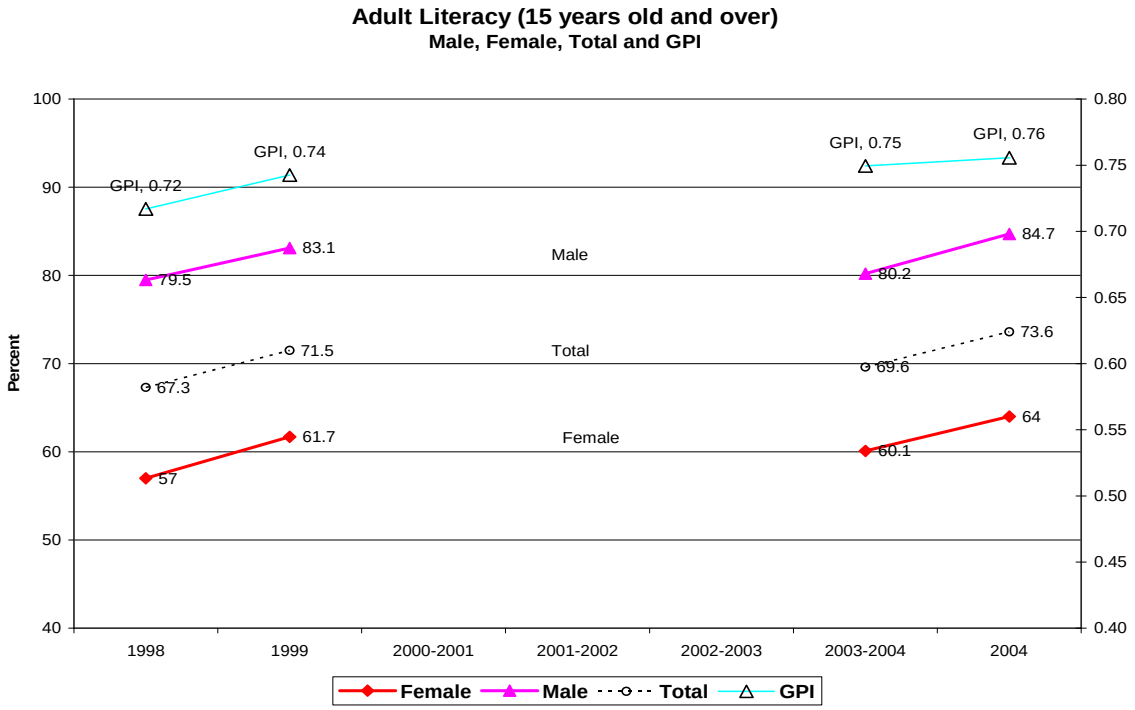


Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics
MoP, Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys (CSES), National Institute of Statistics
MoP, General Population Census of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics, 1998.
[Note: Lines have been added to connect the data from 1999 and 2003-04 to bridge the gap in data available for intervening years]

National level rates for adult literacy for males and females generally show a very strong predominance of male literacy over female literacy, but there is a discernable trend of improvement apparent in the increasing Gender Parity Index (see Figure 4.4). The GPI has risen steadily from 0.72 in 1998 to 0.76 in 2004. This probably reflects the fact that since the late 1990's, as

the primary school system has expanded in the country, more females have had access to primary education who have as a result attained literacy.

Figure 4.4: Trend Changes in National Adult Literacy Rates for Those 15 and Above by Sex, 1998-2004



Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics,
MoP, Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys (CSES), National Institute of Statistics
MoP, General Population Census of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics, 1998.

Province Level Data on Adult Literacy:

Data is not available to show a longitudinal view of adult literacy with changes seen since 1998. Nevertheless, the province-level dis-aggregation of literacy rate data shown in Figure 4.5 does enable us to see the significant disparities by region. For example, Phnom Penh and Svay Rieng both have extremely high male literacy rates that are over 90%. In addition, the total adult literacy rate for individuals age 15 and above in Phnom Penh is 88.8% while for Svay Rieng it is 79.5%. This compares with a national literacy rate of 73.6%.

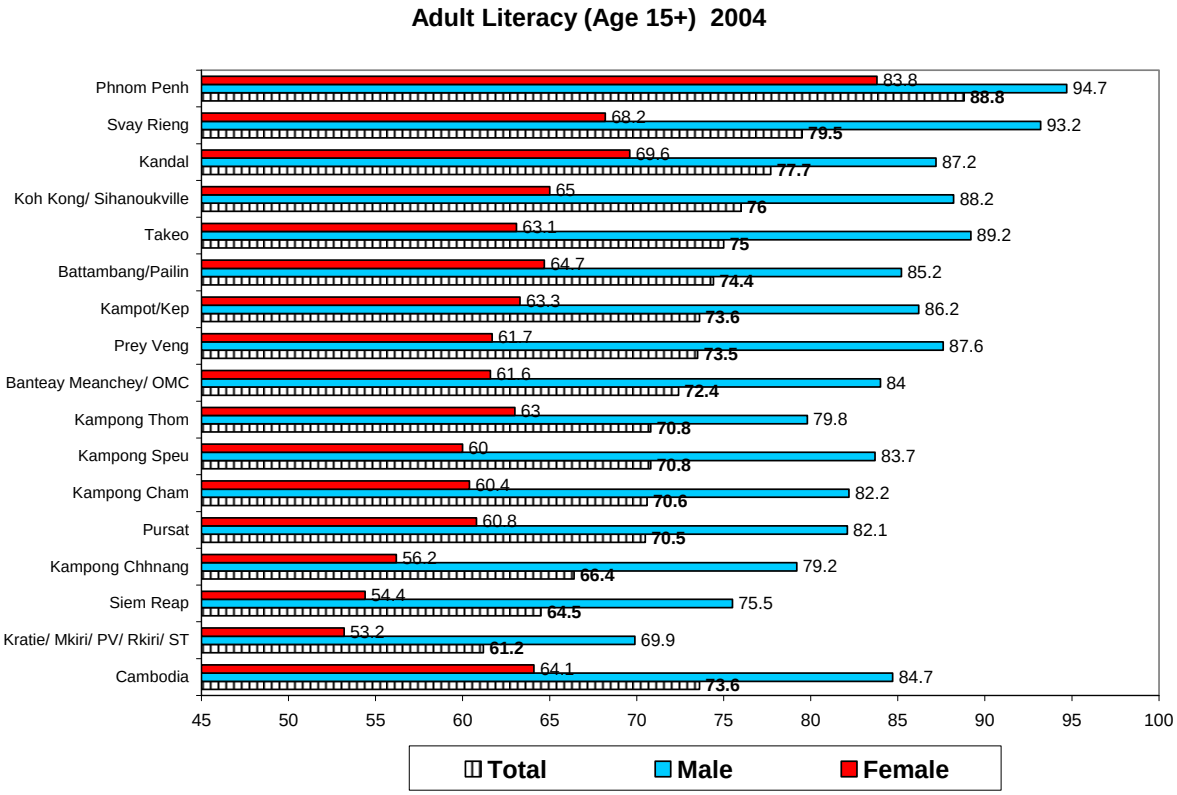
On the low end of the literacy scale, however, the combined literacy rate of the provinces of Kratie, Mondulkiri, Preah Vihear, Ratanakiri and Stung Treng, all prov-

Inter-ministerial Cooperation to Promote Adult Literacy

Efforts to promote adult literacy during the reporting period have been greatly facilitated by close cooperation between the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport and the Ministry of Interior (MoI). As part of the effort to strengthen local government, MoI provides commune investment grants to all communes, which are to be used not only for infrastructure investments but for social services as well. As part of this advocacy for social services, the MoI has agreed that commune councils may use their investment funds to actually issue contracts and pay adult literacy teachers that have been identified by MoEYS. A special decree from MoI now makes such provisions legal. In addition, the MoI has also allowed commune councils to use investment funds to pay salary support for newly designated Women-Child Focus persons who are intended to be local advocates in the council to promote social services such as adult literacy classes for women and other services.

inces with significant ethnic minority populations and with large remote, mountainous areas, show an adult literacy rate of only 61.2%, well below the national average mentioned earlier. As might be expected, female literacy rates in these provinces are even lower and stand in the low 50s. The total adult literacy rate in Siem Reap is only slightly higher at 64.5% and Kampong Chhnang is in turn only slightly better than Siem Reap with a rate of 66.4%. These are very low literacy rates for mainstream provinces in the rice-growing lowlands. The populations in these provinces are, therefore, in dire need of efforts to improve adult literacy rates and move them towards the national average of 73.6%, at least.

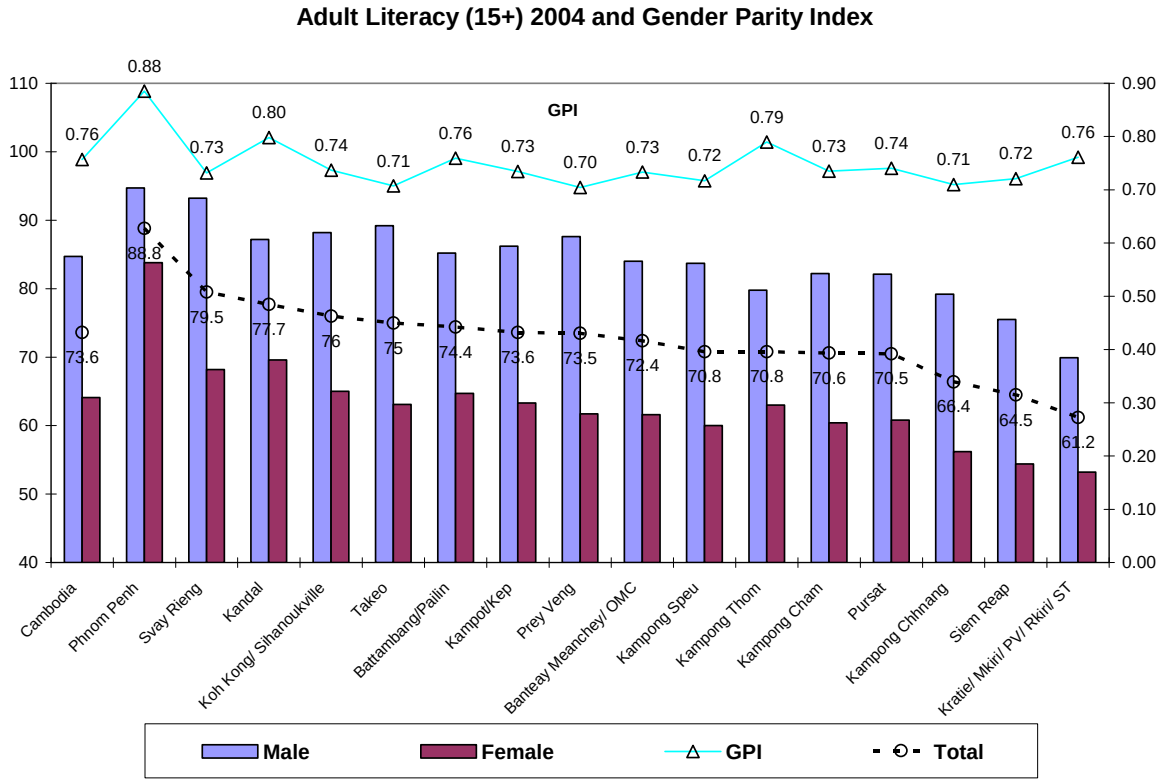
Figure 4.5: National Adult Literacy Rates for Those 15 and Above by Province and Sex, 2004



Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, Analysis of CIPS Results Report 7 Literacy and Education p. 10 (Table 2.6). National Institute of Statistics, 2004

Significantly higher literacy rates among males in comparison to females in the various provinces more or less mirrors the large difference already seen in the national literacy rate. Nearly all provinces demonstrate this very large gender gap in literacy, giving rise to a rather consistently narrow range of Gender Parity Indices that varies from 0.70 to 0.80 (see Figure 4.6). The exception is Phnom Penh, where the gap between males and females is much more narrow, giving rise to a GPI of about 0.88, along with highest absolute rates for male and female adult literacy in the country.

Figure 4.6: Gender Parity for Adult Literacy Rates for Those 15 and Above by Province, 2004



Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, Analysis of CIPS Results Report 7 Literacy and Education p. 10 (Table 2.6). National Institute of Statistics, 2004

4.7.2 Youth and Adult Literacy Comparisons

In Chapter 3.7.1 Youth Literacy (15-24 years of age) was discussed. In Chapter 4.7.1 above, Adult Literacy (15 years and over) was discussed. In this section, comparisons of the literacy rates of youth and adults are reviewed. The results show the great progress made in this area in Cambodia and demonstrate achievements in the literacy of youth, most likely due to steady improvements in access to primary education.

National Level Data on Youth/Adult Literacy:

Although youth literacy rates are significantly higher than those among all adults (83.4% versus 73.6% in 2004), the magnitude of increment for both groups was about the same (see Table 4.4). In this respect, total youth literacy rates increased from 76.3% in 1998 to 83.6% in 2004 or a change of 7.3% while total adult rates increased from 67.3% in 1998 to 73.6% in 2004 or a change of 6.3%. It should be noted, however, that the membership of the two categories "youth" and "adult" overlap. Adults include Youth (i.e., those between 15 and 24) as well as the remaining population 25 and older. Since there are relatively few adult literacy programs in Cambodia, the increase in Adult literacy is mainly due to the increasing improvements in Youth literacy.

Increases in the youth literacy rate have been accompanied by improvements in gender parity as well. More young people are gaining literacy through access to primary education, and fe-

males are gaining increased rates of literacy through greater attention to equity in access to education in Cambodia, thereby reducing the gender gap.

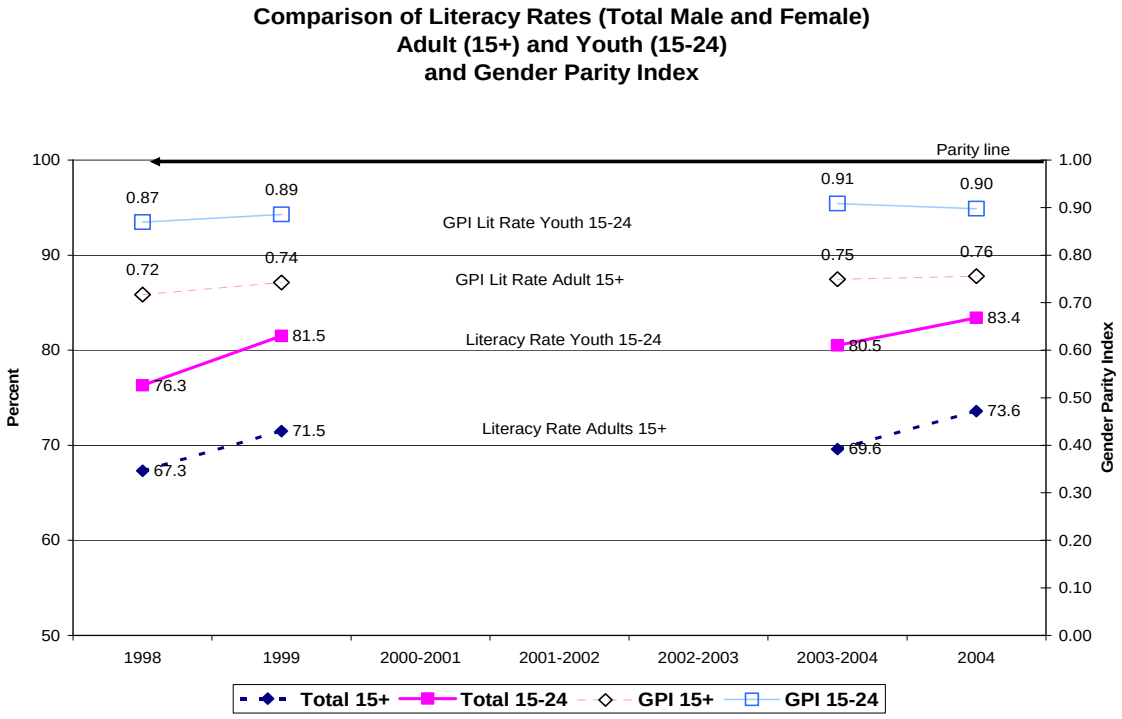
Table 4.4: National Comparison of Literacy Rates between Youth & Adults, 1998-2004

Year	Female 15+ Adult	Female 15-24 Youth	Male 15+ Adult	Male 15-24 Youth	Total 15+ Adult	Total 15-24 Youth	GPI 15+ Adult	GPI 15-24 Youth
1998	57.0	71.1	79.5	81.8	67.3	76.3	0.72	0.87
1999	61.7	76.7	83.1	86.6	71.5	81.5	0.74	0.89
2000-2001	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2001-2002	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2002-2003	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2003-2004	60.1	76.6	80.2	84.3	69.6	80.5	0.75	0.91
2004	64.0	78.9	84.7	87.9	73.6	83.4	0.76	0.90

Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, 2004

The chart below shows the dramatic rise in literacy rates of youth in comparison to the broader adult category in the period 1998-2004 and the improvement in gender parity maintained during the period of youth over adult gender parity rates.

Figure 4.7: Trend Changes in Adult and Youth Literacy Rates by Sex, 1998-2004



Source: MoP, Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, 1998-2004

4.7.3 Literacy Rates by Age Group and Gender

National Level Data on Age and Gender Group Literacy:

The data in the recent Inter-Censal Population Survey (2004) enables us to take another longi-tudinal view of the improvements in literacy in Cambodia at the national level. We can use the

data to compare the literacy rates of successive, non-overlapping, age groups. The result gives a clear picture of the steeply increasing literacy rates for females from very low levels for people of greater age (see Table 4.5). This is no doubt due to increased equity of access to primary education over the last five to ten years in Cambodia.

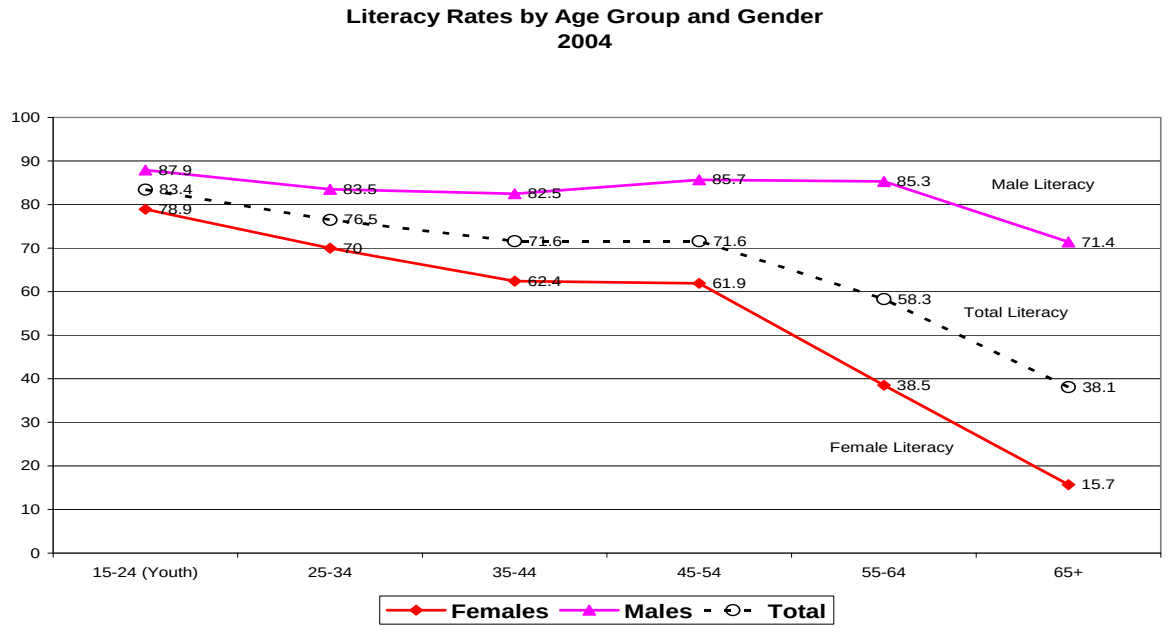
Table 4.5: Literacy Rates by Age Group and Gender (2004)

Age Group	Females	Males	Total	GPI
15-24 (Youth)	78.9	87.9	83.4	0.90
25-34	70.0	83.5	76.5	0.84
35-44	62.4	82.5	71.6	0.76
45-54	61.9	85.7	71.6	0.72
55-64	38.5	85.3	58.3	0.45
65+	15.7	71.4	38.1	0.22

MoP, Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, Analysis of CIPS Results Report 7 Literacy and Education p. 8 (Table 2.4). National Institute of Statistics, 2004

There is a much slower rate of increase in literacy for men when moving from older age groups to younger ones, which already start from very high levels in any case (see Figure 4.8). The consistently high levels of literacy for men across age groups is probably due to the pre-war tradition for Cambodian young males to spend some time in the Wat, studying with monks and gaining literacy, as well as the traditional high social approval that surrounds male access to public secular educational opportunities; these opportunities often do not exist for females.

Figure 4.8: Variations in Literacy Rate by Age Group and Gender, 2004



Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, Analysis of CIPS Results Report 7 Literacy and Education p. 8 (Table 2.4). National Institute of Statistics, 2004

Figure 4.9 above describes changes in literacy among different age cohorts since the period before World War II. The members of the age group who in 2004 were 15-24 years old, were born between 1980 and 1989. This group of youth has had increased access to primary school and literacy due to the expansion of schools during the later years of the Peoples Republic of Kampuchea and State of Cambodia and especially after the Paris Peace accords of the early

1990's. Gender parity among members of this group is quite high with a GPI of 0.90 (see Figure 4.10).

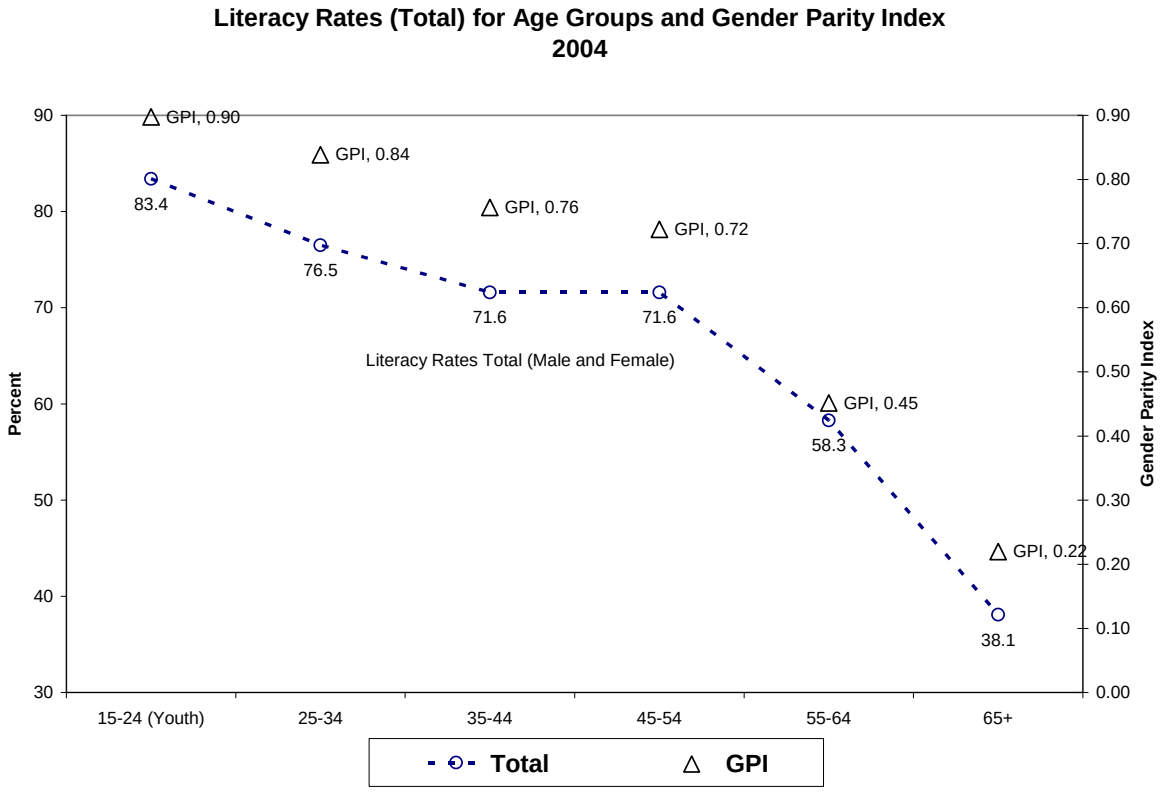
The group who were 25-34 years old in 2004 were born between 1970 and 1979. These individuals would have had access to primary schools in the years just after the defeat of the Democratic Kampuchea regime and the early years of the Peoples Republic of Kampuchea. GPI for this group is 0.84.

The group who were 35-44 years old in 2004 were born between 1960 and 1969. This group would have been of the age to enter primary school in the unsettled time between General Lon Nol's overthrow of the monarchy, the expansion of the Indochina War to Cambodia, and when the Khmer Rouge regime abolished education. The result for this group is a clearly discernable plateau in literacy gains. GPI is 0.76, little changed from the next older group.

The members of the group who were 45-54 in 2004 were born between 1950 and 1959. This group would have been of primary school age just at the time of the Geneva accords, ending the French Wars in Indochina, and the establishment of Cambodian independence. GPI for this group is 0.72.

The group who were 55-64 in 2004 was born between 1940 and 1949. This group would have been of primary school age at end of the Second World War and during the re-occupation of Cambodia after the war by the French. GPI for this group is 0.45.

Figure 4.9: Gender Parity for Literacy Rate among Various Age Groups, 2004



Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, Analysis of CIPS Results Report 7 Literacy and Education p. 8 (Table 2.4). National Institute of Statistics, 2004

The members of the group who were 65 and over in 2004 were born in 1939 or earlier. They would have been of school-going age during and before the Japanese invasions of Southeast Asia during World War II, and the years of the Vichy regime in Indochina. Education was available mainly to male members of the Cambodian elite during the French Colonial period, which is reflected in a generally low literacy rate in the country as a whole and a particularly low literacy rate for females, giving a very low GPI of 0.22.

Provincial Level Data on Age and Gender Group Literacy:

For province level comparisons of literacy by age group, we can use the data provided in the Inter-Censal Population Survey (2004). The data from this survey distinguishes between two groups: the young (age 7-14) and adults (age 15 and over) in 2004. The virtue of these categories is that they are not overlapping, thereby allowing us to see very clearly the most recent improvements in literacy rate in the population of school-age children in 2004, compared to the literacy rates for adults. The dis-aggregation of data used by the census is not the same as that used by EMIS, but allows us to see the significant differences among provinces (see Table 4.6 and Figure 4.10 below).

Table 4.6: Literacy Rates by Age Group and Province (2004)

Province	Age 7-14	Age 15+
Cambodia	**76.4**	**73.6**
Kratie/ Mkiri/ PV/ Rkiri/ ST	56.9	61.2
Kampong Chhnang	68.5	66.4
Pursat	68.8	70.5
Kampong Speu	69.5	70.8
Siem Reap	70.6	64.5
Kampong Thom	71.3	70.8
Banteay Meanchey/ OMC	72.9	72.4
Battambang/Pailin	74.8	74.4
Koh Kong/ Sihanoukville	75.9	76
Prey Veng	76.2	73.5
Kampong Cham	79.2	70.6
Kampot/Kep	80.6	73.6
Takeo	82.2	75
Svay Rieng	84.4	79.5
Kandal	86	77.7
Phnom Penh	90.6	88.8

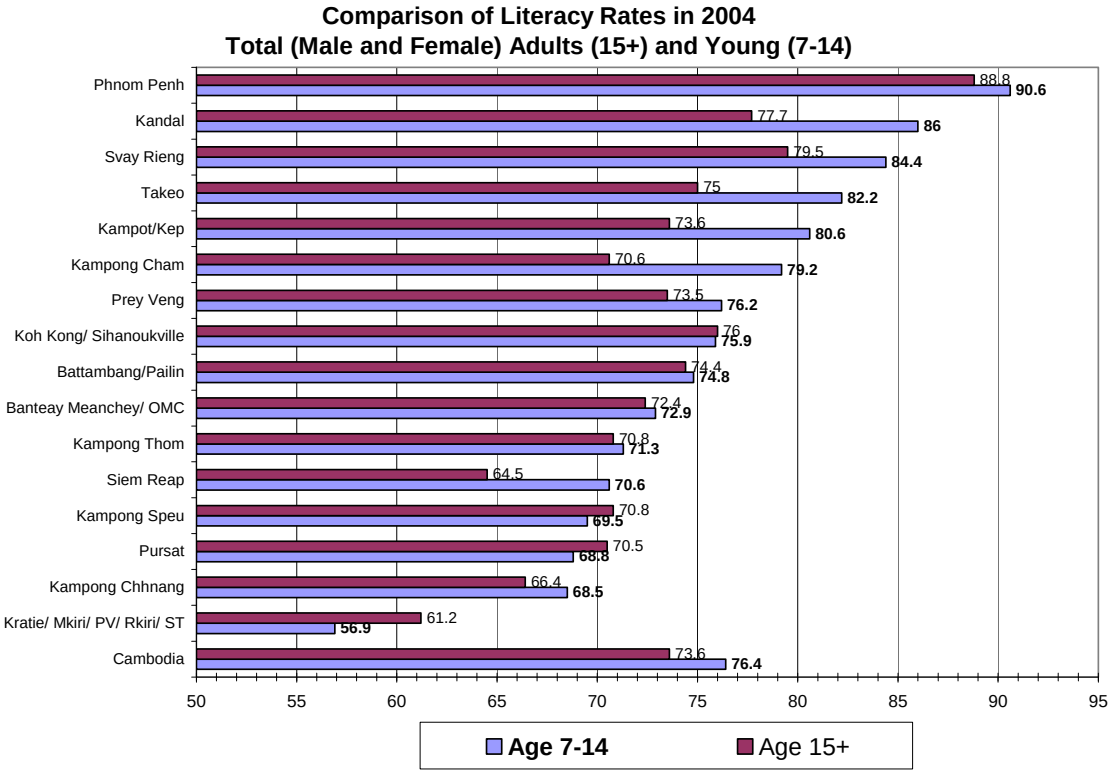
Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, Analysis of CIPS Results Report 7 Literacy and Education p. 10 (Table 2.6). National Institute of Statistics, 2004

The combined figure for the literacy rates of the young, school aged children in the provinces of Kratie, Mondulkiri, Preah Vihear, Ratanakiri and Stung Treng are distinctly lower than the literacy rates for adults in this combined provincial area (56.9% versus 61.2%). The area is predominantly remote, forested, hill country, with numerous ethnic minority peoples. The challenge remains to bring the advantages of primary education and literacy to the children of this area. In terms of EFA goals, these children are the "un-reached" that must be given proper attention in the next half decade.

Three other provinces show marginally lower literacy rates for the 7-14 year old age group than for the adult age group. They are Pursat (Young: 68.8%, Adult: 70.5%), Kampong Speu (Young:

69.5%, Adult: 70.8%), and the combined Koh Kong and Sihanoukville area (Young: 75.9%, Adult: 76%). These disparities are smaller than those noticed for the remote provinces, but they also need attention. All other provinces show literacy rates for the 7-14 year old age group that exceed the literacy rates for adults in 2004, verifying the general effectiveness of the reach of primary education in the country.

Figure 4.10: Comparison of Literacy Rates by Age Group, Sex, and Province, 2004



Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, Analysis of CIPS Results Report 7 Literacy and Education p. 10 (Table 2.6). National Institute of Statistics, 2004

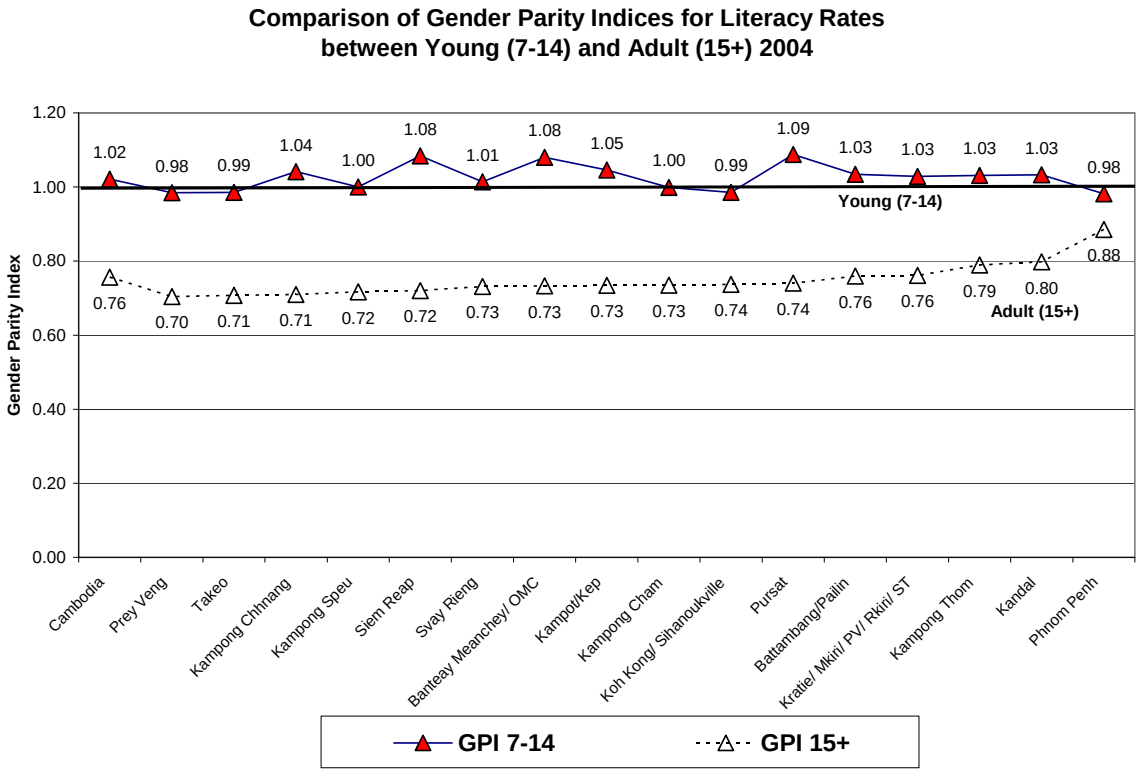
Comparison of the literacy rates for males and females in the provinces and areas listed by the census data reveals an astonishing finding. All of the provinces and areas show the achievement of gender parity for the 7-14 age group, compared to weak parity levels among adults in the same provinces (see Figure 4.11). Although total literacy rates for the 7-14 year age group may vary considerably from province to province (e.g., from 90.6% in Phnom Penh versus 56.9% in Kratie-Mondulkiri), there are no disparities between males and females for any given total literacy rate.

The significance of this finding is that equity of access to literacy (presumably by access to primary school) by males and females is now well established in the country. Nevertheless, there are still areas where school-aged children, in general, face barriers in obtaining literacy, which presumably interfere with access to the first five years of basic education.

Another significant observation is that while great attention has been paid to gender equity and provision of literacy for children over the last five to ten years, literacy campaigns for adults have not kept pace. The disparity between the young and adults demonstrates the need to intensify outreach to the latter. The low gender parity levels among adults also show that adult literacy

programs should be targeted especially at females. This includes the mothers of the children currently in school. Enhancing the literacy of these women will help consolidate literacy gains that their children achieve in school.

Figure 4.11: Gender Parity Indices for Literacy by Province and Age Group, 2004



Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, Analysis of CIPS Results Report 7 Literacy and Education p. 10 (Table 2.6). National Institute of Statistics, 2004

4.7.4 Gender Parity Index for Adult Literacy

Gender Parity for Adult Literacy was discussed in Section 4.7.1. It can usefully be compared to the Gender Parity for Youth Literacy which was discussed in Chapter 4.2

National Level Data on GPI for Adult Literacy:

Increases in the Youth literacy rate over the Adult literacy rate has been accompanied by improvements in gender parity. More young people are gaining literacy through access to primary education, and females are gaining increased rates of literacy, thereby reducing the gender gap in educational access. In Table 4.7, it can be seen that GPI for literacy among all adults increased from 0.72 in 1998 to 0.76 in 2004. Among youth, GPI increased from an already high rate of 0.87 in 1998 to 0.90 in 2004, a more marginal increase but an increase nevertheless. Things appear to be continuing to move in the right direction.

Figure 4.12 below graphically shows the steep rise in literacy rates and corresponding gender parity levels of both youth and adults in the period 1998-2004 though improvements for adults started from a much lower base figure than was true of youth, as noted above.

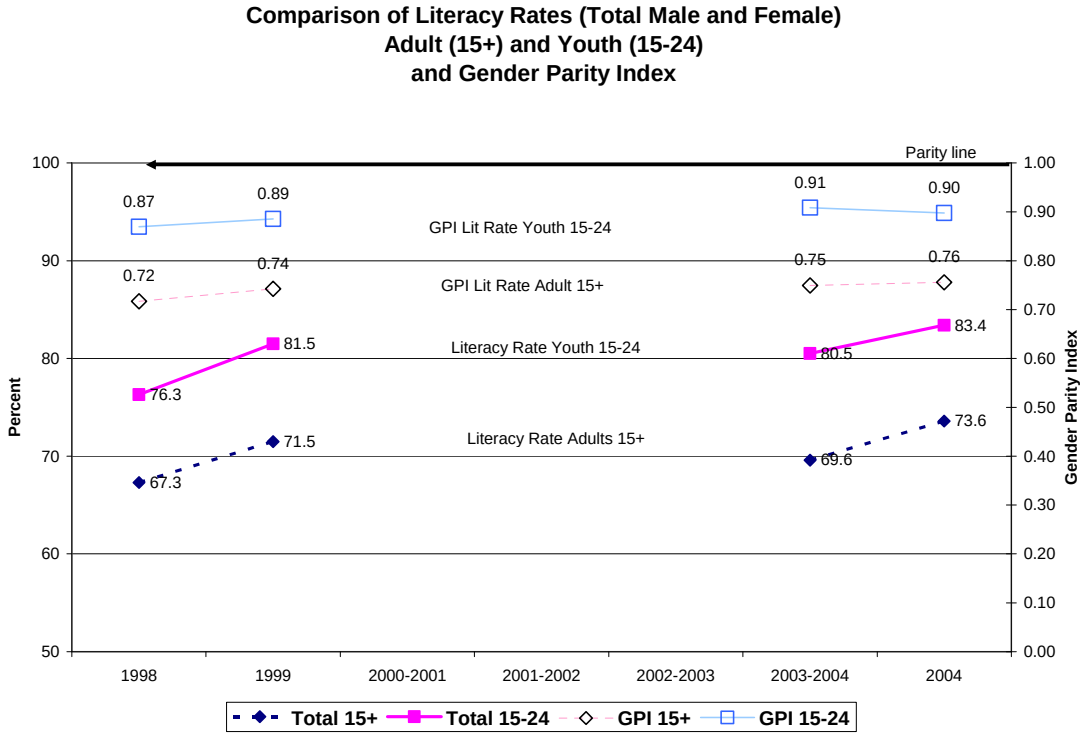
Table 4.7: Comparison of GPI for Literacy between All Adults and Youth 15-24, 1998-2004

Comparison of Literacy Rates	GPI 15+ Adult	GPI 15-24 Youth
1998	0.72	0.87
1999	0.74	0.89
2000-2001	--	--
2001-2002	--	--
2002-2003	--	--
2003-2004	0.75	0.91
2004	0.76	0.90

Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, 1998-2004

Overall, the Gender Parity Index for literacy last reported in 2004 for all groups shows that proportionally fewer females in Cambodia had attained basic literacy skills compared to men by 2004, although the trend for GPI for both Adults and Youth is upward. These findings suggest that the next census will show steeply increased GPI at all levels but especially for youth.

Figure 4.12: Comparison of Literacy Rates and Corresponding GPI Values among All Adults and Youth, 1998-2004



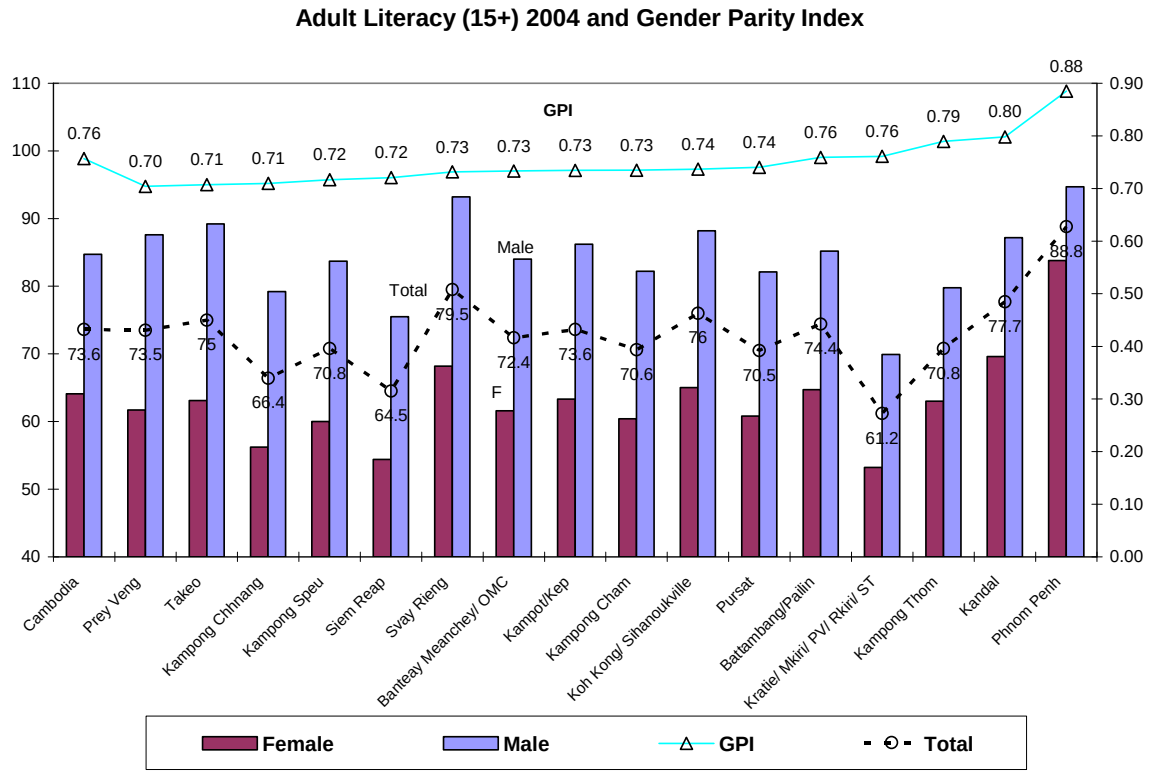
Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, 2004

Province Level Data on GPI for Adult Literacy:

The Gender Parity Index for adult literacy in each province or area, given in census data, has been arranged from the lowest to highest GPI in 2004 in Figure 4.13 below. There is very little difference from province to province, as the GPI ranges for the most part between 0.70 in Prey Veng to 0.80 in Kandal. GPI in Phnom Penh, at 0.88, contrasts starkly with other provinces.

While this demonstrates that even the capital city has not yet achieved gender parity for adult literacy, the city has nevertheless made better progress than the rest of the country in increasing proportionately the literacy of adult females. The challenge remains to reach the females in the remaining provinces of the nation with adult literacy training to raise these GPI values above the present range.

Figure 4.13: Adult Literacy Rates and Corresponding GPI Values by Province and Sex, 2004



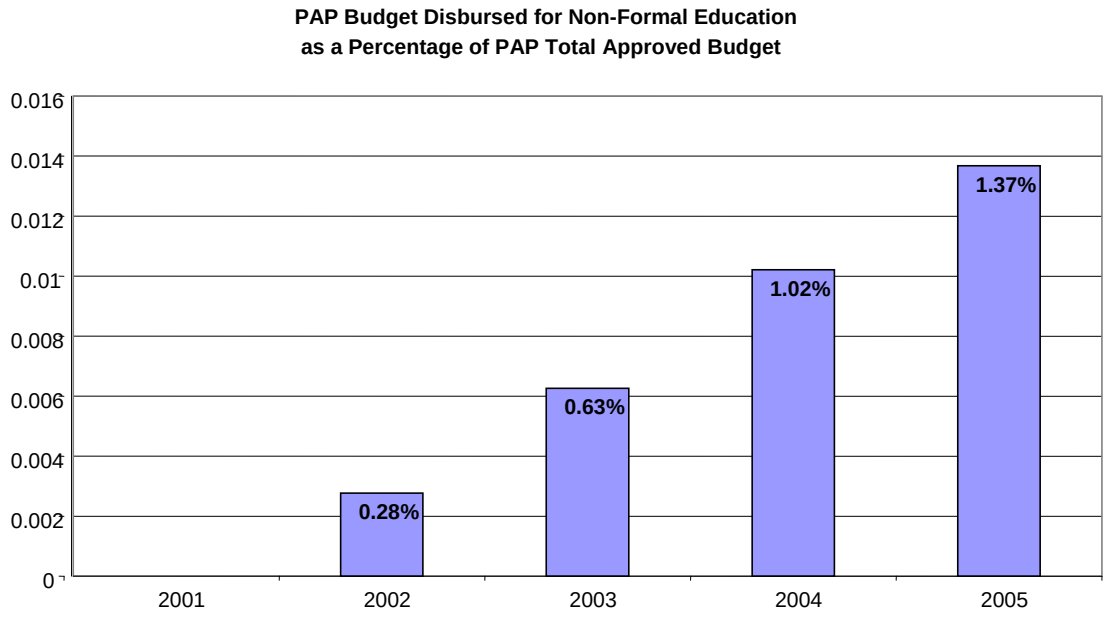
Source: MoP, Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2004, Analysis of CIPS Results Report 7 Literacy and Education p. 10 (Table 2.6). National Institute of Statistics, 2004

4.7.5 Public Expenditure on Literacy and Non-Formal Education as a Percentage of Total Public Expenditure on Education.

Since there is no data available from MoEYS that would make it easy to ascertain the proportion of the public expenditure on education that was devoted to various departments or activities of the Ministry, an indirect approach must be taken using the Priority Action Program (PAP) budgets that have been reported. PAP data can be utilized as proxies for several of the EFA MDA indicators, but must be handled with care.

MoEYS has provided an overview of the National Budget and the Education Budget (see Chapter 6). This data also includes the total PAP Approved Budget for each year during the period 2001-2005. The PAP Expended Budget for Non-Formal Education has been obtained from the Department for each year. Figure 4.14 below shows a rising proportional share for Non-Formal Education (expended) as a percentage of the total PAP (approved) budget.

Figure 4.14: PAP Budget Disbursed for Non-Formal Education as a Percentage of PAP Total Approved Budget



Source: Department of Finance, MoEYS (October 2006) *Current Budget Expenditure for Education Sector* and Department of Non-Formal Education, 2001-05

Another perspective on the proportion of PAP budget allocated for Non-formal Education can be derived from a report issued by the MoEYS Finance Department. This report compares the PAP budget “transferred" and actually “implemented" for each Budget Management Center (BMC) at the central level. These allocations can be used as proxies for the relative priority given to several of the EFA MDA goals within the Cambodian Education Budget. There is a BMC in the Department for Non-Formal Education, where Adult Literacy programs are based, so this PAP budget data can serve to indicate the relative priority given to Adult Literacy in the Education Budget.

The data for the BMC in the Non-Formal Education Department shows a trend of rising proportional expenditure of PAP funds as a percentage of allocated PAP funds each year. This may indicate improved ability in the NFE Department to both advocate for adult literacy and obtain improved levels of funding for its activities over time. The expenditure level of the department’s BMC as a percentage of the total annual PAP expenditure peaked in 2004 at over 15%. But the level has since declined sharply in 2005 to just under 5%.

The fluctuations in the proportion of allocated PAP funding disbursed to the BMC as well as in actual level of funding, as a percentage of total PAP funding each year makes planning difficult. There is a clear need for smoothing out the budgeting process, so that the members of the BMC can take a longer horizon for planning than the next PAP tranche.

Chapter Five:

Gender Parity and Equality

CHAPTER FIVE: Gender Parity and Equality

Measuring progress towards EFA Goal 5: Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girl's full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality

5.1 Introduction

The significance and implications for assessment of the "Gender Goal" only becomes apparent when there is a clear understanding of what is meant by "gender" and "gender equality". In this respect, Gender refers to "the roles and responsibilities of men and women that are created in our families, our societies and our cultures." According to UNESCO, the concept of gender also includes the "expectations held about the characteristics, aptitudes, and likely behaviors of both women and men". It is clearly distinguished from sex, which describes the biological differences between men and women. On the other hand, "Gender equality" means that "women and men have equal conditions for realizing their full human rights and for contributing to, and benefiting from, economic, social, cultural and political development". It is therefore the equal valuing by society of the similarities and the differences and the roles they play, that the UNESCO approach emphasizes.

Gender is an issue which runs across all the EFA goals, so the *Education for All Mid-Decade Assessment* mainstreams Gender Indicators throughout the six goals, ensuring that a gender lens is brought to bear on all aspects of Education for All. Providing and ensuring gender disaggregated statistical data and measuring gender parity under each goal is a characteristic of the assessment. However, gender parity is not enough, and the ultimate goal is to measure the progress towards achieving true gender equality in terms of access (gender equality to education), quality of the process (gender equality in education), and achievement and outcomes (gender equality through education) at both primary and secondary levels. The analysis and interpretation of the indicators thus are a critical part of assessing and measuring progress towards this Goal. As a result, a wide range of indicators has been included, both quantitative and qualitative (i.e., descriptive).

> **Dakar Framework for Action Extended Text on Gender:**
> *Gender-based discrimination remains one of the most intractable constraints to realizing the right to education. Without overcoming this obstacle, Education for All cannot be achieved. Girls are a majority among out-of-school children and youth, although in an increasing number of countries boys are at a disadvantage. Even though the education of girls and women has a powerful trans-generational effect and is a key determinant of social development and women's empowerment, limited progress has been made in increasing girls' participation in basic education.*
>
> *International agreement has already been reached to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005. This requires that gender issues be mainstreamed throughout the education system, supported by adequate resources and strong political commitment. Merely ensuring access to education for girls is not enough; unsafe school environments and biases in teacher behaviour and training, teaching and learning processes, and curricula and textbooks often lead to lower completion and achievement rates for girls. By creating safe and gender-sensitive learning environments, it should be possible to remove a major hurdle to girls' participation in education. Increasing levels of women's literacy is another crucial factor in promoting girls' education. Comprehensive efforts therefore need to be made at all levels and in all areas to eliminate gender discrimination and to promote mutual respect between girls and boys, women and men. To make this possible, change in attitudes, values and behaviour are required.*

To measure progress towards achieving Goal 5, it is necessary to look at both gender parity, as indicated by the Gender Parity Index (GPI) in educational indicators, and at gender equality. Gender equality includes ensuring equality in access to education, learning processes, learning outcomes, and job opportunities.

5.2 Main Programs Implemented in 2000-2006

The various programs that relate to Gender Parity and Equality during the reporting period are summarized in Table 5.1 below:

Table 5.1: Main Programs Implemented to Achieve Gender Parity and Equality, 2000-2006

Program Name	Partner/ Implementer	Details of Implementation
Secondary Scholarship Programs (Start Date: 2001- and is on-going)	ADB, World Bank, BETT, MoEYS, and NGOs (KAPE, CARE, Room to Read)	• Scholarship provision to poor students at lower secondary school level, especially girls. • Scholarship support takes the form of cash payments in government programs and in-kind for NGO programs.
Child-friendly School Program (Start Date: 2001- and is on-going)	UNICEF/Sida, KAPE, SCN	• Gender responsiveness is central to establishing child-friendly school environments. • Specific activities to address gender disparity include: building separate latrines for girls and boys; girls' counselors; community role models, gender advocacy, and interventions for girls and boys at risk
Girls' Education Initiative (GEI) (Start Date: 2001- and is on-going)	Kampuchean Action for Primary Education (KAPE)	• This program in Kampong Cham supports a combination of interventions such as girls' support networks, life skills training, post-secondary school options, and scholarship support for girls at lower and upper secondary school level.
Educational Prevention of Sexual Exploitation of Girls (EPSEG) (Start Date: 2002-2007)	World Education/ UNICEF	• This program in Prey Veng is similar to GEI but includes a non-formal education component that promotes adult literacy among young girls and skills training (My Better Futures).
OPTIONS: Combating Child Trafficking and Exploitation (Target Groups: Children at risk of dropping out of school)	US Dept of Labor/World Education, KAPE, & CARE in collaboration with MoEYS, MoWA, and MoSA	• This was a four-year program (2003-07) implemented in 3 provinces (Prey Veng, Kampong Cham, and Bantheay Meanchey) to provide preventative interventions such as life skills training to keep children and especially girls in school. • Over 14,000 children at risk received support through this program.

