The Report Committee for Nahed Aaed Mubarak Abdelrahman
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Decentralized Ministerial Systems to Enhance and Sustain Education
Quality: Lessons Learned from Across Borders
Case Studies from Indonesia, Colombia, and South Africa

APPROVED BY

SUPERVISING COMMITTEE:

Supervisor:

Philip Uri Treisman

Patrick Wong

**Decentralized Ministerial Systems to Enhance and Sustain Education
Quality: Lessons Learned from Across Borders
Case Studies from Indonesia, Colombia, and South Africa**

by

Nahed Aaed Mubarak Abdelrahman, B.A

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Dedication

This Report is dedicated to my country, Egypt, which is passing a very critical political transition in its history. Starting from January 2011 until now, Egyptians are fighting for democracy, freedom, justice, and dignity. They prove that nothing is impossible if we have the dream and the belief in ourselves. With this spirit, the change will definitely come. The Egyptian revolution has been a great inspiration to me in making this Report. Although Egyptians are facing death and repression, and police brutality every day now, they never stop dreaming of democracy, freedom, better education, and accountability.

Acknowledgements

Abstract

Decentralized Ministerial Systems to Enhance and Sustain Education Quality: Success Stories and Lessons Learned from Across Borders Case Studies from Indonesia, Colombia, and South Africa

Nahed Aaed Mubarak AbdelRahman, M.P. Aff.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2011

Supervisor: Philip Uri Treisman

Decentralization is a prominent policy strategy for transferring power from an elite to grassroots actors or from the government to the private or nonprofit sectors. In many developing countries, decentralization has been the policy of choice for improving chronically low performing education systems.

This report examines decentralization in three developing countries; Colombia, Indonesia, and South Africa, which are seeking to address their longstanding educational problems. The case studies suggest that effective decentralization depends on creating a clear and measurable vision and a robust strategic plan to achieve it. The studies further revealed the importance of community participation in active school governance, which led to practical solutions to school financial and administrative problems.

This research is an attempt to pay attention to problems that could be raised during the journey of policy implementation, as well as to offer guidelines for effective, sustainable change. The discrepancy between policy and practice is a great dilemma, as Cohen said, particularly with the lack of sufficient experience in implementing the new

political movements such as decentralization. This report seeks to identify the key components of an effective decentralization plan by tracing the successes and shortcomings of the three case studies. It concludes that a successful education system not only needs a clear vision and effective community participation but also an effective and practical organizational transformation to achieve progress in implementing decentralization. Changes in the educational hierarchy should occur at both the local level and the central level, and should entail more than just a change in the names of positions without changing the tasks themselves.

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List of Abbreviations

AusAID	Australian Agency for International Development
CIDA	The Canadian International Development Agency
COPARE	The Commission of Education Reform
DNP	The Department of National Planning
DPR	Diwan Perwakilan Rakyat Daerah (Legislative Assembly)
EC	Education Council
EFA	Education for All
FET	Further Education and Training Act
GNP	Gross National Product
GNU	The Government of National Unity
GTZ	the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit
IT	Information Technology
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
LDF	Local Development Fund
LG	Local Government
MEN	Ministerio de Educacion Nacional (Colombia Ministry of Education)
MINEDUC	Guatemala Ministry of education
MOE	The Ministry of Education
MOF	The Ministry of Finance
MoHA	Ministry of Home Affairs
MONE	The Ministry of National Education
MORA	The Ministry of Religion Affairs
MPR	Indonesian People's Consultative Assembly
NCLB	No Child Left Behind Act
OBE	Outcome-based-Education
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
SASA	South Africa School Act
SBM	School-based-Management
SC	School Committee
SGP	School Government Body
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
UNCDF	The United Nation Capital Development Fund
UNESCO	The United Nation Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
USAID	The United States Agency for International Development

INTRODUCTION

Over the past three decades, decentralization has become a leading policy strategy that ministries of education have pursued to enhance education quality. Some countries, such as Indonesia, Guatemala, Colombia, and Mexico, have implemented decentralization to improve students' achievement because the results were insignificant under the centralized system. Yet decentralization is a very controversial approach. In some countries, such as Colombia, it can be argued that decentralization was a political strategy to shift the financial problems from the central level to the local level rather than a strategy to enhance education quality.