5.3. Policies and Regulations Issued for the Sector in 2000-2006

The following policies and guidelines were developed and issued during the reporting period:

- Gender Mainstreaming Strategy 2002-2006, From Commitment to Action issued in 2002
- Cambodian Gender Education Policy drafted in 2003
- Gender Mainstreaming Strategy in Education for 2006-2010 drafted in 2006
- Quality Standards and Indicators for Gender Mainstreaming in Education drafted in 2006

5.4. Departments and Ministries Involved with Working Group 5 (Gender Equity)

The following departments and ministries have been involved in the development of Life Skills programming:

A. Inter-Ministerial Gender Working Group

- Secretary General of National Education for All Committee is responsible for Gender Mainstreaming Working Group

B. Steering Committee for Gender and Girls' Education of MoEYS

- Steering Committee on Gender and Girls' Education of MoEYS with Secretary of State as President and under Secretary of State as Vice-President
- Steering Committee is composed of Director General, Deputy Inspector General (gender mainstreaming focal point and member of Inter-ministerial Technical Working Group on Gender), Deputy Director General and Directors of technical departments

C. EFA Gender Working Group (Goal 5)

- The EFA Gender Working Group involves Departments of Teacher Training, Non-Formal Education, Pedagogical Research, Planning, School Health and other technical departments of MoEYS and Ministries of Women's Affairs, Interior, Health, Information, and other Ministries

D. Gender Mainstreaming Committees

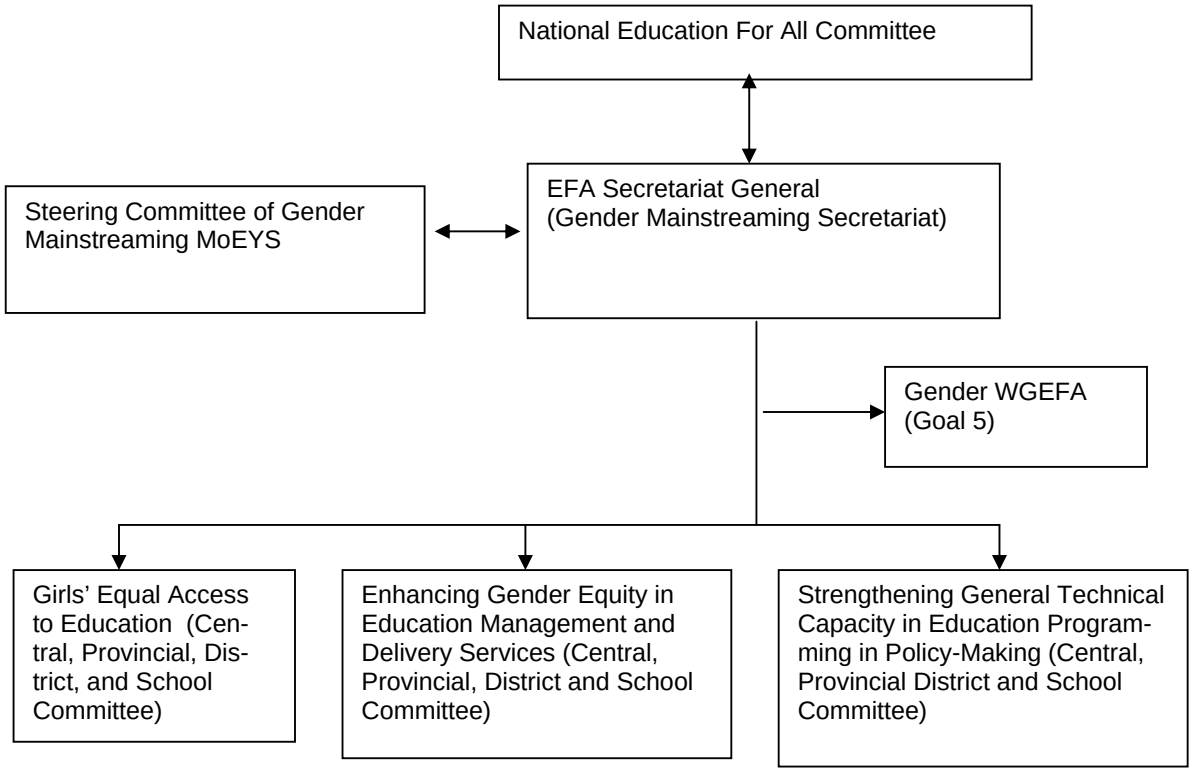
- Gender Mainstreaming Committees of Technical Departments
- Gender Mainstreaming Committees at Provincial Level
- Gender Mainstreaming Committees at District Level
- Gender Mainstreaming Committees at School Level

E. Three Components

- Girls' Equal Access to Education
- Enhancing Gender Equity in Education, Management and Delivery Services
- Strengthening Gender Technical Capacity in Education Programming and Policy-Making

F. Structure (See Figure 5.1 below)

Figure 5.1: Structure of the Gender Working Group



5.5. Major Monitoring and Evaluation Activities Conducted in 2000-2006

- Gender Appraisal of the Education Strategic Plan 2001-2005 conducted in 2001
- A case study, "Why are Girls Not in School? Perceptions, Realities and Contradictions in Changing Cambodia" conducted in 2001
- A review study, "Tracking Progress in Implementing the Gender Mainstreaming Strategy in Education in Cambodia 2002-2006" conducted in 2006
- Gender monitoring conducted in 2006-07 using the Quality Standards and Indicators for Gender Mainstreaming in Education

5.6. Successes and Remaining Challenges in Implementation of EFA Goal

A. Major successes and achievements

- Dormitories built for female secondary school students in remote and disadvantaged

areas

- All Provincial and Regional Teacher Training Centers/Colleges now equipped with dormitories for female teacher trainees
- Scholarship programs for secondary students increased enrolment rate especially for girls
- Priority given to new female teachers when selecting a duty station so that they will not be assigned to disadvantaged and remote areas
- Increased number of schools in rural/remote areas made it easier for girls to attend and continue school
- The great majority of literacy program participants are women
- Gender-related issues integrated into life skills programs including reproductive health, HIV/AIDS prevention, domestic violence in family, human trafficking etc.
- Child-friendly schools have promoted gender-sensitive teaching and learning environment
- Commune councils actively involved in promotion of school enrolment and completion, especially for girls
- Female representation increased at all education levels (see Table 5.2)

Table 5.2: Trends in Girls' Enrolment from 2000-01 to 2005-06

School Year	Primary			Lower Secondary			Upper Secondary		
	Total	Girl	% Girl	Total	Girl	% Girl	Total	Girl	% Girl
2000-01	2,408,109	1,113,371	46.2	283,578	104,816	37.0	105,086	33,465	31.9
2001-02	2,705,453	1,257,689	46.5	351,635	135,937	38.7	113,404	36,411	32.1
2002-03	2,747,411	1,283,860	46.7	415,703	166,570	40.1	128,182	42,795	33.4
2003-04	2,747,080	1,291,253	47.0	459,986	192,730	41.9	153,758	55,008	35.8
2004-05	2,682,129	1,266,420	47.2	528,940	230,048	43.5	177,129	66,324	37.4
2005-06	2,554,796	1,208,670	47.3	587,805	264,212	45.0	203,273	79,246	39.0

B. Challenges remaining to be overcome

- Dormitories for female students are not sufficient in remote and disadvantaged areas
- The coverage of literacy programs still limited because of lack of facilities, materials, teachers, and budget
- Dropout rate is very high at lower secondary levels, especially for girls
- Gender responsive teaching methods not used widely
- Secondary schools are not enough in remote areas

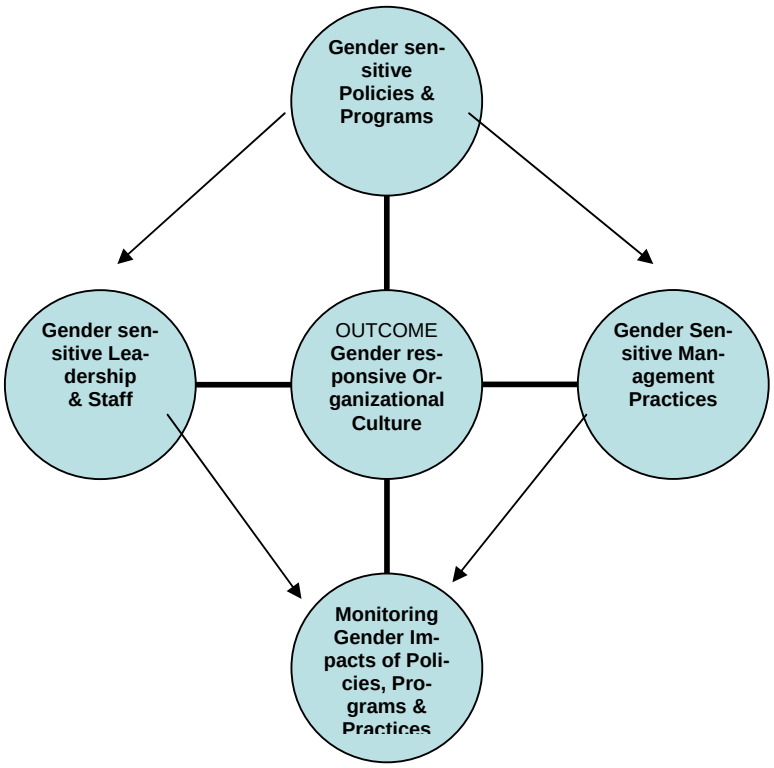
5.7 Quality Standards for Gender Mainstreaming in Educational Institutions at all Levels

"The engine of gender mainstreaming is having a gender-responsive organizational culture within the Ministry of Education. Characteristics of a gender-responsive education ministry include having a gender policy, strategy, actions, budget and staff. All support delivery of education that helps each girl and each boy reach their individual potential. Most significant is that all ministry employees, male and female, do their personal and professional best to advance gender equality in their own work and in their interaction with others. This should be recognized and valued equally with the performance of all other key functions. The visible support and good example of the minister and senior ministry officers are essential in creating this gender-responsive organizational culture" (UNESCO Guidelines for Implementing, Monitoring and Evaluating Gender Responsive EFA Plans, 2003, p. 24)

Thus, the MOEYS plays a pivotal role in mainstreaming education in the entire educational system. It can exercise influence on the school system as well as other socializing agents that create the culture of gender equality, in Cambodian society. For example, the MOEYS can influence the media, the non-government sector, and other institutions that shape the values and attitudes of individuals in society.

The framework for establishing quality standards for education institutions is shown in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: Framework to Establish Quality Standards in Gender Equality



The above framework on establishing qualitative standards for gender equality has led MoEYS to adopt the following discrete standards for measuring progress towards Gender Equality. Each standard is defined by a number of quantitative and qualitative indicators, which are summarized in Table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3: Summary of Standards for Assessing Progress towards Gender Equality

Quantitative Indicators	Qualitative Issues to Address
Standard 1: **Gender-responsive organizational culture**	
1.1. Awareness of gender issues in education • Proportion of staff who have attended gender awareness, orientation and training • Gender orientation and training courses for the staff are conducted • Availability of documents, reports, and materials analyzing gender issues in education in the organization 1.2 Increasing representation of women in leadership positions & policy/decision making bodies • Number and proportion of women in leadership positions • Number of decision making positions where women are represented 1.3. Availability of trained staff and advocates on gender concepts and gender analysis • Number of gender specialists and/or experts • Existence of gender advocates at all levels of the organizational hierarchy 1.4. Increasing availability of gender statistics for use in planning, programming, implementation & monitoring/evaluation • Availability of gender statistics • Accuracy and reliability of gender statistics • Active use of gender statistics for policy making and program design and management 1.5. Increasing availability of gender information, resources and tools • Gender reports, resources and tools available • Gender information and resources disseminated and distributed to staff	Is there a program to raise gender awareness among the staff of MOEYS? Do staff at MOEYS talk about gender as part of their regular programs and concerns? Or do they talk about it because they are required? Do the staff and leaders realize that gender is an important issue in education? Is gender taken seriously as a concern? Is there a conscious and serious effort to put more women in responsible positions? What roles and responsibilities are given to the women? Are these considered important and are the women given adequate authority? Are the women able to exercise a high degree of influence on decisions and policies made? Are there advocates and champions of gender in the organization? At what levels do these gender advocates belong? Do they espouse gender equality consistently? Has the organization trained staff on gender analysis and can they be considered specialists in gender? Is there a resource pool on gender that the organization can draw from? Are gender statistics easily obtained? Are the statistical data updated, regularly produced, accurate and reliable? Are they being used for planning and policy/decision making? Do staff and managers know how to use gender statistics properly? Are they given training on how to interpret and use gender statistics? Can staff easily obtain gender information resources? Are these materials promptly and disseminated to the staff? Can they be easily understood? Are they in Khmer or English? Is there need to translate these materials? What institutional structures and mechanisms have been created to ensure implementation of gender policies and programs? Are women represented in these structures and mechanisms? Are these structures working effectively? Or are they structures on paper only? Obtain evidences that these structures and mechanisms are delivering the desired results for the organization.

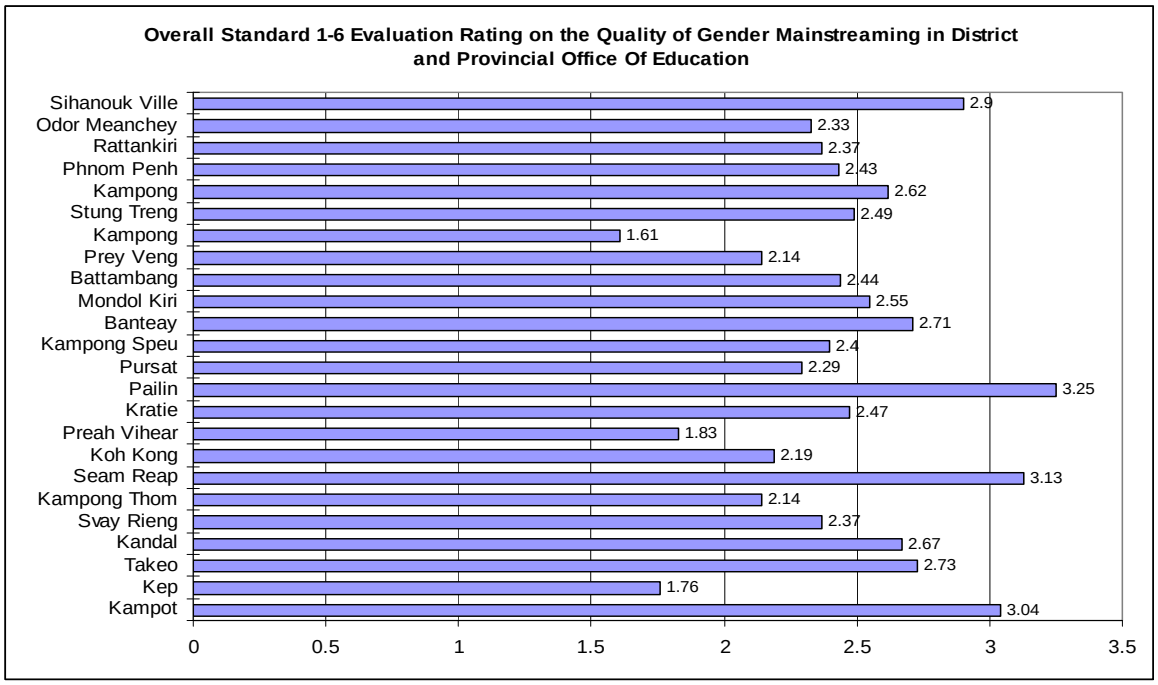
Quantitative Indicators	Qualitative Issues to Address
• Gender information, resources and tools are easy to understand and to use and apply in practice 1.6. Institutional structures and mechanisms to promote gender equality created • Gender equality units, committees, bodies, or mechanisms officially established • Action plans of these institutional structures/mechanism available • Implementation and progress reports show evidence that institutional bodies are in fact working and functional and there are evidences of results actually delivered.	
Standard 2: **Gender policies and programs**	
2.1 Existence of gender policy • Availability of policy guidelines • Policy guidelines to promote women's representation in leadership and decision making positions • Policy guidelines disseminated and explained to stakeholders 2.2 Extent of policy and program implementation • Practical strategy for implementation of gender mainstreaming • Organizational mechanisms for implementation exist (also referred to in standard 1) • Work plans and programs reflect gender concerns • Gender related results and work targets clearly stated 2.3 Affirmative actions to meet special needs of disadvantaged girls and boys, men & women • Number of affirmative actions taken	Is there a clear statement of the official policy on gender? Is the policy officially adopted and disseminated to the stakeholders and the staff? Do the stakeholders and the staff understand the policy? Are there efforts to make it understood? Does the MOEYS have a policy for addressing sexual harassment issues (if necessary) at school level as well as in the education administration at various levels? Do policies recognize the obstacles to women's participation, promotion in the organization? Is there a *practical strategy for implementing* these actions on the ground? Is there adequate *advocacy for gender equality* inside and outside the MOEYS? Is the *media* (or appropriate means available especially in rural areas) used to create a gender friendly environment? Are there linkages with the *community* and the public to promote gender friendly attitudes? Do work plans and programs address gender issues in education? Do the programs address gender issues in organizational management and in defining and delivering child-friendly learning environments that empower girls and boys in the education sector) Are the goals and objectives of the programs gender responsive? Are there gender targets? Are this time bound? How is gender mainstreamed in the plans and programs? Do the policies give priority to creating gender responsive teacher pre-service and in-service? Teaching-learning materials that is free of gender bias? What organizational mechanisms, bodies and procedures have been created to facilitate and ensure implementation of gender policies and programs? What are the constraints and obstacles in implementing the gender policies and programs? (See also standards 4 & 5) What affirmative measures were taken to address gender issues such as: - quota to increase women's representation in leadership posts - training to build women's confidence - aid to survivors of domestic violence, trafficking, HIV/AIDS - incentive schemes to encourage female teachers in rural/remote areas - scholarships for women - others Are the affirmative actions making a difference? Or is it too early to tell? What impacts are emerging?
Standard 3: Gender sensitive leadership and staff	
3.1. Commitment of leaders and staff to gender • Leaders are committed to gender mainstreaming • Staff are committed to gender mainstreaming 3.2. Continuing capacity development • Number of female staff given training in technical fields • Management, planning 3.3 Continuing Gender training for all staff • Number of leaders and senior managers trained in gender • Number of gender training courses for the staff	Do the leaders (i.e. MOEYS and senior MOE management) state firm commitment to gender equality? Do they have conviction over gender equality as a social value? Is this commitment shown in their actions? What concrete steps have they taken to promote gender equality in the organization? In the education sector? Do they give strong political support for gender related programs in the organization? Do the leaders give the necessary authority and resources to implement programs? Do the leaders talk about gender equality and advocate it in public? Do they **practice** equality of treatment among their male and female staff? Do they give equal opportunities to their female staff to participate in important programs? Do they assign important tasks to their female staff? Do they take every chance to put women in responsible positions and assignments? Is there a critical mass of gender responsive leaders and staff in the organization? (Note that this is also mentioned in standard 1) Why or why not? Do women have equal access to professional development and career growth? Do they have appropriate encouragement and allowances to participate in professional development programmes? Are there measures take to ease domestic responsibilities so women can attend training? Is gender built into all training and capacity building activities? Is gender training given to the senior management team? Is there a training of trainers' network to provide gender training to all deliverers of formal and non-

Quantitative Indicators	Qualitative Issues to Address
	formal education? Are there processes and procedures to provide practical gender information, tools and resources to the MOEYS staff? What improvements are needed to enhance the quality of gender training? (Note that capacity building is also a management practice and it can be part of standard 4. However, it has been put in this section to give emphasis.)
Standard 4: Gender-responsive management practices	
4.1 Non-discrimination in job assignments, working conditions, performance evaluation, & promotion 4.2 Affirmative actions taken or not 4.3 Capacity building of female staff on their teaching subjects and gender training for all staffs of the organization 4.4 Allocation of resources for gender programs	Are women represented in the personnel, HRD/training and promotion committees and other such important committees? What proportion of the committee membership are women? Are the women able to influence the decision of the committees? Have there been situations where systematic preference for males has been shown in the organization in terms of job assignments, granting of leaves, work entitlements and benefits, job security, salaries and wages; personnel evaluation and promotion? It is important to establish whether or not there is a pattern or trend of male preference over females. One or two cases may not prove the point but can be the starting point for in-depth investigation. Gather evidences that can help establish that there is or there is no discrimination. Often this can be determined by reviewing the trends of personnel decisions. Is there some form of career counseling and guidance for women in the organization? Does management take affirmative actions to encourage more women to take responsible tasks? Does it reward women who are actively involved in management processes in the organization? How? What type of actions has it taken or plans to take to make it easier for women to build their confidence, technical and/or gender competence, increase their representation and participation in management committees? Describe and investigate if this is part of an overall policy and program of gender equality promotion in the organization. How does it contribute to creating the "culture of gender equality" in the organization?
Standard 5: Gender budgets	
5.1 Funds available or not 5.2 Available funds adequate or not	Are funds for target groups and activities to reduce gender disparities clearly identified? Are there funds for gender advocacy and training? Does the school raise its own funds to support its gender mainstreaming programs? Are these funds used efficiently toward creating a gender friendly organizational culture in MOEYS? Do these funds contribute to the attainment of gender based outcomes in schools? Any other educational institutions?
Standard 6: Monitoring and evaluation of gendered impacts of policies and programs	
6.1 Number of females in the monitoring team 6.2 Number of **gender trained** members in the monitoring team 6.3 Use of sex disaggregated data to analyze policy impacts and to make policy recommendations 6.4 Availability of reports on gender progress in the education sector and in the organization 6.5 Reports distributed to policy makers, beneficiaries and key stakeholders	Check and analyze if females are represented in the monitoring and evaluation team. What proportion are women? Are they sufficiently represented? Are they trained in gender concepts and gender analysis? Are there standards and indicators? Is this part of an M & E system? Are progress reports/monitoring reports regularly prepared? How often? How are they used? Do they reach the policy makers and decision makers in the organization? Do M & E findings inform and guide policy making and decision making in the organization?
Standard 7: Quality of gender-related outcomes	
7.1 Increasing gender parity in enrolment rates, drop-out rates, repetition rates, transition rates, achievement rates 7.2 Increasing number of female student leaders 7.3 Increasing number of female class monitors 7.4 Girls and boys view females as having equal contributions and equal entitlements in Cambodian primary schools • Admission rates of boys/girls almost the same • Average number of children by school age (6 years old), disaggregated by gender	Are there noticeable changes in the attitudes towards females in society? Is there a trend toward a more positive image of women's contribution to Cambodian in society? Did schooling lead to a change in attitudes of boys and girls? Did the school make the students understand the differences among boys and girls and the differences in the way boys and girls are treated by society and the disadvantage that girls face in Cambodian society? Do they value girls' contribution to society? And do they agree that girls should have equal opportunities and entitlements as the boys?
Standard 8: Quality of National Support	
8.1 Existence of a firm directive to implement the gender mainstreaming policy in education 8.2 Guidelines for policy/program implementation are disseminated to the schools • Gives support for gender training of staff, leaders and managers • Gives support in the recruitment and selection of female staff and teachers • Gives support in the promotion of female teachers and non-teaching staff • Standards and indicators for gender responsive education formulated and disseminated to the schools. • Targets, for mainstreaming gender in the school are clearly stated. • Monitoring and evaluation of school actions for mainstreaming gender is undertaken regularly.	Does the school get political, technical and financial support from the national government (i.e. MOEYS, etc.) for the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of gender programs? Is there a clear and firm directive from the MOEYS for the school to adopt and implement to mainstream gender in its programs? Does the education ministry monitor the results of gender mainstreaming in the school? Does the school get practical guidelines to implement gender policies? Are the guidelines clear? Are there gender targets in programs? Are the targets time bound? Does the school get support for capacity building and gender training of its staff, especially females? Are there scholarships for female teaching and non-teaching staff? Does the school receive teaching materials, textbooks and other tools and resources to aid in implementing gender programs and advocating for gender equality in the school and the community?

Quantitative Indicators	Qualitative Issues to Address
8.3 Adequate budget support given or assistance in obtaining funds	Does the school get funding for its gender programs from the national government/MOEYS? Are there funds for training female staff? Are the funds for gender programs adequate? What other sources does the school have for funding gender programs? Are there resource mobilization strategies? Have they been implemented? Has the school raised its own funds for gender programs?
Standard 9: Quality of School Governance	
Management practices 9.1 Participation of women in planning and decision making – increasing number of females in school boards and decision making bodies (ideal is 30 %); female to male ratio among non-teaching staff 9.2 Availability of trained human resources in gender mainstreaming - proportion of non-teaching staff trained in gender analysis and gender responsive education 9.3 Non-discrimination in job assignments, working conditions i.e. hours of work, job security and benefits and job promotions **School Programming and Monitoring** 9.4. Existence of a clear gender mainstreaming policy articulated and disseminated in the school; 9.5. Programs and affirmative actions to promote gender equality and equity in teaching and learning processes 9.6. Resources allocated for gender related programs (gender budget) -from school budget -from external donors 9.7. Existence of monitoring mechanisms to track implementation of school's gender mainstreaming policy and evaluate impact of gender mainstreaming in the school 9.8 Improved generation, use and analysis/interpretation of gender statistics and indicators	How many women are in the teaching and non teaching staff? How many are in the decision-making positions? What proportion is gender trained/gender sensitive? Does the school have a policy and program for promoting gender equality? Disseminated and understood by the stakeholders? the students? The teachers? Parents and community? Does the school have gender orientation and training programs for teachers, principals and managers? Does the school have a critical mass of gender trained staff? Are they able to influence the school head, managers, staff and students to make them gender sensitive? Are female teachers getting support and guidance in promoting gender in education? Are female teachers moving up the career ladder/being promoted as much as the male teachers? Do female teaching and non-teaching staff enjoy the same entitlements and benefits as the males? Have there been any reported cases of discrimination among female teachers and/or staff? What resources have been allocated for gender mainstreaming in the school? How are the gender based outcomes of school education being monitored? What affirmative actions have been taken by the school to promote gender equality/equity? Does the school actively recruit and select female teachers? Does it have a policy of promoting male and female teachers on the basis of merit? Are females given equal opportunity to be in decision making positions? (proportion of females in the school boards, and managerial positions?
Standard 10: Quality of the Learning Environment	
10.1 School distance close enough, transportation and safety. 10.2 Availability of gender sensitive and hygienic facilities: • separate, clean and safe toilets/latrines for girls and boys • school canteens • drinking water • school dormitories • toys for both boys and girls • adequate playground for both boys and girls • accommodations for pregnant adolescents and young mothers 10.3 Curriculum promotes gender equality • no gender stereotypes in the curriculum; • specific lessons, courses or subjects on gender equality • reflects lives and realities of boys & girls; contains positive messages on value of girls' contributions in society • depicts female role models and uses local female heroines to inculcate gender equality with "equal prominence, potential and respect" 10.4 Extra curricular activities encourage participation of boys and girls 10.5 Teaching materials and text books • Boys and girls have essential learning materials; have equal access to instructional materials • Gender inclusive language is used in the teaching materials • Features girls and boys equally • Roles and responsibilities and activities of girls and boys equally reflect empowerment and decision making • Domestic, volunteer and community roles of boys and girls given equal space and value • Girls & boys depicted in photos and graphics with equal frequency and status	**PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT AND SCHOOL LOCATION** What is the physical quality of the schools? Are buildings safe and accessible? What is the availability of safe drinking water and separate functioning toilets for girls and boys? Can girls and boys walk safely to the school in this location? Is safe, dependable and locally affordable transportation available and used by girls and boys who live too far away to walk? Are there risks of girls being harassed or raped on the way to school? In school? Is there enough student space in the classroom to accommodate social codes and personal comfort for girls and boys? **PSYCHOSOCIAL ENVIRONMENT** Does the learning environment offer challenges and role models for both boys and girls? **School staff and teachers** Are the teachers trained in gender? Are the teachers gender sensitive? Are there female role models in the teaching and learning materials? Do the curriculum and the teaching materials promote gender stereotypes? Does school and classroom management create a safe, nurturing and harassment free environment for girls and boys? If so, how? If not, what are the issues? Is there any distinct difference in the frequency of visits or the quality of supervision provided by men compared to women? If so, why? Are schools feeding/lunch programmes provided? Are there adequate and available facilities to facilitate girls' entry and participation in school? This include toilets, canteens, and dormitories for girls. **Curriculum content** What is the quality of the curriculum? To what extent is it relevant? Is it gender sensitive? Does it build on and value girls and boys' life experience outside school? In many contexts, boys and girls lives' differ widely. Does it provide sex education to both boys and girls? Does it include information to help girls and boys protect themselves from trafficking, HIV/AIDS, exploitative child labor, alcoholism and drugs? Do boys and girls participate on an equal footing in extra-curricular activities, such as sports, arts, music, etc.? Are girls encouraged to participate in such activities? **Teaching materials** What is the quality of textbooks and other learning aids, and how available are they? Do books and other learning resources present a balanced number of women and men? What images of girls and women/boys and men are transmitted through those materials? What effect do such different portrayals of the sexes have on learners, and, in the case of young pupils on the formation of

Quantitative Indicators	Qualitative Issues to Address
	their self-concept, character and career choice?
Standard 11: Quality of the Teaching-Learning Processes	
11.1 Ratio of female to male teachers, analyze trends by rural-urban location & indigenous territories. 11.2 Number of teachers trained in gender sensitivity and analysis and its application to teaching 11.3 Inclusive, student centered teachers, non-sexist attitudes; 11.4 Inculcates in students the value of girls their equal contributions in society, and the need to grant them equal entitlements and benefits 11.5 Inspires and motivates students, especially girls to continue schooling and to value education 11.6 Non-discrimination in treatment of girls and boys in the classroom 11.7 Encourages girls/boys to participate in school activities within and out of the classroom	Teacher qualification Are the female teachers well qualified to be role models for gender equality? Do teachers' attitudes and ways of dealing with students promote gender equality? Do they have sexist attitudes? Do they tend to promote gender stereotypes and prejudices? What is the quality of teacher training pre-service, refresher and in-service? Do female teachers or facilitators participate as much as their male counterparts in various training activities? Is the training delivered in a gender-responsive fashion? Is gender sensitization part of teacher-training curriculum? **Teacher-learner interaction** Are boys and girls given equal chances to participate in school activities? Are boys and girls given opportunities to gain critical thinking skills? Life skills? Is there a guidance and counseling system in place? Are girls guided into technical and science streams or actively or passively discouraged from doing so? What fields are boys encouraged to move into? Are home economics and carpentry classes at the same time, depriving girls of carpentry and boys of home economics? Or are all students actively encouraged to gain these life skills? Is there enthusiasm and support for boys and girls to spend equal time on computers and to gain equal skill in math, science, humanities and technical education? Are girls having a positive experience with the school and the teacher? Do girls feel they are getting a quality education and progressing in their learning? Do girls feel that they are treated equally as the boys in the class? Do the girls feel that they are getting benefits as much as the boys? Do female teachers seem as pleased by their work as male teachers? **Assessment, feedback and incentives** Do teachers feedback to boys and girls about their school performance? How is this done? Are girls and boys equally treated in terms of reward and incentives for good school performance, disciplinary practices and feedback about their performance? Are girls given as much praise and reward as the boys? **Class size** Are there adequate numbers of female teachers? What is the teacher-pupil ratio? Female teachers to pupil ratio?
Standard 12: Quality of the Learner	
12.1 Gender-based comparison of absenteeism, drop-out and repetition, transition rates, additional comparisons by ethnicity, rural-urban location 12.2 Existence (or lack) of school-based actions to overcome barriers to girls' schooling or pro-active measures taken to facilitate and encourage girls' school attendance	**Learners' readiness** Are the learners healthy on entry and during their schooling? Do they have equal access to health care? (Are there health examinations prior to enrolment?) What is known about the background and history of the students in the school? Are children especially girls from disadvantaged groups like the disabled, indigenous groups able to enter school**?** Do they have cases of child labor/workers? Does this affect their concentration in school and their readiness to learn? Are there nutritional deficiencies and/or health problems among the children? Are there children who come from households exposed to domestic violence? Do the students come from very poor families? Do their parents encourage girls to attend school? What is known about boys and girls' learning strategies? Do they differ? And if yes, how is that addressed in the pedagogical techniques utilized? How open are the curriculum and educators to accommodate such differences? How are teachers/educators prepared or trained to take these differences into account? **Barriers' to girls schooling and school actions to overcome them** Do girls face difficulties coming to school due to domestic chores, work outside the home? Any other reasons? Do this link to their being girls? Do boys face the same situation as the girls? What are the barriers to their entering school and completing their basic education? Is there an observable significant pattern of girls being more frequently absent than boys? Having more girl drop-outs and/or repeaters? Are girls' achievement rates equal to that of the boys? Has the school taken concrete and practical measures to address the barriers to schooling, especially among the girls?
Standard 13: Quality of Community Support	
13.1 Number of school bodies where local community leaders are represented 13.2 Number and proportion of community leaders in school bodies 13.3 Existence of school programs to raise awareness of gender issues in education among parents and/or local leaders in the commune 13.4 Gender training programs for parents, guardians and community leaders 13.5 School disseminates information on gender programs	Does the school have programs to raise parents', guardians, and key community leaders' awareness and sensitivity to gender issues? Are there organized linkages, networking and collaboration between parents and the local community officials to promote education and gender equality? Have these school-community links and collaboration between consistently done? Have they made any difference or impacts in changing community attitudes toward girls' education in Cambodia?

Figure 5.3: Quality and Efficiency Result of Gender Mainstreaming



5.8 Key Indicators for Gender Parity

The EFA Goal is to progressively eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education with eventual achievement of gender parity in education by 2015. This will ensure full and equal access for girls to basic education of quality.

The Gender Parity Index for various measures of educational efficiency (e.g., NER, repetition, etc.) is a key measure of gender equity in education. As noted earlier, GPI is obtained by dividing the rate for any given indicator for females by the rate for males. A GPI value equal to 1.0 shows equality for males and females for that indicator. A GPI value less than 1 indicates difference in favor of males. A GPI value greater than 1.0 indicates a difference in favor of females. For most indicators, there is considered to be no gender disparity for GPI variations between 0.97 and 1.03.

Gender parity has already been considered in connection with other levels of disaggregation in the discussion of indicators for Goal 1 (Early Childhood Care and Education), Goal 2 (Basic Education), Goal 3 (Youth Literacy), and Goal 4 (Adult Literacy). In this chapter, the GPI is given specific attention, as an important indicator of progress on this cross-cutting theme in Education For All.

5.8.1 Percentage of Female Enrollment in Primary Education

The proportion of girls in primary school enrolment has moved up steadily from 1999 to 2005, although within a very narrow range. The 1.5% increase in female enrollment from 45.8% to 47.3% over seven years is slight and it seems to have leveled off by 2005-06. The predominance of male enrollment at the primary level confirms the findings for GER for Primary Education. The GPI for female enrollment is rising, but by 2005-06 was just 0.90, again indicating a male bias.

National Level Data on GPI for Primary School Enrolment:

According to the Inter-Censal Population Survey of 2004[17], females comprised 49.3% of the 5-9 year age group, while males comprised 50.7%. Given these population projections and the as-

[17] *Demographic Estimates and Revised Population Projections*, National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, Phnom Penh, Cambodia June, 2005, Table 8 Second Special Projection for Cambodia by sex and age [2004] p.17. The EMIS age-population data indicates a female proportion of 49.5% and a male proportion of 50.5%.

sumption that the 5 to 9 year age group is a rough approximation for primary school age children, the figure of 49.3% is probably a reasonable estimate for a male-female parity target. Thus, it would appear that primary school female enrolment is within 2.0% of complete gender parity, based on a national figure of 47.3% female enrolment (see Table 5.4).

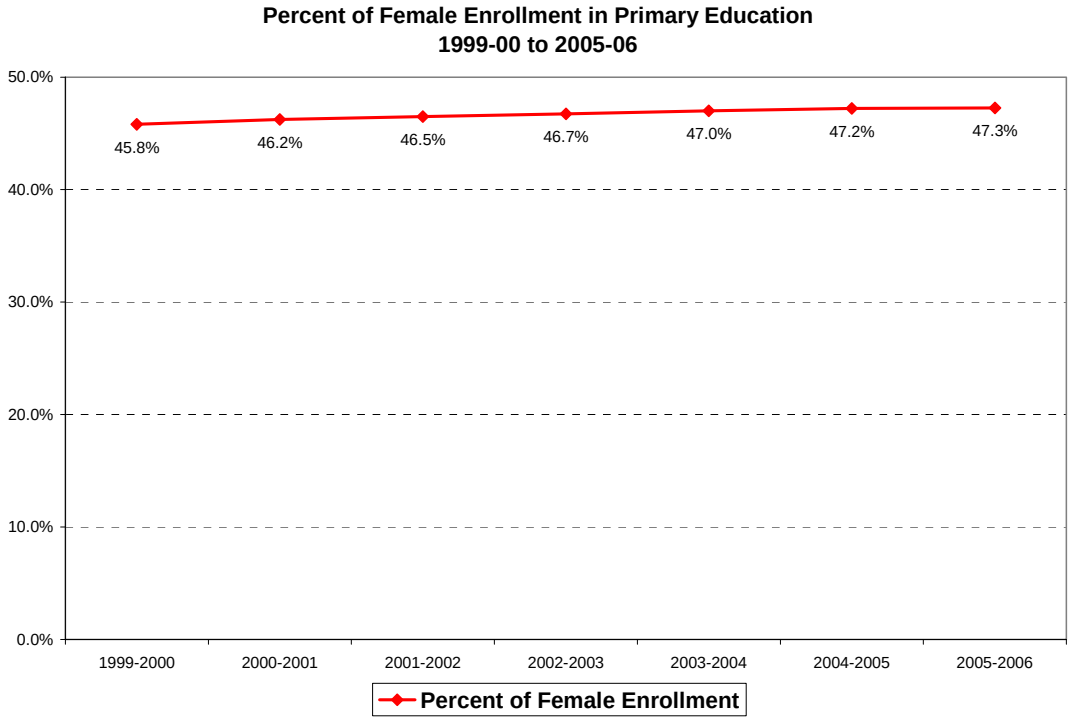
Table 5.4: Primary School Enrolment by Sex, 1999-00 to 2005-06

Year	Female	Male	Total	GPI	Percent of Female Enrollment
1999-2000	1,013,134	1,198,604	2,211,738	0.85	45.8%
2000-2001	1,113,371	1,294,738	2,408,109	0.86	46.2%
2001-2002	1,257,689	1,447,764	2,705,453	0.87	46.5%
2002-2003	1,283,860	1,463,551	2,747,411	0.88	46.7%
2003-2004	1,291,253	1,455,827	2,747,080	0.89	47.0%
2004-2005	1,266,420	1,415,709	2,682,129	0.89	47.2%
2005-2006	1,209,282	1,349,185	2,558,467	0.90	47.3%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2005-06

Nevertheless, Figure 5.4 below shows a virtually flat line for change in primary school female enrollment over the last seven years. The scale of the chart is the same as for later charts showing lower secondary and upper secondary female enrollment trends, for ease of comparison.

Figure 5.4: Trend Changes in Female Enrolment for Primary Education, 1999-00 to 2005-06

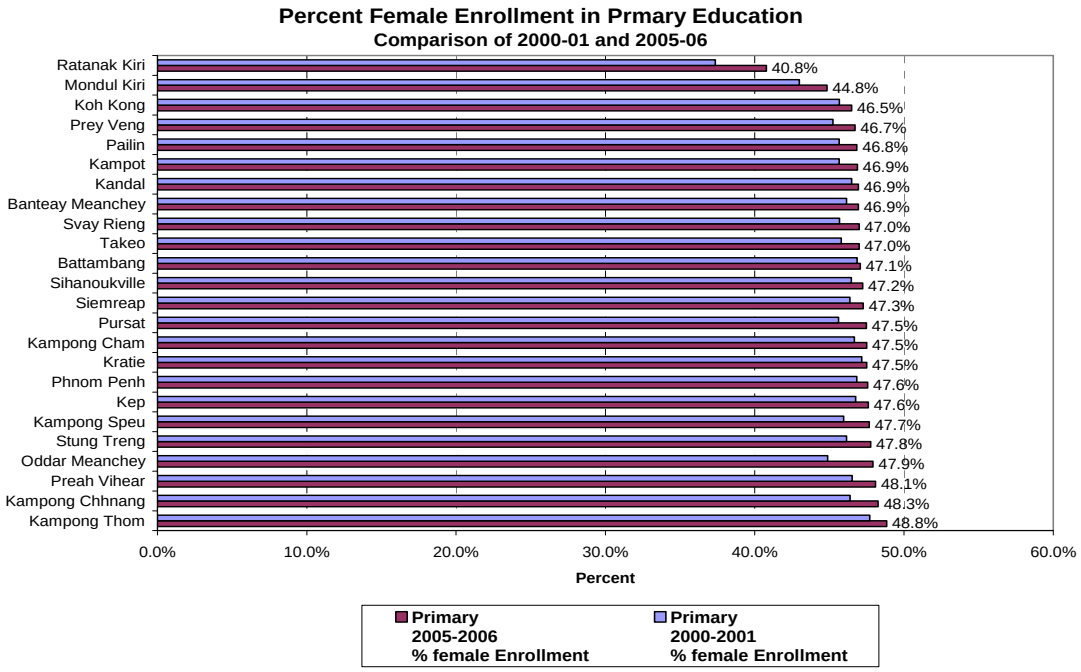


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-2005

Provincial Level Data on Female Enrolment for Primary Education:

A longitudinal view of female enrollment can be found by comparing the rates for provinces in 2000 and 2005. All provinces without exception show slight improvement in female enrollment, reflecting the same finding at national level. Differences among provinces are also minimal (see Figure 5.5).

Figure 5.5: Change in Female Enrolment at Primary Level by Province, 2000-01 and 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

Two provinces stand out with a particularly low female enrollment, Ratanakiri (40.8%) and Mondulkiri (44.8%). These two hill provinces in the Northeast, with sizeable and diverse ethnic minority populations have more difficulty than most other provinces in moving towards the 46-49% range.

5.8.2 Percentage of Female Enrollment in Lower Secondary Education

National Level Data on Female Enrolment for Lower Secondary School:

The proportion of females enrolled in lower secondary school has been rising steadily and fairly steeply over the last seven years. The current rate in 2005-06 of 44.9% is 9.5% above the rate in 1999-00 (35.4%)(see Table 5.5/Figure 5.6). That is a rise of 1.4% a year. GPI has also increased, reflecting an increased proportion of female enrollment. The Inter-Censal Population Survey of 2004[18] gives population projections for 2004 for the age group 10-14, which we can take as a rough approximation for the lower secondary school age population. For that age group, females were 49.1% and males were 50.9%. Accordingly, 49.1% is probably a reasonable parity target for lower secondary school female enrollment.

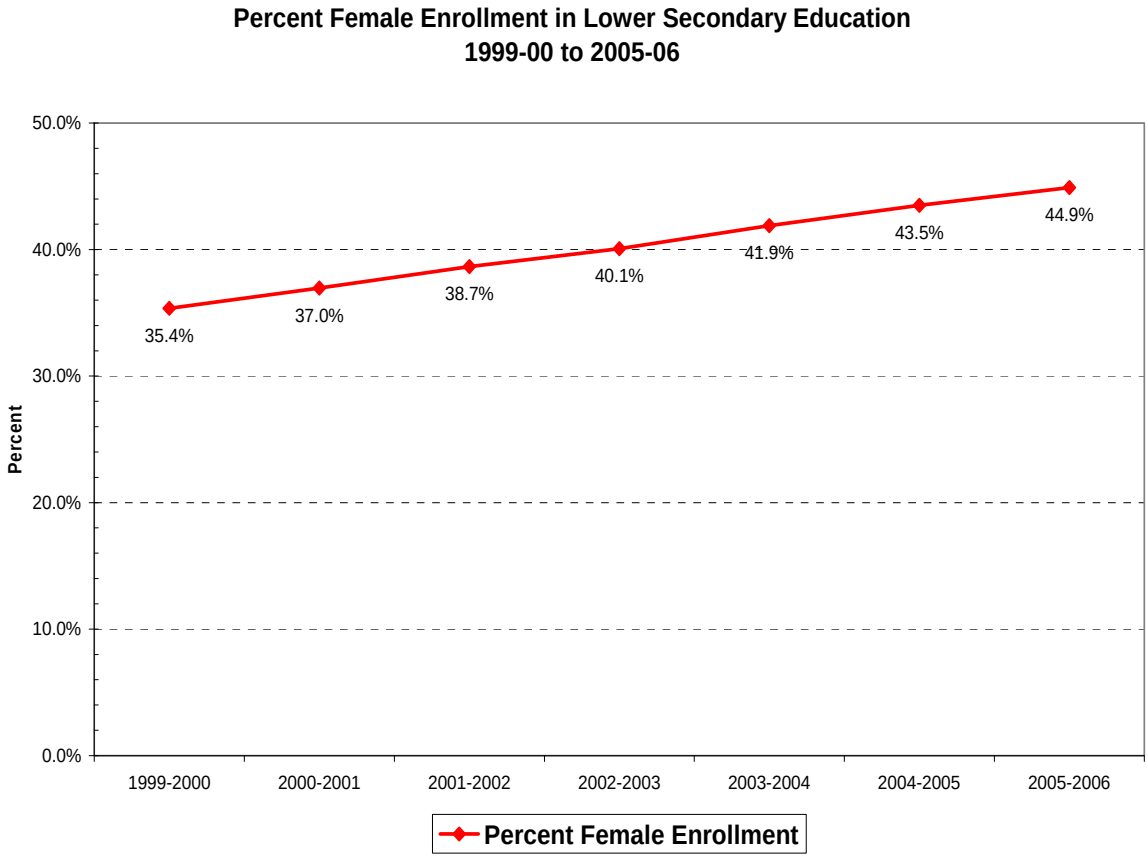
Table 5.5: Lower Secondary School Enrolment by Sex, 1999-00 to 2005-06

Year	Female	Male	Total	GPI	Female Enrollment (%)
1999-2000	82,486	150,792	233,278	0.55	35.4%
2000-2001	104,816	178,762	283,578	0.59	37.0%
2001-2002	135,937	215,698	351,635	0.63	38.7%
2002-2003	166,570	249,133	415,703	0.67	40.1%
2003-2004	192,730	267,256	459,986	0.72	41.9%
2004-2005	230,048	298,892	528,940	0.77	43.5%
2005-2006	264,129	324,204	588,333	0.81	44.9%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2005-06

[18] *Ibid.*

Figure 5.6: Trend Changes in Female Enrolment for Lower Secondary, 1999-00 to 2005-06

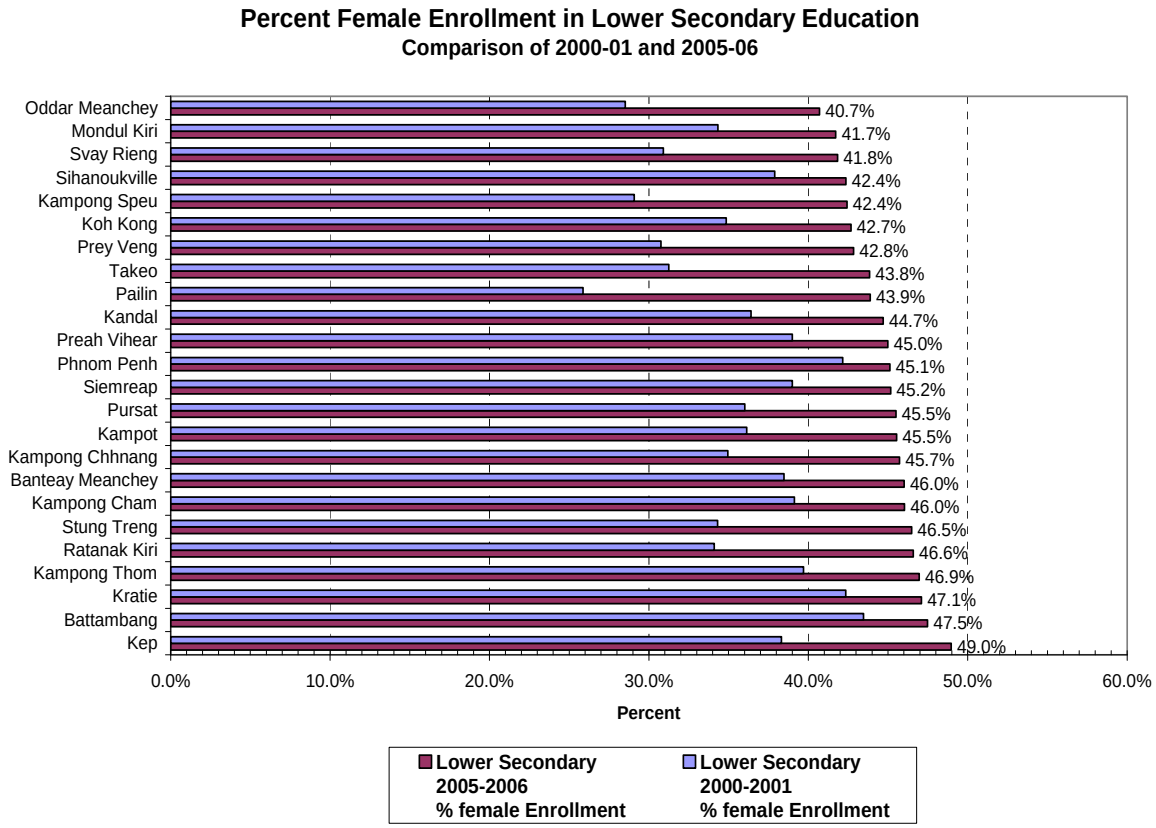


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2005-06

Provincial Level Data on Female Enrolment for Lower Secondary School:

A longitudinal view of female enrollment in lower secondary school is obtained by comparing the rates over Cambodian provinces in 2000-01 and 2005-06. All provinces, without exception show an increase in female enrollments over the period. Some of the gains over the period are quite impressive. The provinces with the highest gains, over 10% over the five years, include Pailin (18.0% gain between 2000-01 and 2005-06), Kampong Speu (13.4%), Takeo (12.6%), Ratanak Kiri (12.5%), Oddar Meanchey (12.2%), Stung Treng (12.2%), and Prey Veng (12.1%). These provinces, including the reconciliation areas of Pailin and Oddar Meanchey and the remote ethnic minority areas of Ratanakiri and Stung Treng, have evidently made explicit policy decisions to emphasize female enrollment in lower secondary level education in the province.

Figure 5.7: Change in Female Enrolment at Lower Secondary Level by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

5.8.3 Percentage of Female Enrollment in Upper Secondary Education

National Level Data on Female Enrolment for Upper Secondary School:

The female enrollment in Upper Secondary School has also been on a steady rise since 1999-00, with the exception of a slight dip in 2000-01 (see Figure 5.8). Over the last six years, the rate has increased from 31.8% to 38.8% in 2005-06, an increase of 7% in 6 years, or about 1.2% each year.

The The Inter-Censal Population Survey of 2004[19] gives population projections for 2004 for the age group 15-19, which we can take as a rough approximation for upper secondary school age population. For that age group, females comprised 48.7% of the population while males comprised 51.3% of the group. Accordingly, a reasonable parity target for upper secondary school female enrollment would be 48.7%. Clearly, the present enrollments are much below this target (see Table 5.6), indicating that upper secondary school enrollment continues to be confined to a relatively small female elite in Cambodia.

Table 5.6: Upper Secondary School Enrolment by Sex, 1999-00 to 2005-06

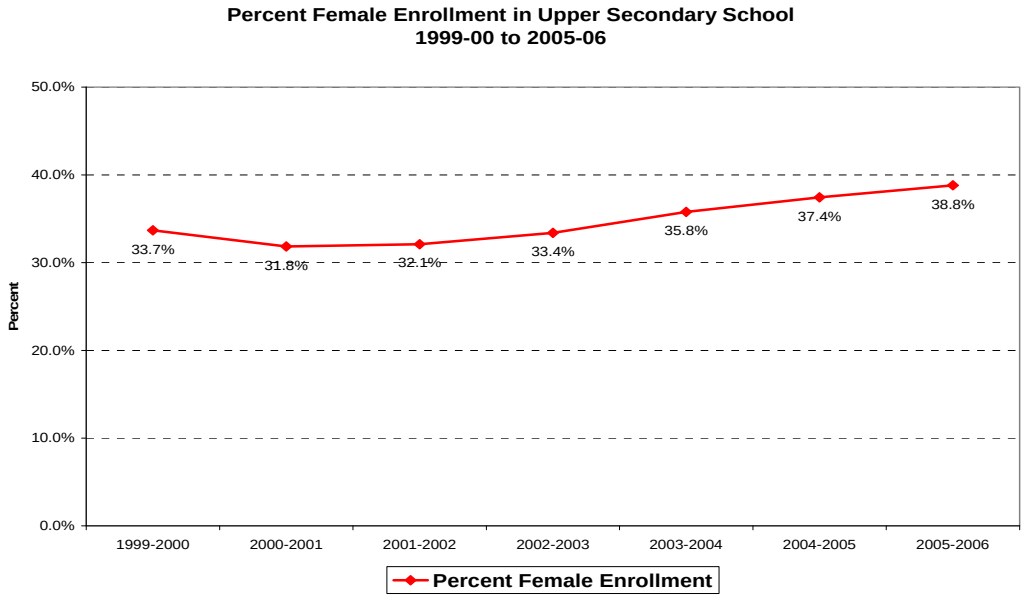
Year	Female	Male	Total	GPI	Female Enrollment (%)
1999-2000	36,446	71,767	108,213	0.51	33.7%
2000-2001	33,465	71,621	105,086	0.47	31.8%
2001-2002	36,411	76,993	113,404	0.47	32.1%
2002-2003	42,795	85,387	128,182	0.50	33.4%

[19] *Ibid.*

2003-2004	55,008	98,750	153,758	0.56	35.8%
2004-2005	66,324	110,805	177,129	0.60	37.4%
2005-2006	79,563	125,362	204,925	0.63	38.8%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2005-06

Figure 5.8: Trend Changes in Female Enrolment for Upper Secondary Education, 1999-00 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 1999-00 to 2005-06

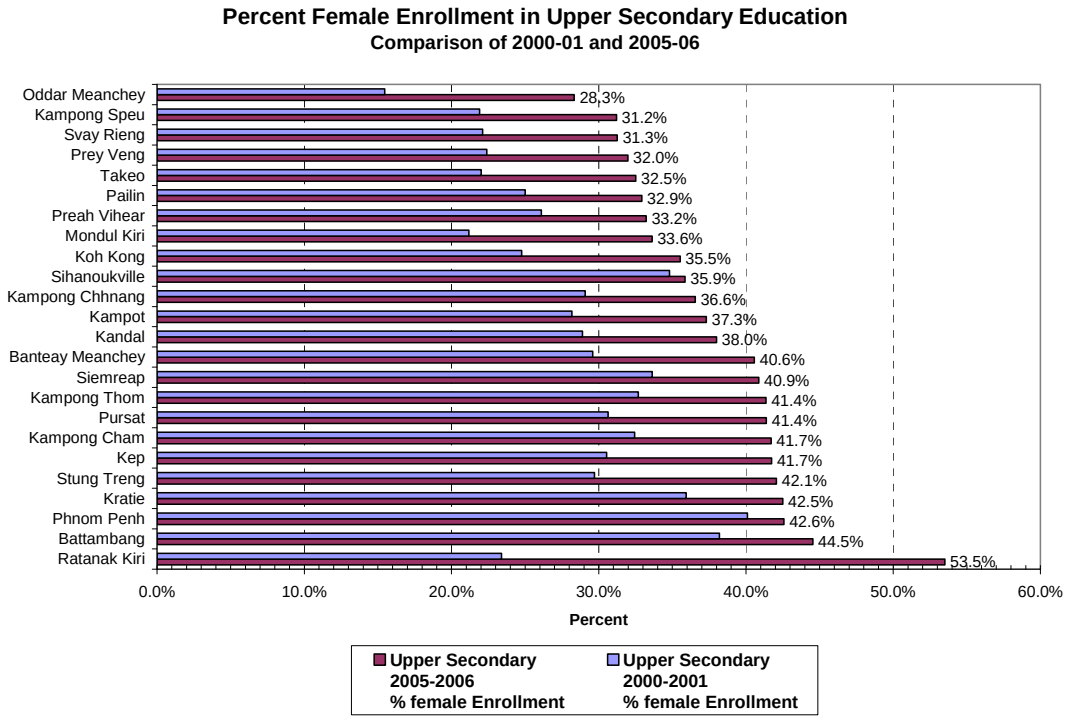
Provincial Level Data on Female Enrolment for Upper Secondary School:

Disaggregation at the province level, and comparison of provincial rates of female enrollment in upper secondary school in 2000-01 and 2005-06 shows that all provinces without exception saw an improvement in rates over the period (see Figure 5.9). However, some provinces showed minimal increase over the last six years. For example, Phnom Penh increased female enrollment in upper secondary school 2.5% over the period. Sihanoukville showed the smallest increase with only a 1.1% increase in female enrollment over the period. This is consistent with many other indicators that suggest many challenges to achieving gender parity in this province.

On the other hand, provinces with large minority populations showed the greatest gains over the period. Ratanakiri showed an astounding 30.1% increase over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06, reflecting some specific policy decisions in that province to improve access to upper secondary level education for females. Indeed, Ratanakiri, with a female enrollment of 53.3% in 2005-06, is highest in the nation.

Oddar Meanchey, although with the lowest female enrollment in upper secondary school of 28.3% in 2005-06, showed a healthy increase of 12.9% over the period. Mondulkiri and Stung Treng both showed an increase of 12.4% in female enrollment in upper secondary school over the period. Such disparities in change relating to female enrollment are possibly due to systematic differences in policy and implementation at the province level that should be investigated further to gain the lessons that can be learned.

Figure 5.9: Change in Female Enrolment at Upper Secondary by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

5.8.4 Percentage of Female Teachers in Primary Education

Many studies have shown the importance of female teachers in providing support to the needs of female pupils. The presence of female teachers in the school system helps to increase the rate of female enrollment and retention at both the primary and lower secondary school level. The participation of women in the teaching workforce is also essential in providing role models for young female pupils to continue their education and to aim for satisfying careers after graduation.

For this indicator, gender parity would be expressed by a 50-50 split between male and female teachers. A female proportion of less than 50% suggests than there is a need for improved opportunities and incentives for women to enter the teaching profession. Teacher training institutions could increase opportunities for women by providing targeted scholarships, for instance, to local graduates from remote areas, who know the local conditions and perhaps the local dialects and languages. These teachers could be expected eventually to work in their home area, which would help address the familiar deployment challenges to find teachers from urban areas who are willing to live in remote work locations. Local schools could also help make improvements in working conditions for young female teachers by mobilizing community support to provide a house and small garden plot for such teachers. This would help to reduce their housing and commuting costs, since salary increases are slow in coming.

National Level Data on Female Teacher Representation at Primary Level:

There has been a slow, steady rise in the participation of women in the teaching workforce over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06. In 2000-01, the proportion of female teachers was 39.0%, but by 2005-06 the rate had risen to 41.7%, or an increase of 1.7% over six years (see Table 5.7). There is still a considerable distance to go to reach a workforce where 50% of teachers are women in the primary education sector. At the current rate of increase, it will take just under 30 years to achieve gender equity in the primary education teaching force. Clearly this is too long suggesting the need for more concerted actions by Ministry and its donor partners.

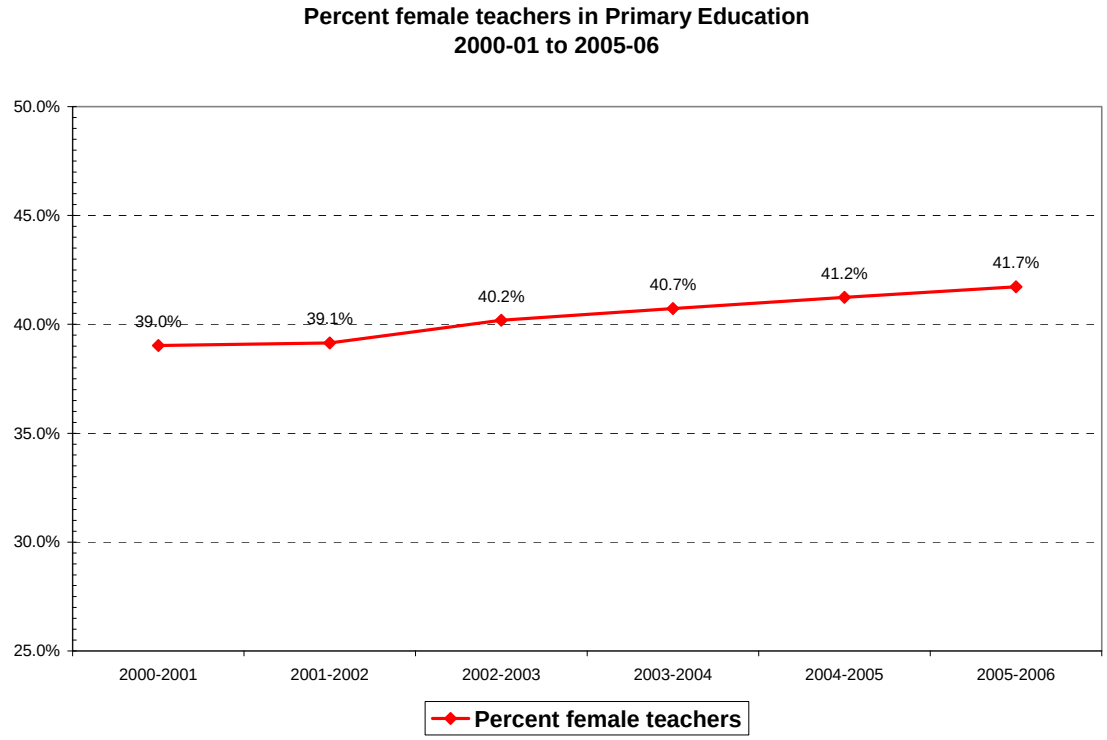
Table 5.7: Proportion of Teachers in Primary Education by Sex, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Female	Male	Total	Female Teachers (%)
2000-2001	17,621	27,531	45,152	39.0%
2001-2002	18,655	28,999	47,654	39.1%
2002-2003	19,462	28,971	48,433	40.2%
2003-2004	20,198	29,405	49,603	40.7%
2004-2005	20,678	29,462	50,140	41.2%
2005-2006	21,022	29,356	50,378	41.7%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

The slight change in the proportion of female teachers in the primary education sector during the reporting period is shown in Figure 5.10 below. The gently increasing slope in change is indicative of very slow progress in this area.

Figure 5.10: Change in the Proportion of Female Teachers in the Primary Education Sector, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Provincial Level Data on Female Teacher Representation at Primary Level:

As with other indicators, a comparison of the changes in the proportion of female teachers in primary education in 2000-01 and 2005-06, disaggregated by province, provides a needed longitudinal perspective. All Cambodian provinces, except for one, show an increase in the proportion of female teaching staff over the period (see Figure 5.11). The one exception is Sihanoukville, which shows a slight (1.3%) decline in female teaching staff. This province shows persistent gender parity issues and challenges over many indicators, the reasons for which should be investigated further by the EFA monitoring teams.

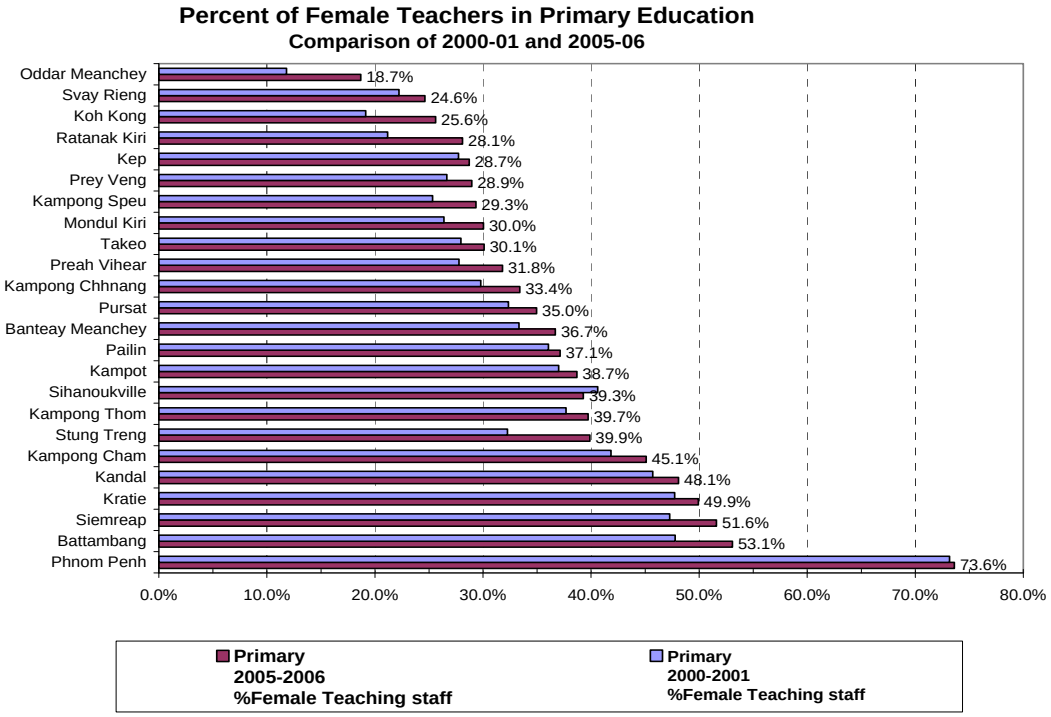
Four provinces, all with remote area populations, show particularly good improvement in the proportion of female teaching staff over the six-year period. For example, the rate in Stung Treng improved by 7.6% from 2000-01 to 2005-06. Similarly, the rate in Oddar Meanchey and Ratanakiri both showed an improvement of 6.9% over the period while Koh Kong showed an improvement of

6.5%. Although some progress is being made in these remote areas, important disparities still exist.

Nevertheless, the disparity among provinces in terms of the proportion of female teachers is abundantly clear. Phnom Penh, with 73.6% female teaching staff in primary education in 2005-06 demonstrates very low parity levels where male teachers are at a disadvantage. Battambang with 53.1% female teaching staff and Siem Reap with 51.6% female teaching staff similarly show gender imbalances, albeit slight ones, in their teaching forces that favor women. Kratie with 49.9% female teaching staff, Kandal with 48.1% female teaching staff and Kampong Cham with 45.1% female teaching staff are all above the national average of 41.7% for 2005-06. Female teachers clearly prefer to work in the major cities and towns of Cambodia rather than in the rural and remote countryside.

At the other end of the scale, the proportion of female teachers in Oddar Meanchey is only 18.7%, one quarter of the rate in Phnom Penh. Eighteen of Cambodia's twenty-four provinces have female teaching staff rates less than the national average of 41.7% for 2005-06, suggesting that fewer women teachers are found in less densely populated areas while more are found in the metropolitan areas. This growing urban-rural divide, characterized by major gender imbalances in the primary school teaching force in the countryside, threatens to disadvantage girls from rural areas by reducing the support they would receive from having female teachers as guides and mentors.

Figure 5.11: Change in the Proportion of Female Teachers in the Primary Education Sector by Province, 2000-01 and 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

5.8.5 Percentage of Female Teachers in Secondary Education

The data on this indicator shows a much lower level of female participation in the teaching force at the secondary school level compared to the primary level, which is a cause for concern. Additional training opportunities and incentives are needed to encourage women to seek teaching positions in secondary education. Graduates from Cambodian universities with specialist knowledge and skills, especially females, are especially needed to strengthen the higher level courses at secondary level and improve readiness for tertiary education among Cambodia's young female secondary level

students.
One of the ways to improve the return of highly trained graduates to rural secondary schools that has been very successful in neighboring ASEAN countries is to include a period of service teaching and assisting in rural schools as a condition for graduation from University. This kind of program improves the gender balance of teaching staff at the secondary level, and makes high level peer knowledge transfer possible. Such a program also benefits the urban university students by making them better aware of the actual conditions in rural and remote schools where they are placed. In addition, it also helps to reduce the cultural gap between city and country.

National Level Data on Female Teacher Representation at Secondary Level:

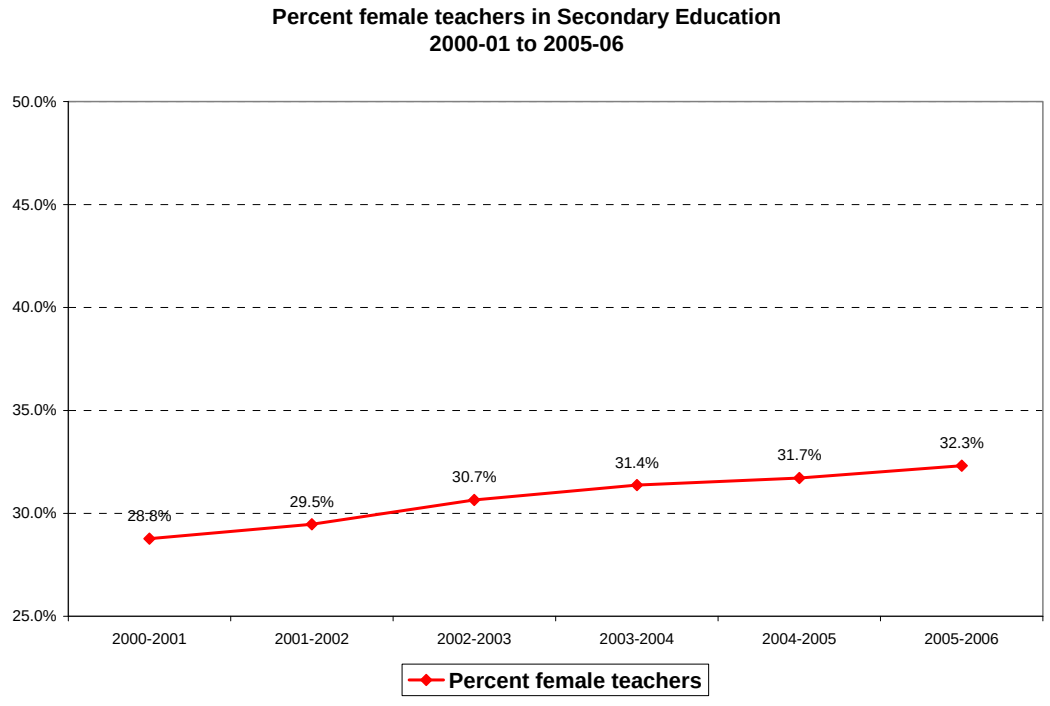
Participation rates of females in the secondary school teaching force have increased slowly but steadily over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06 (see Table 5.7/Figure 5.12). In 2000-01 the rate was 28.8% for the nation, but by 2005-06 the rate had increased to 32.3%, a gain of 3.5% over six years. This is nevertheless considerably below the desired 50-50 split needed for complete parity. At the current rate of increase, it will take 20 years to achieve complete gender parity in the secondary education teaching force. It will take specific Ministry action to accelerate the achievement of parity in the secondary teaching force.

Table 5.7: Proportion of Teachers in Secondary Education by Sex, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Female	Male	Total	Percent female teachers
2000-2001	5,658	14,010	19,668	28.8%
2001-2002	6,131	14,675	20,806	29.5%
2002-2003	6,999	15,831	22,830	30.7%
2003-2004	7,599	16,620	24,219	31.4%
2004-2005	7,964	17,143	25,107	31.7%
2005-2006	8,245	17,275	25,520	32.3%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 5.12: Change in the Proportion of Female Teachers in the Secondary Education Sector, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

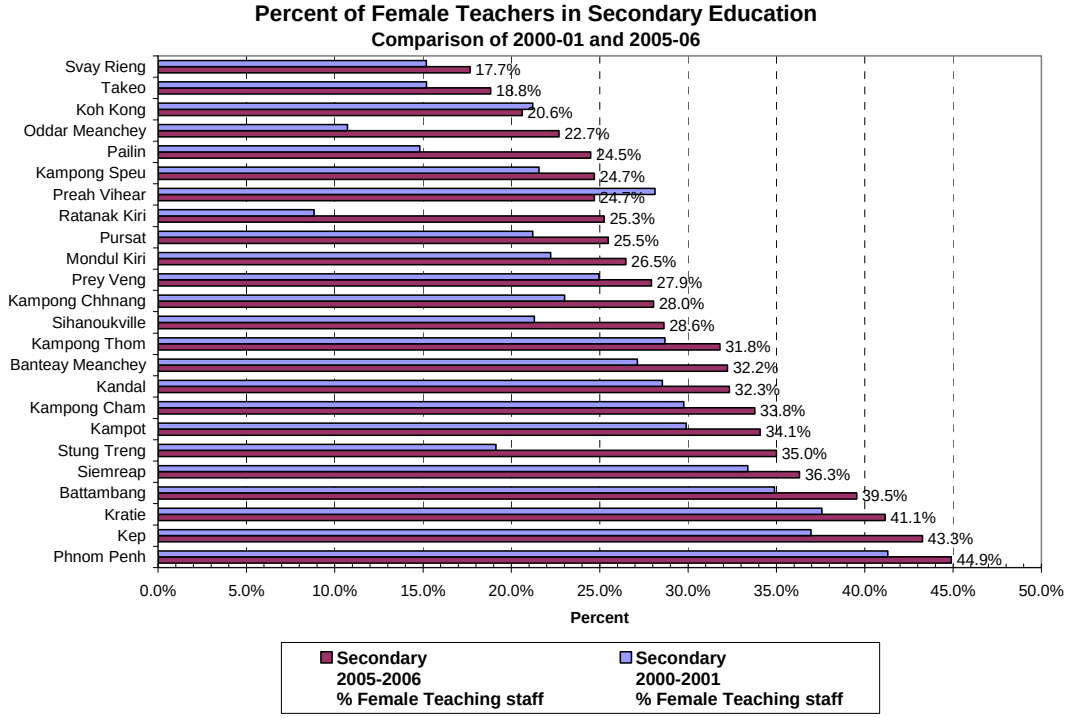
Provincial Level Data on Female Teacher Representation at Secondary Level:

A comparison of provincial rates for female teaching staff from 2000-01 and 2005-06 shows only two provinces that have actually declined in the proportion of female teachers in the work force (see Figure 5.13). These provinces are Koh Kong, which declined by 0.6% and Preah Vihear, which declined by 3.4% during the reporting period.

Most other provinces showed modest gains over the period, but four provinces showed particularly good gains in female participation in the secondary teaching force. This included Ratanakiri, which showed an increase of 16.4% over the period. Ratanakiri improved its female participation rates from a national low of 8.8% in 2000-01 to 25.3% in 2005-06. The rate in Stung Treng showed an increase of 15.9% over the period, while the rate in Oddar Meanchey increased from 10.7% in 2000-01 to 22.7% in 2005-06, an increase of 12%. In Pailin, the rate increased by 9.7%. These impressive gains must be due to specific interventions at the local level in these remote provinces.

Nevertheless, disparities are also very evident, reinforcing the impression of an urban-rural divide in the deployment of female teaching staff in secondary education. Phnom Penh has a rate of 44.9% female teaching staff at the secondary level, two and a half times greater than the rate in Svay Rieng, with the nation's lowest female participation rate at 17.7% in 2005-06. The other provinces above the national average for 2005-06 of 32.3% included Kep (43.3%), Kratie (41.1%), Battambang (39.5%), Siem Reap (36.3%), Stung Treng (35%), Kampot (34.1%) and Kampong Cham (33.8%). Once again, the large population centers show greater rates of female participation, while the remote areas generally show much lower rates. This kind of imbalance can best be rectified by careful incentive packages and deployment strategies to equalize distribution of scarce human resources across the country.

Figure 5.13: Change in the Proportion of Female Teachers in the Secondary Education Sector by Province, 2000-01 and 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

5.8.6 Gender Parity Index for Youth Literacy

(See Sections 3.7.1 and 4.7.2)

5.8.7 Gender Parity for Adult Literacy

(See Sections 4.7.1 and 4.7.2)

5.8.8 Gender Parity Index for GER in ECCE

(See Section 1.7.1)

5.8.9 Gender Parity Index for Gross Admission Rate in Primary Education

(See Section 2.7.1)

5.8.10 Gender Parity Index for Net Admission Rate in Primary Education

(See Section 2.7.2)

5.8.11 Gender Parity Index for Gross Enrollment Rate in Primary Education

(See Section 2.7.3)

5.8.12 Gender Parity for Gross Enrollment Rate in Secondary Education

(See Section 2.7.4)

5.8.13 Gender Parity Index for Net Enrollment Rate in Primary Education

(See Section 2.7.5)

5.8.14 Gender Parity Index for Net Enrollment Rate in Secondary Education

(See Section 2.7.6)

5.8.15 Gender Parity Index for Survival Rate to Grade Five

(See Section 2.7.12)

5.8.16 Gender Parity Index for Transition Rate between Primary and Lower Secondary Education

(See Section 3.7.3)

5.8.17 Gender Parity Index for Transition Rate between Lower Secondary School and Upper Secondary School

(See also Section 3.7.4)

5.8.18 Percent of Female and Male Repetition at Primary and Secondary Levels

(See also Sections 2.7.7 to 2.7.11 for Primary Repetition Rates)

Repeating students represents a significant source of inefficiency or wastage of educational resources. As noted earlier, repetition represents a reduction in the desired output, which is promoted students. That reduction leads to inefficiency and increased cost per output unit. When there is repetition, spaces in school are occupied by repeaters, affecting the access to education by other students. This in turn increases the burden on teachers by augmenting classroom overcrowding and learning differences between students because of overage enrolment for any particular grade level. Female repetition rates considered across regions can indicate patterns in the barriers to promotion that may be due to the quality of instruction, teacher availability, attendance, examinations, and other possible factors. Comparisons of repetition rates between males and females may help to highlight any significant gender disparities that need attention.

National Level Data on Repetition by Sex:

Primary Education, Females

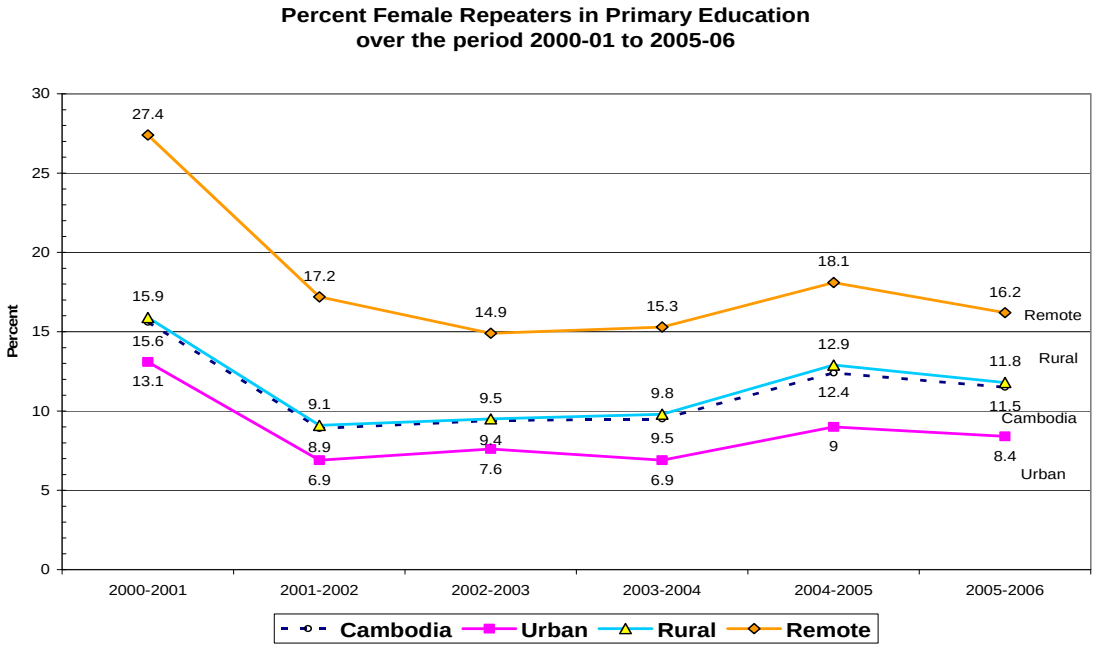
For repetition in Primary Education, discussed above in Chapter 2 for Grades 1 to 5, we found that female repetition was generally lower than that of males. When national, urban, rural, and remote rates for primary level repetition are viewed together, we see generally declining rates of female repetition rates over time (see Table 5.8/Figure 5.14). The national rate for the percentage of female repeaters has dropped from 15.6% in 2000-01 to 11.5% in 2005-06, a drop of 4.1 percentage points. The urban rate dropped 4.7 percentage points to a rate in 2005-06 of 8.4%. The rural rate followed the national rate very closely, falling from 15.9% to 11.8%, or a drop of 4.1% over the period. The largest drop was registered in remote areas, where the rate in 2000-01 was 27.4% but had slid to 16.2% in 2005-06, or a decline of 11.2%.

Table 5.8: Percentage of Female Primary Repeaters by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	15.6	13.1	15.9	27.4
2001-2002	8.9	6.9	9.1	17.2
2002-2003	9.4	7.6	9.5	14.9
2003-2004	9.5	6.9	9.8	15.3
2004-2005	12.4	9.0	12.9	18.1
2005-2006	11.5	8.4	11.8	16.2

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 5.14: Trend Changes in Female Repetition at Primary by Demographic Area, 2000-01to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

The disparities between demographic areas are also evident and these can be seen clearly in Figure 5.14. In remote areas, the percent of female repeaters at primary level was just less than double the rate in the urban areas. The need for major reductions in repetition in the early grades, especially in remote areas, is urgent to assure equity of access to quality basic education for all Cambodian children.

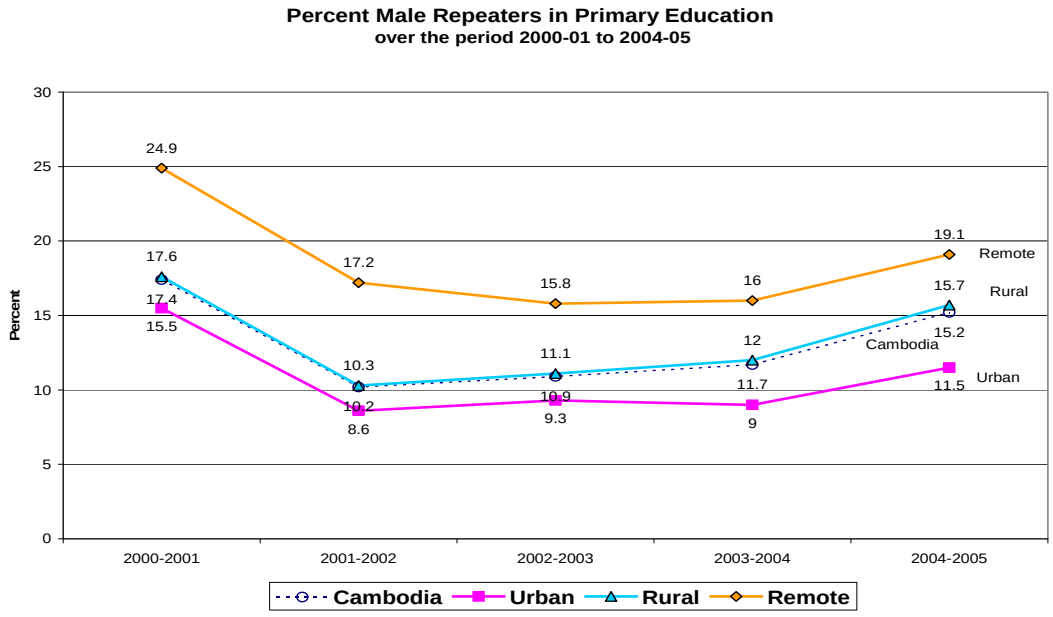
Primary Education, Males

Patterns of decline in primary level repetition are also evident for males, much as they are for females. Nevertheless, female rates are generally one to three percentage points below male rates. Nationwide the male repetition rate dropped from 17.4% in 2000-01 to 15.2% in 2004-05, a drop of 2.2%, whereas the female rate dropped 4.2 % points in that same period (see Table 5.9). Male children show the identical slight upward trend for the year 2004-05 that was also evident in the female rates for that year (see Figure 5.15). This anomalous but consistent pattern suggests a uniform influence nationwide that affected both males and females in all areas of the country. This could refer to a policy decision, weather conditions that affected the harvest and school attendance, or some other factor that is as yet undetermined.

Table 5.9: Percentage of Male Primary Repeaters by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	17.4	15.5	17.6	24.9
2001-2002	10.2	8.6	10.3	17.2
2002-2003	10.9	9.3	11.1	15.8
2003-2004	11.7	9.0	12.0	16.0
2004-2005	15.2	11.5	15.7	19.1
2005-2006	--	--	--	--

Figure 5.15: Trend Changes in Male Repetition at Primary by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Lower Secondary Education, Females

The rates for female repetition at the national level in lower secondary education show some unexpected trends. All regions show a recent decline in the percentage of female repeaters with a surge

in repetition reported in 2002-03, which was probably due to the availability of funding for remedial classes for schools to help solve repetition problems (see Table 5.10/Figure 5.16). However, there is an unexpected reversal of the trend for female repetition from what we observed at the primary Level. In lower secondary education, the percent of urban female repeaters is higher than the rates in rural areas, and the percentage of female repeaters in remote areas is much lower than for other demographic areas. The increased level of repetition among females in urban areas at lower secondary level compared to rural and remote areas is unlikely to be due to poorer quality of instruction in the urban areas compared to the rural and remote areas.

One likely explanation is that there are systematic and increased cost barriers in towns associated with successful promotion in lower secondary schools. The costs of extra tuition, extra study materials and examination expenses come to mind as possible sources of costs that increase for lower secondary students over what are usual for primary level students. It is also possible that standards for promotion are higher and that assessment methods are more valid and reliable in urban areas where teachers generally have higher levels of education and experience in teaching. All of this is only speculation, however, suggesting the need for further research.

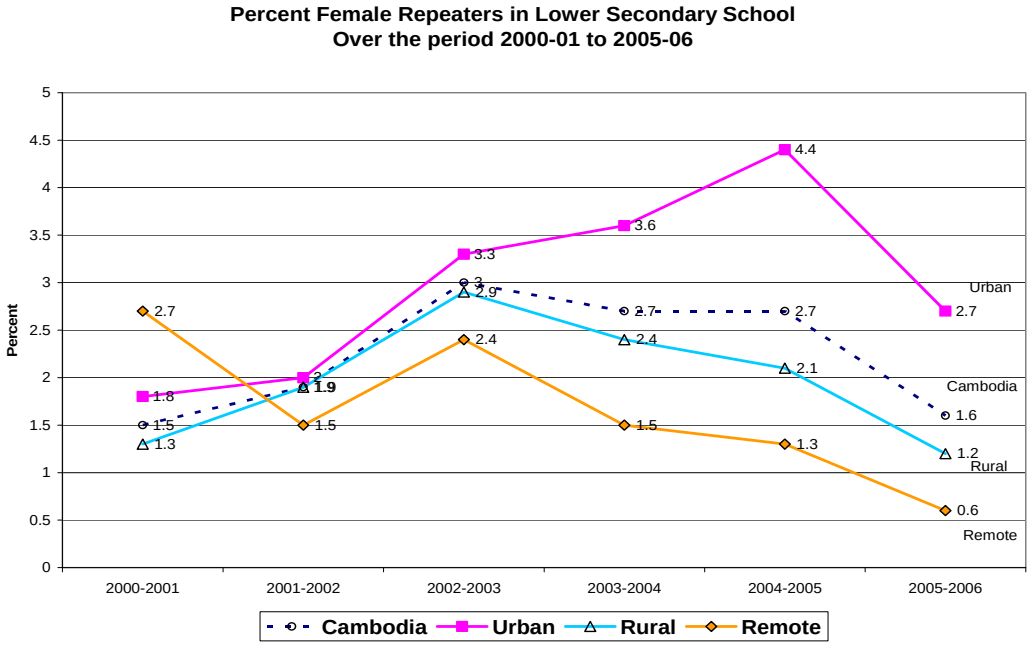
That being said, the absolute percent of female repeaters in lower secondary level is quite low. In 2005-06, the urban lower secondary schools reported that only 2.7% of girls repeated; rural lower secondary schools reported a rate of 1.2% while remote lower secondary schools reported a rate of only 0.6%. The national average was 1.6% female repeaters in lower secondary schools.

Table 5.10: Percentage of Female LSS Repeaters by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	1.5	1.8	1.3	2.7
2001-2002	1.9	2.0	1.9	1.5
2002-2003	3.0	3.3	2.9	2.4
2003-2004	2.7	3.6	2.4	1.5
2004-2005	2.7	4.4	2.1	1.3
2005-2006	1.6	2.7	1.2	0.6

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 5.16: Trend Changes in Female Repetition at Lower Secondary School Level by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Lower Secondary Education, Males

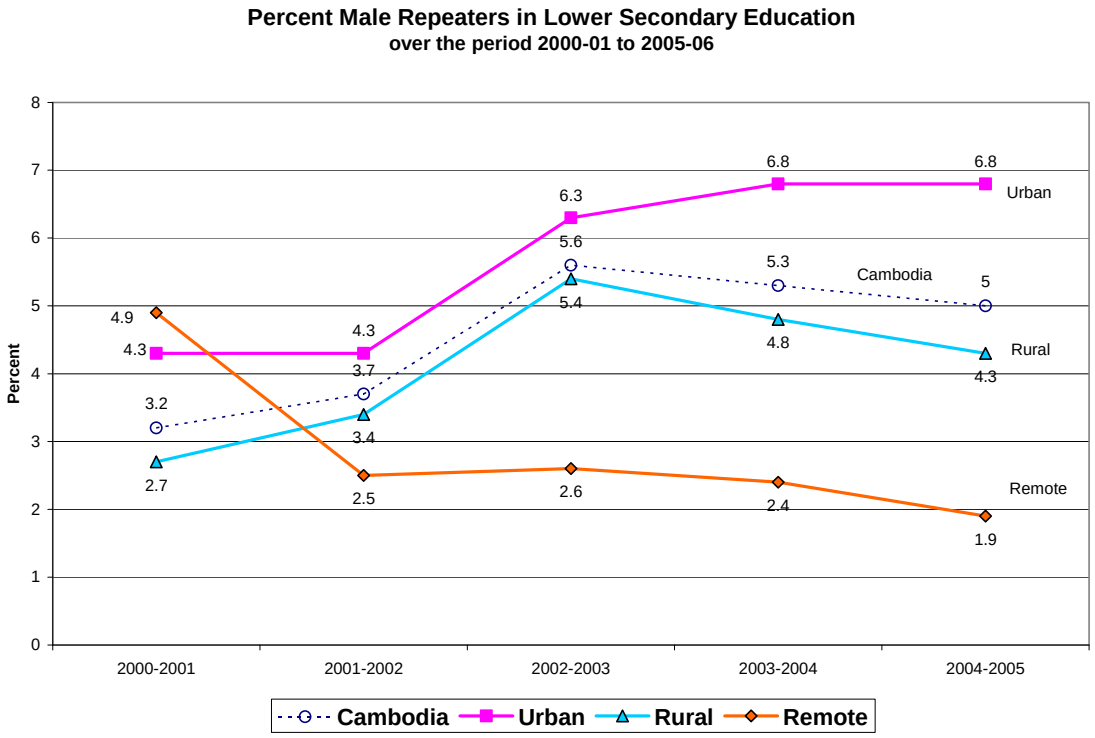
Male trends for repetition are nearly similar to those observed for females at lower secondary school level, again with male rates slightly elevated overall by a few percentage points, as was also true at primary level. This speaks in particular to higher urban rates of repetition than was true of rural and remote ones (see Table 5.11/Figure 5.16). Whatever the cause for the dramatically lower level of repeaters in rural and remote areas in lower secondary schools, it appears to have affected males and females in the same way. In addition, it was observed that repetition rates among males also experienced a transitory surge in 2002 with a slight lessening in repetition levels thereafter but which still exceeded rates seen in 2001. It should be noted, too, that data for male repetition is not available for 2005-2006. Accordingly, we cannot know if the male repetition rates follow the same trend for female ones where they drop suddenly and precipitously from levels seen in 2004-05.

Table 5.11: Percentage of Male LSS Repeaters by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	3.2	4.3	2.7	4.9
2001-2002	3.7	4.3	3.4	2.5
2002-2003	5.6	6.3	5.4	2.6
2003-2004	5.3	6.8	4.8	2.4
2004-2005	5.0	6.8	4.3	1.9
2005-2006	--	--	--	--

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 5.16: Trend Changes in Male Repetition at Lower Secondary School Level by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2004-05



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2004-05

Upper Secondary Education, Female

The data for upper secondary schools does not include remote area schools early in the decade because there were no such facilities in operation until 2004-05 in areas considered remote by

EMIS. The data for female repeaters in upper secondary schools reverts back to the expected pattern seen at primary level in which urban rates are considerably lower than rural ones (see Table 5.12). Overall, there is a downward trend in the incidence of repetition among females. The national repetition rate among females in 2000-01 was 2.7%, which, by 2005-06, had declined to 2%. Urban rates declined from 2.4% to 1.5% over the period, while rural rates declined from 3.4% in 2000-01 to 2.6% in 2005-06.

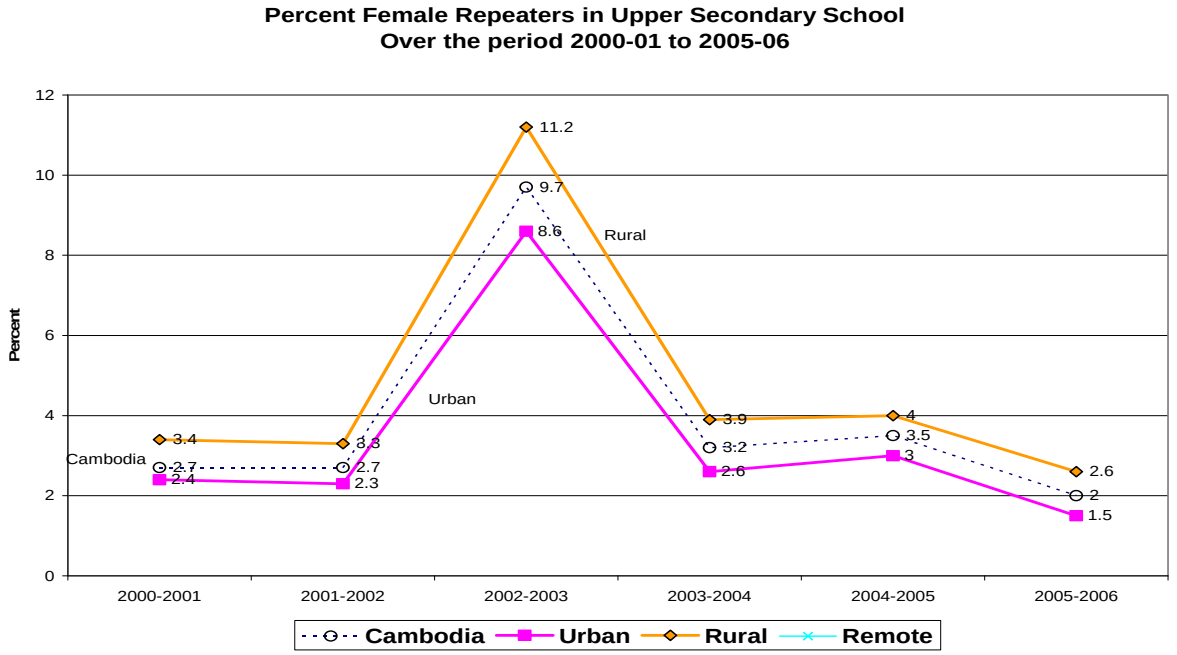
The Ministry policy initiative in 2002-03 to provide funds to schools to provide remedial courses for repeaters had a dramatic effect on reported repetition in upper secondary schools. Under the policy, the more repetition reported, the more funds received. In that year, the national level peaked at 9.7%, while the urban and rural rates peaked at 8.6% and 11.2%, respectively (see Figure 5.17). These reported rates are all about three and a half times the level of the previous year. Such findings reveal the sensitivity of schools, nationwide, to policy changes that introduce opportunities to increase funding at schools.

Table 5.12: Percentage of Female USS Repeaters by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural
2000-2001	2.7	2.4	3.4
2001-2002	2.7	2.3	3.3
2002-2003	9.7	8.6	11.2
2003-2004	3.2	2.6	3.9
2004-2005	3.5	3.0	4.0
2005-2006	2.0	1.5	2.6

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 5.17: Trend Changes in Female Repetition at Upper Secondary School Level by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Upper Secondary Education, Male

The trends for male repetition in upper secondary education once again mirror the trends for females very closely, but with a slight elevation of male rates by a couple of percentage points (see Table 5.13/Figure 5.18). The dramatic spike in the percentage of repeaters in 2002-03 seen for female repeaters is also seen for males. This once again probably reflects the policy decision to

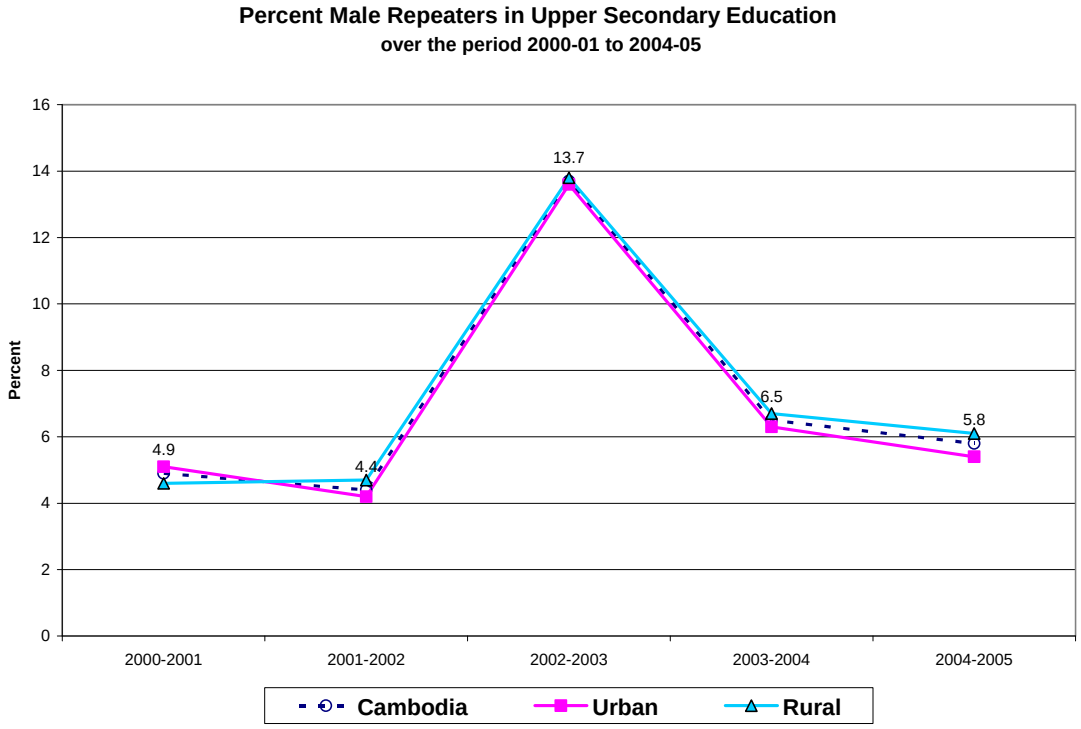
introduce remedial classes for repeaters, which encouraged schools to pad their reported figures. The ability of schools to increase repetition rates in response to incentives highlights the complexity of the problem and the limitations of policy to address it.

Table 5.13: Percentage of Male USS Repeaters by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural
2000-2001	4.9	5.1	4.6
2001-2002	4.4	4.2	4.7
2002-2003	13.7	13.6	13.8
2003-2004	6.5	6.3	6.7
2004-2005	5.8	5.4	6.1
2005-2006	--	--	--

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 5.18: Trend Changes in Male Repetition at Upper Secondary School Level by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2004-05



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2004-05

Provincial Level Data on Repetition by Sex:

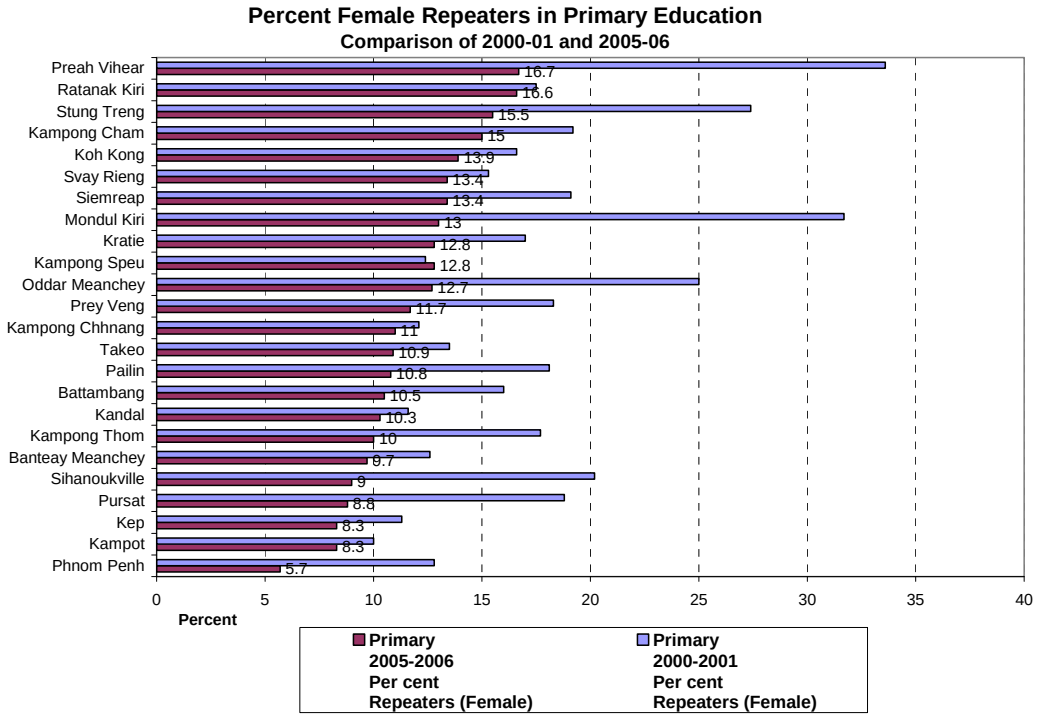
Primary Education

All provinces except one showed a reduction in the percentage of female repeaters in primary schools from 2000-01 to 2005-06. Kampong Speu, the exception, had a very slight increase of 0.4% over the period. Several provinces showed dramatic improvements by reducing the percentage of female repeaters by 10% or more (see Figure 5.19). For example, the rate of female repetition in Pursat dropped by 10% while Sihanoukville dropped by 11.2% over the period. In the remote provinces, the improvements were even more striking, considering the difficult circumstances under which teachers must work. In Stung Treng, female repetition dropped by 11.9%; in Oddar Meanchey, the drop over the period was 12.3%; in Preah Vihear, the drop was 16.9%; and finally in Mondul Kiri the drop was an astounding 18.7%.

The disparities between provinces are also evident In this respect, Preah Vihear with a female repetition rate of 16.7% and Ratanakiri with a rate of 16.6% have rates nearly three times that of Phnom Penh, which reported a repetition rate of only 5.7%. Great progress has been made over the period to reduce extremely high rates of female repetition, especially in remote provinces, but much more needs to be done to assure greater equity among provinces of the country.

Provincial level data for male repeaters are not currently available in EMIS.

Figure 5.19: Change in Female Repetition at Primary Level by Province and Sex, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

Lower Secondary Education

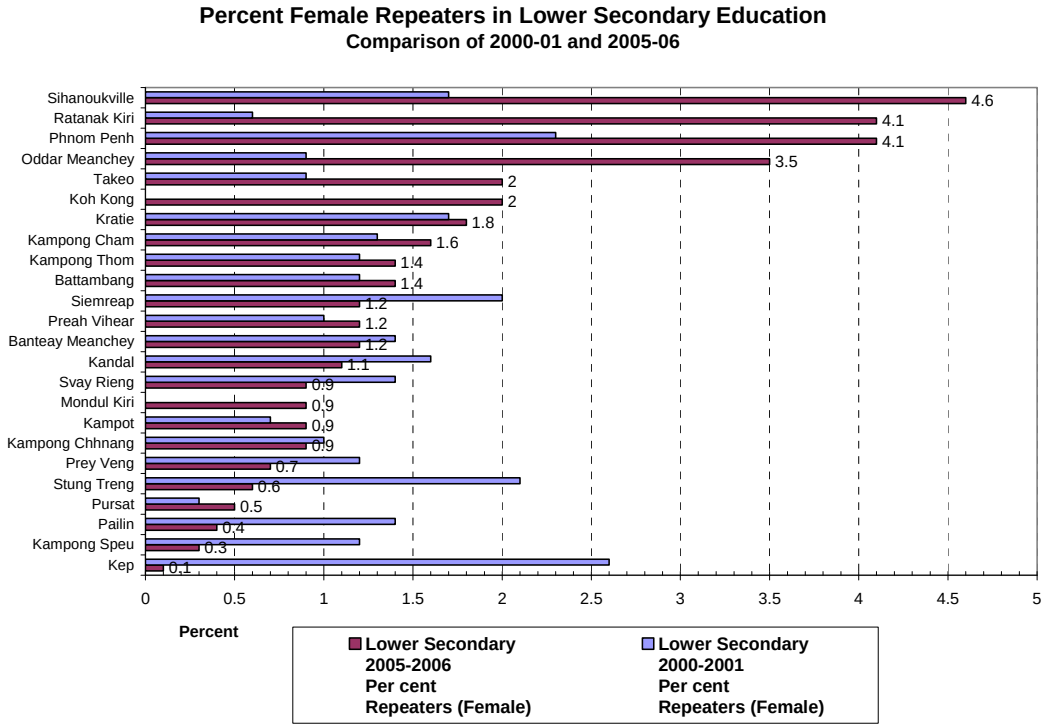
As noted in the discussion of national level repetition rates, the magnitude of female repetition at lower secondary school level is small, which raises some questions about the validity of evaluation practices and whether reported repetition rates can be taken at face value. These issues aside, it was reported that the highest repetition rates among females in 2005-06 are found in Sihanoukville, with a rate of 4.6%, Ratanakiri and Phnom Penh, each with a rate of 4.1%, and Oddar Meanchey with a rate of 3.5% (see Figure 5.20). The rates reported by these provinces are all over double the national average, which for 2005-06 was 1.6%.

What is troubling about female repetition rates in these provinces is that not only are they well over the national average but also, their rates have been steadily increasing since 2000. That is, they are moving in the wrong direction. For example, the female repetition rates in Ratanakiri have increased over the period by 3.5% while in Sihanoukville they have increased by 2.9% and by 2.6% in Oddar Meanchey. Similarly, the rates in Koh Kong have increased by 2% over the period, and in Phnom Penh by 1.8%. On the other hand, many provinces have made reductions in their reported female repetition rates including Pailin (down by 1%), Stung Treng (down by 1.5%), and Kep (down by 2.5%). Indeed, Kep reported the lowest rate of female repetition at lower secondary school level in the nation (0.1%).

Why have some provinces shown progress in reducing female repetition while others have regressed. The answer is unlikely to be the quality of instruction. There are probably local patterns of

school policy that vary distinctly among provinces, and which more effective monitoring should be able to uncover and remedy.

Figure 5.20: Change in Female Repetition at Lower Secondary School Level by Province and Sex, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

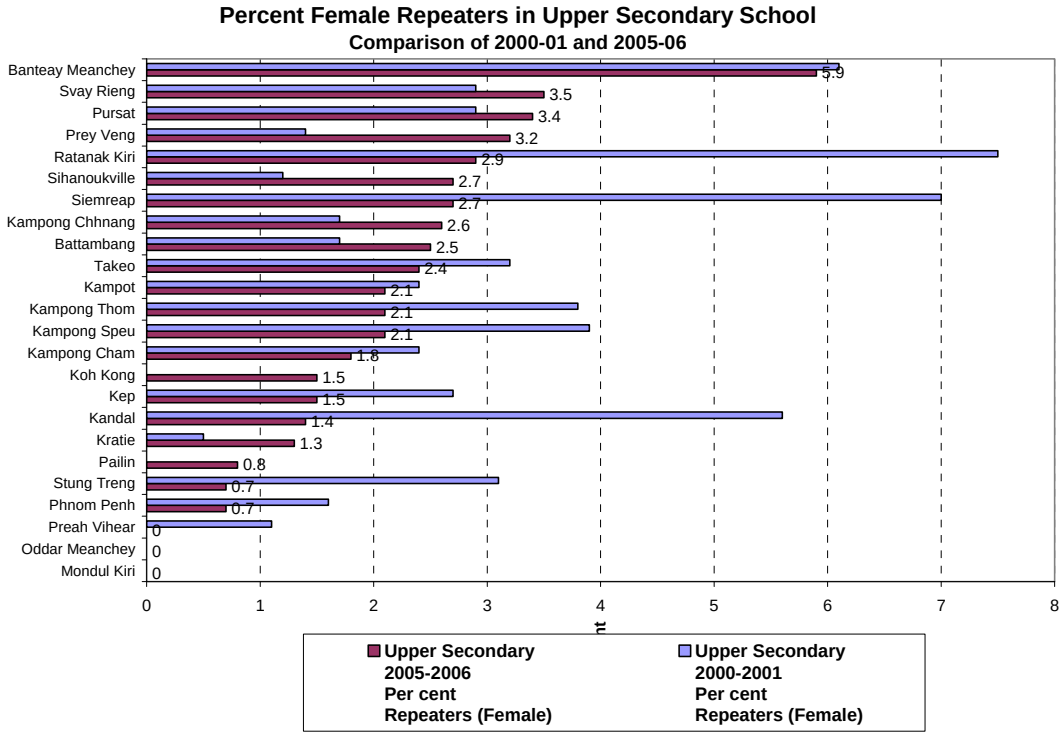
Upper Secondary Education

At upper secondary school level, nine of Cambodia's twenty-four provinces showed an increase in percent female repeaters in the comparison of rates in 2000-01 and 2005-06 (see Figure 5.21). The worst performers were Koh Kong, with an increase of 1.5% (from 0% in 2000-01 to 1.5% in 2005-06), Sihanoukville (with an increase of 1.5% from 1.2% in 2000-01 to 2.7% in 2005-06) and Prey Veng, with an increase of 1.8% (from 1.4% in 2000-01 to 3.2% in 2005-06).

On the other hand, several provinces made good progress during the period in reducing the rate of female repetition. The most dramatic drop was in Ratanakiri where the rate fell from 7.5% in 2000-01 to 2.9% in 2005-06, a fall of 4.6 percentage points. Siem Reap also showed good progress, with a fall from 7% in 2000-01 to 2.7% in 2005-06 while Kandal reported a decrease of 4.2% from 5.6% in 2000-01 to 1.4% in 2005-06. Finally, Stung Treng showed a reduction of 2.4%, Kampong Speu showed a reduction of 1.8% and Kampong Thom showed a reduction of 1.7%.

The disparity between the capital, Phnom Penh and most of the rest of the nation is also worth noting. In this regard, the percentage of female repeaters in Phnom Penh in 2005-06 was only 0.7%, a miniscule amount. In contrast, the female repetition rate in Banteay Meanchey was 5.9%, eight times higher than in the capital. The reasons for the extremely high rate of repetition among females in Banteay Meanchey should be investigated and remedied to bring its rate down to be more in line with the other provinces.

Figure 5.21: Change in Female Repetition at Upper Secondary School Level by Province and Sex, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06.

Chapter Six:
Quality Education

CHAPTER SIX: Quality Education

Improve all aspects of quality education and ensure best quality of all sectors so that recognized and measurable learning outcome is achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy, and essential life skills.

6.1 Introduction

Dakar Framework for Action Extended Text on Quality Education:

Quality is at the heart of education, and what takes place in classrooms and other learning environments is fundamentally important to the future well-being of children, young people and adults. A quality education is one that satisfies basic learning needs, and enriches the lives of learners and their overall experience of living.

Evidence over the past decade has shown that efforts to expand enrolment must be accompanied by attempts to enhance educational quality if children are to be attracted to school, stay there and achieve meaningful learning outcomes. Scarce resources have frequently been used for expanding systems with insufficient attention to quality improvement in areas such as teacher training and materials development. Recent assessments of learning achievement in some countries have shown that a sizeable percentage of children is acquiring only a fraction of the knowledge and skills they are expected to master. What students are meant to learn has often not been clearly defined, well-taught or accurately assessed.

Governments and all other EFA partners must work together to ensure basic education of quality for all, regardless of gender, wealth, location, language or ethnic origin. Successful education programmes require: (1) healthy, well-nourished and motivated students; (2) well-trained teachers and active learning techniques; (3) adequate facilities and learning materials; (4) a relevant curriculum that can be taught and learned in a local language and builds upon the knowledge and experience of the teachers and learners; (5) an environment that not only encourages learning but is welcoming, gender-sensitive, healthy and safe; (6) a clear definition and accurate assessment of learning outcomes, including knowledge, skills, attitudes and values; (7) participatory governance and management; and (8) respect for and engagement with local communities and cultures.