In this report, I examine decentralization in developing countries, focusing on how it can be effective in improving education. I attempt to answer questions about why decentralization is needed, what results countries can be expected through changing their ministerial systems, and what methods may be required to redistribute power from the central level to the local level. Before addressing these issues and introducing the case studies, I define decentralization and centralization in education. Additionally, I discuss the structures of policies that ministries of education as well as the local government need to implement to increase the likelihood that decentralization will be successful. In the countries that have implemented decentralization, governments have passed various acts and laws; however, their implementation faced challenges because of political, cultural or social obstacles.

I also present lessons learned from various international experiences, particularly from those countries that participated in the Jomtien World Declaration in 1990, which launched the Education for All (EFA[1]) initiative. The report will focus on Indonesia, Colombia, and South Africa as important examples of decentralization. I will explain how these countries have developed policies and laws to carry out decentralization while explaining the challenges and obstacles they encountered in the implementation process.

In chapter one, I discuss centralization and decentralization. Centralization is mainly defined as the full control by the central government or a central institution of political decision-making and financial and human resources. Local governments do not have the authority to create their own laws to administer their resources by themselves. Decentralization, on the other hand, is defined as a transfer of the decision-making power in administering financial and other resources to the local level, whether this local level is represented by the state, community, or the ministry's sub-units. The chapter further discusses various forms of decentralization such as deconcentration, devolution, delegation, and privatization/deregulation. Each of these forms refers to the degree of authority being transferred to the local level. Those forms also determine the nature of the relationship between central level and local governmental level.

In chapter two, I will discuss the factors and other elements that current and past researchers have considered to be milestones for achieving a successful enforcement of decentralization plans. The first factor is a clear strategic vision connected to a plan of

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[1] EFA: The Education for All movement took off at the World Conference on Education for All in 1990. Since then, governments, non-governmental organizations, civil society, bilateral and multilateral donor agencies and the media have taken up the cause of providing basic education for all children, youth and adults (UNESCO).

action. Both the central and local levels should play a role in creating the vision. Central ministries in cooperation with the local governments and departments can create a clear national vision that is understandable and applicable to both sides and followed by a national strategic plan. Then, each local government should create their local strategic plan, which corresponds to the national one.

The chapter is also discusses how community and private sector engagement in education decision-making can support high levels of public trust in the education system and, thereby, enhance governance. These relationships need to be supported by public information systems that contain is accurate and timely performance dates. The more transparent the education system is to stakeholders, the better the decisions they can make.

According to research I quote in chapter two, reform requires creating new operational procedures as well as making best use of current procedures. Consequently, system restructuring and organizational transformation are important to achieve reform in an educational system; however, creating a new structure and dismantling another should be based on initiating new procedures, not enacting the same functions under new names. The last point that will be discussed in chapter two concerns school-based management that aims to increase school outcomes and learning effectiveness.

In chapter three, I offer three case studies: Colombia, Indonesia, and South Africa. I have chosen these cases because the education systems in these countries have a long history of low student achievement. For instance, based on the mathematics results of TIMSS tests in 2007, the average scores that Colombian's fourth grade students achieved

was 355 (below the international average, which is 500). Table (1) and Table (2) below show mathematics and science scores of some countries in 2007 including the developed and the developing countries. The comparison that is presented in the table shows that there is a very big difference in test scores between students from developed countries such as Korea, and the United States and those from developing countries such as Colombia, and Yemen.

Table (1) Average mathematics scores of fourth- and eighth-grade students, by country: 2007

Grade four		Grade eight	
Country	**Average score**	**Country**	**Average score**
TIMSS scale average	500	TIMSS scale average	500
Hong Kong SAR	607	Chinese Taipei	598
Singapore	599	Korea, Rep. of	597
Chinese Taipei	576	Singapore	593
United States	**529**	**United States**	**508**
Algeria	378	Tunisia	420
Colombia	355	Indonesia	397
Morocco	341	Syrian Arab Republic	395
El Salvador	330	Algeria	387
Tunisia	327	Colombia	380
Qatar	296	El Salvador	340
Yemen	224	Qatar	307

Table (2) Average Science scores of fourth- and eighth-grade students, by country: 2007