6.2 Main Programs Implemented in 2000-2006

Important programs that have sought to promote the improvement of classroom learning environments in the basic education sector are summarized in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1: Main Programs Implemented to Promote Quality Education, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Program Name	Partner	Details of implementation
Extended Basic Education Program (EBEP)	MoEYS/UNICEF /Sida	• On-going implementation since 2000 • This program provides technical and financial support to Ministry and cluster schools in 6 provinces.
Child-friendly School Initiative (CFSI)	UNICEF/Sida KAPE (under MoEYS CFS Steering Committee)	• Implementation of this project began in 2001 as a tri-partite agreement between MoEYS, UNICEF/Sida, and KAPE, a local NGO. • One of the key CFS objectives is to ensure all children learn well and achieve their best potential. • Activities aimed at quality improvement include: school readiness activities for grade one students; teacher training on child-centered teaching methods; and creation of optimum learning environments.
Basic Education Project	Save the Children Norway (SCN)	• Implemented in Kampong Cham, Phnom Penh, Kampong Chhnang, Siem Reap, and Pursat (on-going

Program Name	Partner	Details of implementation
		since 1991)
Basic Education in Reconciliation Areas	World Bank/ JSDF/ SCN	• 2001-03: Implemented in Siem Reap and Oddar Meanchey • 2003-05: Implemented in Preah Vihear
Child Friendly Secondary School Pilot (CFSS)	Secondary Education Dept/ UNICEF/Sida/ KAPE	• This project began in 2004 and has developed an implementation framework and Activity Menu that is specific to the secondary school context.
Educational Support to Children in Underserved Populations (ESCUP)	World Education/ KAPE (USAID)	• 2005 (-2008): Outreach activities to remote schools in Kampong Cham, Kratie, and Mondulkiri
Cambodia Basic Education Project (CBE)	Research Triangle Institute (USAID)	• Implemented between 2004 and 2007, this project established Curriculum Learning Standards that have been disseminated nationally and a framework for the implementation of the National Life Skills Policy.
Educational Quality Improvement Program (EQIP)	World Bank/MoEYS PIU	• Using a school grants approach, this project promoted decentralized school development models in 3 provinces (Kampot, Takeo, and Kandal).
Basic Education and Teacher Training (BETT)	Belgian Aid/VVOB	• Provides support for teacher training, health education, and construction in 3 provinces (Kg Cham, Siem Reap, and Oddar Meanchey)
Learning achievement test for Grades 3, 6, and 9	World Bank	National Assessment Test in Khmer and Mathematics.

6.3 Policies and Regulations Issued for the Sector in 2000-2006

The following policies and regulations were drafted and issued during the reporting period:

- Quality Standards and Indicators developed for ECCD, Basic Education, Life Skills, and Literacy in 2004-2006
- Monitoring and Inspection Policy and School Self-Assessment instruments, drafted in 2006 to promote decentralized support for quality education activities
- Child-Friendly School Policy drafted in 2006
- New Basic Education Curriculum (grade 1-9) issued in 2006
- Curriculum Standards for Grade 3, 6 and 9 issued in 2006

6.4 Departments & Ministries Involved with Working Group 6 (Quality of Education)

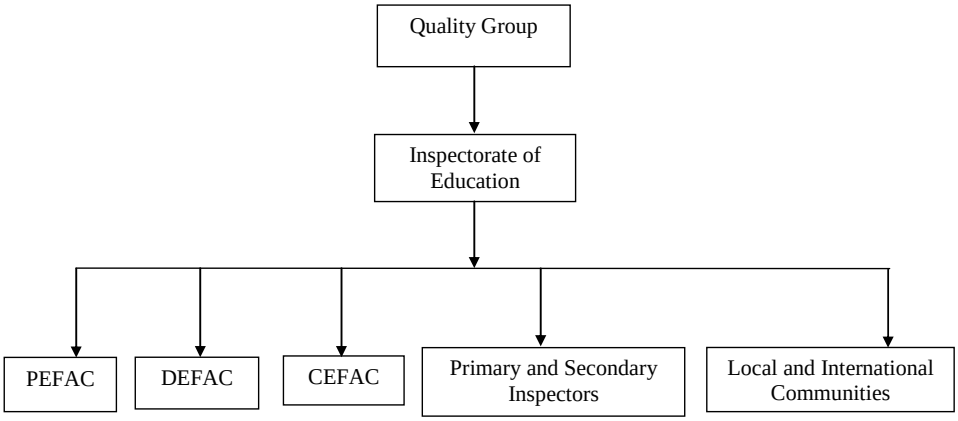
The following departments, Ministries, and working groups have been involved in promoting quality education during the reporting period.

- Quality Working Group
- Inspectorate of Education
- Primary School Inspectors
- Secondary inspector, and All technical departments of MoEYS
- Ministry of Women's Affairs
- Ministry of Culture and Fine Arts
- Ministry of Social Affairs, Veteran and Youth Rehabilitation
- Ministry of Agriculture, Fishery and Forest
- Ministry of Health
- Ministry of Information
- Ministry of Economics and Finance

- Council for the Development of Cambodia (CDC)
- Communities
- Local authorities
- NGOs and IOs
- EFA Committees at Provincial, district, and community level.

The Quality Education Group of the National EFA Secretariat has a very close working relationship with the Inspectorate, both at national and provincial level, as well as with EFA Committees at provincial, district, and commune levels. This relationship is summarized in Figure 6.1 below.

Figure 6.1: Organigram Summarizing Working Relationships between the EFA Quality Education Group, the Inspectorates, and EFA Committees at Local Level



6.5. Major Monitoring and Evaluation Activities Conducted in 2000-2006

In 2006-07, quality-monitoring activities were conducted with regard to ECCD, basic education, life skills, and literacy in selected provinces, districts, schools/institutions using specially developed Quality Standards and Indicators to assess performance in five component areas. These content areas and the findings for each during monitoring activities are summarized below.

6.5.1 Quality and Efficiency of ECCD

The monitoring and evaluation results for quality and efficiency monitoring of ECCD in Kompot, Kampong Cham, Takeo, Sihanuk Ville, Stung Streng, and Ratanakiri have been presented in Table 6.2 and Figures 6.2/6.3 below.

Table 6.2: Monitoring and Evaluation Results of Quality and Efficiency of ECCD Standards

Component	Content	Standard[20]	Provincial percentage of Each component (%)					
			Kompot	Kg.Cham	Takeo	S.Ville	Stung Treng	Ratanakiri
I	Goals, objectives and value included	1,2	74.10	65.40	81.40	64.30	58.80	61.00
II	ECCD, teachers, and care-taker standards	3,4,5	64.46	66.80	74.60	59.73	67.00	67.26
III	Community Orientation and participation	6,7,8	61.60	63.80	73.86	57.60	61.40	53.66
IV	managers and leaders standards	9	61.20	61.20	64.00	68.00	62.00	63.80
V	Facilitation standards	10	64.20	66.00	60.00	46.60	60.00	47.60
Total Percentage			**65.11**	**65.20**	**71.57**	**58.04**	**61.44**	**58.46**

Source: *Summary report of Monitoring and Evaluation of Quality and Efficiency of ECCD, Basic Education, Life Skills, and Literacy in Kompot, Kg. Cham, Takeo, Sihanuk Ville, Stung Treng, and Ratanakiri: Quality Education Working Group of EFA National Plan (February 2007)*

[20] Annex 1 Quality and Efficiency of ECCD

Figure 6.2: Scores for Quality and Efficiency in ECCD by Component for Selected Provinces

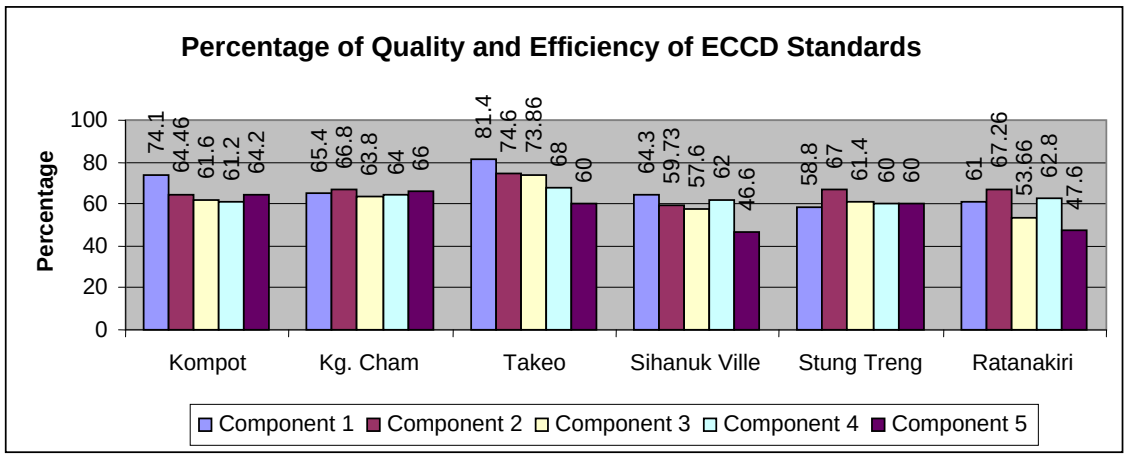
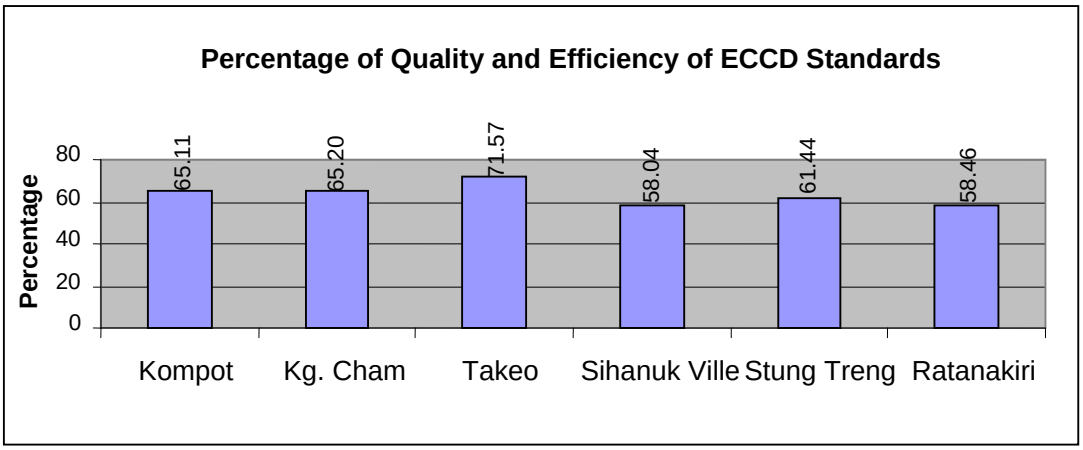


Figure 6.3: Overall Scores for Quality and Efficiency Standards for ECCD in Selected Provinces



Based on the results summarized in Table 6.2 and Figures 6.2/6.3, it would appear that most teachers in pre-school understand the policy and operational procedures required to serve ECCD programming. On the other hand, the participation from community, pre-school teachers, and mothers' networks to promote quality education is not yet satisfactory, mainly because of poverty. There is nevertheless good awareness of the need for improved health, disease-prevention, and nutrition in both remote provinces as well as in the lowlands and in coastal areas. Training levels of ECCD Care Takers was also found to be satisfactory.

The remote provinces, inhabited by ethnic minority groups who generally have lower knowledge of ECCD practices as well as poorer living standards, demonstrated more limited levels of communication between schools and families/parents in ECCD. Transportation of children to ECCD facilities is also difficult in these areas.

Survey results also indicated that most pre-school managers are capable of managing and leading technical, administrative, and caring activities in ECCE as well as high levels of accountability in their management roles. Although classroom environments in some pre-schools are rather good, out-of-class environments were rated medium to poor because school managers have not been adequately creative in improving environments to make them attractive to children.

Corrective Actions Needed:

- Schools, communities, local authorities, school boards and teachers need to improve cooperation and participation in school development planing, clear policy implementation, and production/usage of teaching materials. They also need to improve pre-school enrollment, especially poor children and those from minority ethnic groups.

- Teachers need to improve guidance of students in the following areas: (i) using play materials/tools correctly and safely; (ii) monitoring children in games, general activities, and personal hygiene like hand-washing before and after eating, teeth/mouth cleaning; (iii) maintaining clean living environments to avoid mosquitoes, bad smells, and stuffy atmospheres.
- Schools keep statistics of students and families as well as appropriate community-based support services that should be provided. Families should be actively requested to cooperate in the provision of these services (e.g., physical/mental health, oral hygiene, nutrition, and well being). Schools and parents should work more on special education, prescribe services, and meet local needs such as immediate interventions and fund provision for child-care.
- Teachers should cooperate closely with parents in order to help children keep clean.
- Schools should improve clean water systems, improve the availability of materials and equipment designed for children, train female pre-school teachers on materials production and educational games, and continue to encourage female teachers and parents/guardians who have good work in pre-school, to take all children to get protective medicine.
- Schools, communities, local authorities, and parents should cooperate to monitor and evaluate regularly quality materials produced by teachers and improve environment appropriately (e.g., gardens, fences, gates, and equipment designed for children).

Quality and Efficiency of Basic Education

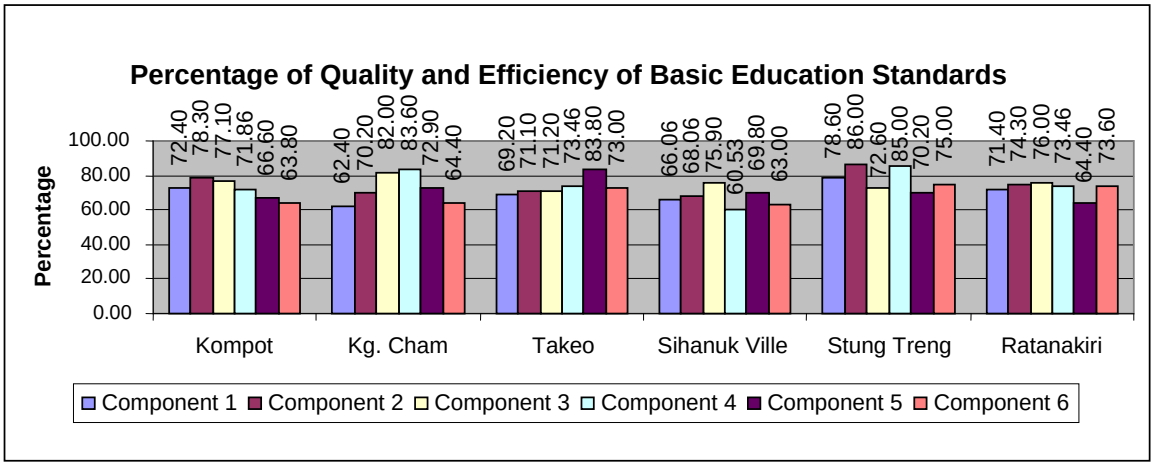
The monitoring and evaluation results for quality and efficiency monitoring of Basic Education in Kompot, Kampong Cham, Takeo, Sihanuk Ville, Stung Streng, and Ratanakiri have been presented in Table 6.3 and Figures 6.4/6.5 below.

Table 6.3: Monitoring & Evaluation Results of Quality and Efficiency of Basic Education Standards

Component	Content	Standard[21]	Provincial percentage of Each component (%)					
			Kompot	Kg Cham	Takeo	S.Ville	StTreng	Ratanakiri
I	Goal and objective	1	72.40	62.40	69.20	66.06	78.60	71.40
II	Student standard	2,3,4,5,6,7	78.30	70.20	71.10	68.06	86.00	74.30
III	Teacher standard	8,9	77.10	82.00	71.20	75.90	72.60	76.00
IV	Principal standard	10,11,12	71.86	83.60	73.46	60.53	85.00	73.46
V	Social orientation and community participation	13	66.60	72.20	83.80	69.80	70.20	64.40
VI	Facilities	14	63.80	64.40	73.00	63.00	75.00	53.60
Total Percentage			**71.61**	**72.46**	**73.62**	**67.22**	**77.90**	**68.86**

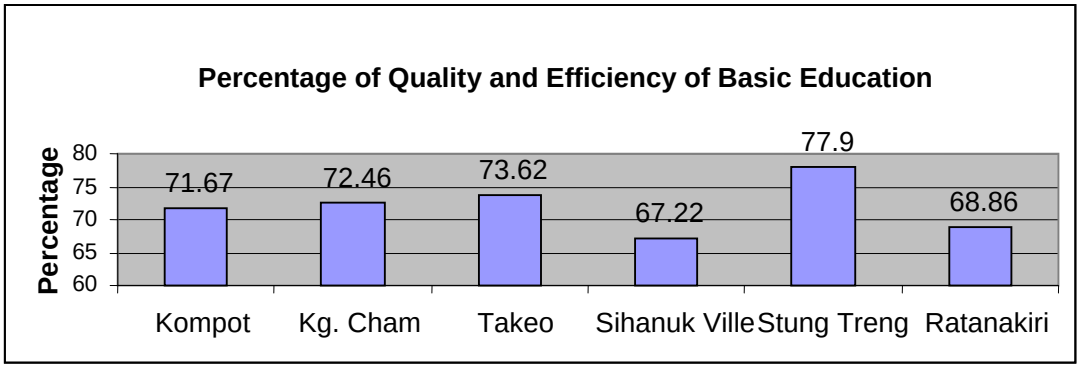
Source: *Summary report of Monitoring and Evaluation of Quality and Efficiency of ECCD, Basic Education, Life Skills, and Literacy in Kompot, Kg. Cham, Takeo, Sihanuk Ville, Stung Treng, and Ratanakiri: Quality Education Working Group of EFA National Plan (February 2007)*

Figure 6.4: Scores for Quality & Efficiency in Basic Education by Component for Selected Provinces



[21] Annex 2: Quality and Efficiency of Basic Education

Figure 6.5: Overall Scores for Quality & Efficiency Standards for Basic Education in Selected Provinces



Monitoring activities indicate that after sophisticated lessons, students know how to obey monks, practice the advice of their parents, guardians, and elders, help friends, keep honest, and be responsible for themselves. Monitoring teams also found that the quality of learning, knowledge, and skills is good and responds to flexible programming needs in local areas. The working capacity of schools is also very good leading to satisfactory quality of skills, knowledge and practice. For coastal areas, learners spend a great deal of time in income generation by fishing and sometimes neglect their own health. Other income generation activities that distract students include burning resin (in remote areas). There is not enough focus on out of the classroom research or health care practices, (both physical and mental). For Ratanakiri in the Northeast, there are serious difficulties in transportation and communication, especially in minority areas; people in these areas do not know much about health care. On the other hand, survey teams found that there is adequate focus on arts and sports and that most teachers, students, and communities recognized the need for participation in these activities because they promote national culture.

Based on data for Standards 8 and 9, it was found that teachers were able to conduct teaching and learning effectively through student-centered methods. The quality of teachers' professional standards was also found to be very good.

The management and leadership found in schools ranged from good to very good though this varies considerably from to province. In order to make progress, schools were found to have flexible planning strategies in all areas, cooperate with local authorities, communities, and teachers, and are conscious of the need to work for democracy and gender awareness.

Monitoring teams also found that there is good cooperation between local educational authorities and national/international organizations. This includes cooperation in improving enrolment, communicating regularly with parents about students' performance, and the need for improvements in schools. NGOs and IOs cooperate in data collection activities as well as providing support to schools, especially in Kampong Cham, Kampot, Ratanakiri, and Sihanoukville.

Corrective Actions Needed:

- School principals and teachers need to monitor students' performance more often, especially Maths and Khmer Language.
- Improve learning capacity for Khmer and Maths and make arrqangements to help slow learners in class.
- Increase the availability of library materials to facilitate research by students and teachers.
- Teachers need to enhance student-centered methods in teaching and learning and always encourage students through on-ongoing assessment.
- Before assigning subjects, grades, or multi-grade roles to teachers, the school director should check teacher's capacity to avoid inefficient teaching.
- Deploy more teachers to disadvantaged and remote schools.

- Give salary on time.
- Promote a good relationship and good cooperation between parents, community, and schools.
- Give information about students' performance regularly to parents or guardians.
- Give more advice and support to parents/guardians regarding the education of their children at home.
- In every important meeting, managers, teachers, NGOs, and OIs should be invited to develop schools.
- Schools should focus more on implementing activities like clean water systems and latrines, , especially for female students.

6.5.3 Quality and Efficiency of Life Skills

The monitoring and evaluation results for quality and efficiency monitoring of Life Skills in Kompot, Kampong Cham, Takeo, Sihanuk Ville, Stung Streng, and Ratanakiri have been presented in Table 6.4 and Figures 6.6/6.7 below.

Table 6.4: Monitoring & Evaluation Results of Quality and Efficiency of Life Skills Standards

Components	Content	Standards	Percentage of each component in the provinces (%)					
			Kompot	Kg.Cham	Takeo	Sihanouk	StungTreng	Ratanakiri
I	Students – Study results	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	54.44	54.84	61.44	59.32	55.40	54.64
II	Trainers	6	66.60	85.00	83.40	76.20	52.40	75.00
III	Inclusive resource	7, 8, 9, 10, 11	73.28	79.92	72.68	77.08	59.40	58.60
Total percentage			**64.77**	**73.25**	**72.50**	**70.86**	**55.73**	**62.74**

Source: Summary report of the monitoring and evaluation results on quality and efficiency of Early Childhood Education, Basic Education, Life Skills, and Literacy in Kompot, Kompong Cham, Takeo, Sihanouk Ville, Stung Treng, Ratanakiri: Quality working groups of National Education For All Committee (February 2007).

Figure 6.6: Scores for Quality & Efficiency in Life Skills by Component for Selected Provinces

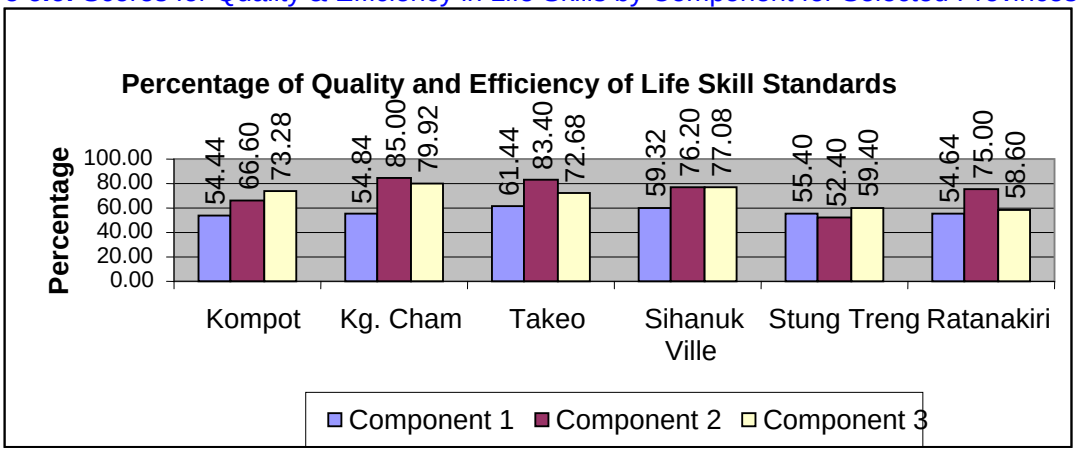
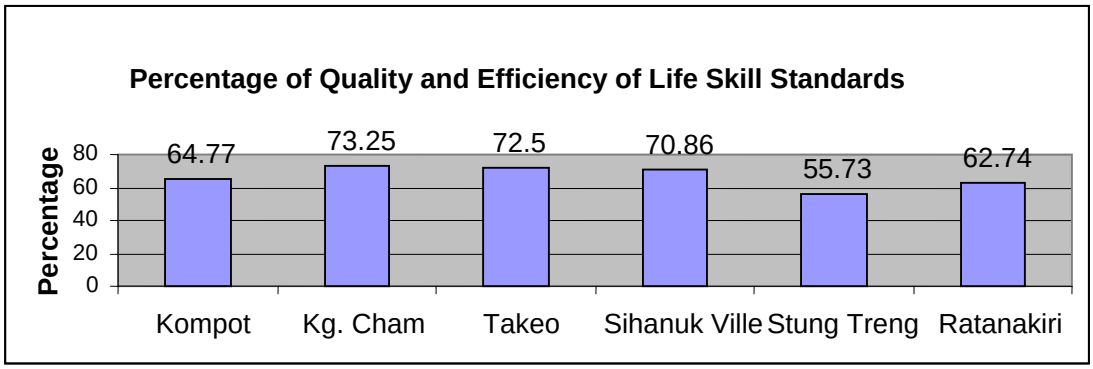


Figure 6.7: Overall Scores for Quality & Efficiency Standards in Life Skills in Selected Provinces



Assessments for life skills and vocational training covered only three component areas. In general, the data indicates that most students respect and understand individuals based on their age, family/society roles. In Kompot, the ability of most students to develop family economy and do personal planning was very good. Other provinces did not fare as well on this standard because students completing life skills training do not have any experience in developing personal and family income plans. Although most provinces did well on the standard of using local technology as a life skill, Ratanakiri scored more poorly due to issues relating to low income and poor safety standards. Knowledge of first aid practices in the province was particularly low, due perhaps to different customs embraced by minority groups. Assessment teams also reported good scores on harmonization between communication in the family/society and values and ethics of people in general.

It was also reported that there is a high rate of employment among students who complete life skills training courses. Nevertheless, scores in Stung Treng were not as good in this respect due to lower literacy and the fewer number of students as well as a lack of teaming materials.

Assessment teams also reported that management skills of those in charge of training institutes (including staff development, reporting, and budget management) were very good.

Assessments of simple vocational training courses were generally good because the available equipment is both appropriate and adequate for the number of students being trained. It was also reported that teaching materials help to achieve the objective of the lessons and there is good cooperation with national and international organizations, communities, students' parents, and guardians. This speaks particularly to the building of training centers and strong encouragement to students to complete their training courses.

Corrective Actions Needed:

- Training institutes need to focus more on promoting equality and equity of the roles between men and women in life skills education.
- Improve on disseminating knowledge of the dangers and negative consequences of drugs, weapons, and sex trafficking in the community.
- Develop and disseminate documents on family planning and easy life skills to target groups in the remote areas.
- Construct more dormitories for youth, especially females whose homes are far away..
- Monitor and evaluate the achievement of students who have been trained so as to find the weaknesses in training courses/curriculum.
- Strengthen and promote the career of the students who have completed the training course to ensure the stability through providing credit or loan.
- Improve the environment of the centers to make them safe and attractive and equip them with enough equipment, which is suitable to the development of local technology, human resources, and training documents.
- Increase other skills in the centers to meet the needs of the youth in the community in order to increase their effectiveness.
- Promote the relationship with national and international organizations so as to increase funding support for materials and equipment. This will help to enhance a balance between the instruction of theory and practice for students.
- Disseminate information to the community about the usefulness of vocational training.
- Expand the training centers for more students.
- Centers need renovations and improved maintenance in order to make them more learner friendly.
- Report the evaluation results of each course more thoroughly.

6.5.4 Quality and Efficiency of Non-Formal Education

The monitoring and evaluation results for quality and efficiency monitoring of Non-Formal Education in Kompot, Kampong Cham, Takeo, Sihanuk Ville, Stung Streng, and Ratanakiri have been presented in Table 6.5 and Figures 6.8/6.9 below.

Table 6.5: Monitoring & Evaluation Results of Quality and Efficiency of Non-formal Education Standards

Component	Meaning	Standard	Proportion of each province					
			Kompot	Kg.Cham	Takeo	Sih. Vil	Stung Treng	RatanaKiri
I	Equity and attendance	1,2	70.90	70.60	74.60	66.30	61.90	66.90
II	Learning Environment	3, 4, 5	67.46	66.13	74.60	66.00	63.73	65.13
III	Methods and re-sources	6, 7	67.20	62.30	61.40	59.50	50.60	55.70
IV	Community participa-tion	8, 9	66.00	78.80	77.50	65.00	53.30	49.50
V	Other teachers and educators	10, 11, 12	75.73	86.00	85.33	57.40	64.93	66.60
Total Percentage			**69.45**	**72.76**	**74.68**	**62.84**	**58.89**	**60.61**

Source: Summary report of the monitoring and evaluation results on quality and efficiency of Early Childhood Education, Basic Education, Life Skills, and Literacy in Kompot, Kompong Cham, Takeo, Sihanouk Ville, Stung Treng, Ratanakiri: Quality working groups of National Education For All Committee (February 2007).

Figure 6.8: Scores for Quality & Efficiency in Non-formal Education by Component for Selected Provinces

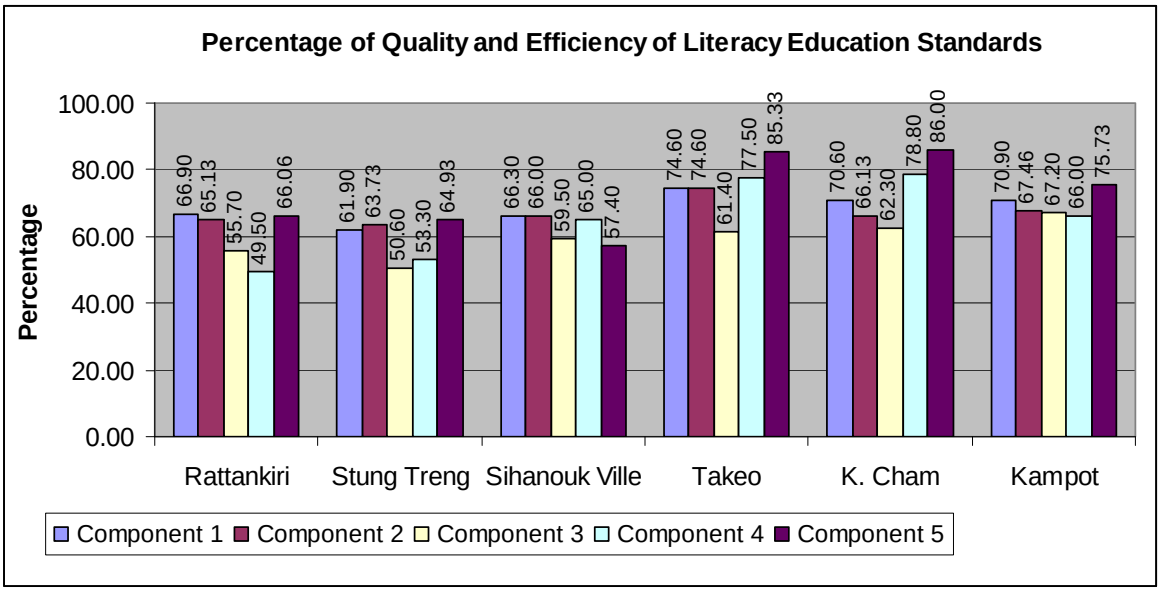
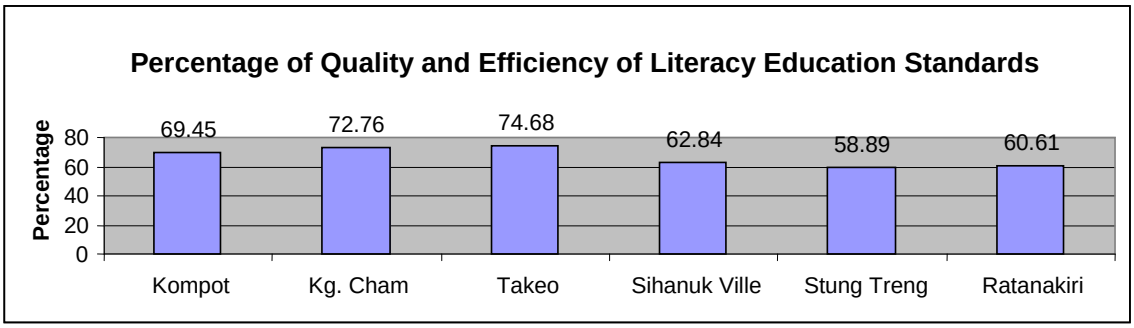


Figure 6.9: Overall Scores for Quality & Efficiency Standards in Non-formal Education in Selected Provinces



The diligence of literacy teachers, youth, and adults in literacy and vocational training was found to be satisfactory, Assessment teams found that provinces/municipalities offered literacy classes in local areas and during seasons in a way that did not interfere with the livelihoods of students. Teams also found that the literacy program is flexibly implemented. The curriculum includes topics

that focus on issues of every day life, health education, traffic rules, and the negative impacts of drug and domestic violence. The data showed that Stung Treng and Ratanak Kiri had achieved marginally satisfactory scores in operating literacy classes due to the lack of teaching materials. The quality of monitoring and evaluation of teaching was also only marginally satisfactory because of the variety of languages spoken by students of different ethnic backgrounds and difficult road condition. This was particularly true for female students.

Overall, assessments teams found that students had adequate understanding of personal and family hygiene. The overall quality of literacy classes was found to be very satisfactory because teachers use student centered approaches and materials available locally.

Teams also reported that literacy classes are mostly linked to community learning centers, i.e., they form a link between literacy and necessary life skills in the local community. In view of the voluntary nature of attendance of literacy classes and the use of local teachers, there appears to be strong local ownership of literacy classes and there

Finally, it was found that literacy teachers appear capable of undertaking their roles effectively and include life skills topics in their teaching. Teachers finished at least basic education and some teachers were primary teachers trained by PoE. In addition, it was found that many literacy classes are operated with the strong support of Local and International NGOs as well as local communities.

Corrective Actions Needed:

- Provide more financial support to volunteer literacy teachers.
- Data collection by local authorities should be better disaggregated by sex.
- Commune councils should allocate more funding for the recruitment and support of literacy teachers.
- Provide additional training on teaching methodology for literacy teachers as well as the production of teaching/learning materials using local materials.
- There should be more involvement from local authorities, District Offices of Education, and communities in monitoring and assisting literacy classes.
- Local authorities should provide additional financial support for the purchase of materials.
- Improve the awareness of commune leaders about the need for non-formal education, health, and life skills.
- Improve funding support from humanitarian organizations and NGOs for teaching materials and facilities.

6.5.5 Quality and Efficiency of Gender Mainstreaming

Because gender mainstreaming is a cross-cutting issue, it could not be assessed in the same way that other EFA sectors have been. Nevertheless, a review of reports and assessments from the Gender Working Group led to the performance scores for gender mainstreaming that are summarized in Figure 6.10 below.

The Gender Mainstreaming implementation methodology focuses on a number of different approaches including (i) information sharing (e.g., gender training workshops, production of films with NGO support); (ii) advocacy (e.g., development of action plans, developing promotional policy that eliminates gender bias, identifying gender role models, providing guidelines at schools that ensure that groups leaders are characterized by a balance between boys and girls, etc); (iii) reporting (e.g., disaggregating statistics by sex); and (iv) structural changes in the educational system (e.g., setting up Gender Committees at provincial level).

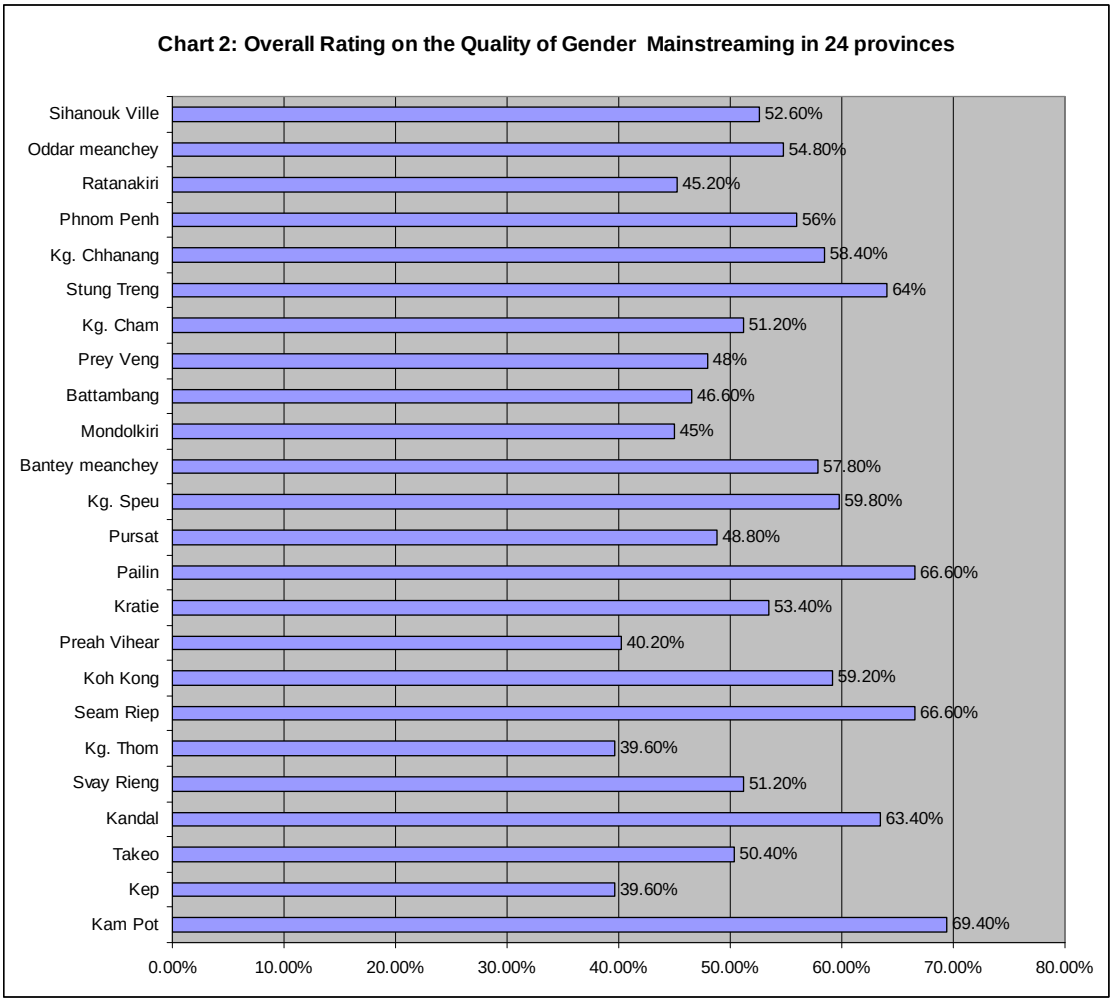
Strengths in Gender Mainstreaming implementation included the following:

- Extensive training on gender issues conducted at local level.
- The establishment of Gender Committees at central, provincial, district, and school levels.

- The development of education policy with gender components (e.g., in EFA National Plan, PAP planning, Gender Mainstreaming Strategic Plan 2002-2006 and 2006-201, etc.)
- Reduced levels of domestic violence, trafficking, etc.
- Introduction of affirmative action in personnel decisions
- Improved advocacy at all levels

Weaknesses in Gender Mainstreaming implementation included the following:
- PoE and DoE did not adequate budget and material to train on gender
- Gender parity indices on many indicators are still below parity
- Inadequate representation of women in management posts
- Limited monitoring and evaluation of gender mainstreaming
- Continuing attitudes that show gender bias
- Poor reporting on incidences of domestic violence, trafficking, etc.

Figure 6.10: Evaluation of Gender Mainstreaming Indicators in 24 Provinces



Corrective Actions Needed:
- Develop gender committees at central, PoE, DoE, and school level
- Disseminate gender issues more widely through media
- More effective gender mainstreaming in education and management
- Monitor and evaluate regularly the implementation and the result of gender mainstreaming
- Improved reporting on progress of gender mainstreaming
- More affirmative action in promotional decision-making
- Review curriculum for gender bias.
- Help students understand about gender starting from primary school level

- Provide clean water for students at all levels
- Build separate toilets for boys and girls.
- There is a need for further training on Gender awareness and Gender Mainstreaming to PoE, DoE, and schools and community.

Conclusion

Based on the assessment results described above, it would appear that the quality and effectiveness of gender mainstreaming in provinces and cities of target groups (e.g., director/ deputy-director of POE, and DOE) is satisfactory, if not excellent. A similar situation holds true for stakeholders at school level (e.g., teachers, students, school principals, local authorities, communities, and parents).

The assessment reports from selected provinces and cities demonstrate that there are still some shortcomings such as a lack of women in leadership and decision-making roles. In addition, policy implementation of the gender-mainstreaming program is hindered by a lack of budgetary resources. There has nevertheless been progress during the reporting period, which shows the careful efforts of educational leaders at central, provincial and district level as well as those of local authorities, communities, parents and other people throughout the country.

6.5.6 Quality and Efficiency of All Education Sectors

The monitoring and evaluation results for quality and efficiency monitoring of all education sectors in Kompot, Kampong Cham, Takeo, Sihanuk Ville, Stung Streng, and Ratanakiri have been presented in Table 6.6 and Figures 6.11/6.12 below.

Table 6.6: Monitoring & Evaluation Results of Quality and Efficiency of Standards in All Education Sectors in Selected Provinces

Sub-sector	% of Provincial Sub-Sector					
	Kompot	Kg. Cham	Takeo	Sihanouk	St.Treng	Ratanakiri
ECCD	65.11	65.20	71.57	58.04	61.44	58.46
Basic Education	71.67	72.46	73.62	67.22	77.90	68.86
Life Skills	64.67	73.25	72.50	70.86	55.73	62.74
Literacy	69.45	72.76	74.68	62.84	58.89	60.61
Overall Percentage	67.75	70.91	73.09	64.74	63.49	62.66

Figure 6.11: Scores for Quality & Efficiency in All Education Sectors by Component and Province

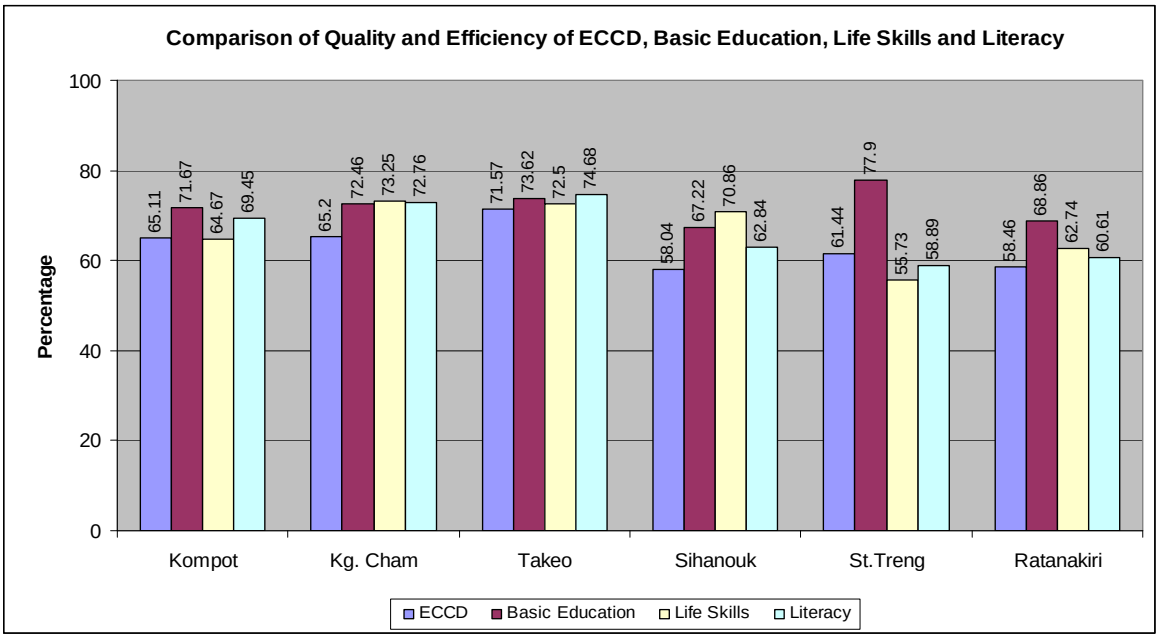
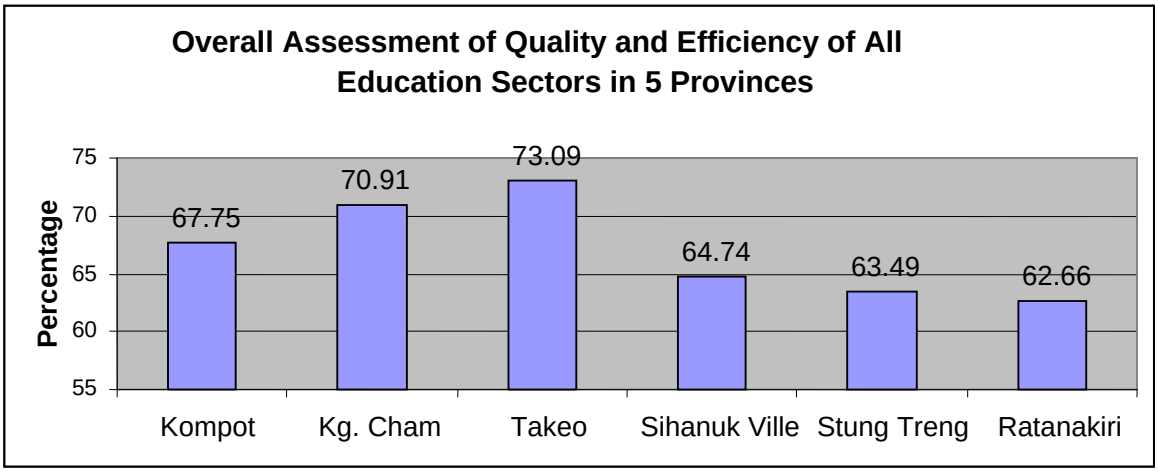


Figure 6.12: Overall Scores for Quality & Efficiency Standards in All Education Sector by Province



According to the assessment data on quality and efficiency in ECCE, Basic Education, Life Skills and Literacy in the 6 provinces, it would appear that performance measures are moving in the right direction. This outcome reflects the strenuous efforts and responsibilities of education leaders at all levels as well as stakeholders to make improvements in education. This suggests that Cambodia is making progress with quality indicators to achieve the goals set out in the EFA National Plan 2003-2015. However, there are still many challenges to address such as repetition, dropout, and low enrolment, especially among girls. These challenges are caused mainly by poverty, culture, and geography.

In order to hasten progress, it will be necessary to increase the participation from educational leaders at provincial and district level as well as stakeholders and development partners to cooperate more closely in improving education. Education helps children fully achieve their own potentials in awareness, excitement to learn, and creative activities.

6.6 Successes and Remaining Challenges in Implementation of EFA Goal

A. Major successes and achievements

- Sample-based standardized learning achievement test conducted for Grade 3 students in 2006
- School-self assessment system and tools began pilot implementation in 2007-08
- Child-friendly school initiatives implemented in 12 provinces

B. Challenges remaining to be overcome

- Data completion focusing on quality of education
- The awareness of monitoring and evaluation of education quality is still limited.
- Incomplete data sets are still common.
- Not enough representation of women in high positions and roles at all levels.
- Most students learn only some important subjects but pay less attention to others.
- Teaching and learning processes do not follow MoEYS guidelines.
- There is a serious shortage of classroom teachers.
- The participation of communities and parents in some provinces is not active.
- Facilities in some schools are not appropriate.
- The safety for female teachers and girls in some areas is not yet fully assured.
- There continue to be fewer female civil servants than men.
- Some women do not support other women
- PoE have inadequate funds for gender mainstreaming workshops.
- Unequal payment of females at office and school principal level.

- Pupil-teacher ratios in secondary schools in remote areas are lower than those in urban and rural areas.
- There are severe shortages of textbooks for all grade levels and subjects.
- Schools in remote areas lack clean water and sanitation (e.g., toilets).
- Educational levels among many teachers are still very limited with many reporting that they have only studied to lower secondary level. In addition, there are few opportunities for them to upgrade their educational credentials in difficult areas.
- Support and coordination from development partners are limited.

6.7 Quality and Efficiency of Education Analysis

6.7.1 Percentage of Primary School Teachers with Requisite Academic Qualifications

Teachers' academic qualifications, along with pre-service and in-service teacher training, correlate strongly and consistently with the scholastic performance of their pupils. The percentage of teachers with requisite academic qualifications reflects the general quality of the teaching force and the general quality of the scholastic performance that can be expected in their pupils.
The higher the percentage of primary school teachers having graduated from lower secondary school and upper secondary school, the better the quality of education these teachers can provide to their students, because they are academically better equipped to perform their teaching duties well.

Aside from academic qualifications and teacher training, the performance of teachers is also affected by other factors, such as personal work and life experience, the status of teachers in the locality and in the culture, the teaching methods and materials utilized, the conditions of the school and classroom, and the general poverty level of the community in which the school is set.

National Level Data on Academic Qualifications among Primary School Teachers:

Over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06, the proportion of primary school teachers with primary school qualifications has decreased in all areas, which is a consistent pattern seen throughout the Kingdom (see Table 6.7/Figure 6.13). The proportion of primary school teachers with lower secondary school qualifications has also decreased, while the proportion of primary school teachers with upper secondary qualifications has increased. Based on this overall national level assessment, much progress in raising the academic standards of teachers in primary education appears to have occurred over the reporting period.

The distinct trend from 2000-01 to 2005-06 for the Kingdom as a whole is, therefore, a very slow but steady reduction in the proportion of primary school teachers with only primary school level education (falling from 8.3% in 2000-01 to 6.5% in 2005-06). The proportion of teachers with only lower secondary school educations similarly declined from 75.4% in 2000-01 to 67.8% in 2005-06. Meanwhile, the proportion of primary school teachers with an upper secondary education has slowly increased over the period from 15.9% in 2000-01 to 25.5% in 2005-06.

Urban areas start with an already very low proportion of primary school teachers with primary school qualifications and move even lower over the period. In 2000-01, 4.4% of urban primary school teachers had such qualifications, but by 2005-06 the rate had dropped to 4.2%. Urban areas also see a slow fall in primary teachers with lower secondary qualifications. In 2000-01, 68% of teachers had such qualifications falling to 64% in 2005-06. Urban areas, however, show a distinct rise in the proportion of primary teachers with upper secondary qualifications, rising from 26.3% in 2000-01 to 31.3% in 2005-06.

Rural areas follow the national average rates very closely, reflecting the largely rural population of the country. In 2000-01, rural areas had only 7.9% of teachers at the primary level with only a primary school qualification. By 2005-06, that proportion had fallen to 6%. The majority of rural prima-

ry school teachers reported having a lower secondary school qualification. In 2000-01, 78.6% of teachers reported having such qualifications; by 2005-06, this had fallen to 69.2%. As was true at national level, the proportion of primary school teachers with upper secondary education backgrounds reportedly increased from 13.3% to 24.7% during the reporting period.

Remote area schools show the same trends as described above, but start from quite a different place. Remote areas in 2000-01 reported that 63% of teachers had only a primary school level qualification. That proportion had dropped dramatically by more than half to 30.3% by 2005-06. However, that still means that nearly one third of primary teachers in remote areas presently only have a primary level education themselves, a very significant proportion. Remote area primary school teachers with a lower secondary school qualification has nearly doubled from 32.9% in 2000-01 to 60.6% in 2005-06. Remote teachers with upper secondary school qualifications has also more than doubled from 4% in 2000-01 to 9% in 2005-06.

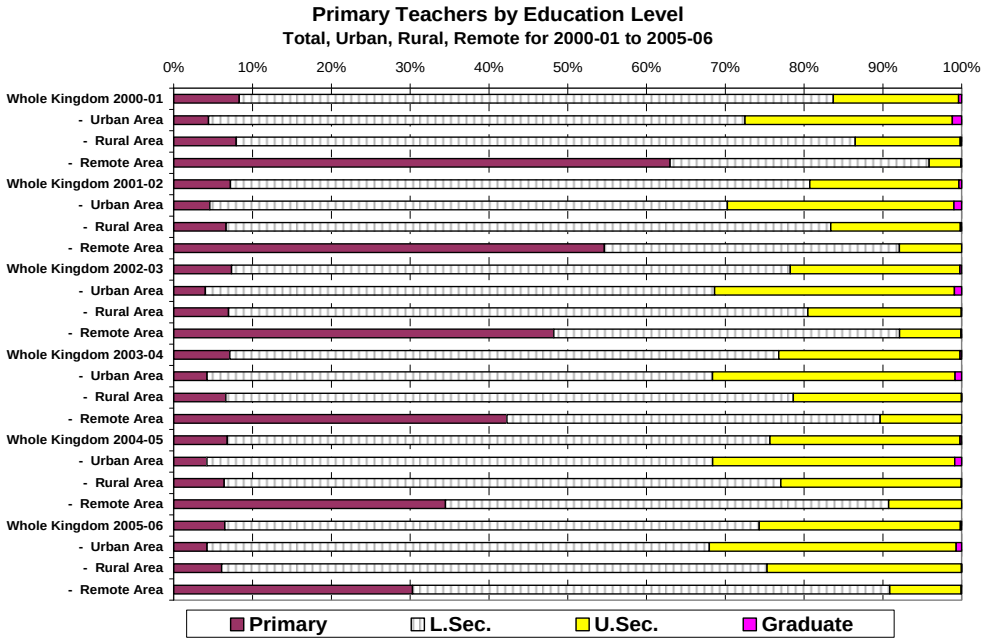
Across all areas, the Ministry has successfully assured that 60% or more of primary school teachers have at least a lower secondary school academic qualification. Meanwhile, teachers with only primary qualifications, who may have been recruited in the past when, for instance, there was an urgent need to staff primary schools after the Khmer Rouge regime, are now retiring from service and are steadily being replaced by teachers with higher qualifications.

Table 6.7: Trend Changes in the Academic Qualifications of Primary School Teachers by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Demographic Level and Year	Percent of Primary Teachers by Education Level			
	Primary	L.Sec.	U.Sec.	Graduate
Whole Kingdom 2000-01	8.31%	75.40%	15.91%	0.39%
- Urban Area	4.41%	68.08%	26.33%	1.18%
- Rural Area	7.94%	78.55%	13.33%	0.18%
- Remote Area	63.00%	32.86%	4.03%	0.11%
Whole Kingdom 2001-02	7.20%	73.53%	18.93%	0.34%
- Urban Area	4.57%	65.70%	28.74%	0.99%
- Rural Area	6.66%	76.73%	16.45%	0.17%
- Remote Area	54.67%	37.42%	7.91%	0.00%
Whole Kingdom 2002-03	7.35%	70.91%	21.52%	0.22%
- Urban Area	4.00%	64.65%	30.43%	0.91%
- Rural Area	6.96%	73.52%	19.48%	0.04%
- Remote Area	48.24%	43.88%	7.80%	0.08%
Whole Kingdom 2003-04	7.10%	69.68%	23.02%	0.20%
- Urban Area	4.24%	64.13%	30.77%	0.85%
- Rural Area	6.61%	72.03%	21.33%	0.03%
- Remote Area	42.29%	47.38%	10.33%	0.00%
Whole Kingdom 2004-05	6.79%	68.87%	24.13%	0.21%
- Urban Area	4.21%	64.19%	30.71%	0.89%
- Rural Area	6.39%	70.65%	22.92%	0.04%
- Remote Area	34.50%	56.22%	9.28%	0.00%
Whole Kingdom 2005-06	6.50%	67.80%	25.53%	0.17%
- Urban Area	4.23%	63.73%	31.34%	0.70%
- Rural Area	6.09%	69.22%	24.66%	0.03%
- Remote Area	30.31%	60.56%	9.06%	0.06%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 6.13: Primary School Teachers by Education Level/Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Provincial Level Data on Academic Qualifications among Primary School Teachers:

A comparison of findings from 2000-01 with findings from 2005-06 disaggregated by province helps clarify exactly where the major changes have been taking place over the period and where significant disparities still exist.

According to provincial level data, there are four provinces that inexplicably run against the trend of falling rates of primary teachers with only primary level qualifications over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06 (see Figure 6.14). For example, in Phnom Penh, only 1.3% of teachers had on a primary level qualification, but the number had risen to 2.1% in 2005-06. Similarly, in Kandal, the rate was 2.1% in 2000-01 but had risen to 2.8% in 2005. In Pursat, the rate was 2% in 2000-01 but 3.5% in 2005-06. In Banteay Meanchey, the rate was 8% in 2000-01 but 9.6% in 2005-06. The reasons for these increases require further investigation.

All other provinces show the general trend of decreasing numbers of primary teachers with only a primary level qualification. The provinces with the highest proportion of primary teachers with only a primary level qualification in 2005-06 are also the provinces that show the greatest drop in rates since 2000-01. Thus, much progress has been achieved in these provinces over the past six years, but much more needs to be done. The provinces in question are all mountainous and remote provinces with large ethnic minority populations. The proportion of teachers with only a primary level qualification in Stung Treng dropped from 42.4% in 2000-01 to 26.3% in 2005-06; Mondulkiri dropped from 73.6% to 28%; Preah Vihear dropped from 60.3% to 32%; Ratanakiri dropped from 60.8% to 33%; and Oddar Meanchey dropped from 73.9% to 42%.

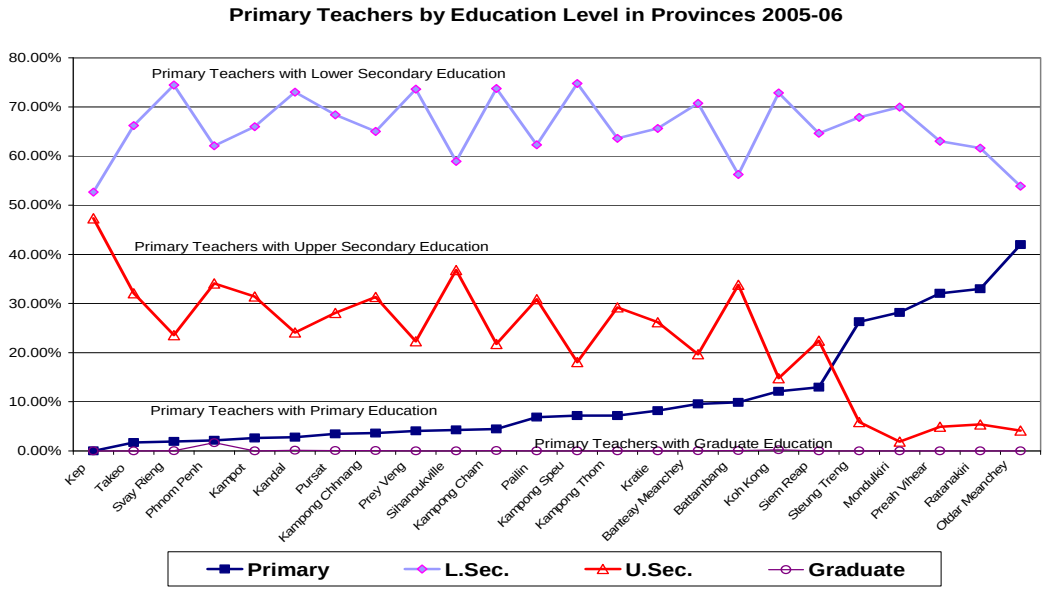
Six of Cambodia's twenty-four provinces show very large increases in the proportion of primary teachers with lower secondary school qualifications over the reporting period. They are Oddar Meanchey (increased from 24.9% to 53.9%); Ratanakiri (35.1% to 61.6%); Pailin (24.4% to 62.3%); Preah Vihear (37% to 63%); Stung Treng (48.4% to 67.9%); and Mondulkiri (25.3% to 70%). All the remaining eighteen provinces show slight decreases in the number of those with lower secondary school qualifications. This seems be due to a redeployment strategy to improve the situation in the six provinces whereby many of those with only primary level qualifications were replaced.

All provinces except two show an increase in the proportion of primary school teachers with an upper secondary school qualification. This includes Stung Treng (which dropped from 8.9% in 2000-01 to 5.7% in 2005-06) and Pailin (which dropped from 41.9% to 30.9%). These trends may be the result of migration of well-trained teachers to more central locations.

A review of the distribution of primary teachers with upper secondary school level qualifications reveals the largest disparities among provinces. The five provinces with the lowest percentages in 2005-06 were Mondulkiri (1.9%), Oddar Meanchey (4.1%), Preah Vihear (4.9%), Ratanakiri (5.4%) and Stung Treng (5.9%). At the other end of the scale, the five provinces with the highest percentages in 2005-06 were Kep (47.3%), Sihanoukville (36.8%), Phnom Penh (34%), Battambang (33.8%), and Takeo (32%).

This asymmetry in the distribution of high value human resources sharply distinguishes the primary schools with extremely high rates of upper secondary school qualified primary teachers, which are all in urban and metropolitan areas, from the primary schools in the North and Northeast border provinces where the proportion of primary school teachers with only a primary qualification is still very high. Such disparities reinforce the growing urban-rural divide in Cambodia, that will only get worse unless strategic decisions are made in the Ministry to assure a more equitable distribution of human resources. This may require a package of incentives to attract the teachers with high academic qualifications to spend part of their career at least serving the populations in remote and disadvantaged areas. Since the Ministry has already attempted to redeploy teachers using an incentive system in the past but with only limited success, it will need to review how such a policy can be improved.

Figure 6.14: Primary School Teachers by Education Level and Province, 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2005-06

6.7.2 Percentage of Primary School Teachers with Pedagogical Training

High levels of teacher certification in the teaching force suggest that a majority of teachers have acquired the pedagogical skills required to teach effectively. Teacher certification in Cambodia occurs through pre-service training at the country's Teacher Training Colleges as well as through summer special courses, which usually last about three months. The number of teachers who have received training in Teacher Training institutions reflects the nation's commitment to investing in the development of human resources that is needed to assure future economic growth and social development.

National Level Data on Primary School Teachers with Pedagogical Training:

Over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06, national trends and those for urban and rural areas in Cambodia have shown a slow, steady rise from already very high levels. The national rate for primary school teachers with pedagogical training was 96.2% in 2000-01 and had risen to 98.6% by 2005-06. Similarly, the urban rate had risen from 97.3% to 99.0% while the rural rate had risen from 96.1% to 98.5% (see Table 6.8/Figure 6.15).

The most dramatic climb in pedagogical certification, however, has been in remote areas. Although it is true that there was a transitory dip in 2001-02 (which may have been due to an expansion of facilities and a brief deficit in certified teachers)(see Section 2.7.16 where school construction is discussed), there has been a steady rise in the percentage of trained primary school teachers. In this respect, the proportion of teachers with pedagogical training credentials in remote areas increased from 88.8% in 2001-02 to 97.2% by 2005-06.

These very creditable results for most of the country, and especially the steep rise seen in remote areas is largely due to consistent Ministry policy to improve the rate of trained teachers nationwide and to aim for 100% trained teaching staff.

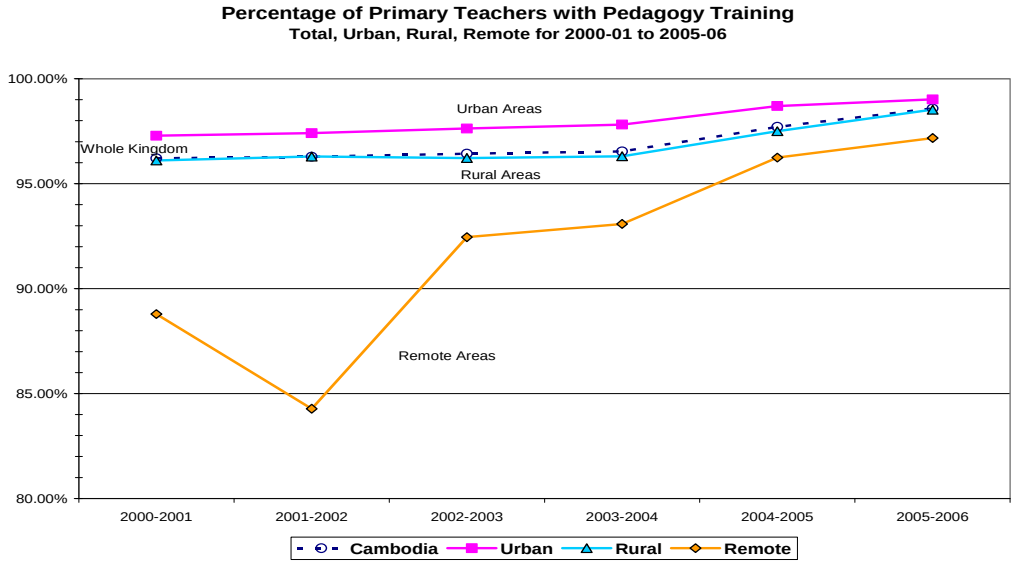
Nevertheless, the meaningfulness of such a commitment depends on parallel development and improvement of the pedagogical training offered at the Teacher Training Colleges around the country. This improvement depends in turn on the identification of master teachers and teacher trainers who can provide the highest level of pre-service training. Continued improvement of the teaching force also depends on expanding opportunities and incentives for teachers to upgrade their skills and qualifications through continuous in-service training programs.

Table 6.8: Trend Changes in the Proportion of Primary School Teachers with Pedagogical Training, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	96.21%	97.28%	96.11%	88.79%
2001-2002	96.29%	97.40%	96.30%	84.28%
2002-2003	96.43%	97.63%	96.22%	92.45%
2003-2004	96.54%	97.82%	96.31%	93.09%
2004-2005	97.71%	98.70%	97.50%	96.25%
2005-2006	98.58%	99.02%	98.53%	97.18%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

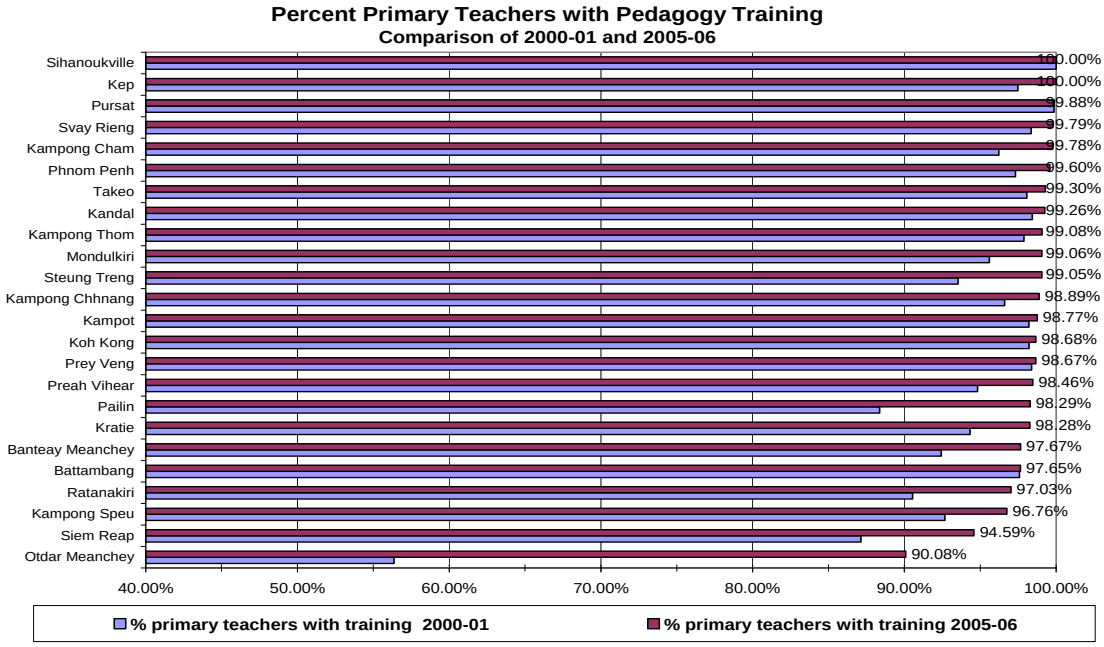
Figure 6.15: Primary School Teachers with Pedagogical Training by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Provincial Level Data on Primary School Teachers with Pedagogical Training:

Figure 6.16: Primary School Teachers with Pedagogical Training by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

The longitudinal view of the percentage of primary teachers with pedagogical training, and thus certification to teach, shows that all provinces have raised their rates between 2000-01 and 2005-06 (see Table 6.16). Even an extremely remote province like Oddar Meanchey, a former Khmer Rouge stronghold, raised its rate of trained primary teachers from 56.4% in 2000-01 to 90.1% in 2005-06. In addition, only Oddar Meanchey (90.1%) and Siem Reap (94.6%) have certification rates that are below 95%. All other provinces range from over 96% to 100%.

6.7.3 Percentage of Secondary School Teachers with Pedagogical Training

The certification to teach at lower secondary school comes as a result of successful completion of a two-year pre-service course at a Regional Teacher Training College. Recently, the Ministry has also been recruiting lower secondary school teachers from among primary school teachers to staff Basic Education Schools, which have Grades 1-9. Such teachers receive some additional training to prepare them for their new posts. At upper secondary level, teacher certification is based on completion of a four-year Bachelor's Degree course plus one year of pedagogical training at the National Institute of Education.

The high level of certification in pedagogical training among both lower and upper secondary school teachers at national level suggests that a majority of teachers have the proper credentials to teach and use instructional materials and textbooks in the nation's schools.

The number of teachers who have received training in Teacher Training institutions, and the number of university graduates drawn to the teaching profession reflects the nation's commitment to investing in the development of human resources that is needed to assure future economic growth and social development.

National Level Data on Secondary School Teachers with Pedagogical Training:

Since 2000, there has been barely any movement in national trends for pedagogical training among secondary school teachers since rates were already at nearly 100% at the beginning of the

decade (see Table 6.9/Figure 6.17). The small trends that do exist, however, are inevitably upwards. In this respect, the proportion of pedagogically certified secondary school teachers at national level moved from 99.57% to 99.65% over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06. Rural rates are very slightly lower than national rates but are nevertheless showing an upward trend. In this regard, pedagogical training among rural secondary school teachers has improved from 99.47% to 99.55% over the six-year period. Urban rates are slightly above the national average. In this regard, pedagogical training among urban secondary school teachers has improved from 99.74% to 99.87% over the period.

Remote rates of pedagogical training among secondary school teachers, by contrast, show real changes over the period from 2000-01 to 2005-06. There was a slight dip in 2001-02, which may be due to an expansion of facilities and a brief deficit in certified teachers, as noted earlier for primary school teachers. Otherwise, there is a somewhat stronger upward trend in the percentage of pedagogically certified secondary school teachers in remote areas. In this regard, rates changed from a low of 96.10% in 2001-02 to 98.98% by 2005-06.

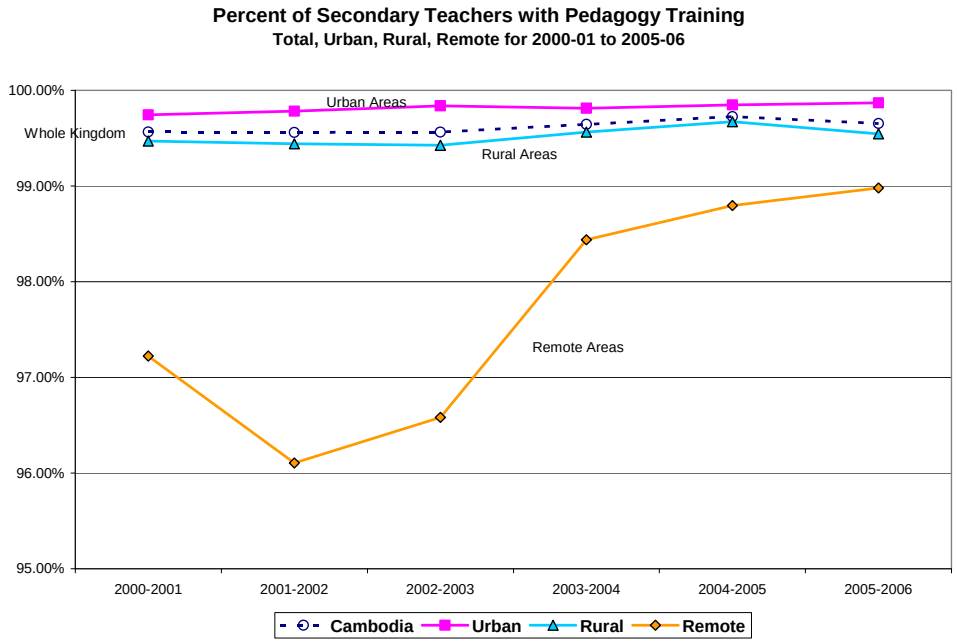
Over the last six years, significant success has been realized in improving the academic qualification and training of teachers providing basic education. This effort has been particularly noticeable in remote areas, due undoubtedly to specific human resource development and deployment strategies in the Ministry.

Table 6.9: Trend Changes in the Proportion of Secondary School Teachers with Pedagogical Training, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	99.57%	99.74%	99.47%	97.22%
2001-2002	99.56%	99.78%	99.44%	96.10%
2002-2003	99.56%	99.84%	99.43%	96.58%
2003-2004	99.64%	99.81%	99.56%	98.44%
2004-2005	99.73%	99.85%	99.67%	98.80%
2005-2006	99.65%	99.87%	99.55%	98.98%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 6.17: Secondary Teachers with Pedagogical Training by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

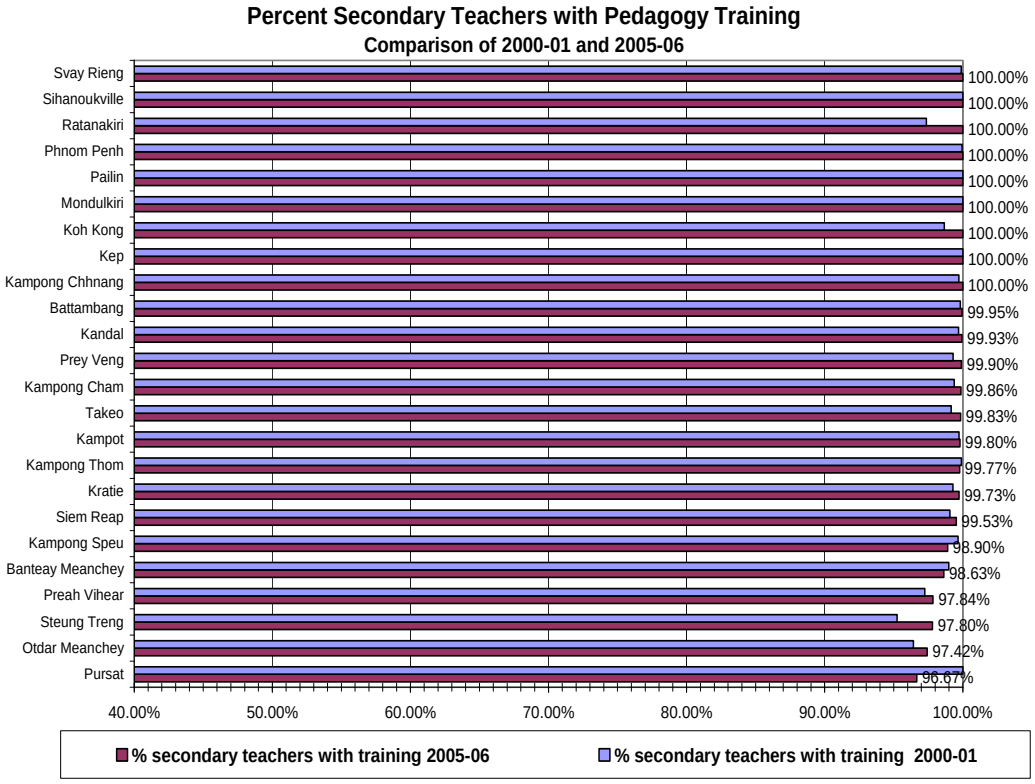


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Province Level Data on Pedagogical Training of Secondary School Teachers:

A comparison of the percent of secondary teachers with pedagogical training, and thus certification, between 2000-01 and 2005-06 shows few significant disparities (see Figure 6.18).

Figure 6.18: Secondary School Teachers with Pedagogical Training by Demographic Area, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

The province with the lowest rate of pedagogical training among secondary school teachers in 2005-06 was Pursat, with 96.67% of teachers certified, down from 100% in 2000-01. In absolute terms, this figure is nevertheless still very high. The decline is probably due to migration or redeployment of certified teachers. Two other provinces also show slight declines over the period. They are Banteay Meanchey, which slipped slightly from 98.98% in 2000-01 to 98.63% 2005-06, and Kampong Speu, which slipped from 99.66% to 98.9% over the period. These declines, however, are barely perceptible changes, within the margin of error of the data and do not indicate significant change.

Six provinces show rates of certification between 96% and 99% in 2005-06. The other eighteen have rates between 99% and 100%. Nine provinces reported rates of 100% certification in 2005-06.

6.7.4 Academic Qualifications of Teachers at Secondary Level

National Level Data on Academic Qualifications of Secondary School Teachers:

While not included in the EFA MDA Guidelines as a requisite indicator, there is data on the educational levels of secondary school teachers in Cambodia. The trend nationwide shows a slight decrease in the proportion of secondary school teachers with a primary level education. The rate in 2000-01 was 1.43%, and the rate in 2005-06 was 1.41%, showing little change (see Table 6.10/Figure 6.19). Secondary school teachers in urban and rural areas mirror the same trends. A more dramatic decline, however, was observed in remote areas where there was a change from 13.89% in 2000-01 to 7.14% in 2005-06, a reduction of nearly half.

The trend for teachers in secondary schools with a lower secondary school education has also declined nationwide and in all areas. Nationwide, the rate in 2000-01 was 52.28% but had dropped to 40.30% by 2005-06. Comparable declines were also seen for urban and rural areas. Remote areas saw a much steeper drop in the number of secondary teachers with only a lower secondary education. In 2000-01, the rate was 59.72% but by 2005-06 the rate had dropped to 21.77%. This is clearly the result of a deliberate attempt to upgrade the level of teaching staff in remote areas.

The policy to improve the level of teachers' academic qualification in secondary schools is evident in the trends for secondary teachers with upper secondary education. Nationwide, the rate increased from 27.47% in 2000-01 to 43.62% in 2005-06. Comparable increases are seen in urban and rural areas. Again, the most dramatic rise is seen in remote areas. In 2000-01, the proportion of teachers with an upper secondary education was 16.67%. By 2005-06, the proportion had reached 69.73%, a fourfold increase. This is the successful result of increasing access to upper secondary schools in rural areas through investments in infrastructure and human resources.

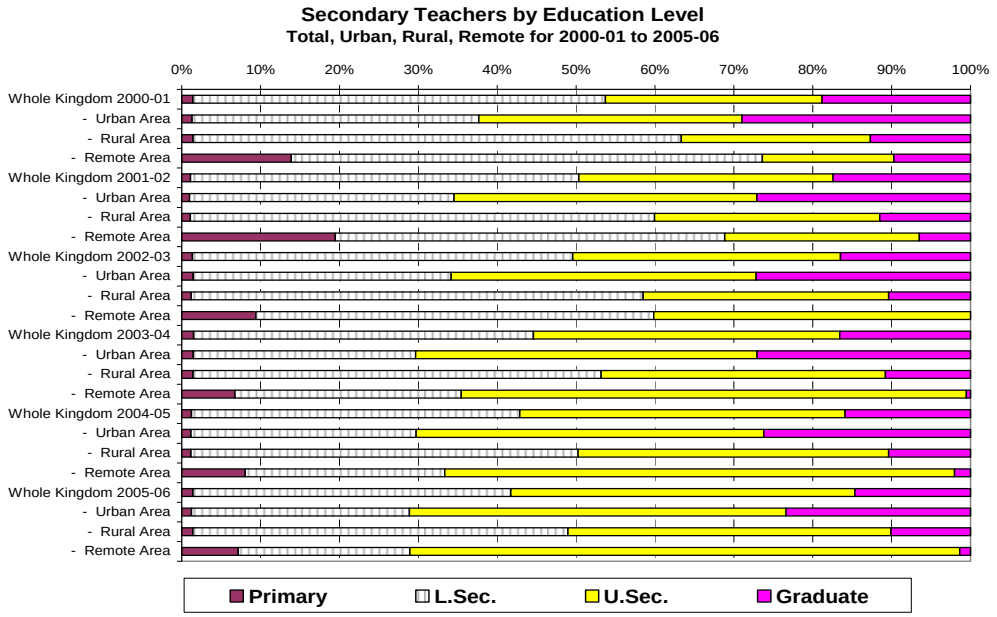
The trend over all areas is a slight decline in the proportion of university graduates teaching in secondary school. This is probably due to increasing opportunities for graduates in alternative employment. The rate dropped nationwide from 18.82% in 2000-01 to a rate of 14.66% in 2005-06. Comparable declines are seen in urban and rural areas. The steepest decline, however, was seen in remote areas, where the proportion dropped from 9.72% in 2000-01 to only 1.37% in 2005-06.

Table 6.10: Educational Level of Secondary School Teachers, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Demographic Area and Year	Percentage of Secondary Teaching Staff By Level Of Education			
	Primary	L.Sec.	U.Sec.	Graduate
Whole Kingdom 2000-01	1.43%	52.28%	27.47%	18.82%
- Urban Area	1.30%	36.37%	33.36%	28.97%
- Rural Area	1.44%	61.91%	23.96%	12.70%
- Remote Area	13.89%	59.72%	16.67%	9.72%
Whole Kingdom 2001-02	1.12%	49.22%	32.26%	17.40%
- Urban Area	0.98%	33.56%	38.37%	27.09%
- Rural Area	1.10%	58.85%	28.54%	11.51%
- Remote Area	19.48%	49.35%	24.68%	6.49%
Whole Kingdom 2002-03	1.35%	48.22%	33.93%	16.50%
- Urban Area	1.47%	32.70%	38.66%	27.17%
- Rural Area	1.22%	57.27%	31.12%	10.39%
- Remote Area	9.40%	50.43%	40.17%	0.00%
Whole Kingdom 2003-04	1.48%	43.10%	38.85%	16.57%
- Urban Area	1.46%	28.19%	43.29%	27.07%
- Rural Area	1.43%	51.74%	36.04%	10.79%
- Remote Area	6.77%	28.65%	64.06%	0.52%
Whole Kingdom 2004-05	1.24%	41.60%	41.25%	15.91%
- Urban Area	1.17%	28.55%	44.06%	26.22%
- Rural Area	1.18%	49.08%	39.36%	10.38%
- Remote Area	8.03%	25.30%	64.66%	2.01%
Whole Kingdom 2005-06	1.41%	40.30%	43.62%	14.66%
- Urban Area	1.24%	27.62%	47.74%	23.39%
- Rural Area	1.41%	47.56%	40.94%	10.08%
- Remote Area	7.14%	21.77%	69.73%	1.36%

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 6.19: Secondary School Teachers by Education Level and Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

6.7.5 Pupil-Teacher Ratio for Primary Education

The Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR) is one of the most common indicators used in educational planning as an indicator of educational quality. A low PTR, meaning fewer pupils per teacher, indicates that pupils will have a better chance of contact with the teacher. More contact with the teacher usually indicates a better teaching-learning experience. Hence, a lower PTR usually suggests better quality instruction and improved scholastic performance.

A high PTR, meaning more pupils per teacher, suggests that pupils will have less chance of contact with the teacher, as the teacher has to deal with a large number of pupils. This necessarily allows proportionately less attention to each pupil. Thus, a high PTR usually signifies larger classes and poorer quality learning environments as well as reduced scholastic performance of pupils.

Of course, scholastic performance is also affected by the teacher's academic qualifications, the teacher's training, experience, and status in the locality/culture. The availability of materials in the school system, pedagogical methods utilized by the teacher, the conditions of the school and classroom, and the poverty conditions of the community are all also factors that impact on educational quality.

In combination with population and enrollment data, PTR data can help to measure trends in human resource availability and to project the number of teachers that will be required to reach national norms of PTR for each level and type of education.

In the Cambodian context, it is also worth noting that double and even triple shifts of classes are common and these have a significant impact on the quality of teaching in the classroom, in terms of hours of instruction offered to students and demands on the teacher. Comparative analysis of PTR in multiple shift schools can be highly informative.

National Level Data on Primary School PTR:

The trend over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06 for the nation as well as for urban, rural, and remote areas has seen a steady decline in PTR, meaning a reduction in the number of pupils per teacher (see Table 6.11/Figure 6.20).

Urban area schools consistently have the lowest level PTR. Urban schools have a distinct advantage over schools in other areas because urban postings are seen as highly desirable by most teachers. This results in the provision of more teachers for the students enrolled, resulting in a low Pupil Teacher Ratio. In this respect, urban area schools in 2000-01 reported a PTR of 43.7 to 1, dropping to 38.1 pupils per teacher in 2005-06. In contrast, the national average for primary level PTR was 53.3 to 1 in 2000-01 but had dropped to 50.8 pupils per teacher in 2005-06. This was closely followed by rural PTR, which was 55.9 to 1 in 2000-01, dropping to 54 pupils per teacher in 2005-06.

Remote classrooms were generally more crowded over the period, compared to rural or urban ones. For example, in 2001-02, a surge year when enrollments increased due to reforms abolishing formal school fees, there was an increase in enrollments but not a commensurate increase in teachers, giving rise to an increase in PTR that was particularly noticeable in remote schools though somewhat less so in rural schools, and not at all noticeable in urban schools. The PTR in remote areas in 2001-02 was 67 to 1, up from 58.8 in 2000-01; but by 2005-06, the PTR had dropped again to 56.3 pupils per teacher.

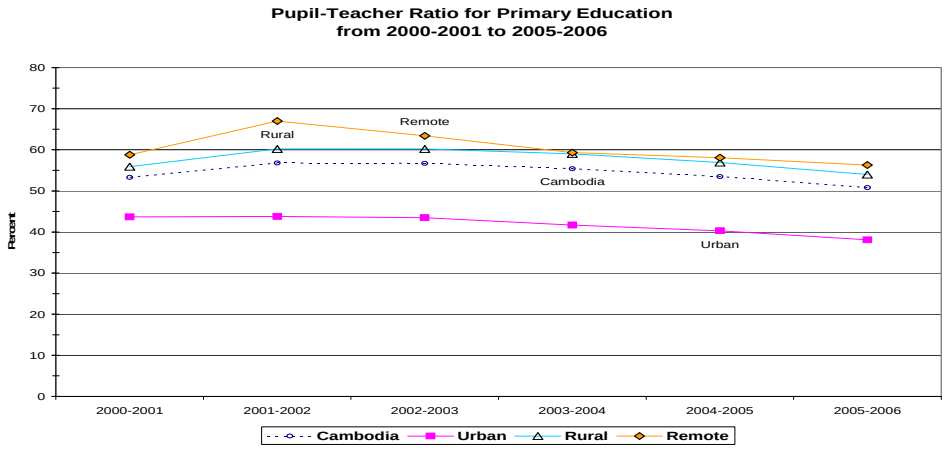
This PTR in remote schools is about one and a half times the PTR in urban schools, and suggests that the quality of attention a teacher can give a pupil in remote area schools dealing with 56 students is considerably lower than the attention a teacher can give a pupil in urban schools, where the teacher deals with only 38 pupils, on average.

Table 6.11: Pupil Teacher Ratio in Primary Education, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	53.3	43.7	55.9	58.8
2001-2002	56.8	43.8	60.2	67.0
2002-2003	56.7	43.5	60.2	63.4
2003-2004	55.4	41.7	59.0	59.3
2004-2005	53.5	40.3	56.9	58.1
2005-2006	50.8	38.1	54.0	56.3

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 6.20: Trend Changes in PTR at Primary Level by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



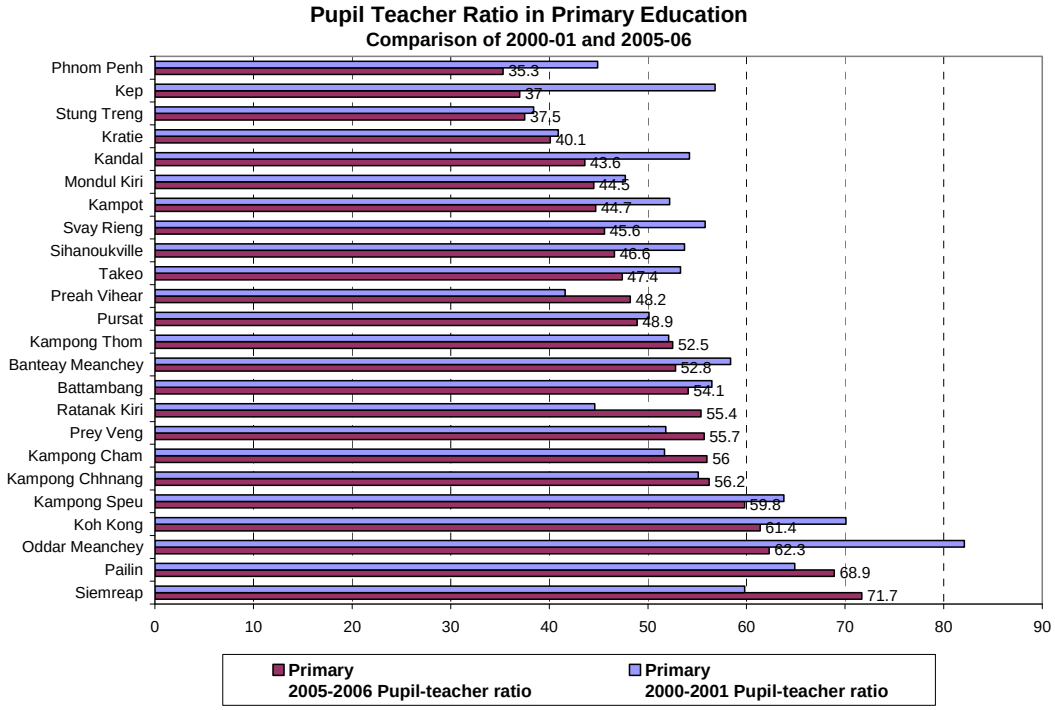
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Province Level Data on Primary School PTR:

The comparison of PTR at primary level between 2000-01 and 2005-06 shows that eight of Cambodia's twenty-four provinces experienced increases in the number of pupils per teacher (see Figure 6.21). Some of these increases were very small, however. For example, Kampong Thom went

from a PTR in 2000-01 of 52.1 to 1 to a PTR in 2005-06 of 52.5. Similarly, Kampong Chhnang went from a PTR of 55.1 to a PTR of 56.2 over the period.

Figure 6.21: Trend Changes in PTR at Primary Level by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

Other increases in PTR were more significant and probably reflect local increases in enrollments, as the number of teachers remained more static, but could also suggest a loss of teachers. For example, Preah Vihear reported an increase in PTR from 41.6 to 1 in 2000-01 to 48.2 in 2005-06, which is an increase of 16%. Ratanakiri reported an increase in PTR from 44.6 to 1 to 55.4 over the period, which is a 24% rise in PTR. Prey Veng increased from 51.8 to 1 to 55.7 (a 7.5% increase), while Kampong Cham increased from 51.7 to 56 (an 8% increase)

The two provinces with the highest PTR in the nation in 2005-06 also showed an increase in PTR over the reporting period. In this respect, Pailin's PTR increased from 64.9 to 1 in 2000-01 to 68.9 in 2005-06, a 6% rise. Siem Reap had the very highest PTR in the primary education system and saw increases from 59.8 to 1 in 2000-01 to 71.1 in 2005-06, or an increase of 22%. This is double the number of pupils that a primary school teacher in Phnom Penh teaches, or a difference of 35 pupils. It is not entirely clear why Siem Reap should display such disparities but it may be related to intense in-migration due to the tourist trade there and/or a large number of internally displaced persons due to the historical instability in the

Success Story: Flexible Approaches to Reduce PTR Levels

In order to respond to high PTR levels in the primary education system, the MoEYS has encouraged POEs and partner agencies to be innovative in assisting government to reduce overcrowding. Several provinces have demonstrated very dynamic interventions including the use of Community Teachers to work in the state schools (e.g., Ratanakiri, Kratie, Mondulkiri) and the use of Classroom Assistants (e.g., Kampong Cham) to assist state teachers in crowded classrooms, particularly those with minority groups where not all children speak Khmer well. These efforts have been highly successful with some provinces reporting a drop in PTR by 25% in many areas.

Classroom Assistants from local community in training

border areas. Such findings should nevertheless raise a warning flag for education planners to deploy more teachers to the areas with high and rising PTR, in order to reduce the very great disparities that exist between low and high PTR areas.

6.7.6 Pupil Teacher Ratio for Secondary Education

Interpreting the meaning of PTR at secondary school level is more difficult than at primary level because students study with many teachers during the day, depending on the subject matter. For example, a student may study with as many as 5 or 6 different teachers in one day. Thus, PTR levels at secondary are generally much lower than those at primary for this reason. Nevertheless, a lower PTR does not necessarily mean less crowded classrooms and this should be kept in mind when interpreting the data below.

National Level Data on Secondary School PTR:

PTR levels for secondary education in Cambodia have been increasing during the reporting period, just the opposite trend observed for primary education. In this respect, the national PTR in secondary schools increased from 19.8 to 1 in 2000-01 to 31.1 in 2005-06, which is a 57% increase (see Table 6.12/Figure 6.22). The urban PTR rose 35% over the period from 20.2 to 27.2, while PTR in rural areas rose from 19.5 to 1 in 2000-01 to 33.3 in 2005-06, which is a 71% increase. In remote areas, the increase was 69%, expressed by a change from 14.6 to 1 in 2000-01 to 24.7 in 2005-06.

It is remarkable that PTR levels in remote areas have been consistently below those in urban and rural areas as well as below the national average. The explanation is probably that there has been a recent expansion of lower and upper secondary school facilities in some remote areas, in advance of the anticipated flow of pupils from expanding primary school enrolments. As incomplete primary schools in remote areas begin to offer all six grades, and as migration continues to these pioneer areas, enrollments and transition from primary to secondary levels will increase. As these trends accelerate, PTR in remote areas will likely converge with national rates.

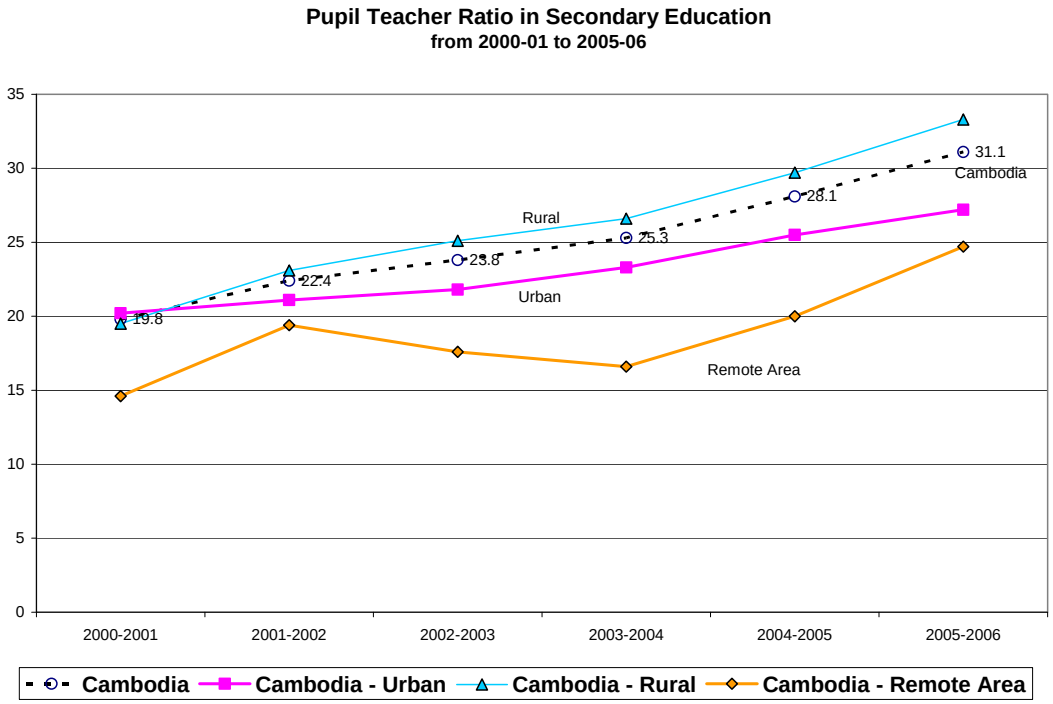
The increase in PTR in secondary schools can be viewed as an increase in efficiency—thinking of the teacher as producing a product. The more products per teacher, the more efficient the machine. However, from the point of view of educational quality, higher PTR does not necessarily mean improved quality, demonstrating that quality and efficiency are not often the same thing.

Table 6.12: Pupil Teacher Ratio in Primary Education, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	19.8	20.2	19.5	14.6
2001-2002	22.4	21.1	23.1	19.4
2002-2003	23.8	21.8	25.1	17.6
2003-2004	25.3	23.3	26.6	16.6
2004-2005	28.1	25.5	29.7	20
2005-2006	31.1	27.2	33.3	24.7

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 6.22: Trend Changes in PTR at Secondary Level by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Province Level Data on Secondary School PTR:

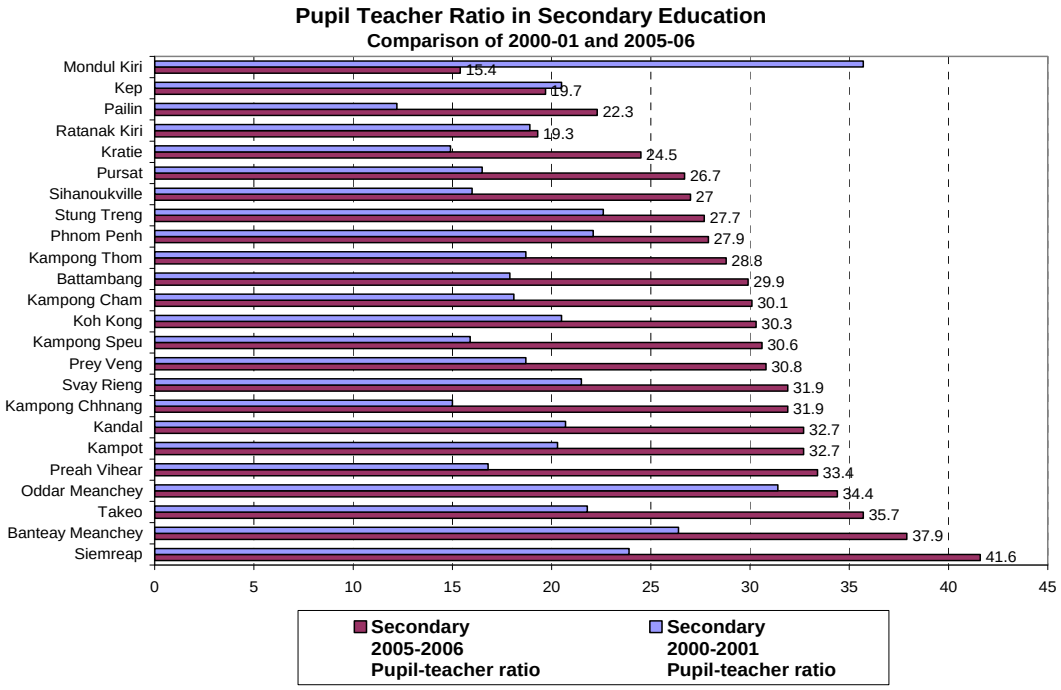
A comparison of PTR at the province level between 2000-01 and 2005-06 shows that only one province experienced a drop in PTR (see Figure 6.23). In this respect, Mondulkiri had a rate of 35.7 pupils per teacher in 2000-01 but only 15.4 pupils per teacher in 2005-06. This very large reduction is probably due to the opening of new secondary school facilities and a commensurate influx of teachers during the period. All other provinces showed increases in PTR levels. Even so, the disparities between provinces are still very noticeable. In 2005-06, Mondulkiri, with a PTR of 15.4 and Kep with a PTR of 19.7, had half the PTR found in Siem Reap (41.6 to 1), or Banteay Meanchey (37.9 to 1). The provincial analyses such as these can be very helpful to educational planners in making deployment decisions and setting quotas for intake to Regional Teacher Training Colleges.

Institutional Reforms at Secondary School Level to Promote Child Friendly Learning

In order to promote institutional reforms that support improvements in educational quality, the Secondary Education Dept. has formed partnerships with UNICEF, KAPE, and USAID to introduce what are known as subject classrooms. In the past, secondary school students remain stationary in a single room while different subject teachers rotate from room to room. These organizational arrangements discourage teachers from keeping learning materials relevant to the field of study in the classroom. With support from the Secondary Education Dept, several pilot CFSS programs have engineered a radical re-structuring of the way that lower secondary schools operate including the designation of *subject classrooms*, i.e., anchoring of subject teachers in one classroom, and requiring students (instead of teachers) to move around from one room to another. These arrangements enable schools to keep large amounts of learning materials in classrooms for student use.

Students using molecular models in a Subject Classrm

Figure 6.23: Trend Changes in PTR at Secondary Level by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

6.7.7 Pupil-Class Ratio (PCR) for Primary Education

The Pupil-Class Ratio is the average number of pupils per class. The PCR provides a rough indication of class size. The measure is used to assess the efficiency of utilization of school resources. It is also used to assess, indirectly, the teaching and learning process, in connection with Pupil-Teacher Ratio. Although they are similar, PCR and PTR are not the same, as one teacher may be responsible for more than one class. Thus, Pupil Class Ratio indicates the average size of classes, whereas the Pupil Teacher Ratio indicates a one-to-one correspondence between students and teachers. In general, PCR values can sometimes conceal structural stresses in an education system. For example, the national PCR value for the primary education system in Cambodia was 41.3, a reasonable value, while PTR was 50.8, a significant difference. The PTR value suggests that Cambodia has a severe shortage of teachers while the PCR value suggests that class sizes are manageable. A review of the absolute number of teachers and classes in the primary education system indicates that while there were 61,901 classes in 2005, there were only 50,378 teachers to staff them. Thus, there is a national shortfall of over 10,000. The system addresses this shortage mainly through double shift teaching and to a lesser extent Contract Teachers (who are being phased out). While double shift teaching solves the immediate problem, it overtaxes the teaching work force, reduces the time for lesson preparation, and generally lowers educational quality. Thus, the meaning of the PCR value should be interpreted with great caution.

National Level Data on Primary School PCR:

The general trend for PCR levels in Primary Education is downward. There is a brief rise in PCR in 2002-03, connected with increased enrollments as a result of reforms abolishing formal school fees, but the downward trend re-established itself in following years. Thus, national PCR fell from 43.4 pupils per class in 2000-01 to 41.3 pupils per class in 2005-06 (see Table 6.13/Figure 6.24).

In absolute numerical terms, remote schools reported lower Pupil Class Ratios than urban areas, rural areas, or the national average. This suggests that enrollments have not yet caught up with the recent building of schools and expansion of facilities in remote and often disadvantaged areas. Thus, PCR in remote areas has fallen from 38.1 pupils per class in 2000-01 to 34.2 in 2005-06. Urban PCR has fallen from 43 pupils per class to 39 pupils per class over the period. Rural schools, which peaked at 46.6 pupils per class in 2002-03, followed the national trend for the pe-

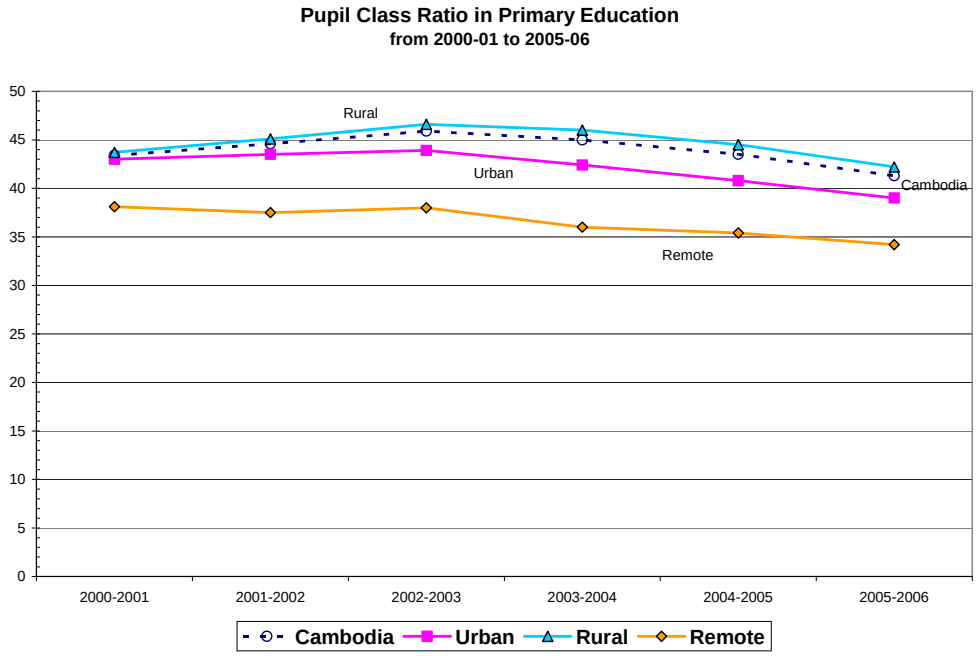
riod by falling from 43.7 in 2000-01 to 42.2 in 2005-06.

Table 6.13: Pupil Class Ratio in Primary Education, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	43.4	43.0	43.7	38.1
2001-2002	44.6	43.5	45.1	37.5
2002-2003	45.9	43.9	46.6	38.0
2003-2004	45.0	42.4	46.0	36.0
2004-2005	43.5	40.8	44.5	35.4
2005-2006	41.3	39.0	42.2	34.2

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 6.24: Trend Changes in PCR at Primary Level by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



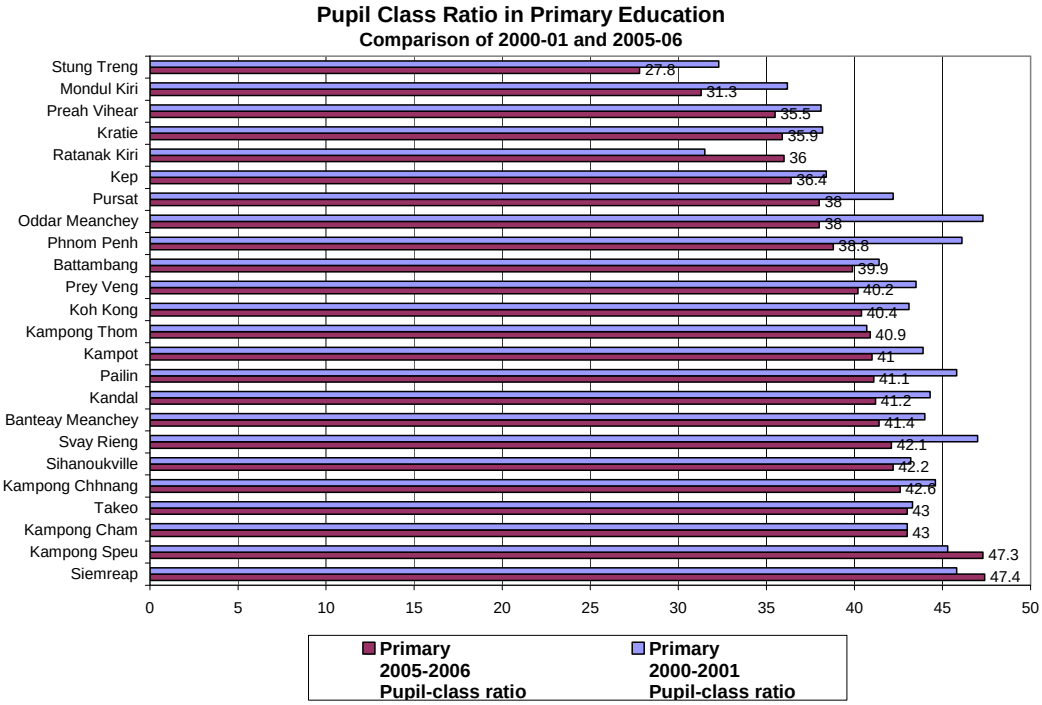
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Province Level Data on Primary School PCR:

Comparison of the PCR from 2000-01 and 2005-06 by province shows that only four of Cambodia's twenty-four provinces had an increase in PCR over the period. All the rest reported declines in the average number of pupils per class. The increases occurred in Ratanakiri, where the rate went from 31.5 to 36.0 over the period; Kampong Thom, which rose slightly from 40.7 to 40.9 pupils per class; Kampong Speu, which saw a rise from 45.3 to 47.3; and Siem Reap, which saw a rise from 45.8 to 47.4 PCR over the period (see Figure 6.25).

Primary schools in Kampong Speu and Siem Reap appear to be the most crowded in the country, and have PCR values that are 15% above the national average of 41.3 in 2005-06. The findings in Siem Reap confirm similar findings for PTR and suggest the emergence of a severe problem with teacher staffing there. This suggests the need for major increases in PTTC intake quotas and other measures. At the other end of the scale, in 2005-06, the remote provinces of Stung Treng (PCR of 27.8), Mondulkiri (31.3), Preah Vihear (35.5), Kratie (35.5) and Ratanakiri (36) were all about 15% below the national average in terms of their PCR values.

Figure 6.25: Trend Changes in PCR at Primary Level by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

6.7.8 Pupil Class Ratio (PCR) for Secondary Education

National Level Data on Secondary School PCR:

The Pupil Class Ratio for secondary education is going in the opposite direction from that seen for Primary Education. The national trend shows an increase in PCR values. National PCR in 2000-01 was 42.4 students per class, but had risen to 50.3 in 2005-06—almost a 20% increase. Urban area secondary schools saw an increase in PCR from 45.8 in 2000-01 to 53.1 in 2005-06. Classrooms in the capital are, therefore, becoming very crowded indeed, and suggest a decrease in effective classroom management and a reduction of quality in the teaching-learning experience. Rural area secondary schools saw an increase in PCR from 40.6 in 2000-01 to 49.2 in 2005-06, indicating an increase of over 20%. Once again, remote areas show the lowest PCR in absolute numerical terms over the period. In 2000-01, PCR in remote secondary schools was 35.6 but had increased to 41.6 by 2005-06.

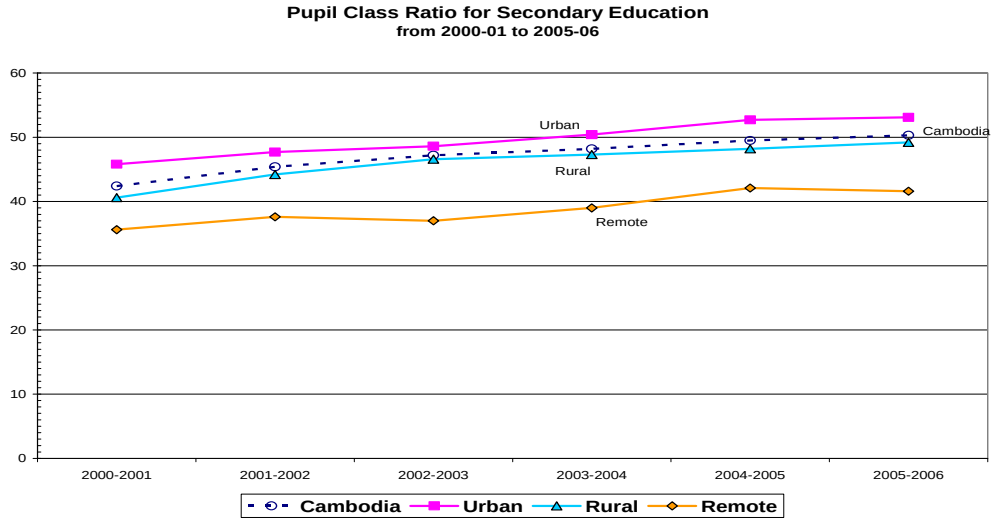
The increases in average number of students per class are clearly being caused by the expansion in NER levels at secondary school level and the difficulty for supply to keep pace. While these increases could be interpreted as improvements in efficiency with regards to the use of space, it must once again be remembered that there is a trade-off between greater efficiency in the use of buildings and the pedagogical imperatives to provide a high quality teaching and learning experience that promotes scholastic performance.

Table 6.14: Pupil Class Ratio in Secondary Education, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-2001	42.4	45.8	40.6	35.6
2001-2002	45.4	47.7	44.2	37.6
2002-2003	47.2	48.6	46.6	37.0
2003-2004	48.2	50.4	47.3	39.0
2004-2005	49.5	52.7	48.2	42.1
2005-2006	50.3	53.1	49.2	41.6

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 6.26: Trend Changes in PCR at Secondary Level by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

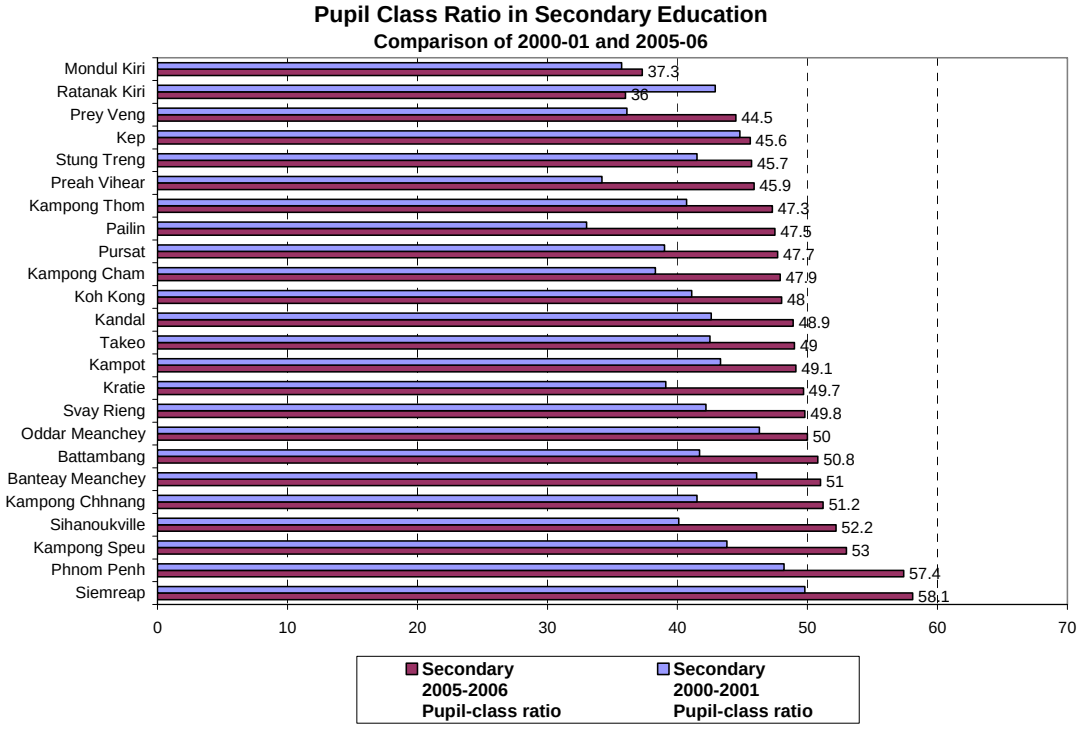


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Provincial Level Data on Secondary School PCR:

The comparison of PCR in Cambodian provinces between 2000-01 and 2005-06 shows that all provinces, without exception, show an increase in PCR over the period. Indeed, these increases are fairly consistent across the board (see Figure 6.27). A few provinces show somewhat larger increases than others. For example, PCR in Preah Vihear rose from 34.2 to 45.9 to one over the period, an increase of over 30% increase. Similarly, PCR in Pailin rose from 33.0 in 2000-01 to 47.5 in 2005-06, or a 44% increase while Kratie saw an increase from 39.1 to 49.7, a change of 27%. Finally, Sihanoukville saw an increase from 40.1 to 52.2, or a rise of 30%.

Figure 6.27: Trend Changes in PCR at Secondary Level by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

Phnom Penh, with a Pupil Class Ratio of 57.4 in 2005-06, and Siem Reap with a PCR of 58.1 in 2005-06, were distinctly above the general trend for provinces. These rates are over 50% higher than the lowest provincial rate found in Mondulkiri, where the PCR was only 37.3 in 2005-06. This finding confirms the urban-rural divide noted at national level.

It is important to provide classrooms and expand facilities in rural and remote areas to assure equity of access to secondary education, especially to lower secondary schools, which form part of the basic education cycle. But the increasing migration of families to urban areas is also an abiding factor in shifting national demography that will affect future enrollments and should also influence decisions on expanding secondary school level facilities.

6.7.9 Pupil Textbook Ratio for Primary Education

Textbooks are the essential materials provided to schools to implement the national curriculum in primary education. The Pupil-Textbook Ratio (PBR) is a measure of how well equipped each student is with the materials and resources needed to support the learning process.

In Cambodia, there are four subject area textbooks that are distributed at primary level: Khmer, Mathematics, Exact Sciences and Social Studies. The Educational Management Information System (EMIS) presents statistics on PBR for each subject and indicates textbook distribution in the form of ***Textbook Availability per 100 Students.*** This statistic will be used as a proxy for the PBR, as it will clearly indicate the provision of teaching materials and resources to pupils. The separate figures for the four subjects in EMIS are combined here to give a national average figure for the availability of textbooks for each grade level. A comparison is made between the provision of textbooks in 2000-01 and 2005-06 for each grade level of primary school.

National Level Data on Pupil Textbook Ration for Primary Education:

The comparison of average figures for textbook availability in the four subjects provided in each grade between 2000-01 and 2005-06 shows a drop in Textbook Available per 100 Students for every grade. The decrease in the provision of textbooks is particularly severe in the lower grades (i.e., Grades 1 to 4). The decline in availability for Grades 5 and 6, however, is not as severe. These changes are summarized in the box to the right and Table 6.15/Figure 6.28 below.

These dramatic declines in the availability of textbooks to primary school pupils naturally affect learning outcomes. Students have to share textbooks, it is more difficult to do reinforcing exercises at home, and there is much less opportunity for self-study. The general result to be expected is a decline in scholastic performance.

Teachers are often obliged to produce materials themselves locally to fill the gap in textbook availability, which tends to push the costs of schooling back onto families. This, of course, pushes back against the pro-poor reforms of the last few years in which formal school fees were eliminated so that basic education could be free—the EFA goal.

Summary of Changes in Textbook Availability, 2000-01 and 2005-06

Grade 1: The availability of textbooks per 100 students in Grade 1 was 107 in 2000. That means that overall, on average, there was a slight surplus of textbooks in comparison to the number of students. In 2005-06, however, textbook availability per 100 students had dropped to 69, or a decline of 55%.

Grade 2: In 2000-01, textbook availability per 100 students was 120. This figure had dropped to 70 by 2005-06, or a drop of 71%.

Grade 3: In 2000-01, textbook availability per 100 students was 125. This figure had dropped to 71 by 2005-06, or a drop of 76%.

Grade 4: In 2000-01, textbook availability per 100 students was 126. This figure had dropped to 80 by 2005-06, or a drop of 56%.

Grade 5: In 2000-01, textbook availability per 100 students was 92. This figure had dropped to 77 by 2005-06, or a drop of 20%.

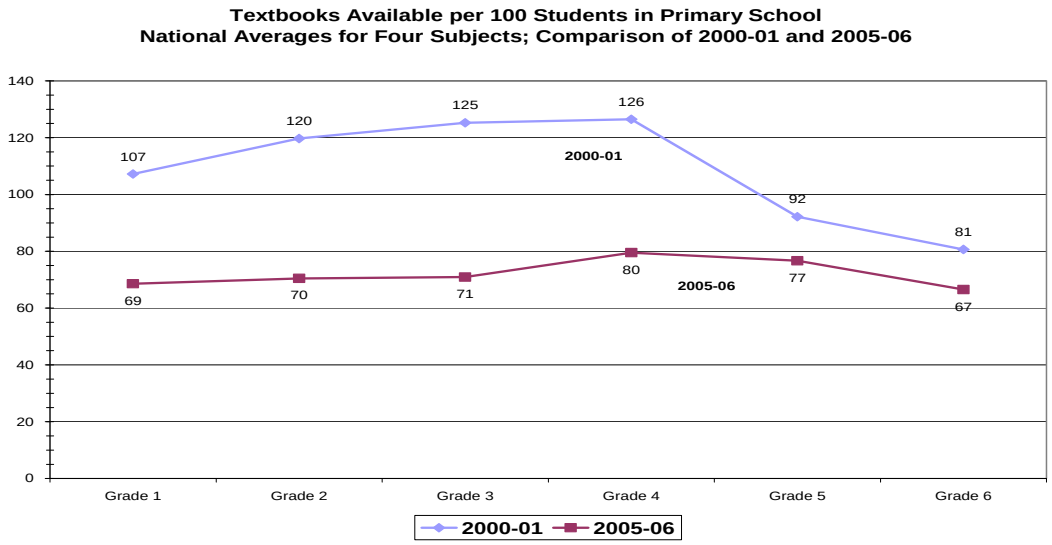
Grade 6: In 2000-01, textbook availability per 100 students was 81. This figure had dropped to 67 by 2005-06, or a drop of 21%.

Table 6.15: Trend Changes in Textbook Availability per 100 Students (averaged across 4 subjects), 2000-01 & 2005-06

Year	2000-01	2005-06
Grade 1	107	69
Grade 2	120	70
Grade 3	125	71
Grade 4	126	80
Grade 5	92	77
Grade 6	81	67

Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

Figure 6.28: Trend Changes In Textbook Availability per 100 Students at Primary Level, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000 & 2005

Provincial Level Data on Pupil Textbook Ration for Primary Education

The national trend of decreasing availability of textbooks in primary education is naturally also visible in provincial analyses between 2000-01 and 2005-06. In this respect, not a single province reported increasing textbook availability and indeed all reported steep declines. The provincial disaggregation for textbook availability for 2005-06 allows us to see the sharp disparities in the distribution of textbooks among the various provinces.

In Grade 1, the remote provinces of Ratanakiri (38 textbooks per 100 pupils) and Preah Vihear (52 textbooks per 100 pupils) contrasted sharply with the metropolitan provinces of Kandal (84 textbooks per 100 pupils) and Takeo (83 textbooks per 100 pupils)(see Figure 6.29).

In Grade 2, the same pattern emerges where the more central provinces are better endowed with textbooks than those at the periphery. For example, the remote provinces of Ratanakiri (39 textbooks per 100 pupils), Preah Vihear (52 textbooks per 100 pupils) and Pailin (60 textbooks per 100 pupils) contrast greatly in textbook availability with Kampong Thom (84 textbooks per 100 pupils) and Takeo (81 textbooks per 100 pupils).(see Figure 6.30). In Grade 3, the identical pattern can be found (see Figure 6.31).

In Grade 4, Ratanakiri reported having 52 textbooks per 100 pupils, Koh Kong has 52 textbooks per 100 pupils, while Kampong Thom has 97 textbooks per 100 pupils, again nearly double the rate of textbooks as provided to Ratanakiri or Koh Kong (see Figure 6.32).

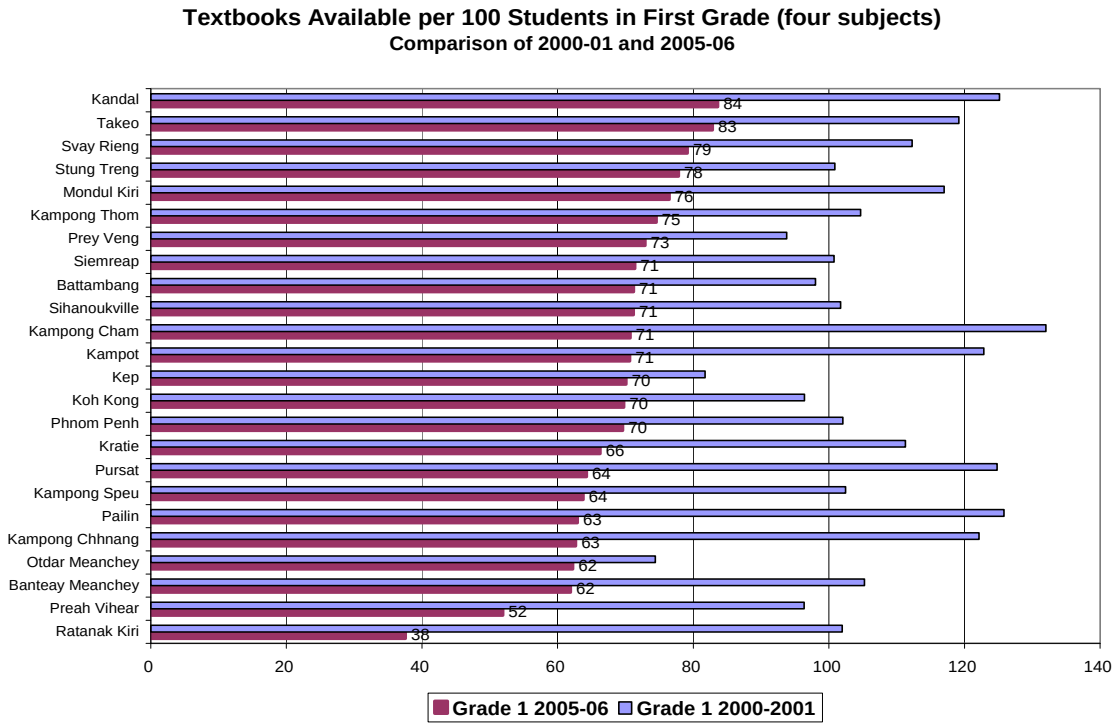
In Grade 5, Preah Vihear has 43 textbooks per 100 pupils, Koh Kong has 44 textbooks per 100

pupils, Ratanakiri has 45 textbooks per 100 pupils, while Kratie has 100 textbooks per 100 pupils, well over double the rate of the remote provinces. Kep, Phnom Penh and Kampot all have more than 90 textbooks per 100 pupils (see Figure 6.33).

In Grade 6, Preah Vihear has 36 textbooks per 100 pupils, Koh Kong has 37 textbooks per 100 pupils, Ratanakiri has 37 textbooks per 100 pupils. On the other hand, Kratie has 89 textbooks per 100 pupils, and Phnom Penh has 84 textbooks per 100 pupils, well over double the rate of the poor, remote border provinces (see Figure 6.34).

The consistency of the trends suggests a pattern of decision making in dealing with a shortfall of resources that clearly disadvantages the remote provinces and advantages the more metropolitan provinces. A factor that probably plays a part is the easier access to transportation and support of some provinces over others.

Figure 6.29: Trend Changes in Textbook Availability in Grade 1, 2000-01 & 2005-06

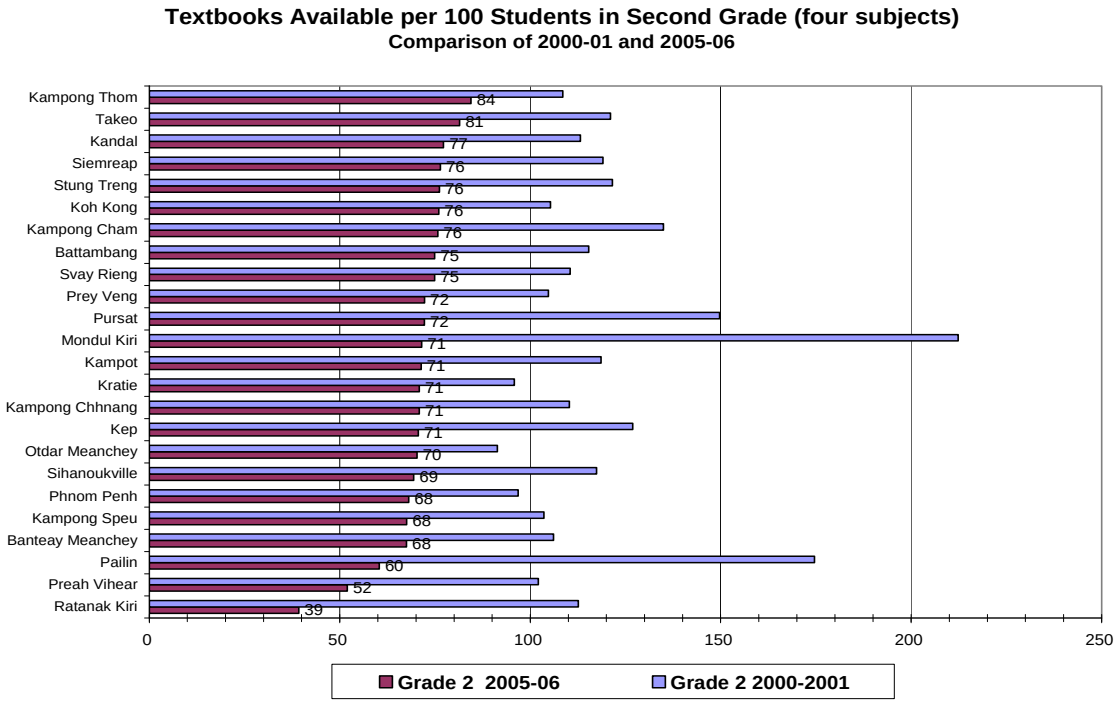


Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

The disparities in textbook availability between urban and more remote provinces probably have a great deal to do with the facility of textbook transportation in these areas. It is also likely that environmental conditions are such that textbooks are better maintained than is true in dusty schools located in dusty rice fields.

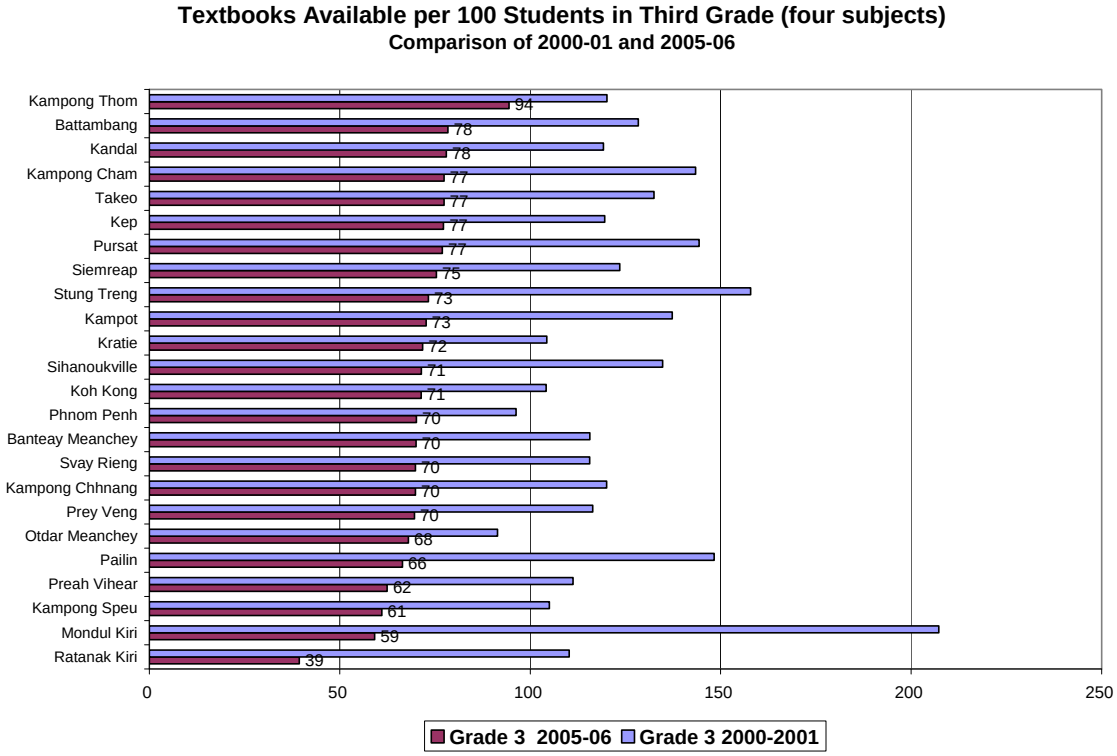
More importantly, the tendency of Cambodia to vacillate between times of textbook abundance after the provision of a large textbook production grant, which allows massive printing and distribution followed by a gap in funding, which in turn leads to textbook scarcity, is of some concern. Clearly, centralized textbook management has not promoted stability in textbook availability, suggesting the need for a review of policy and a possible move to more decentralized control. Ministry is currently considering a revision in textbook distribution where schools could use their operating budgets to purchase textbooks from private suppliers, though many observers believe that it may be some time before these suggestions can be feasibly implemented.

Figure 6.30: Trend Changes in Textbook Availability in Grade 2, 2000-01 & 2005-06



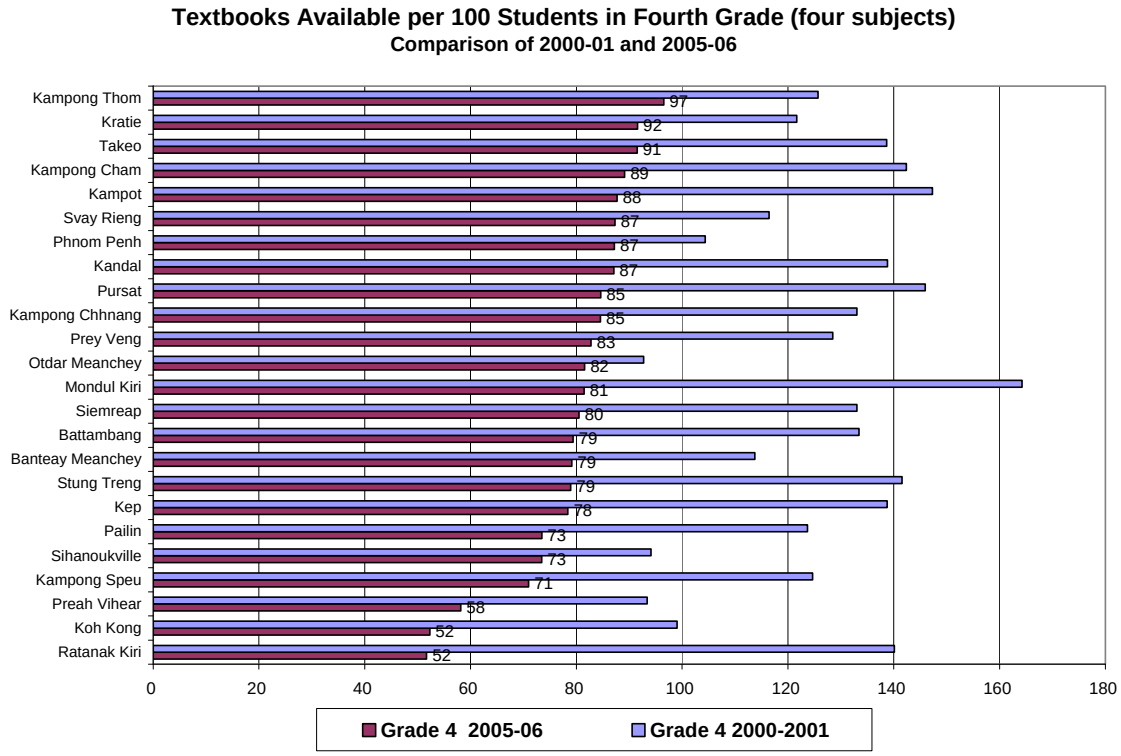
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

Figure 6.31: Trend Changes in Textbook Availability in Grade 3, 2000-01 & 2005-06



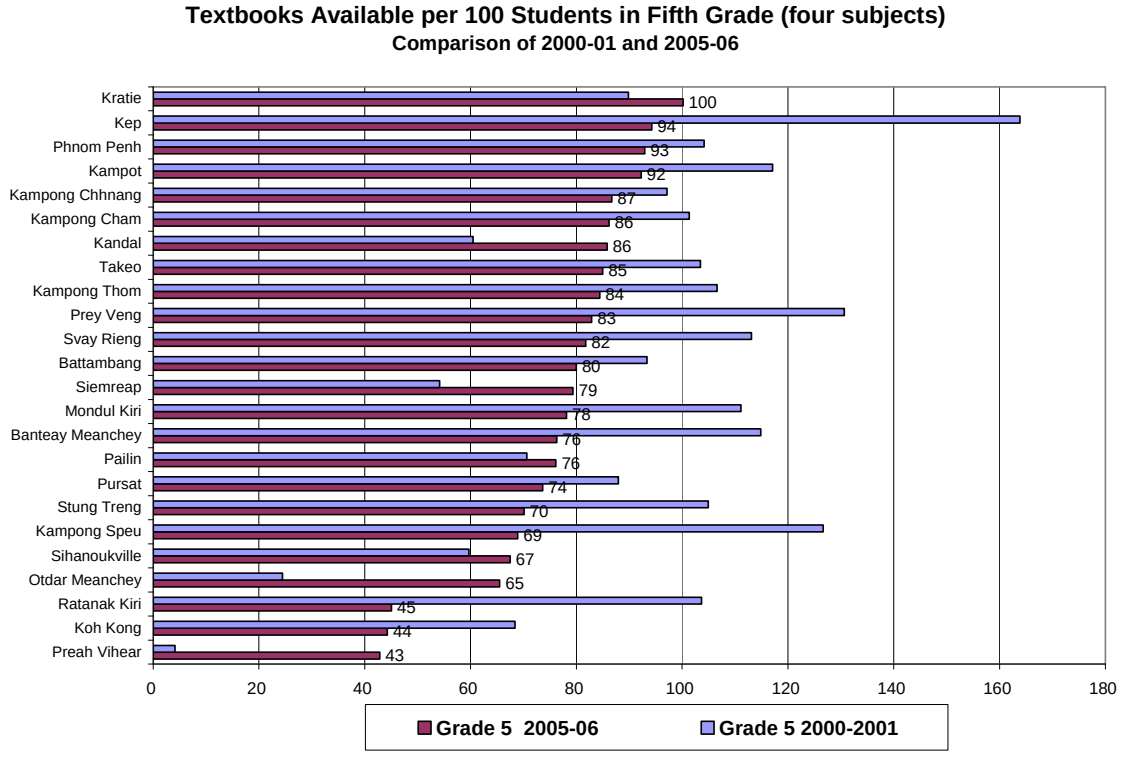
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

Figure 6.32: Trend Changes in Textbook Availability in Grade 4, 2000-01 & 2005-06



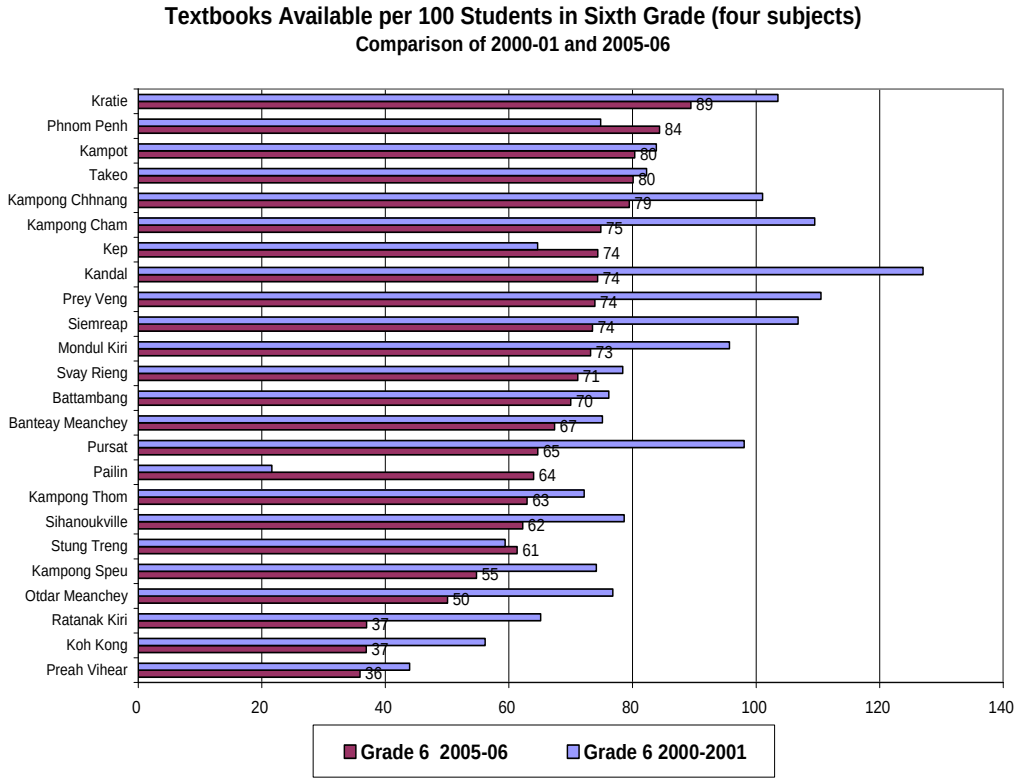
Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

Figure 6.33: Trend Changes in Textbook Availability in Grade 5, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

Figure 6.34: Trend Changes in Textbook Availability in Grade 6, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2000-01 & 2005-06

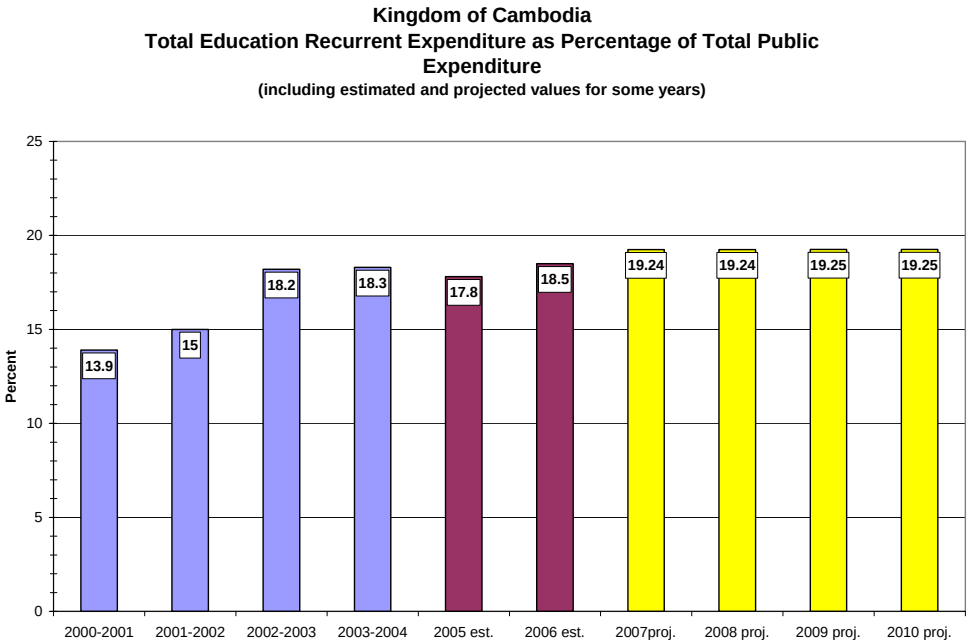
6.7.10 Public Expenditure on Education as Percentage of Total Government Expenditure

The portion of government budget allocated (and disbursed) to the education sector as a proportion of the total national budget reflects the government policy priority that education has received in relation to other sectors (see Figure 6.35). The financial data we present here is plagued by several problems. One of these problems is that the data may be incomplete, as it takes some time for the reporting agencies to process their reports and make public their results. A related problem is that the data may be reported against different calendars (e.g., the school year or fiscal year, for example).

According to the view of some analysts, both in and out of the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sport, it is anticipated that the trend will be for the proportion of expenditure devoted to education to increase and stabilize around 19.25% of total public expenditure by 2010. This suggests a steep increase of 38% between 2000 and 2010. The proportion of public expenditure in 2000 was only 13.9% of total expenditure. To be sure, there have been reported reverses in this trend such as in 2005 when the proportion of public expenditure is estimated to have dipped below the proportion of budget allocated in the previous year (see Figure 6.35).

Nevertheless, projected increases in budget allocations represent a considerable increase in educational investment made by the Kingdom of Cambodia, and reflect the government's commitment both to its youth and the future. In the meantime, organizational reforms are still underway and improvements in financial services are also being implemented to strengthen capacity for accounting and auditing, and to improve program based budgeting and facilitate release and disbursement of budget funding.

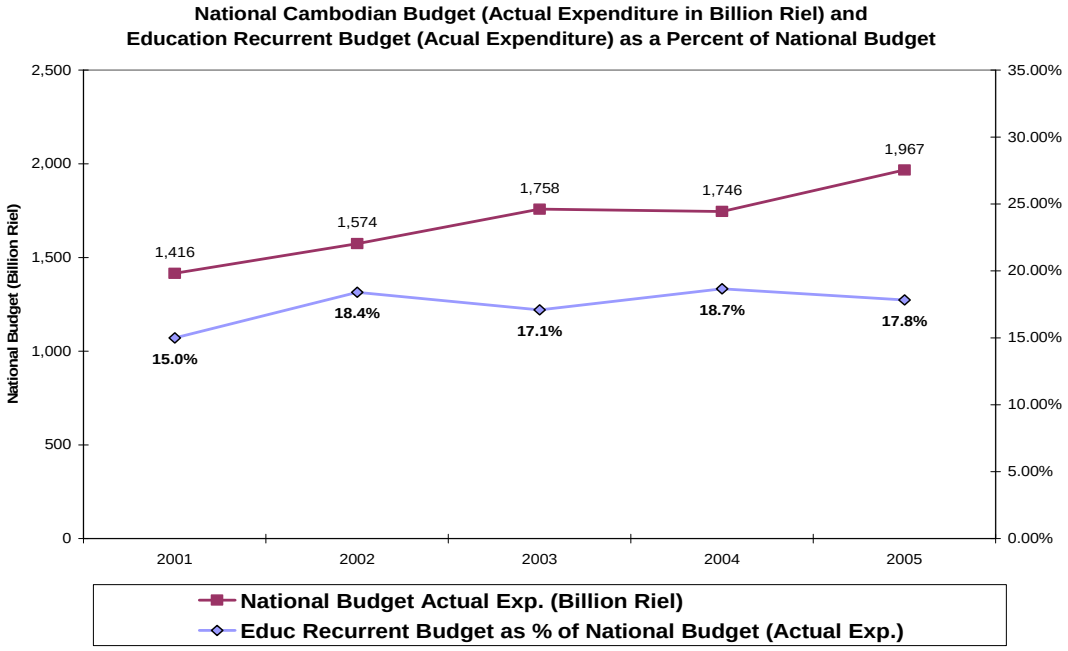
Figure 6.35: Trend Changes in Actual and Projected Public Expenditure on Education as a Percentage of Total Expenditure, 2000-2010



Source: MoEYS, Education Management Information System, 2006; "Cambodia Education Sector Performance Analysis 2006," EC Technical Advisory Team November 2006, p. 52 table 12, p. 57 chart 47

The chart above reflects the projected increases in the proportion of budget to be allocated to education. These are expected to stabilize for the remainder of the decade. Note that the chart includes estimated and projected funding levels for the future, and uses two different reporting calendars.

Figure 6.36: Trend Changes in National Budget Expenditure & Education Recurrent Budget, 2001-05



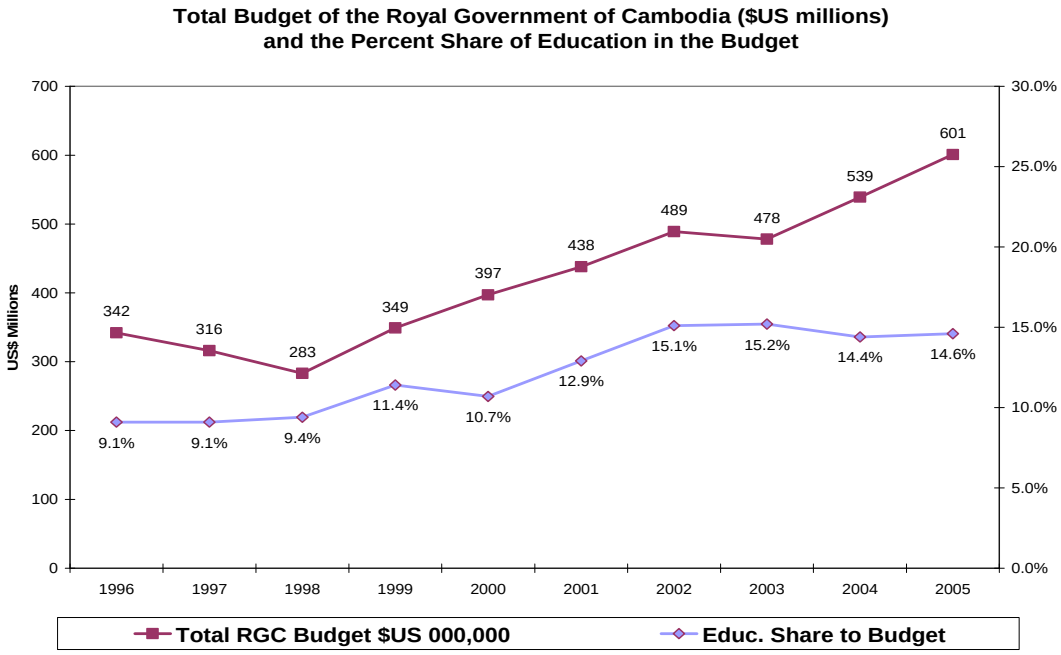
Department of Finance, MoEYS (October 2006) *Current Budget Expenditure for Education Sector*

A signed and sealed document from the Ministry of Education provides the data on which the next several charts are based (see Figures 6.36 and 6.37). The Royal Government of Cambodia's actually expended national budget is compared with the percentage share of the actually expended education recurrent budget for the last five years. The rates for these calendar years for education's share of the national budget seem consistent with the data provided in Figure 6.35, which represent school year data.

The trend seen Figure 6.36 is that while the national budget is steadily increasing, the budget share devoted to education has leveled off starting from 2002 and in some years is actually declining. The projected increases hoped for in the remaining years of this decade would appear to require a dramatic change in this trend.

Another perspective on the proportion of public expenditure on education to total government expenditure is provided by a World Bank analysis that examined a public expenditure tracking survey focusing on education in Cambodia (see Figure 6.37). In this analysis, the amounts are expressed in dollars rather than in riels, and the relatively small budget items for youth and sport have been excluded. The note to the original table on which the chart is based indicates that the data are "actual Treasury executed spending" except for an estimate for the last year.

Figure 6.37: Trend Changes in the National Budget & Education Budget, 1996-2005



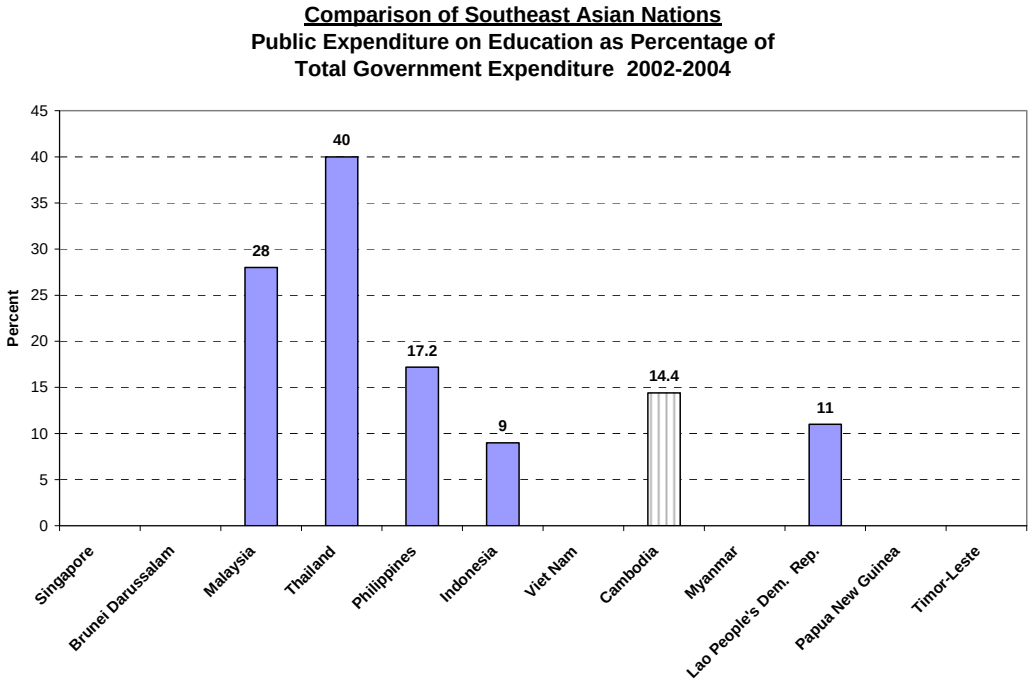
Source: Table given in Ridao-Cano and Taliercio, "Cambodia: Public Expenditure Tracking Survey (PETS) in Primary Education," 10. *Note in original source*: "TOFE, LDB, and Fund staff estimates. All data actual Treasury-executed spending except 2005. Excludes spending for youth and sport."

According to the World Bank analysis, the proportional budgetary share for education spending in the national budget is consistently lower than the values given by the Ministry in Figure 6.36. This is probably due to differences in what is being measured by each source. The National Budget is rising steeply year after year, but the proportion of expenditure for education in total government spending has been leveling off or falling since 2002.

In order to put these analyses in context, it is useful to compare the public expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure for neighboring countries in the region. In the latest Human Development Report (2006), data on this indicator is given, though with some gaps in reporting for some countries in Southeast Asia. Nevertheless, the comparisons are revealing (see Figure 6.38). HDR data is reported for the period 2002-04. Referring back to the World Bank data presented in Figure 6.37, the latest figures for the period 2002-2004 would be from 2004,

which is reported as 14.4%. If the Ministry data were used for this year, the latest figure for the period 2002-2004 would be 18.7%. In any case, the public expenditure for education in Thailand, as a proportion of total government spending, is over double that of Cambodia. Malaysia and Philippines also have significantly higher rates than Cambodia. These comparisons would suggest that in these countries, the national priority placed on education, among all the competing claims for government budget support, is much higher than in Cambodia. Indonesia and Lao PDR are the only two countries in the region, which have lower rates than Cambodia.

Figure 6.38: Comparison of Education Expenditure as a Percentage of Total Expenditure for Countries in the Southeast Asia Region, 2002-04

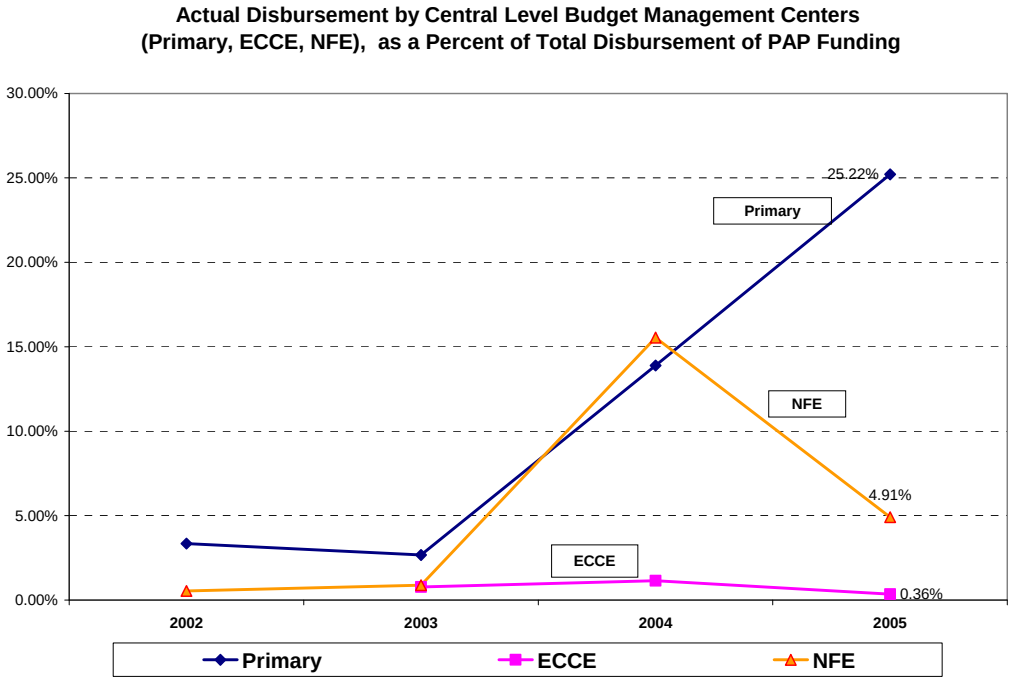


Source: Human Development Report 2006, Table 11 "Commitment to Education, Public Spending; Data refer to the most recent year available during the period specified

6.7.11 Proportion of the Education Budget for Early Childhood Care and Education, Primary Education and Non-Formal Education and Adult Literacy

Three indicators have been treated in earlier chapters to show the proportion of the national education budget that was allocated to three key areas, ECCD (see Chapter), Primary Education (see Chapter 2) and NFE and Adult Literacy (see Chapter 4). A comparative summary of those findings is presented in Figure 6.39 below. Each line shows the level of Priority Action Program (PAP) funding expended by the respective Budget Management Center for each sector, as a percentage of the total PAP expended budget in the Ministry in any given year. The levels of budgetary allocation can be taken as a proxy for the relative degrees of priority and importance given to Primary Education, Early Childhood Care and Education, and Non-Formal Education in the total national education budget. According to this comparative summary, allocations for Primary Education have been increasing dramatically during the repoting period while those for NFE have been declining just as dramatically, at least since 2004. In contrast, allocations for ECCE have been static during this period. It should be remembered, however, that the data presented in Figure 6.39 relates to Central Level Administration PAP budgets only. Additional expenditures of PAP funding at the province level will likely increase the amounts for each Department's activities. However, these proportions of Central Level expenditure may serve as a proxy for the levels of priority in the Ministry for these departments.

Figure 6.39: Comparison of Budgetary Allocations under PAP by Educational Sector, 2002-05



Department of Finance, MoEYS "Report on analyzing PAP Budget Management and Implementation from year 2002 until year 2005"

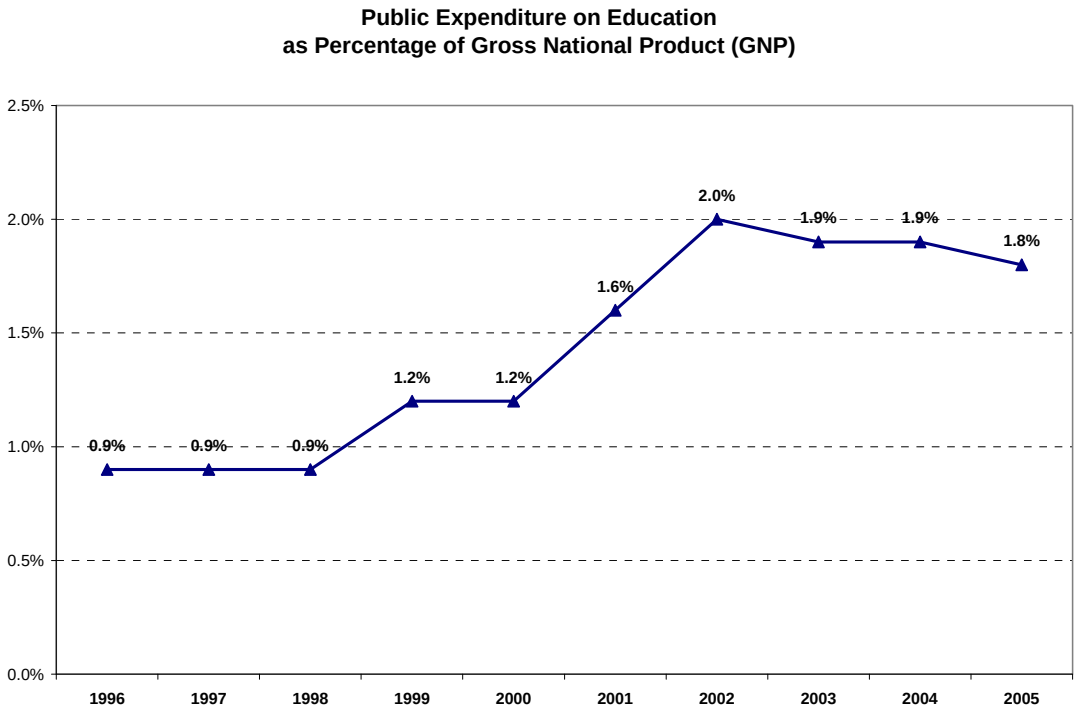
6.7.12 Public Expenditure on Education as a Percentage of Gross National Product

In principle, a high percentage of GNP devoted to public expenditure on education denotes a high level of attention given to investment in education by government. Figure 6.40 below shows the trend of public education expenditures in Cambodia as a share of GNP. The steady rise from 1996 to 2002 reflects increasing priority given to education. Thereafter, there appears to be a steady decline in the resources allocated to education relative to GNP. This finding confirms the trend seen earlier, which showed a decline in the percentage share of education in the National Budget, while the National Budget continued to rise steadily. However, it is important to remember that if GNP is rising faster than the education budget, a comparative analysis such as that shown in Figure 6.40 would still indicate a decline in proportional share of GNP, even though the education budget was actually still rising. Thus, it is important to be cautious in interpreting such data.

Once again, it is useful to put trends regarding GNP and educational expenditure in Cambodia in perspective by making a comparison with the proportion of GNP devoted to education in other countries in the region (see Figure 6.41). The HDR Report of 2006 is once again instructive in this regard. With education at 2% of GNP, Cambodia ranks ahead of Indonesia, which devotes only 0.9% of GNP to education. However, Cambodia falls below the proportion that was even reported for Lao PDR, which devotes 2.3% of GNP to education. Thailand's expenditure on education is 4.2% of GNP, more than double that of Cambodia, while Malaysia's expenditure is an astonishing 8% of GNP, a full four times greater than Cambodia's expenditure on education.

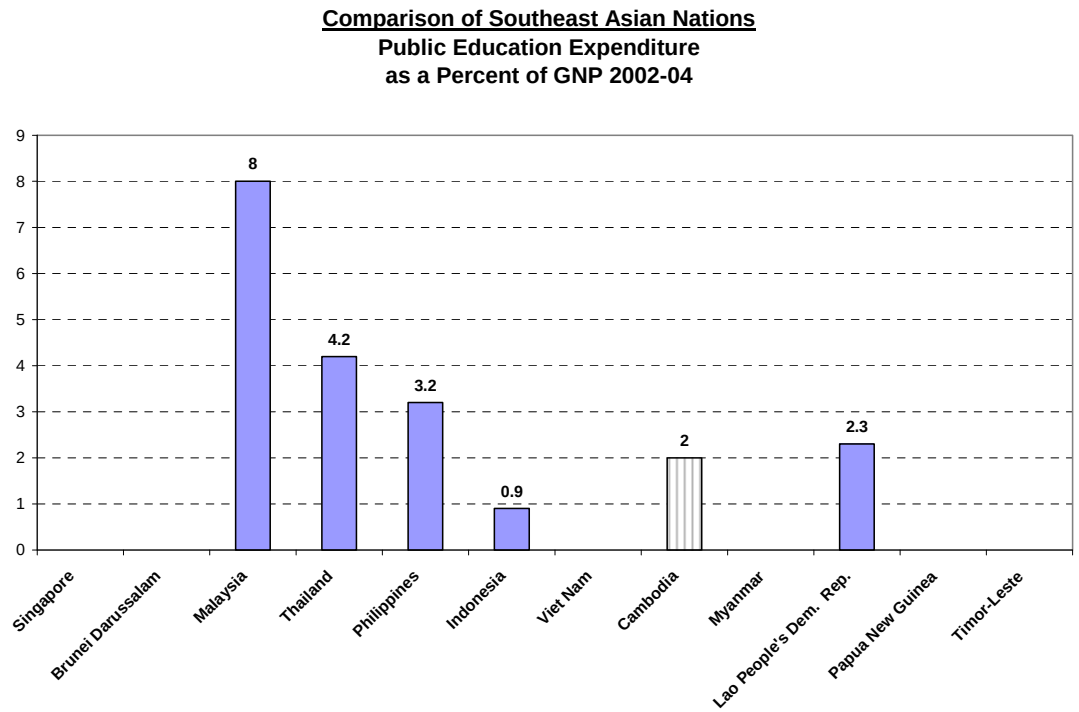
The challenge is clearly to persuade Cambodian policy makers that the future depends on education, and that the improvement of educational quality, and the achievement of poverty reduction, depends on how much of the country's national resources will be devoted to educating the next generation.

Figure 6.40: Public Expenditure on Education as a Proportion of GNP, 1996-2005



Source: Table given in Ridao-Cano and Taliercio, "Cambodia: Public Expenditure Tracking Survey (PETS) in Primary Education," 10. *Note in original source*: "TOFE, LDB, and Fund staff estimates. All data actual Treasury-executed spending except 2005. Excludes spending for youth and sport."

Figure 6.41: Public Expenditure on Education as a Proportion of GNP in the Southeast Asia Region, 2002-04



Source: Human Development Report 2006, Table 11 "Commitment to Education, Public Spending
Data refer to the most recent year available during the period specified.

6.7.13 Percentage of Schools with Improved Water Supply

"Improved" water sources can vary from place to place, and include piped water, public taps and standpipes, tube wells, bore wells, protected dug wells, and protected rainwater collection. The latter is obviously not much use during the prolonged dry season. Without access to water for drinking and for sanitation purposes, the school is not optimally inviting to students and teachers. When donors assist with construction of new school facilities, the provision of water and toilets is usually included.

Traditionally, primary schools in Cambodia were located in Wats or temples, which were in turn located precisely in places where water was available. The water for the pagodas often came from a spring, and fed into a large tank or moat around the pagoda, just as a moat would have surrounded an ancient temple. In the present day, schools tend to be situated near roads or other government buildings, with the expectation that a well and pump can provide the water needed.

National Level Data on Water Supply in Schools:

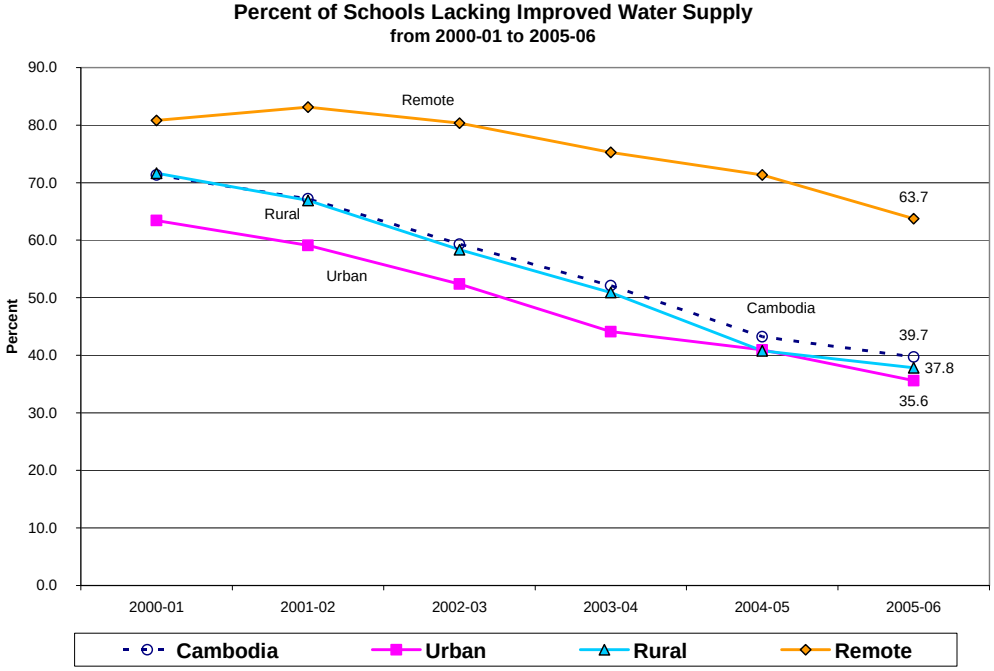
The trend to provide water to schools is unmistakable, as seen in the steady decline in the number of schools that lack an improved water supply. The percentage of Cambodian schools lacking water in 2005-06 is nearly half the percentage of schools lacking water in 2000-01, showing real improvement overall (see Table 6.16/Figure 6.42). It is also quite clear, however that schools in remote areas fall quite far behind urban and rural schools in this respect. For example, in 2005-06, the rate of schools lacking water in urban areas was 28% lower than the rate of schools lacking water in remote areas.

Table 6.16: Percentage of Schools Lacking Improved Water Supply

Year	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-01	71.3	63.4	71.6	80.8
2001-02	67.2	59.1	66.9	83.1
2002-03	59.3	52.4	58.3	80.3
2003-04	52.1	44.1	50.9	75.3
2004-05	43.2	40.9	40.8	71.3
2005-06	39.7	35.6	37.8	63.7

Source: Cambodia MoEYS EMIS, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Figure 6.42: Trends in the Percentage of Schools Lacking Water Supply by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06

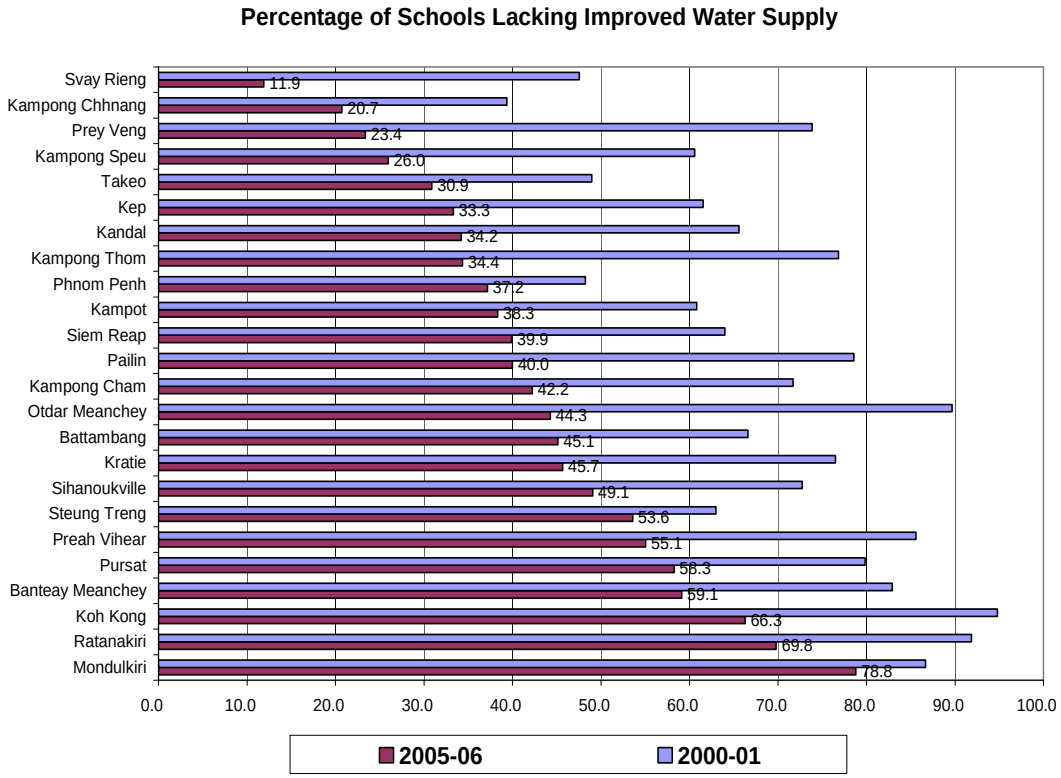


Source: Cambodia MoEYS EMIS, 2000-01 to 2005-06

Provincial Level Data on Water Supply in Schools:

The reduction in the rate of schools lacking an improved water supply between 2000-01 and 2005-06 is evident in every single province. However, strong disparities still persist (see Figure 6.43). For example, the remote provinces of Mondulkiri (78.8% of schools lacking water supply) and Ratanakiri (69.8%) in the Northeast and Koh Kong (66.3% lacking water) on the coast have rates of schools lacking improved water supplies that are up to seven times the rate of provinces in the central plains and delta, like Svay Rieng (only 11.9% lacking water). Such disparities place the children in these remote provinces at a great disadvantage when receiving educational services in environments that are not welcoming.

Figure 6.43: Trends in the Percentage of Schools Lacking Water Supply by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, EMIS, 2000-01 & 2005-06

6.7.14 Percentage of Schools Lacking Improved Sanitary Facilities

"Improved" sanitary facilities can mean several things, including the availability of flush or pour flush toilets to piped sewers or septic tanks or pit latrines, as well as ventilation improved latrines, pit latrines with slab and composting toilets. The availability of water is of course essential for any sanitary facility. Development partners in Cambodia who build school facilities are also providing both water, usually wells, and latrines (pour flush to septic tank).

In the rural and remote areas of the country, pupils are often unfamiliar with the use of flush latrines and will either avoid using them or will not maintain the cleanliness of the facilities without instruction. The prevalent practice of using the bush naturally leads to increased intestinal afflictions of

Table: 6.16 Percentage of Schools Lacking Latrines

	Cambodia	Urban	Rural	Remote
2000-01	65.4	42.4	67.0	83.6
2001-02	59.7	38.4	60.5	82.6
2002-03	51.7	34.5	51.4	79.4
2003-04	41.4	26.8	40.2	73.4
2004-05	34.3	25.1	32.0	69.3
2005-06	30.6	18.9	29.3	58.9

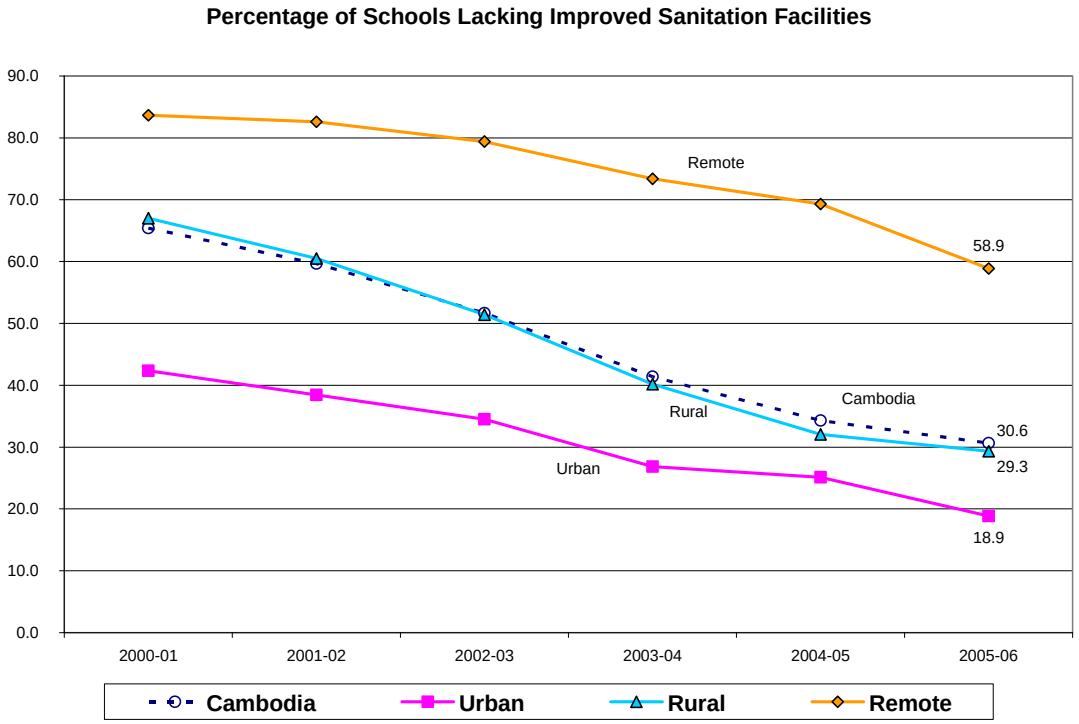
Source: Cambodia MoEYS EMIS, 2000-01 to 2005-06

parasites and worms. The provision of toilets at schools should be accompanied by a teaching module on health and hygiene.

National Level Data on Sanitary Facilities:

Trends with respect to the availability of sanitary facilities follow those seen for water availability. Thus, the rates for schools lacking latrines have been cut in half between 2000-01 and 2005-06 nationwide (see Table 6.16 and Figure 6.44). The same rate of success is apparent in both urban and rural areas. However, nearly one-third of schools still lack improved sanitary facilities nationwide. Remote areas show a slower rate of improvement, and by 2005-06 are still showing rates that the nation as a whole showed in 2001. Targeted interventions for water and sanitation in remote areas are needed to remove these glaring disparities, which will also help to improve national rates of availability.

Figure 6.44: Trends in the Percentage of Schools Lacking Sanitary Facilities by Demographic Area, 2000-01 to 2005-06



Source: MoEYS, EMIS, 2000-01 to 2005-06

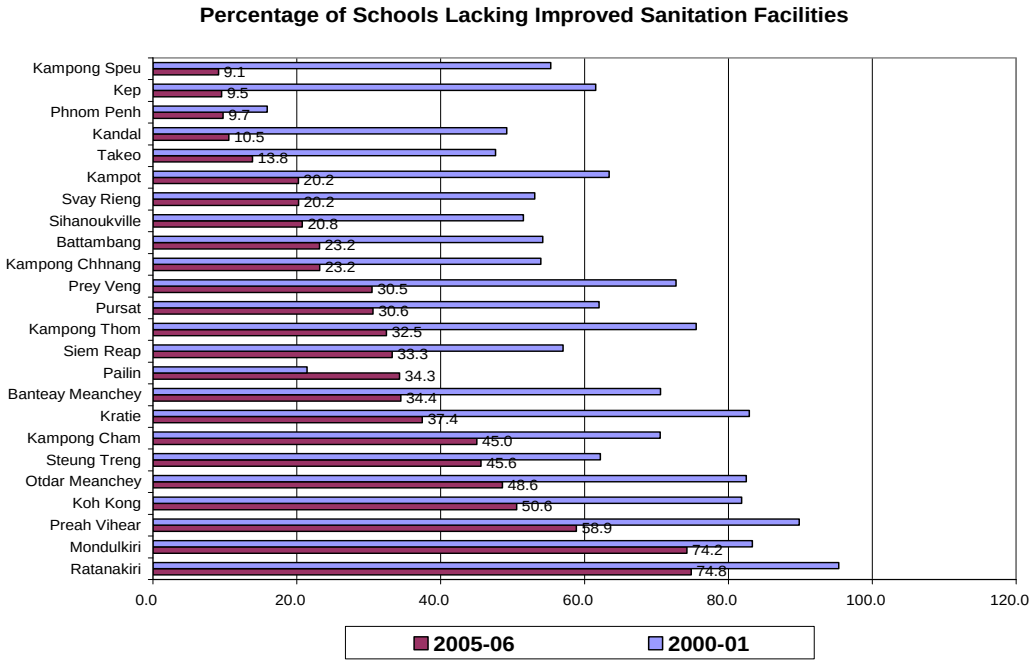
National Level Data on Sanitary Facilities:

All provinces except for Pailin show reductions in the percentage of schools lacking improved sanitation facilities over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06. In Pailin, there were probably new schools built quickly in the reconciliation process, but without concomitant improvements in sanitation facilities, giving rise to this result.

The disparities among provinces are once again striking. For example, the remote northeastern provinces of Mondulkiri (74.2% of schools lacking sanitation) and Ratanakiri (74.8% of schools lacking sanitation) have extremely high rates of deficit, which indeed are eight times higher than the rate of schools with such deficiencies in provinces near the capital, like Kampong Speu (9.1%), Kep (9.5%) Phnom Penh (9.7%) or Kandal (10.5%) (see Figure 6.45).

Twelve of the country's 24 provinces have rates above the national average (30.6%) for schools lacking improved sanitation facilities, suggesting that this is really a nation-wide problem that needs concerted nation-wide solutions.

Figure 6.45: Trends in the Percentage of Schools Lacking Sanitary Facilities by Province, 2000-01 & 2005-06



Source: Cambodia MoEYS EMIS, 2000-01 & 2005-06

THE WAY FORWARD

Chapter 7: The Way Forward

7.1 The Past as Prologue

During the first years of this decade, Cambodia has made remarkable progress across each of the sectors described in this report, though some more than others. This improvement stands in marked contrast to the earlier decade when enrolment and efficiency indicators were largely stagnant as were budgetary allocations to education. The Year 2000 was a watershed year in the Cambodian Education Sector and coincided with the introduction of dynamic reforms that introduced a pro-poor focus to educational investment and development approaches. These reforms, based on solid empirical investigations that marked the late 1990s and early years of the present decade, moved educational development in the country from a supply-side focused approach (i.e., singular focus on training, textbooks, and infrastructure) to one in which demand-side elements gained much greater prominence (e.g., abolition of school fees, introduction of school operating budgets, scholarships for the poor, school breakfast programs, etc.). The numbers in this report tell much of the story – enrolment in ECCD as well as the basic education are dramatically up (though much more so in the latter), leading to a growing focus on the 'unreached 10%'. Similarly, there have been major improvements in gender parity at all levels, particularly in the lower income quintiles. Inclusive education has moved to the forefront with the development of discrete government policies to address the needs of the physically challenged and girls/women as well as a greater focus on minority and bilingual education issues.

At the same time, the introduction of a practical approach to building child friendly learning environments at the start of the decade has coalesced into the Ministry's front-line strategy to address quality issues. The decision to elevate the Child Friendly School approach to a national policy in 2007, based on pilots during the early years of the decade, was a major step to move quality-focused efforts forward in this respect. The Child Friendly School approach has been universally lauded by development practitioners in the sector because it moves development away from unidimensional projects that focus on only one aspect of a child's learning (e.g., health or teacher training) to more dynamic programming that emphasizes the whole learning environment. This holistic approach to development is defined by a focus on six dimensions[22] that offers much promise as an improved method of educational development though it will certainly increase the complexity of future programming.

The way forward from these positive starting points presents certain challenges. For example, demand-side interventions that have had dramatic impacts on enrolment over the last 5 or 6 years have clearly 'maxed' out at around 90% NER. Demand-side strategies now need to be reviewed in order to refine them to reach the 'unreached.' Just providing more of the same may not be as effective an approach as was true at the start of the decade and could lead to a situation where the education sector is simply treading water for the remainder of the decade. Focusing on provinces where disparities with mainstream provinces have been greatest (i.e., the Northeast and Southwest), as so often recounted in this report, is a useful place to start reviewing why past approaches have not worked well in these provinces. Similarly, there is a danger that a national expansion agenda for CFS approaches could neglect the stakeholder-driven, bottom-up processes that made the original pilots so successful. The challenge in expanding CFS models will, therefore, be for central level to drive forward an approach that is essentially decentralized in character in a way that does not neutralize the very processes that led to success in the first place. There is also the need to ensure that the implementation of national policies ensures that there is still room for pilots for it is through the pilots that innovation has been kept alive in the education sector. Thus, the elevation of successful pilots to the level of national policy, such as Child Friendly Schools, should not necessarily imply that there is no longer any more need for pilots or experimentation. These are important issues for Ministry planners and its partners to keep in mind for the latter half of the decade.

[22] The six dimensions are (i) Inclusive Education; (ii) Psychosocial Learning Environments; (iii) Health, Nutrition, and Safety; (iv) Gender Sensitivity; (v) Parental and Community Engagement; and (vi) Enabling Administrative Environments.

7.2 Discrete Goals for EFA

Goal 1: Early Childhood Care and Education

- It is very important to strengthen Early Childhood Care and Education Programs, especially for children aged 5 with increased resources and support in order to begin to overcome the tendency for overage enrollments in primary school. This is particularly important in the poorer rural and remote areas of the Kingdom, where overage admission and enrollment are most prevalent by providing community pre-school and home-based education.

- The relatively high levels of malnutrition are clearly associated with the poverty of the rural areas of the country and with the high levels of inequality in consumption between rich urban areas and poor rural areas. The data suggest that an extensive supplementary feeding program linked to increased access to pre-schools would begin to alleviate the worst debilitating effects of inadequate nutrition for these children.

- If the benefits of early childhood education are going to be realized, and EFA goals reached, a much greater allocation of resources must be made to Early Childhood Care and Education.

Goal 2: Achieving Universal Primary/Basic Education

General Access Issues at Primary School Level

- Although there have been improvements, persistent intake disparities in such remote areas as Ratanakiri, Mondulkiri and Koh Kong suggest that continued careful, culturally sensitive interventions are needed in the remote border provinces to maintain momentum towards the EFA goal of universal access to basic education.

- Two provinces show very low Net Enrollment Rates in primary education. The present rate for Mondulkiri is 79.5% and for Ratanakiri 67.5%. Another low enrollment province is Koh Kong with an NER in 2005-06 of 78.3%. These three poor performers have both low net admission rates and low net enrollment rates, showing persistent problems in reaching their primary school populations. Although they comprise less than 2% of the total population, they nevertheless deserve special consideration for investment.

- The persistent trend for overage entry to and overage enrollment in the primary level is a reality to which the school system and teachers should accommodate, at least in the short to mid-term. The desire for correct age and homogeneous age classes must come to terms with the actual demographic and cultural demand for primary education by overage children. Appropriate modifications of classrooms and pedagogy may be necessary to reach this significant component of the primary school population effectively.

- Training of primary school teachers who are deployed to the areas of endemic high overage intake should include specific skills and pedagogical techniques that are appropriate for classrooms in which children will likely be overage and show very wide age variation so that older children in the lower grades can be reached effectively.

- Training for teachers in "accelerated learning" techniques for older children will help more mature pupils in lower grades advance more quickly and rejoin their age mates. This provision for rapid progression for older children will require greater flexibility and understanding on the part of both teachers and school directors in managing the progress of overage children in the school system.

Incomplete Schools

- A nationwide rate of 27.4% incomplete primary schools means that one school in four primary schools is incomplete across the Kingdom. The large proportion of incomplete primary schools is in remote areas of the Kingdom, over 60%, nearly four times the proportion in urban areas. This means that the children in remote areas are significantly less reached by the progress being made at the primary level toward Education for All goals.

- The problem of incomplete schools is by no means confined to the "remote" mountainous provinces of the Northeast, home largely to the tribal minorities. The rate of incomplete primary schools and incomplete lower secondary schools is over 20% in 14 out of 24 provinces in Cambodia. From the perspective of EFA goal 2, the high rate of incomplete schools is a significant bottleneck, constricting the availability of basic education across the nation. In addition, empirical evidence flowing in from field sites indicates that incomplete schools play a major role in dropout, since young children who complete the highest grade in an incomplete school cannot walk the long distance to the nearest complete school to continue their education. The solution to the problem may involve not only improving physical school structures but also effective deployment of human resources. This speaks to Cambodia's growing teacher shortage problem, which some development projects describe as an invisible crisis (see below). Indeed, there are only one or two major projects operating in the country that are actively working with the Royal Government to solve this crisis. Government clearly needs more assistance in this regard. Where class size is small, multigrade teaching is an effective solution. This requires specific pedagogical training for the teachers assigned to such schools.

Teacher Shortages

- MoEYS will soon require major assistance from its partners to address teacher shortages in the basic education sector. These shortages will begin to intensify as demographic trends indicate that age-specific population declines among school-aged children that began in 2004 will begin to reverse in 2009. It is quite fortunate that these demographic trends have helped to avert a major crisis. Time, however, is running out. Currently, there are only about 50,000 primary school teachers to staff 61,000 classes (cf. EMIS, 2006). This has required widespread use of double shift teaching, which places incredible strains on an already under resourced teaching force and impacts negatively on educational quality. One must honestly ask whether any human being can effectively teach 8 hours a day, 6 days a week? Output from PTTCs is just barely keeping up with retirements and resignations. MoEYS has moved forward with dynamic experimentation to address teacher shortages such as flexible entry requirements to PTTCs (e.g., 9+2), use of Community Teachers in state schools, and affirmative action in minority communities. MoEYS will require support from its partners to bring these efforts forward as enrolments once again begin to expand. The teacher shortage problem is perhaps the single biggest threat to Cambodia's effort to achieve EFA and deserves its designation as 'the invisible crisis.'

General Access Issues at Lower Secondary School Level

- Families in many of the poorest and most remote areas are eager to enroll correct age girls in Lower Secondary School if they can access programs that seek to reduce the cost barrier to access. The incentive schemes of the Japanese Fund for Poverty Reduction financed through the Asian Development Bank (JFPR/ADB), the World Bank Cambodia Education Sector Support Project (CESSP), the Belgian Technical Cooperation Basic Education and Teacher Training (BETT) program, as well as the Ministry's Priority Action Program (PAP 12) have provided scholarships to poor girls in 7th, 8th, and 9th grades since 2003-04. These programs probably account for the increasing willingness and ability of families to send their daughters to Lower Secondary School.

- There will soon be need to consolidate these various pilot scholarship programs into a single National Scholarship Program, built on the best practices identified and incorporating

the lessons learned from the pilots. Such a program might also consider extending the cash incentive program down to the primary grades, since that is where the poorest and most vulnerable pupils are likely to drop out of school.

Goal 3: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Transition Primary to Lower Secondary

- Disparities between provinces in Transition Rates to LSS are marked. Ratanakiri (72.6%), Oddar Meanchey (73.3%), Kampong Chhnang (73.9%) and Siem Reap (74.8%) are all below a Transition Rate of 75%. Meanwhile rates above 90%, as expected, are found in Phnom Penh where the rate was 95.2%. But unexpectedly, Mondulkiri shows a very healthy rate of 90.4%. The comparative weakness of transition in the ethnic minority province Ratanakiri and strength of transition from 6th to 7th grades in its neighboring minority province Mondulkiri warrants investigation to learn the practices that account for Mondulkiri's success in transitioning pupils from the primary to the secondary level.

- The remarkably high GPI for Ratanakiri (1.27). contrasts with the very lowest GPI for TR to LSS in 2005-06, which is found in Mondulkiri (.85). Ratanakiri is transitioning relatively few students from 6th grade to 7th grade, but they are largely girls. Mondulkiri is much more successful in having a high transition rate, but the pupils transitioning are largely boys. There may be contrasting local practices and policies that account for these disparities observed in high transition rates to lower secondary school and low access for female students to 7th grade, or , on the contrary, low transition rates and high access for female students to lower secondary school. The disparities should be followed-up for lessons that can be learned.

Transition from Lower Secondary to Upper Secondary

- The gender aspect of Transition Rates to Upper Secondary School shows a truly remarkable feature. The trend over the last five years has been that females transition from 9th to 10th grade at a higher rate than males.

- Many Cambodian families with the means to access Upper Secondary education clearly feel that cultural or security barriers, often mentioned in connection with primary and lower secondary enrollment, will not prevent their daughters from obtaining advanced levels of schooling.

- The current rate in Phnom Penh, highest in the country, is 83.3% of Lower Secondary students transitioning to Upper Secondary School. This is a steep rise from 72.4% in 2001-02. Stung Treng, next highest in the country, currently has a TR to USS of 81.9%, steeply up from 61.6% in 2001-02. Siem Reap currently third highest in the country, has a TR to USS of 78.1%, steeply up from 59.7% in 2001-02. Sihanoukville next highest, currently has a TR to USS of 77.2%, considerably up from 67.2% in 2001-02. Mondulkiri, next highest rate in the country, currently has a TR to USS of 75.9%, moderately above its rate in 2001-02 of 73.8%. The reasons for these sharp increases should be investigated for the lessons that can be learned.

- At the other end of the scale, Oddar Meanchey currently has the lowest Transition Rate to Upper Secondary Level in the country with only 41.2% of Lower Secondary students transitioning to Upper Secondary School. This is a sharp fall from the rate of 56.1% in 2001-02. Next lowest is Ratanakiri, which currently has a TR to USS of 50.8% which is a dramatic fall from 80.9% in 2001-02, when it had the highest rate in the nation. Koh Kong which has a current rate in 2005-06 of 57.5%, is down sharply from a rate of 67.8% in 2001-02. Reasons for these declines should be investigated for the lessons that can be learned.

- Identification of such disparities should help educational planners in the Ministry allocate and deploy resources so that a more even distribution of improvement among provinces is provided. Phnom Penh has a Transition Rate to Upper Secondary that is just about double that found in Oddar Meanchey. The remote and poor provinces of Odar Meanchey, Ratanakiri, Kampong Speu, Koh Kong as well as Kampong Cham all have Transition Rates for USS below 60% in 2005-06. Phnom Penh and the remote Stung Treng have Transition Rates above 80%. These disparities appear to be due to deliberate decisions and policy making regarding access to the upper secondary level of education, either at the Central level or at the local Province Education Offices.

- Stung Treng, Sihanoukville and Preah Vihear have among the six highest Transition Rates to Upper Secondary School in the country, but the very lowest GPI in the country in 2005-06. Stung Treng GPI is .76. Sihanoukville GPI is .87. Preah Vihear GPI is .74. The high transition rates to Upper Secondary School have been strongly favoring males in these provinces.

- In Ratanakiri 50.8% of students are transitioning to Upper Secondary, but of the students transitioning there is double the rate of female transition to Upper Secondary than male transition to Upper Secondary in this province. This must be the result of deliberate local affirmative-action efforts to strengthen female access to Upper Secondary School.

- These disparities reveal policy choices that should be examined for the lessons that they provide. A discussion of these disparities should lead to efforts to extend equitable opportunities to access Upper Secondary education as widely as possible in Cambodia.

Goal 4: Literacy

- Significant disparities in Adult Literacy exist by region. On the high side of the literacy scale, Phnom Penh and Svay Rieng both have male literacy rates over 90%. The total adult literacy rate for males and females age 15 and above in Phnom Penh is 88.8% and for Svay Rieng 79.5%.

- On the low end of the literacy scale, the combined provinces of Kratie, Mondulkiri, Preah Vihear, Ratanakiri and Stung Treng, all provinces with significant ethnic minority populations and with large remote, mountainous areas, show an adult literacy rate of 61.2%. Siem Reap is only slightly higher at 64.5% and Kampong Chhnang is only slightly higher than Siem Reap with an adult literacy of 66.4%. The populations in these provinces are in dire need of efforts to improve adult literacy rates and move them towards the national average of 73.6%, at least.

- The combined figure for the literacy rates of the young, school aged children, in the provinces of Kratie, Mondulkiri, Preah Vihear, Ratanakiri and Stung Treng are distinctly lower (56.9%) than the literacy rates for adults in this combined province area (61.2%). The area is predominantly remote, forested, hill country, with numerous ethnic minority peoples. The challenge remains to bring the advantages of primary education and literacy to the children of this area. In terms of EFA goals, these children are the "unreached" that must be given proper attention in the next half decade.

- Three other provinces show marginally lower literacy rates for the young group aged 6-14 than for the adult group aged 15 and over. They are Pursat (young 68.8%, adult 70.5%), Kampong Speu (young 69.5%, adult 70.8%), and the combined Koh Kong and Sihanoukville area (young 75.9%, adult 76%). These disparities are smaller than those noticed for the remote provinces, but they also need attention.

- All other provinces show literacy rates for the young that exceed the literacy rates for adults in 2004, verifying the general effectiveness of the reach of primary education in the country.

- The significance of this finding is that equity of access to literacy (presumably by access to primary school) by males and females is well established in the country, even though there are still areas where school-aged children, in general, face barriers in obtaining literacy, presumably because of barriers that prevent them from obtaining the first six years of basic education.

- While great attention has been paid to gender equity and provision of literacy for children over the last five to ten years, literacy campaigns for adults have not kept pace. The disparity between the young and the adults demonstrates the need to reach the adults with literacy training. The low gender parity levels for the adult group show that the adult literacy programs needed should be targeted especially at the females. This group of women includes the mothers of the children in the present school-age and pre-school age group, whose own literacy will be guarantee the consolidation of the gains of their children.

- The challenge remains to reach the unreached, who are the adults, especially adult females. This group must be provided training in basic literacy and numeracy skills to raise adult literacy and gender parity to acceptable rates.

- The fluctuation of funding disbursed for literacy programs, and the fluctuation in actual level of funding, each year makes planning difficult. There is a clear need for smoothing out the budgeting, so that planners designing Adult Literacy programs can take a longer horizon for planning than the next PAP tranche.

Goal 5: Gender Parity and Equality

Gender and Enrollment

- The Gross Enrollment Rate in Primary Education for males and females shows a consistent pattern of enrollment in favor of males. The GPI has risen marginally from .89 in 2001-02 to a GPI of .92 in 2003-04, where it has been level for the past three school years. Continued efforts to increase female enrollment and retention in primary school, regardless of age, are essential to reaching EFA goals of gender parity.

- The two ethnic minority areas of the northeast continue to show the poorest access for correct age girls in primary enrollment. Mondulkiri shows a GPI of .85 and Ratanakiri shows a GPI of .76. Correct age enrollment total for males and females in these provinces (and in Koh Kong) lags significantly behind all the other provinces in the nation. These findings on enrollment, NER, replicate the findings on intake, NAR, to reinforce the conclusion that these three provinces require specific targeted interventions to remove the persistent disparities in primary school access that the data reveal.

- NER LSS In 2005-06 one Cambodian province had achieved gender parity for Gross Enrollment Rate in Lower Secondary School, and that was Kratie (GPI for GER in LSS 1.03). The reasons for this unexpected finding are not known. At the other end of the scale, Sihanoukville showed a distinctly low GPI for GER in LSS at .64. This province has a particularly poor rate for enrollment of females at the lower secondary level, in spite of the scholarship programs operating in the province to reduce the barriers to female enrollment in 7th grade.

Gender and Transition from Primary to Lower Secondary

- Phnom Penh, with the highest TR (95.2%) also achieved gender parity with a GPI of .97. But Sihanoukville, with a transition rate of 87.1%, third highest in the country, after Phnom Penh and Mondulkiri, shared the lowest GPI with Mondulkiri, at .85. These latter provinces

were giving priority to males in transition to Lower Secondary Schools.

- Some provinces with relatively low transition rates from Primary to Lower Secondary School were transitioning a large proportion of females. Pursat with a TR of 76.6%, Battambang (75.5%), Banteay Meanchey (75.1%), Kampong Chhnang (73.9%), and Ratanakiri (72.6%) had all achieved gender parity with a GPI of .97 or greater. The female transition to Lower Secondary was so great in Ratanakiri as to give a disparity GPI of 1.27 in favor of females.

- There may be local practices and policies that account for these disparities observed in high transition rates to lower secondary school and low access for female students to 7th grade, or, on the contrary, low transition rates and high access for female students to lower secondary school. The disparities should be followed-up for lessons that can be learned.

Gender and Transition from Lower to Upper Secondary

- Stung Treng, Sihanoukville and Preah Vihear have among the six highest Transition Rates to Upper Secondary School in the country, but the very lowest GPI in the country in 2005-06. Stung Treng GPI is .76. Sihanoukville GPI is .87. Preah Vihear GPI is .74. The high transition rates have been strongly favoring males in these provinces.

- Meanwhile, Ratanakiri, with the second lowest Transition Rate to USS in the country in 2005-06 has managed to achieve an astonishing Gender Parity Index of 2.06. In Ratanakiri 50.8% of students are transitioning to Upper Secondary, but of the students transitioning there is double the rate of female transition to Upper Secondary than male transition to Upper Secondary in this province. Ratanakiri showed an astounding 30.1% increase in female enrollment in Upper Secondary over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06, reflecting some specific policy decisions in that province to improve access to upper secondary level education to females. Ratanakiri, with a female enrollment in USS of 53.3% in 2005-06 is highest in the nation.

- These disparities reveal deliberate local efforts to strengthen female access to Upper Secondary School and policy choices that should be examined for the lessons that they provide. A discussion of these findings should lead to efforts to extend equitable opportunities to access Upper Secondary education as widely as possible in Cambodia.

Female Teachers in Primary Education

- Teacher training institutions could increase opportunities for women by providing targeted scholarships, for instance, to local graduates from remote areas, who know the local conditions and perhaps the local dialects and languages. These teachers could be expected eventually to work in their home area and help solve the familiar deployment challenges to find teachers from urban areas willing to live in remote work locations.

- Local schools could also help make improvements in working conditions for young female teachers. Many schools successfully mobilize community support to provide a house and small garden plot for the teachers in order to reduce their housing and commuting costs.
- All Cambodian provinces, except for one, show an increase in the percent female teaching staff primary level over the period. The one exception is Sihanoukville, which shows a slight (1.3%) decline in female teaching staff.
- The disparity among provinces in percent female teaching staff is abundantly clear. Phnom Penh, with 73.6% female teaching staff in primary education in 2005-06, is far above gender parity, in favor of women. Battambang with 53.1% female teaching staff and Siem Reap with 51.6% female teaching staff are also above gender parity. Kratie with 49.9% female teaching staff, Kandal with 48.1% female teaching staff and Kampong Cham with 45.1% female teaching staff are all above the national average of 41.7% for 2005-06. Female

teachers clearly prefer to work in the major cities and town of Cambodia rather than in the rural and remote countryside.

- The growing urban-rural divide which reduces female teaching staff in the countryside threatens to disadvantage the girls from rural areas by reducing the support they would receive from having female teachers as guides and mentors.

Female Teachers in Secondary Education

- The higher population centers show greater rates of female teachers, while the remote areas generally show much lower rates. This kind of imbalance can only be rectified by careful incentive packages and deployment strategies to equalize distribution of scarce human resources across the country. The importance of female teachers in providing support and role models to female students, and the well established association of increased female teaching staff and increased female student retention are strong arguments for promoting equitable deployment of females in all provinces of the country.

Gender and Repetition

- In Remote areas the percent of female repeaters in the primary level was about double the rate in the Urban areas. The need for improvement in quality of instruction and reduction of repetition in the early grades, especially in the Remote areas, is urgent to assure equity of access to quality basic education for all Cambodian children.

Goal 6: Quality Education

Quality and Trained and Certified Teachers

- There are four provinces that inexplicably run against the trend of falling rates of Primary teachers with only Primary qualification over the period 2000-01 to 2005-06. In Phnom Penh, the rate in 2000-01 for Primary teachers with only a Primary qualification was 1.3%, but it has risen to 2.1% in 2005-06. In Kandal, the rate was 2.1% in 2000-01 but it is now 2.8%. In Pursat, the rate was 2% in 2000-01 but 3.5% in 2005-06. In Banteay Meanchey, the rate was 8% in 2000-01 but 9.6% in 2005-06. The reasons for these increases require further investigation.

- This asymmetry in distribution of high value resources sharply distinguishes the Primary Schools with extremely high rates of USS qualified Primary teachers, which are all in urban and metropolitan areas, from the Primary Schools in the north and northeast border provinces where the rates for Primary teachers with only a Primary qualification are still very high.

- Such disparities reinforce the growing urban-rural divide in Cambodia, that will only get worse unless strategic decisions are made in the Ministry to assure a more equitable distribution of human resources. This will require a package of incentives to attract the teachers with high academic qualification to spend part of their career at least serving the populations in remote and disadvantaged areas.

- The steep rise over the last five years in the percent of trained teachers serving in the Remote areas must be due to consistent Ministry policy to improve the rate of trained teachers nationwide and to deploy human resources equitably.

- Such a commitment depends on parallel development and improvement of the pedagogical training offered at the Teacher Training institutions. This improvement depends in turn on the identification of master teachers and teacher trainers who can provide the highest level

of pre-service training. Continued improvement of the teaching force also depends on expanding opportunities and incentives for teachers to upgrade their skills and qualifications through continuous in-service training programs.

Quality and the Primary Classroom Situation

- Siem Reap primary teachers, on average, have 71 pupils to teach, which is double the number of pupils that a primary teacher in Phnom Penh teaches, which is 35. Such findings should raise a warning flag for education planners, to deploy more teachers to the areas with high and rising PTR, in order to reduce the very great disparities that will result in the teaching and learning experience between the low PTR areas and the high PTR areas.

- Kampong Speu and Siem Reap primary schools are the most crowded in the country, and have PCR that are 15% above the national average of 41.3 in 2005-06. At the other end of the scale, in 2005-06, the remote provinces of Stung Treng (PCR of 27.8), Mondulkiri (31.3), Preah Vihear (35.5), Kratie (35.5) and Ratanakiri (36) were all about 15% below the national average in number of pupils per class.

- Education planners must pay close attention to population shifts, related to developing employment opportunities and activities, in order to allocate facilities and deploy human resources in a way that provides a high quality basic education with efficiency and equity to all areas of the nation.

Quality and the Secondary Classroom Situation

- Disparities are very noticeable in secondary school Pupil Teacher Ratio. In 2005-06, Mondulkiri with a PTR of 15.4 and Kep with a PTR of 19.7 had half the PTR found in Siem Reap, which had a PTR of 41.6, or Banteay Meanchey which had a PTR of 37.9. The provincial analysis of PTR can help identify the very high and very low rates, where each teacher faces very large numbers of students or relatively few students, and assist educational planners in their human resource deployment strategies.

- Phnom Penh, with a Pupil Class Ratio of 57.4 in 2005-06, and Siem Reap with a PCR of 58.1 in 2005-06, were distinctly above the general trend for provinces. These rates are over 50% larger than the low rate for the nation found in Mondulkiri, where the PCR was 37.3 in 2005-06.

- It is important to provide classrooms and expand facilities in rural and remote areas to assure equity of access to secondary education, especially to Lower Secondary Schools. But the increasing migration of families to urban areas is also an abiding factor in Cambodian demography that will affect future enrollments and should also influence decisions on expanding secondary facilities.

- Quality issues in Lower Secondary Schools also loom large as the *next frontier* in Cambodian education. Although there has been good progress in improving access to lower secondary schools through scholarship programs and a major building program, there has been little attention to issues of quality in this sector. MoEYS has moved forward in this regard with the decision to extend its Child Friendly School Policy to include both primary and lower secondary school, leading to the creation of Child Friendly Secondary Schools (CFSS). Pilots have now begun and will require additional support to leverage them into viable models of good practice.

Quality of Education and Textbooks

- The dramatic declines in the provision of textbooks to primary school pupils will naturally be expected to affect learning outcomes. Students have to share textbooks, ruined textbooks

are not replaced, and the general result to be expected is a decline in scholastic performance.

- Teachers are often obliged to produce materials themselves locally to fill the gap in textbook availability, which tends to push the costs of schooling back onto families. This, of course, is exactly the reverse of the reforms of the last few years in which formal school fees were eliminated so that basic education could be free—the EFA goal.

- Providing of textbooks and teacher manuals to students and teachers is critical to delivery of quality education and can contribute to work achieving universal primary education.

Quality and Funding of Education

- With education at 2% of GNP, Cambodia ranks ahead of Indonesia, which devotes only 0.9%of GNP to education. But Cambodia falls below even Lao PDR, which devotes 2.3% of GNP to education. Thailand's expenditure on education is 4.2% of GNP, more than double that of Cambodia. Malaysia's expenditure on education is 8% of GNP, a full four times greater than Cambodia's expenditure on education.

- The challenge is clearly to persuade policy makers that the future depends on education, and that the improvement of educational quality, and the achievement of poverty reduction, depends on how much of the country's national resources will be devoted to educating the next generation.

Quality and School Facilities

- The reduction in rate of schools lacking an improved water supply between 2000-01 and 2005-06 is evident in every single province. However, strong disparities persist. The remote provinces of Mondulkiri (78.8% lacking water) and Ratanakiri (69.8% lacking water) in the northeast and Koh Kong (66.3% lacking water). The disparity places the children in these remote provinces at a great disadvantage in obtaining their schooling in a convenient and welcoming place.

- In regard to sanitary facilities, the disparities among provinces are striking. The remote northeastern provinces of Mondulkiri (74.2% of schools lacking sanitation) and Ratanakiri (74.8% of schools lacking sanitation) have extremely high rates --eight times the rate of schools lacking improved sanitation when compared to provinces near the capital, like Kampong Speu (9.1% lacking sanitation), Kep (9.5% lacking sanitation) Phnom Penh (9.7% lacking sanitation) or Kandal (10.5% lacking sanitation).

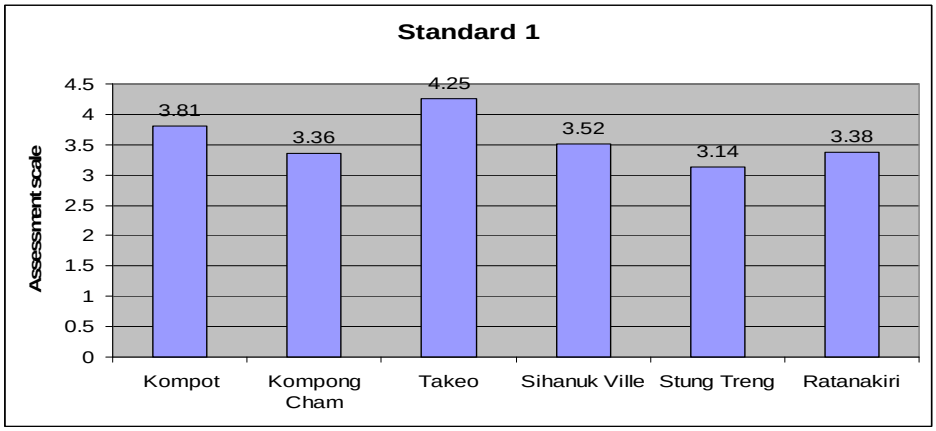
- Twelve of the country's 24 provinces have rates above the national average (30.6%) for schools lacking improved sanitation facilities, suggesting that this is really a nation-wide problem that needs concerted nation-wide solutions.

- The priority activities is to increase geographical access by developing well. maintained education infrastructure nationwide, with emphasis on deprived and underserved areas, including the provision of potable water supply and sanitary facilities, and the supply of furniture.

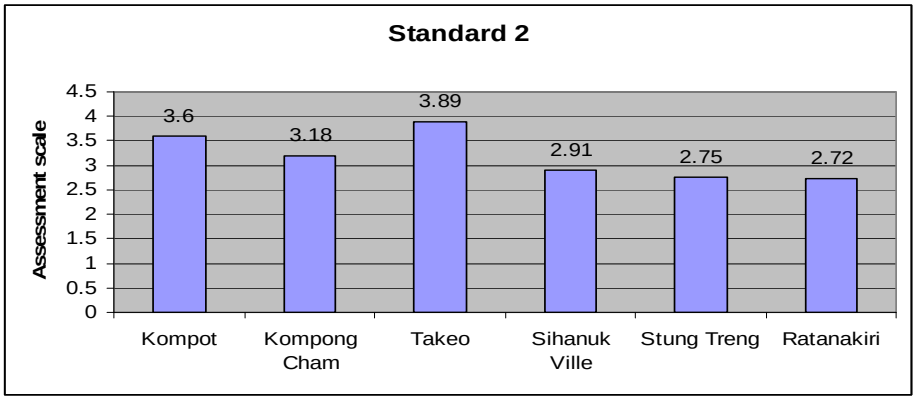
ANNEX

Annex 1: Quality and Efficiency Standards of ECCD

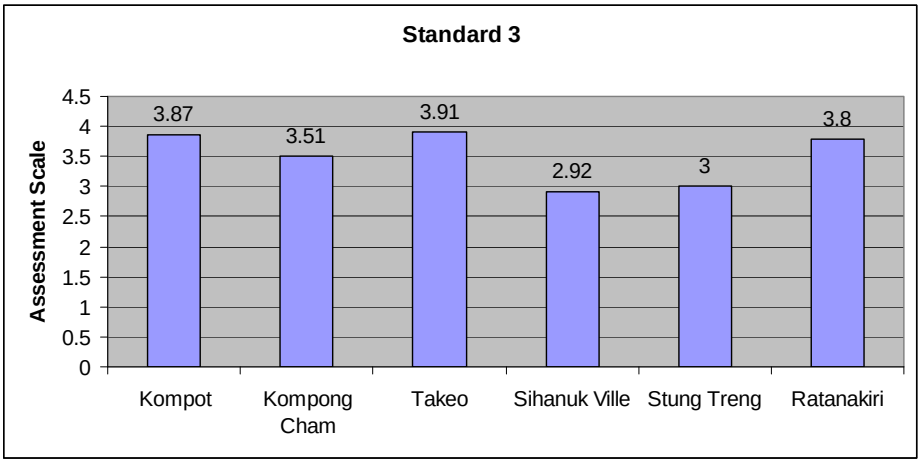
Standard 1: ECCD and Curriculum



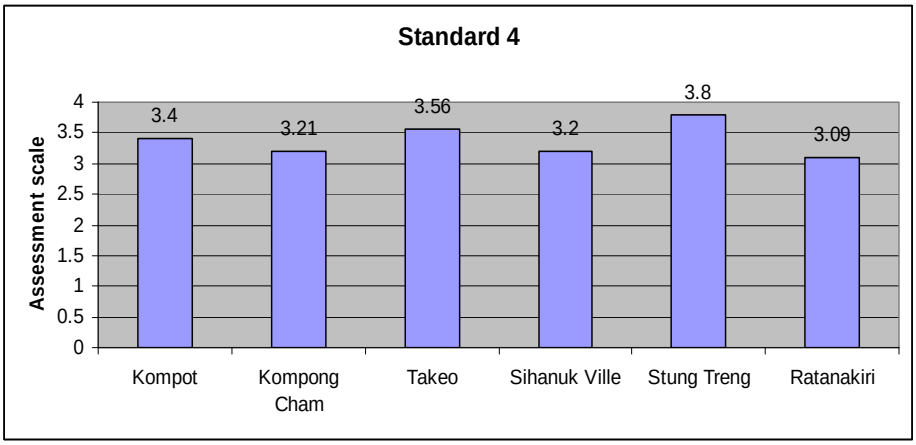
Standard 2: Estimated assessment on ECCD



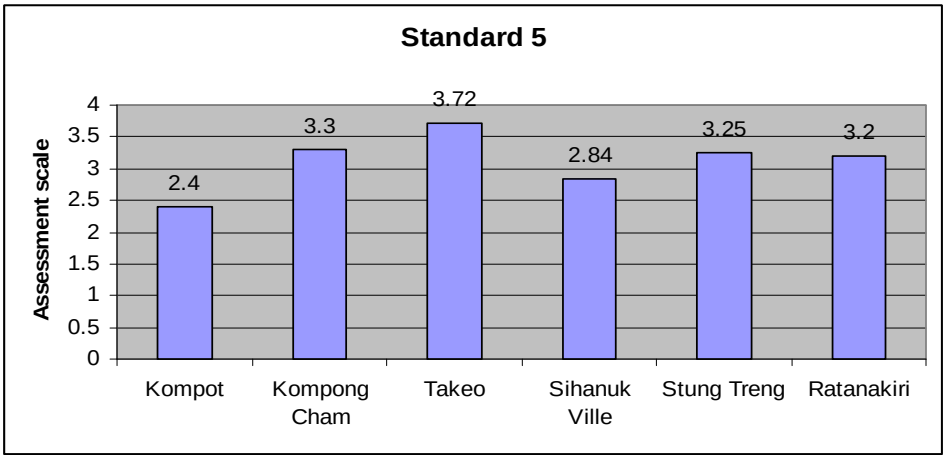
Standard 3: Care and teaching to promote students' performance



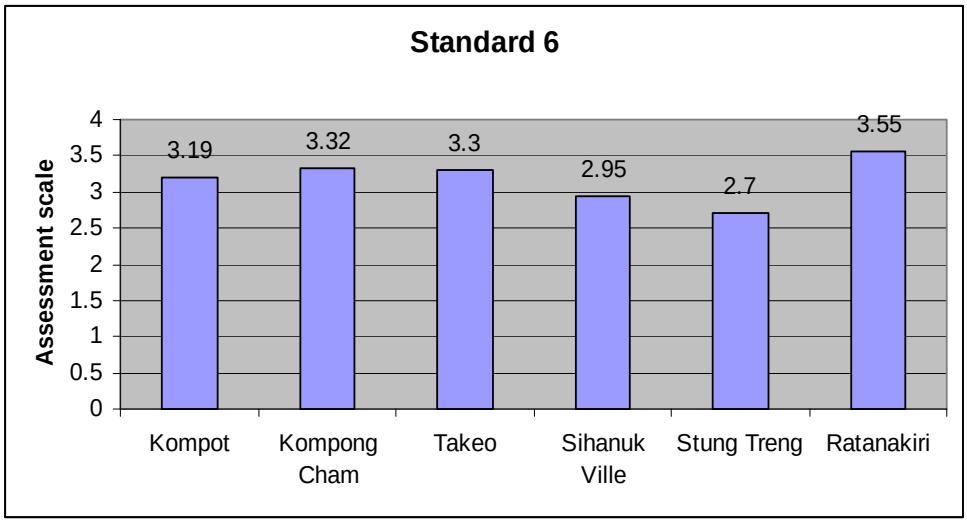
Standard 4: Nutrition and health disseminated to children and staff and protection to diseases and accidents



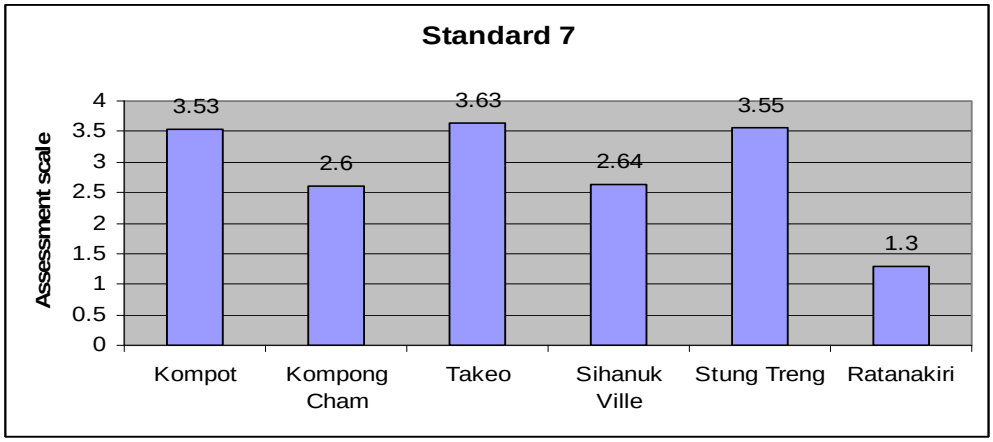
Standard 5: Early childhood care takers/teachers are trained on skills, orientations, and vocations like knowledge, feeling, and determine to ECCD



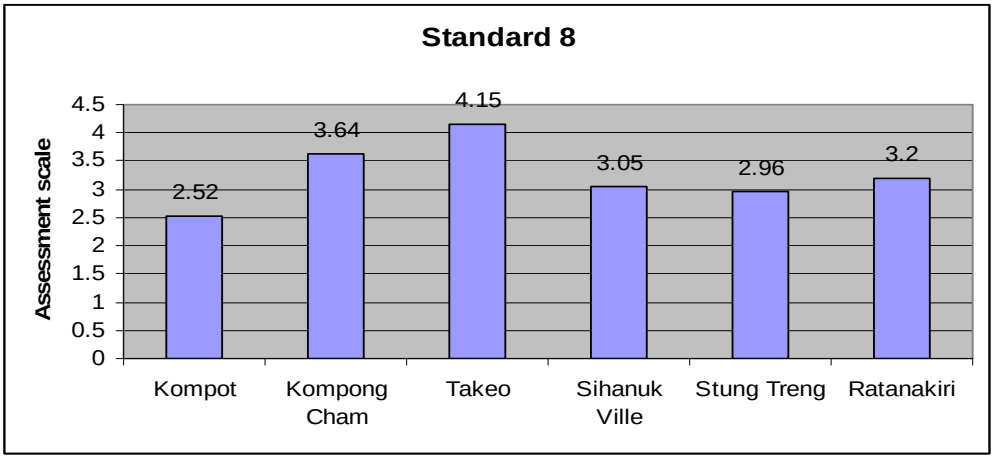
Standard 6: Positive relationship between service providers and children cared and respected.



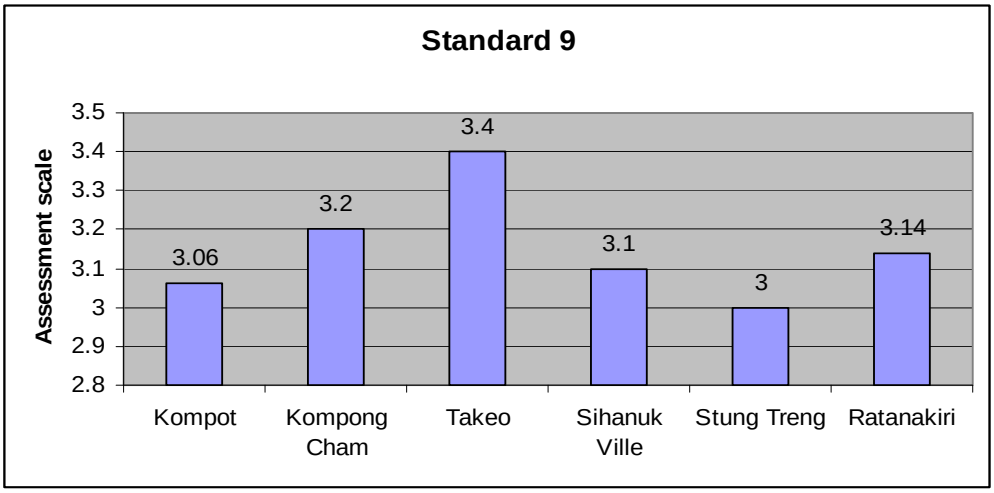
Standard 7: Good cooperation between early childhood care takers and family



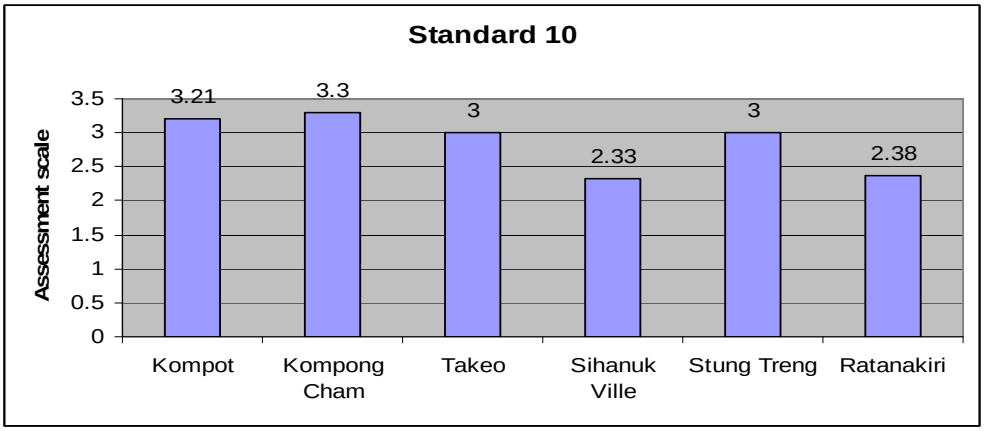
Standard 8: Good cooperation between community and early childhood care-takers



Standard 9: Managing capacity and good leadership of program managers

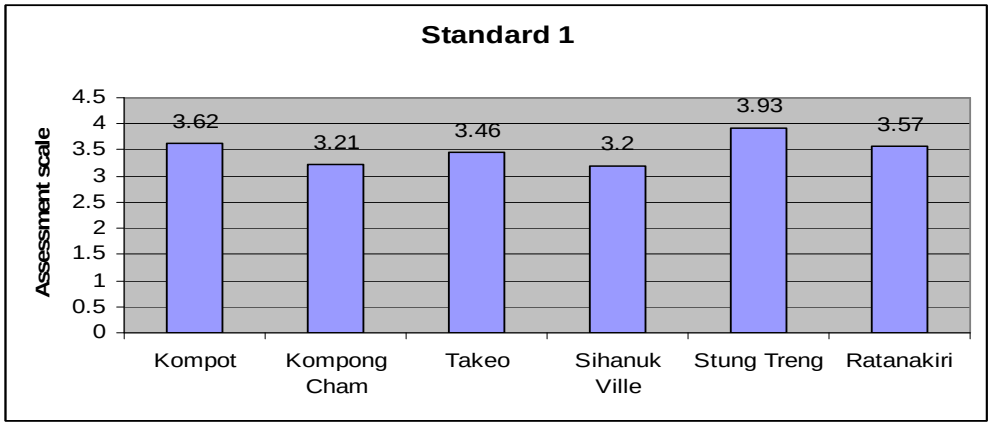


Standard 10: Learning environment protection like facilities, materials to facilitate learning, early childhood development, and staff to get good results and full safety learning environment.

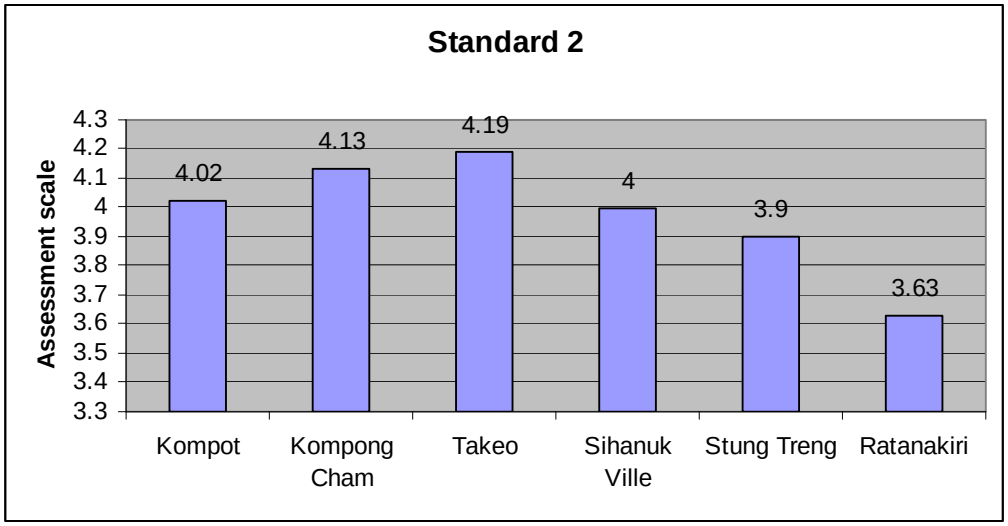


Annex 2:
Quality and Efficiency Standards of Basic Education

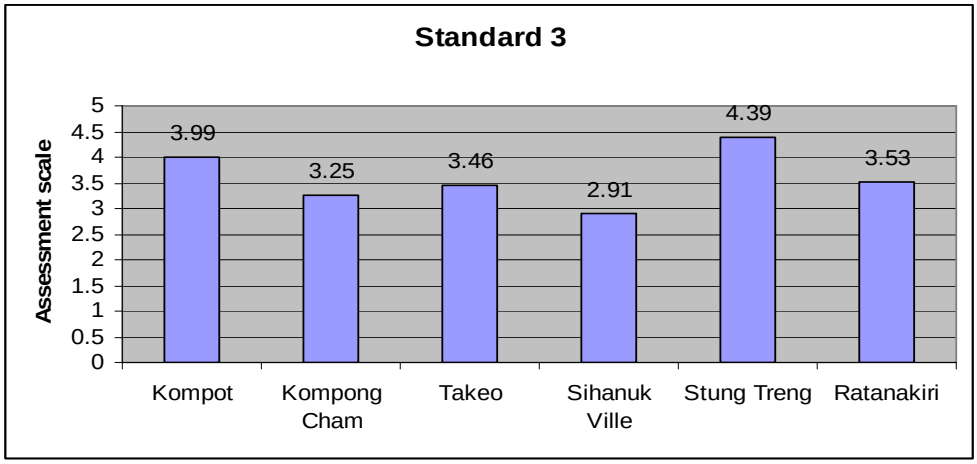
Standard 1: Morals and Values



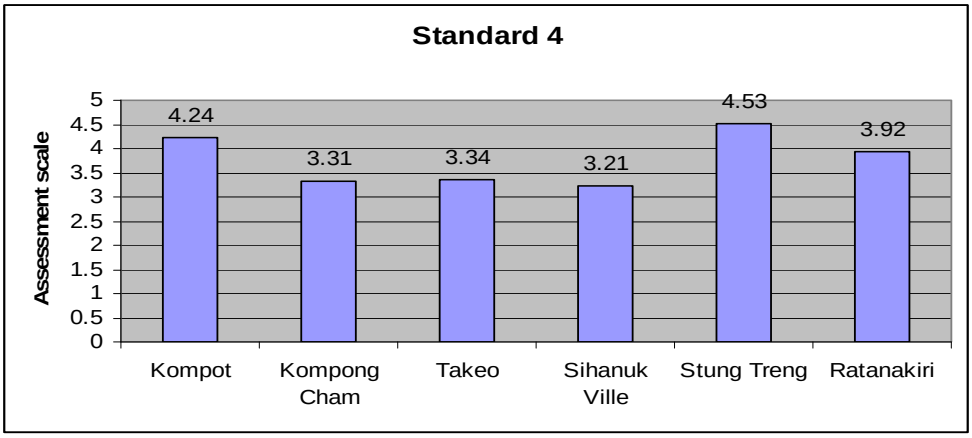
Standard 2: Capacity of analysis, synthesis, good consideration, and creation reflex the perceptive.



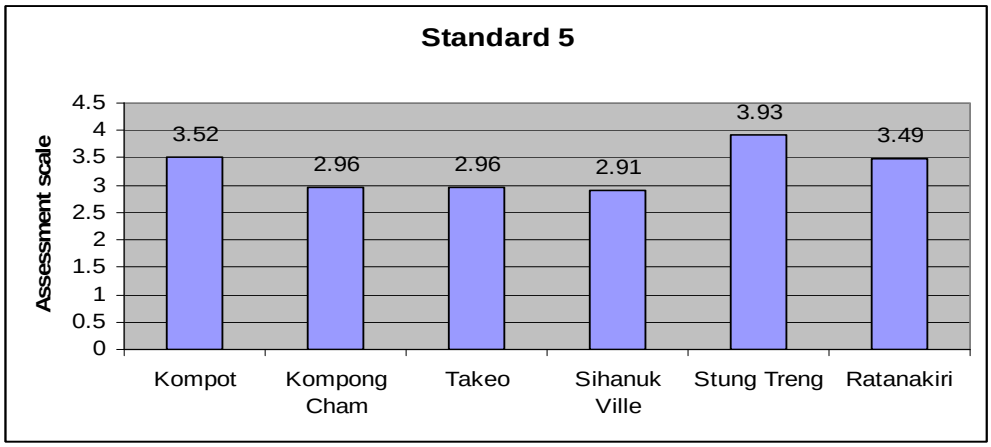
Standard 3: Necessary knowledge and skills respond to flexible curriculum involves to local community. Lack of community and dissemination, especially the use of minority language led to difficulties in communications.



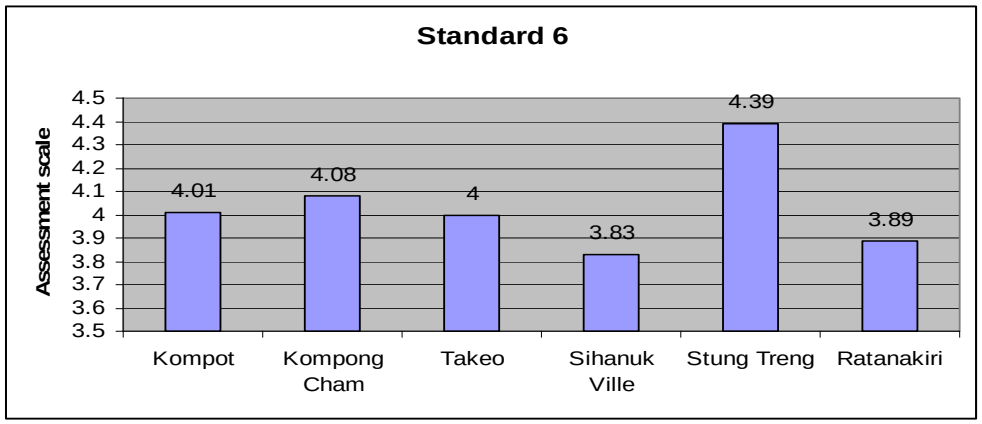
Standard 4: Skills in consciousness work, Capacity to work with others, understand well of work values.



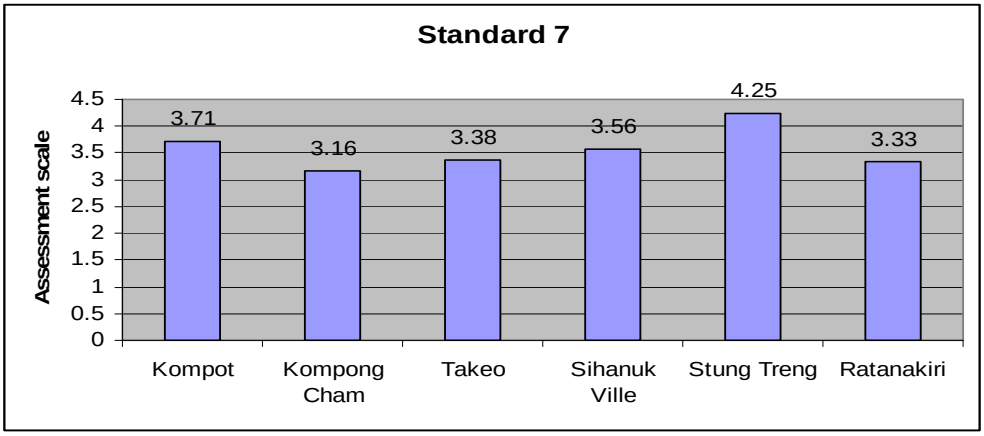
Standard 5: Skills of self-understanding and knowledge use for self-development



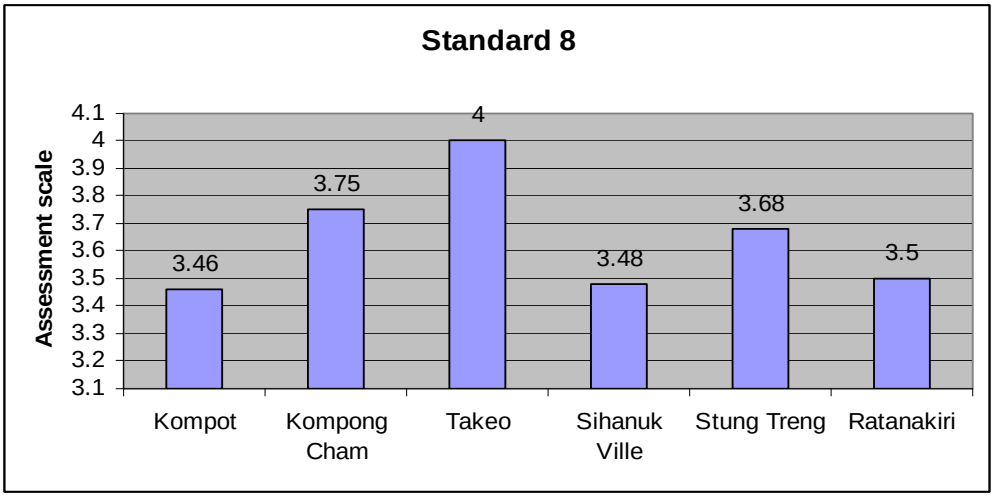
Standard 6: The habits of health, body, and metal Care



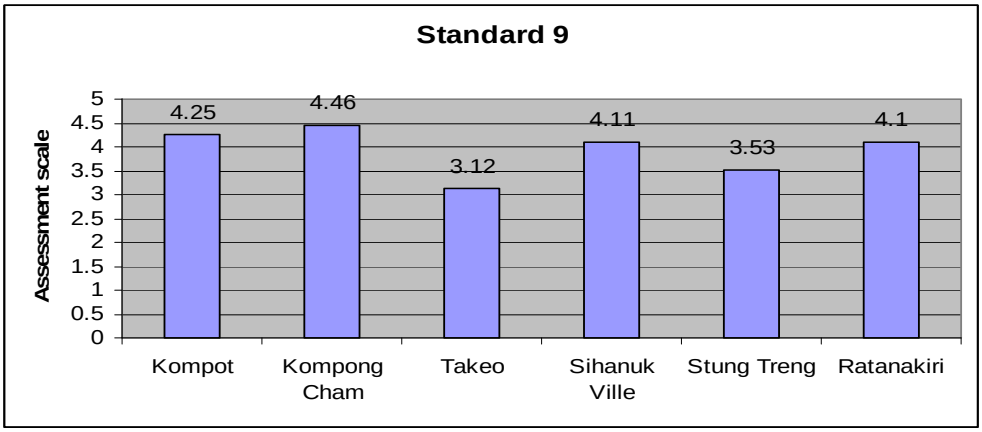
Standard 7: The values of beauty and attraction on arts and sports



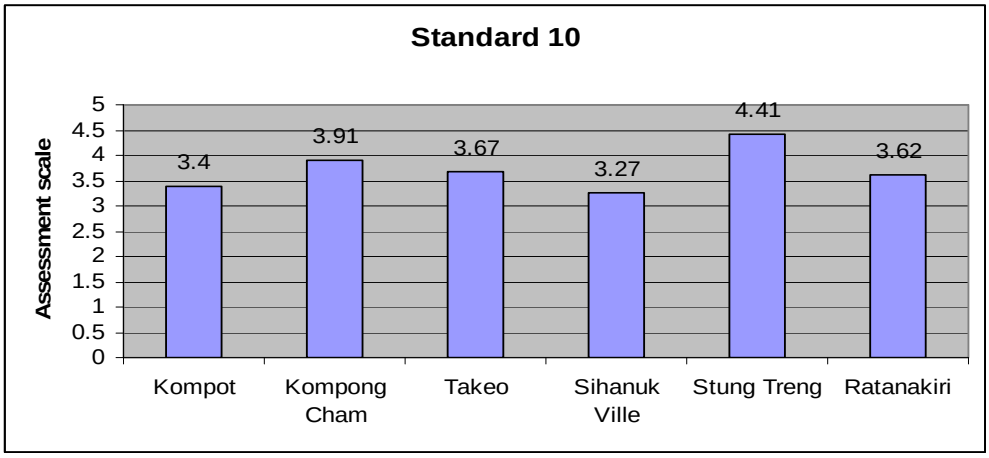
Standard 8: Set learning and teaching activities by student centre approach.



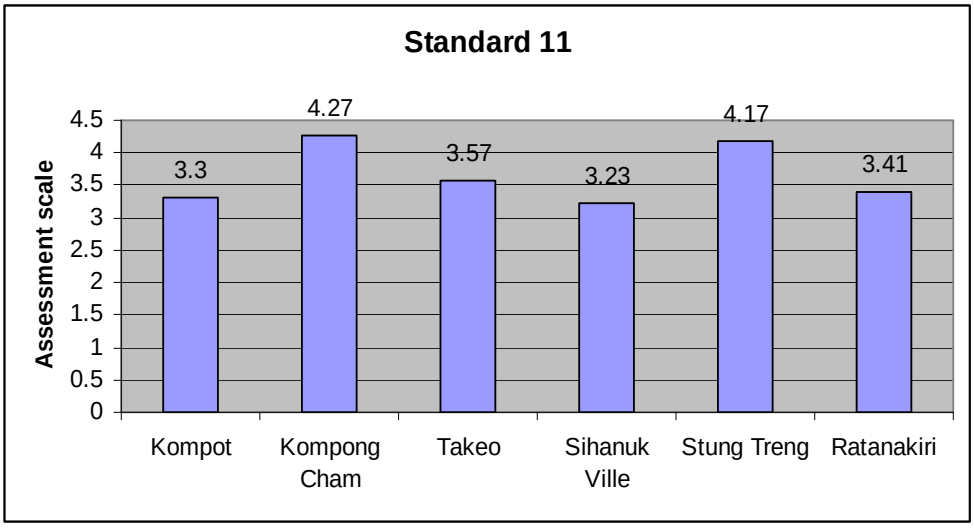
Standard 9: Teachers are able to conduct effective teaching and learning process with students centre approach.



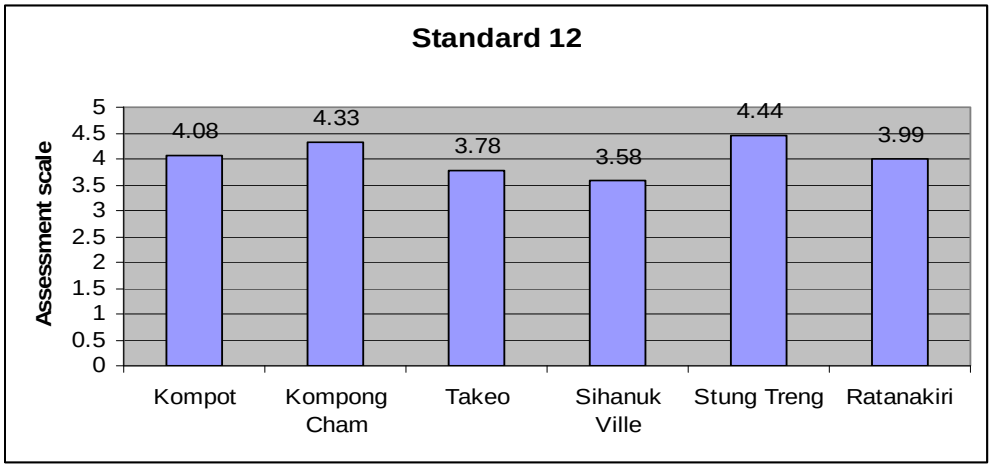
Standard 10: The number of teachers is correct to their responsibilities.



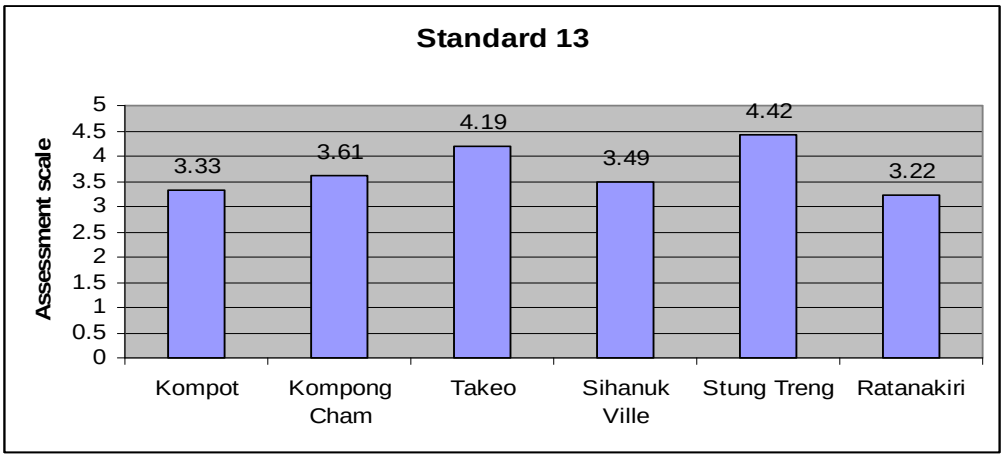
Standard 11: The reliability on administration structure of full system to reach the education goal.



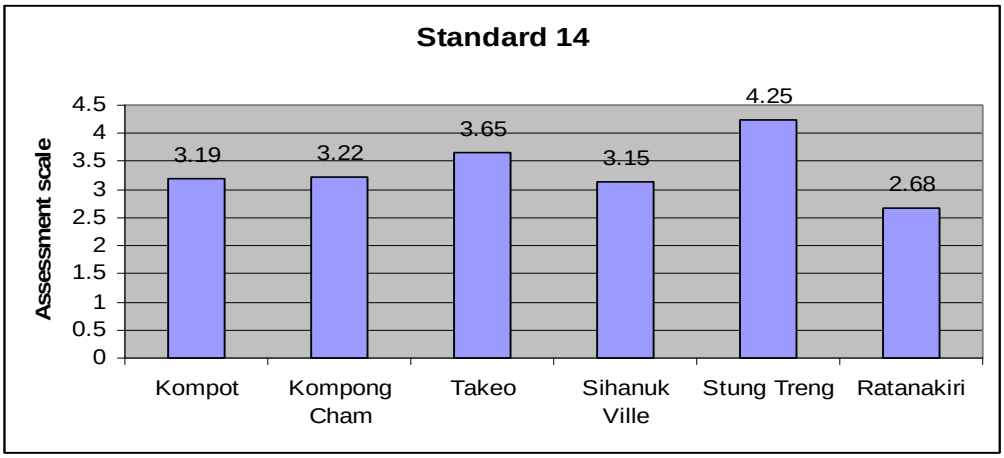
Standard 12: Leading and managing skills of managers.



Standard 13: Enhance the relationship and cooperation between organizations, National and international communities to develop education.

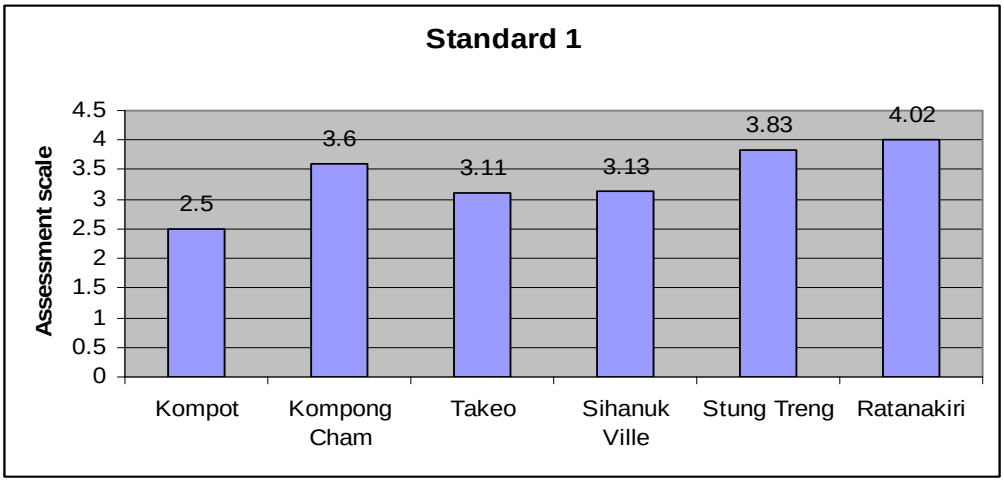


Standard 14: Available technique and resources to support teaching and learning process

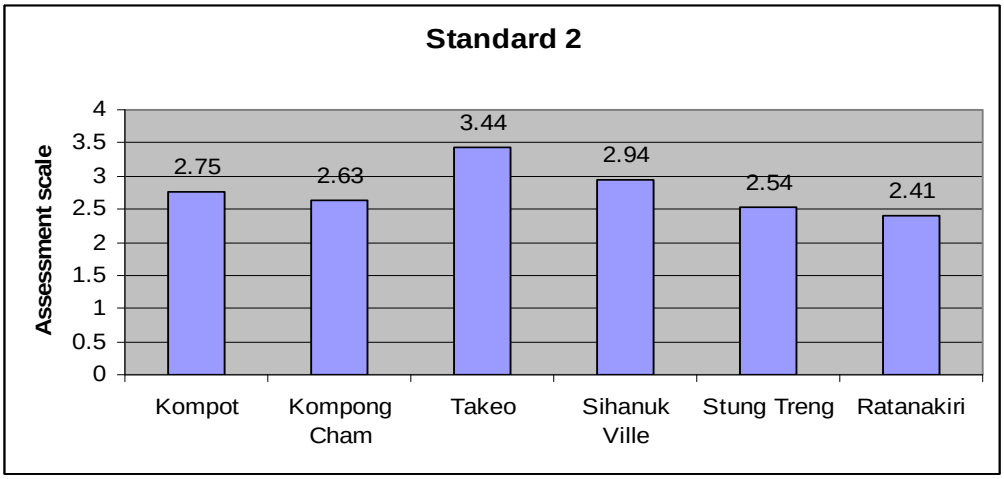


Annex 3:
Quality and Efficiency Standards of Life Skills

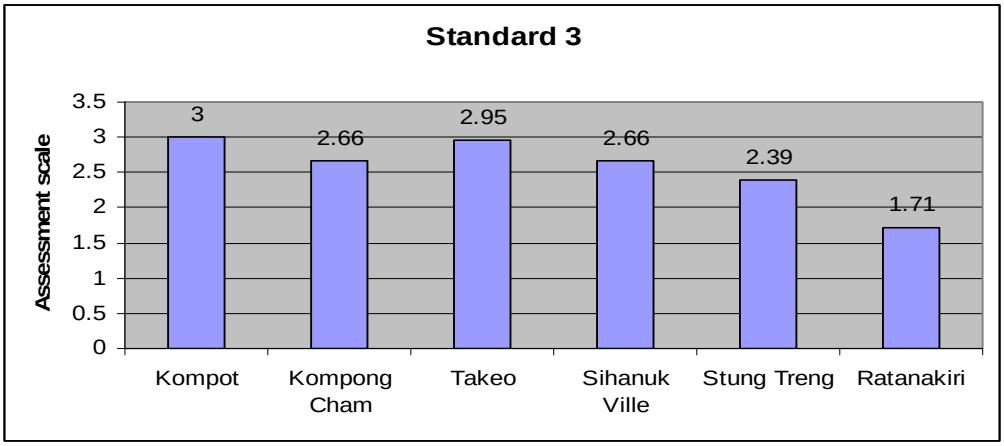
Standard 1: Quality of learners, good health, and good relationship in family, society, and family finance management.



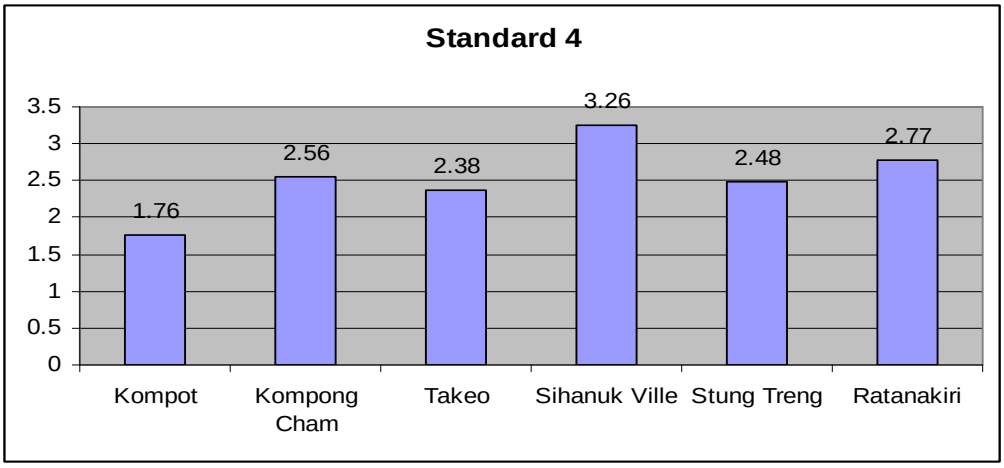
Standard 2: Capacity to make family economic plan and self-plan of individual.



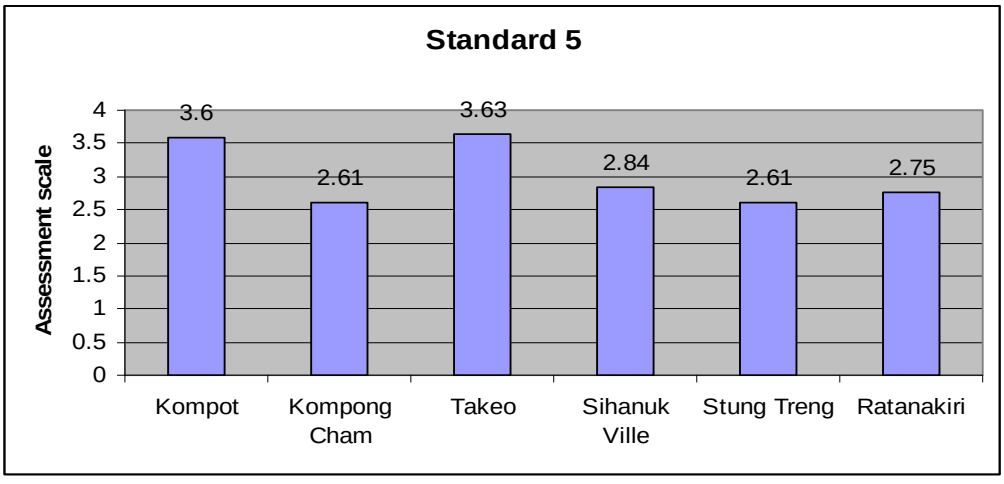
Standard 3: Capacity to use local technique and safety in livings.



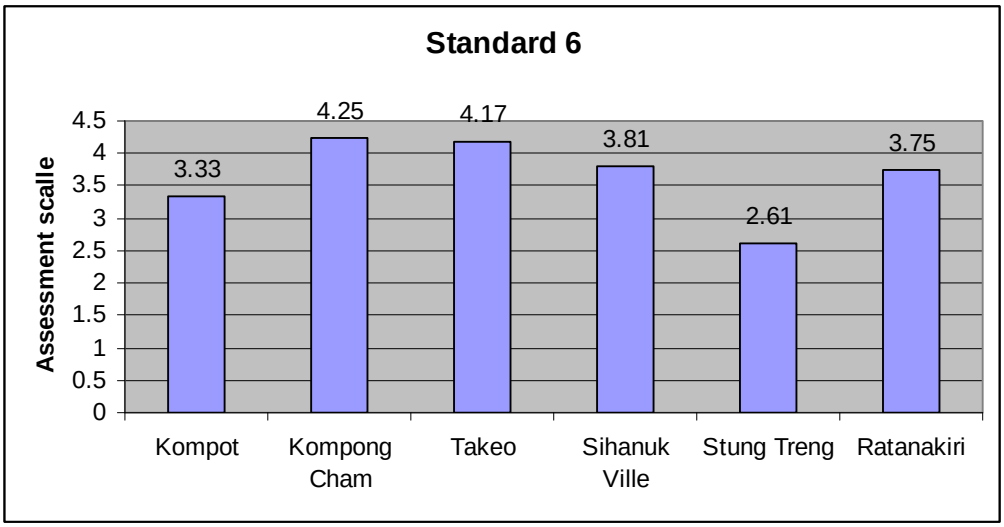
Standard 4: Living in society with values, human rights practices, and citizen duties.



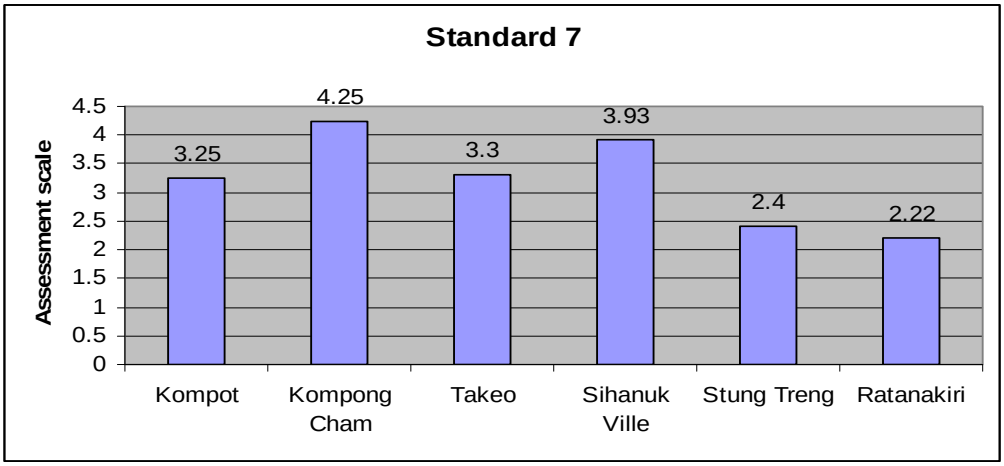
Standard 5: Capacity in communication and skills of thinking.



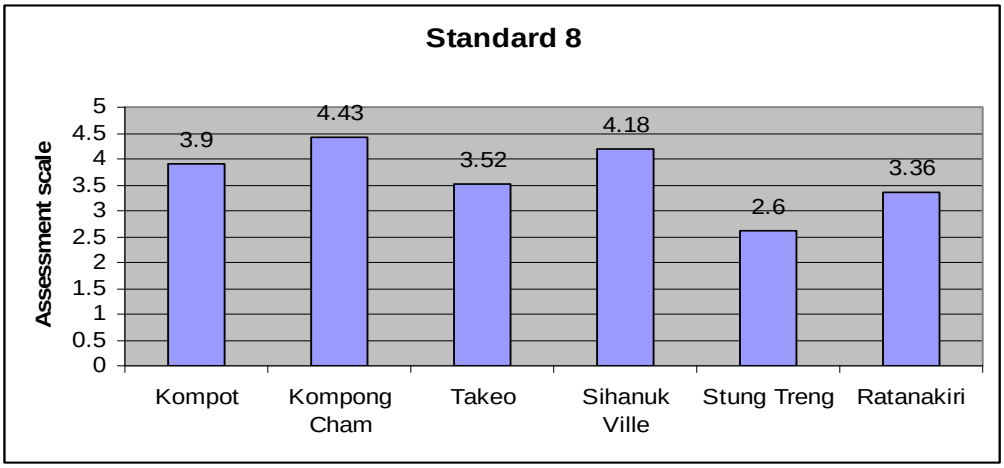
Standard 6: Trainers are cable to train education targets with high quality and efficiency.



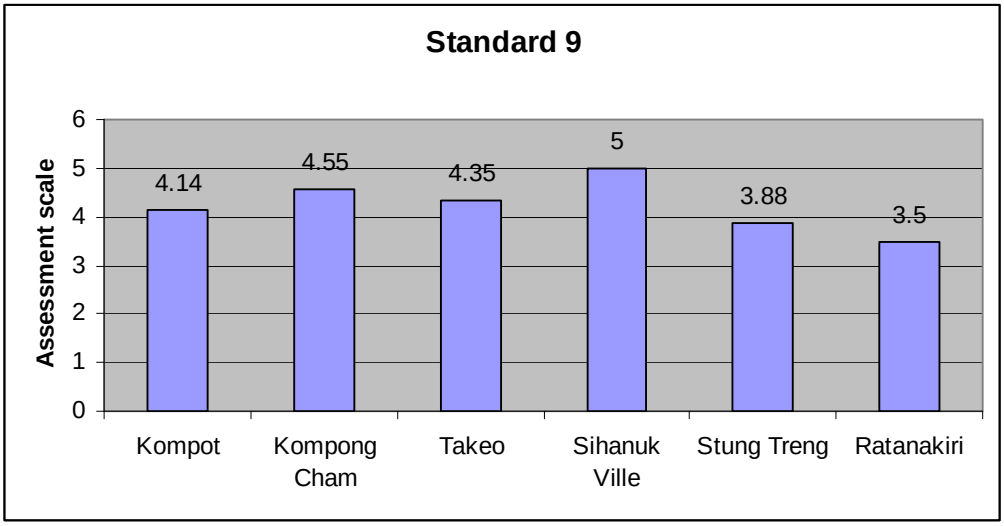
Standard 7: Capacity in managing and leading of managers.



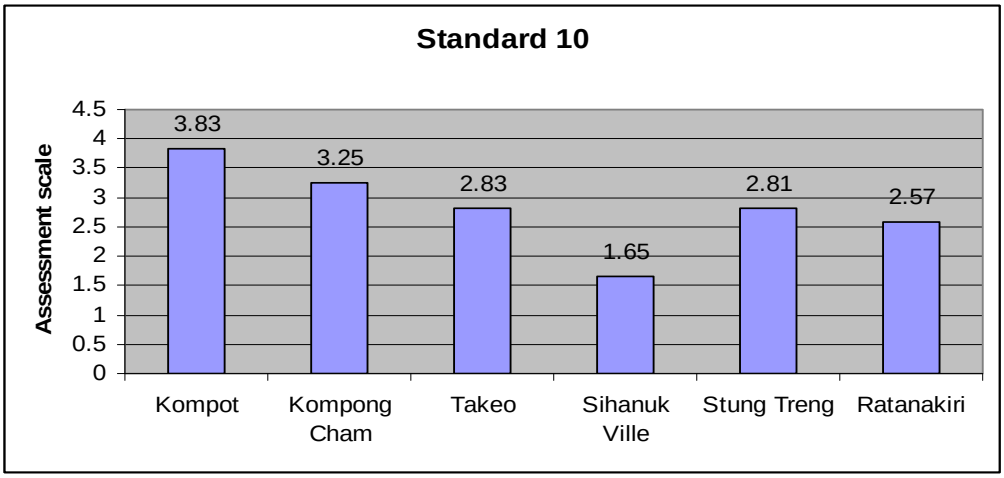
Standard 8: Curriculum, education training documents, and teaching materials respond to the need of local education training techniques.



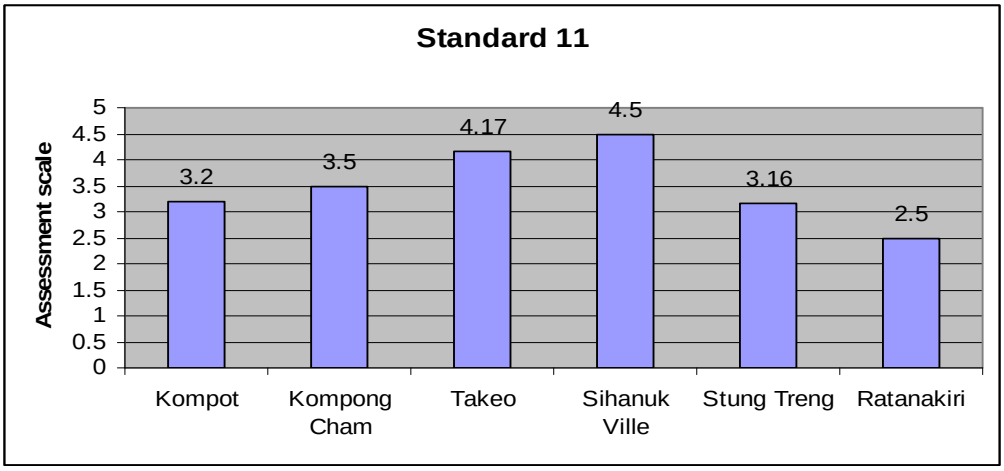
Standard 9: Good cooperation between education institutions and NGOs/OIs, community, parents, and guardians.



Standard 10: Local infrastructure, materials, and vocational training centre respond to training.

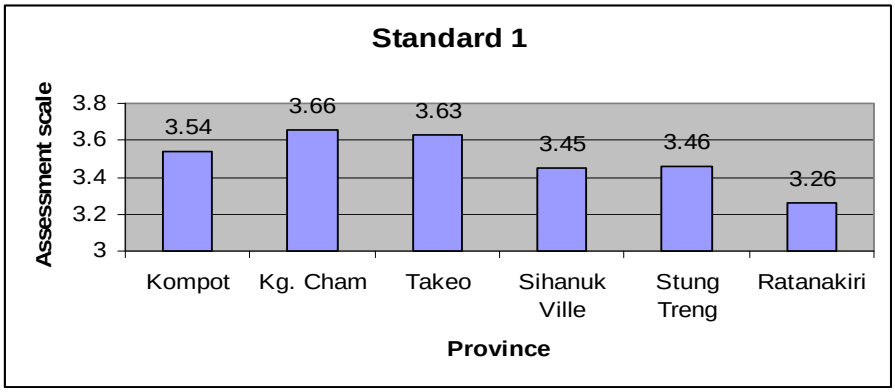


Standard 11: Assessment and feedback

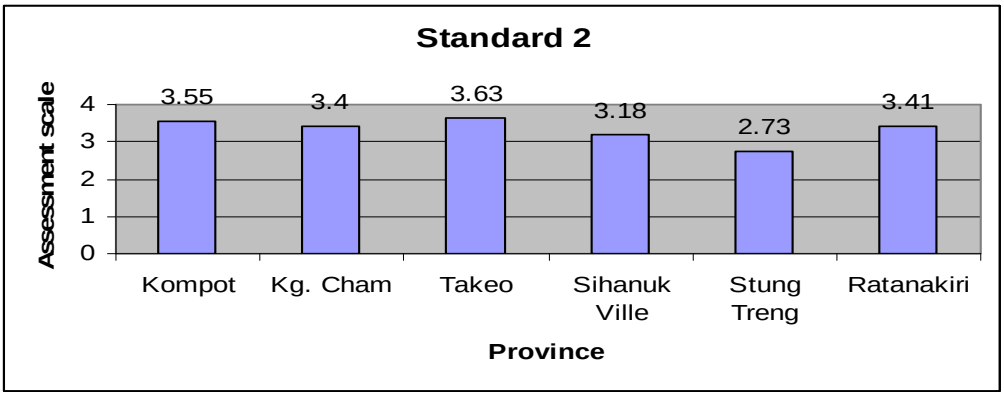


Annex 4:
Quality and Efficiency Standards of Literacy

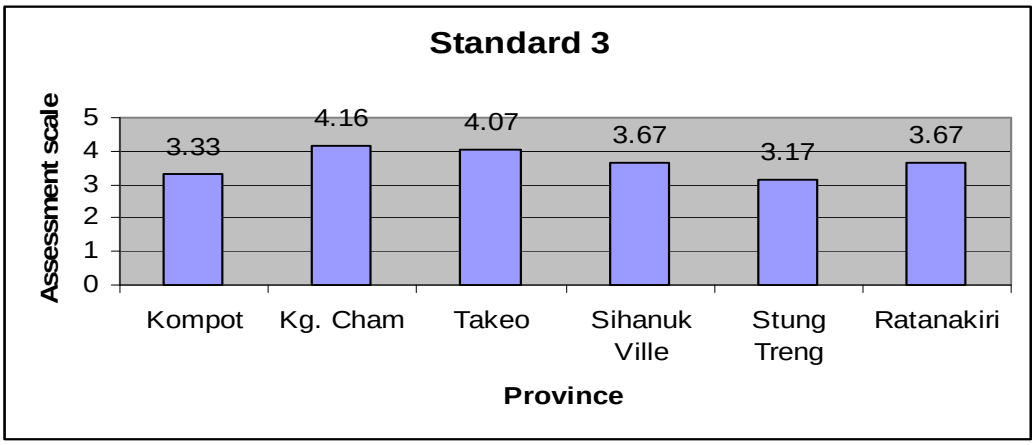
Standard 1: NFE is responsive to solution of the need for all emphasizing the ensuring of equality in enrollment, quality, and participation of youth and adult in literacy assimilated with livelihood and life skill.



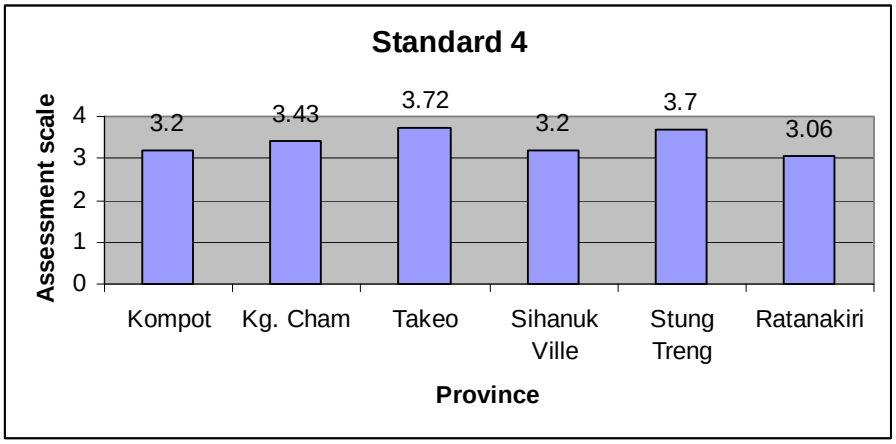
Standard 2: In the occasion and priority of education, new strategy focusing on the need of livelihood.



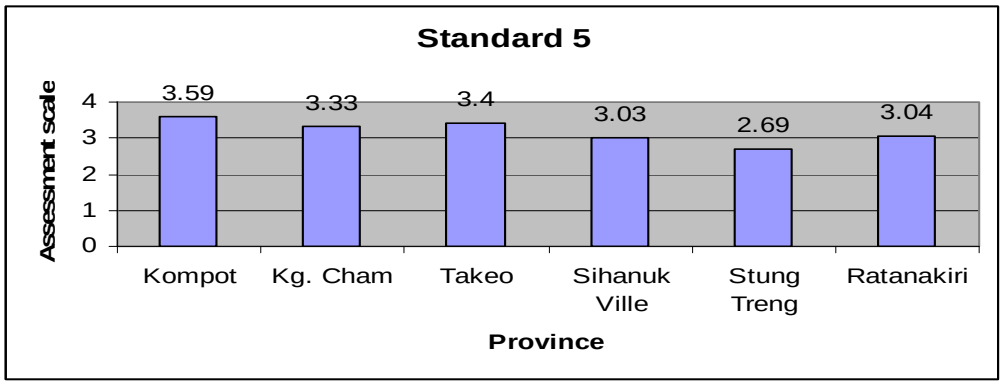
Standard 3: Safety and security of learning environment, safety and protection of the involved.



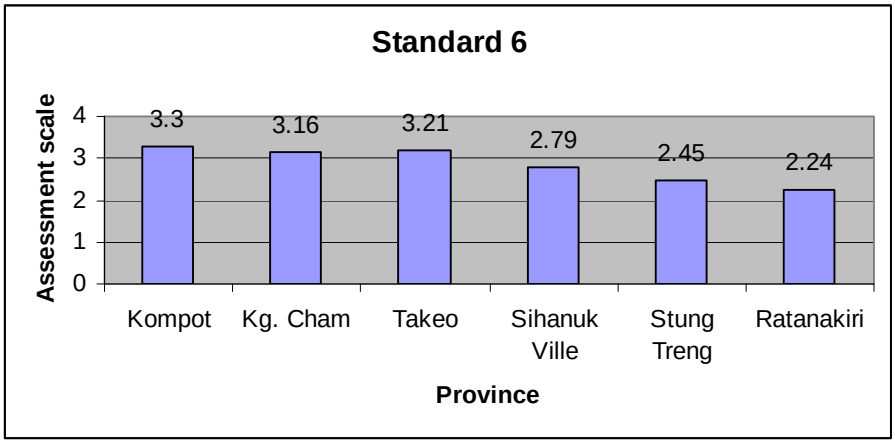
Standard 4: Learning environment addresses the aspects of body, mind, and mental health.



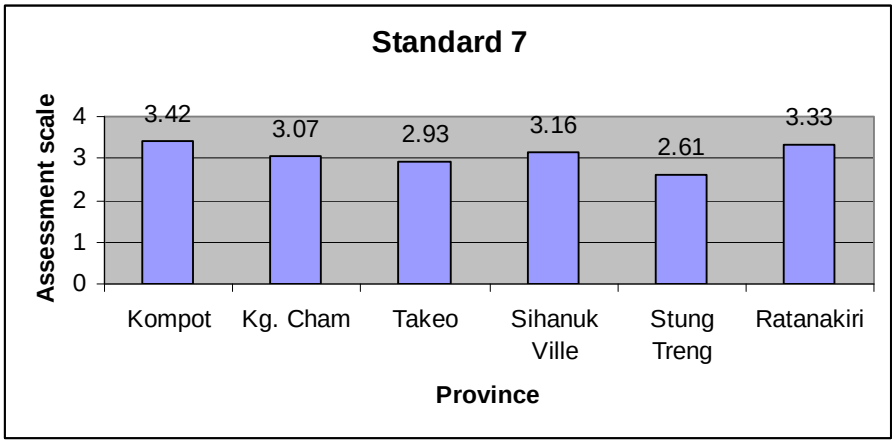
Standard 5: Enough and safe Facilitators and infrastructure towards learning.



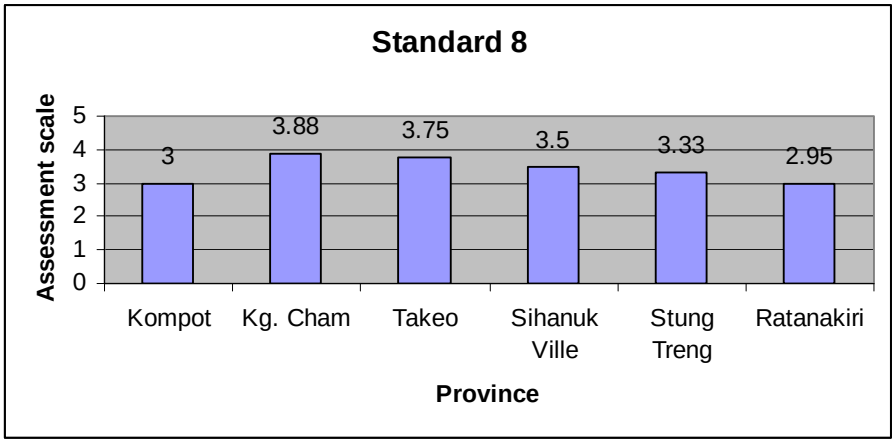
Standard 6: Teaching and learning process used in student centre.



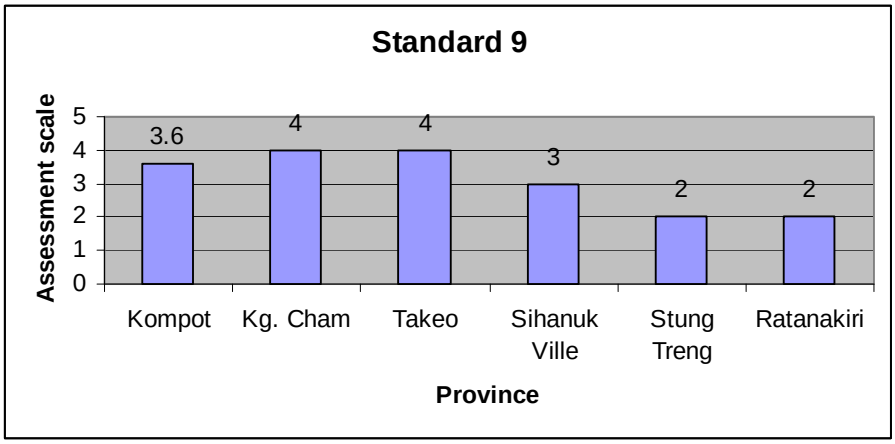
Standard 7: Use flexible and appropriate method to monitor and evaluate the learning and to improve the quality of teaching.



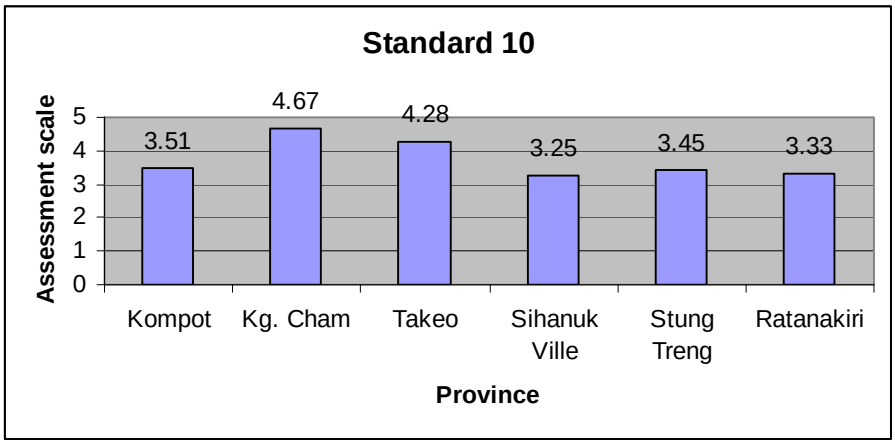
Standard 8: Community is capable and has enough knowledge to strengthen education service in local, resource management, and community ownership.



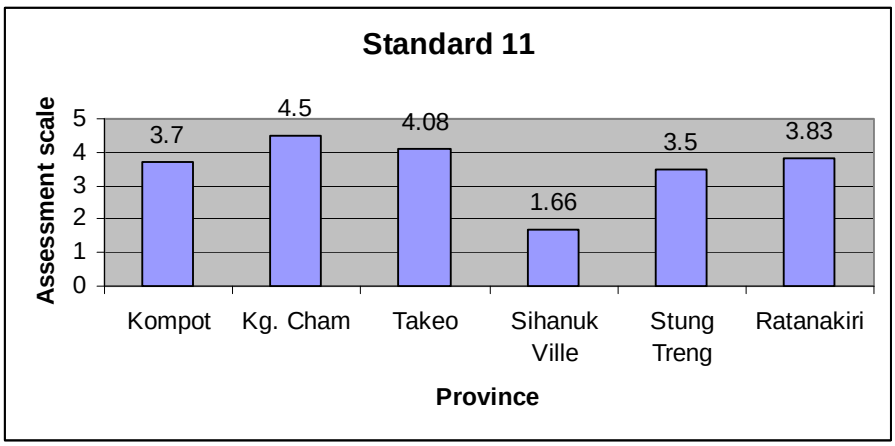
Standard 9: The availability of commune/Sangkat EFA, Concern and challenges recognition of the community to the illiteracy of youth and adult, teachers, and parents and address those concerns well by using local resources.



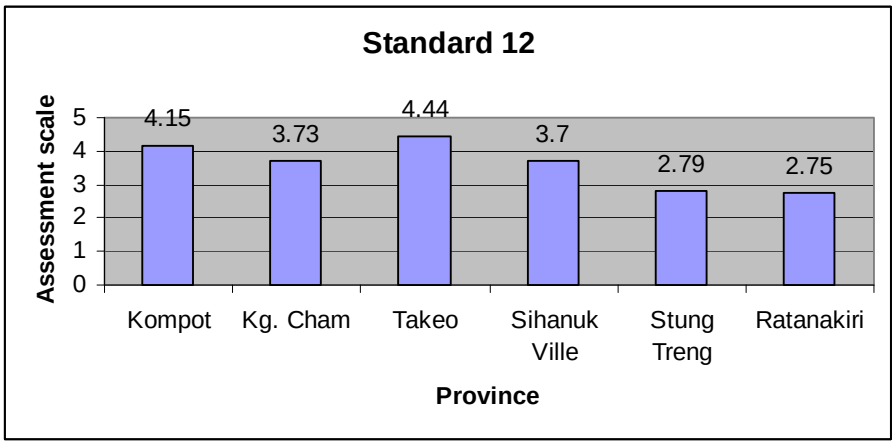
Standard 10: Qualified teachers and volunteers teach life skill class, livelihood, and non-formal education.



Standard 11: Educators and education concerned training are trained and coordinated to the need and atmosphere and the recognition of the training.



Standard 12: The condition of teaching, teachers, and educators, appropriate payment and clear identification of condition in teaching and code of conduct.



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