Grade four		Grade eight	
Country	**Average score**	**Country**	**Average score**
TIMSS scale average	500	TIMSS scale average	500
Singapore	587	Singapore	567
Chinese Taipei	557	Chinese Taipei	561
Hong Kong SAR	554	Korea, Rep. of	553
United States	539	**United States**	520
Colombia	400	Indonesia	427
El Salvador	390	Colombia	417
Algeria	354	Algeria	408
Morocco	297	El Salvador	387

Source: National Center for Education Statistics (2011)

I further explain in chapter three that the ministries of education, in these case study countries started examining the problem of low performance at the beginning of the 1990s. The three countries started decentralization at approximately the same time. The three experienced political transitions that were followed by changes in their constitutions. The new governments in the three countries passed many laws to empower local communities and to transfer some authority to the local government. The impact of the new transition and the new constitutional laws varied from one country to another. For instance, the laws that were passed in Indonesia in response to the constitutional amendments of 1996 were more effective and successfully implemented than those laws that were passed in Colombia.

In chapter four, I do a comparative study of the three case studies. The three cases will be analyzed in accordance with a rubric that is discussed in chapter two, including, as key dimensions, a clear and strategic vision, community participation, organizational transformation, and capacity building as well as enacting school-based-management.

In chapter five, I set out some remarks and recommendations to implement decentralization effectively. I find that political will is a common feature that all countries that effectively transitioned their education system from centralization to decentralization. I discuss the nature of political will that is necessary to achieve effective decentralization and governance. School funding is important; however, making the best use of resources and supporting the professional development of teachers are far more important. Governments need to assess their resources, capacities, and the status quo before starting to implement a new political movement.

Chapter One: Why decentralization is important for developing countries

Centralization and decentralization are common policy strategies to improving education policy. The policies delegate authority to make political decisions differently. Centralization means that the decision-making authority is given to the central government. Normally, the constitutions, in countries with centralized systems, accord the right to govern financial resources, human resources, information, and technology to the central government. Local bodies do not have authority to empower the local community or to shape the local education system. For example, curriculum, exams, teacher distribution, salaries and financial funds are completely distributed and administered by the central ministry.[2]

In many developing countries, such as Indonesia, South Africa, and Colombia, schools had been governed and administered by a centralized system for decades. These centralized systems had been formed during of the expansion of schooling in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries[3]. Education quality had increased because the centralized system created national standards that determined the objectives of schools, the content, the curriculum, and the methodology that the teachers use in teaching.[4]

But centralization has become a problematic issue in many developed countries because many believe it negatively affects education quality. For example, Finland's education system was a central system until the 1980s. School attainment as well as

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[2] Brennen, 2002

[3] McGinn,1999, p. 23

[4] Ibid p. 24

students achievements were notably low. The education department studied the situation and determined specific goals, it believed were necessary to improve education, such as increasing school enrollment and improving teaching quality. To implement these goals, Finland's Education Department suggested transferring authority over many school functions to the local level.[5]

Under No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), the USA's education system operated as a hybrid model of centralization and decentralization. Although the NCLB calls for national standards for testing, it does not call for national curricula.[6] For example, the act focuses on quantitative data, such as students' achievements scores, number of graduates, rates of teachers per school, and rates of students who pass exams. The main source for such information would be the states themselves, which, according to some critics, may have not an accurate system of accountability or transparency. Consequently, the lack of accurate information about performance may lead to a severe decline in education quality because information about the performance is not available.[7]

Other critics like Uzzell find the relationship between teachers and students is a key determinant of outcomes even in a centralized system:

> The key relationships in schools are those between individual teachers and individual students: If the teachers are not committed and highly motivated, no centralized rule books or formulas are going to inspire peak performance from their students. To use social science jargon, schools are "loosely coupled systems"; therefore, decrees from centralized administrators have little power to boost school performance but enormous power to impede progress (Uzzell 2005).[8]

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[5] Barrera-Osorio and others, 2009, p.7

[6] Uzzell, 2005, p.3

[7] Ibid, p.6

[8] Ibid, pp.2-3

Decentralization refers to a shift or transfer of authority from one actor to another at the same level or lower, in the same organization or outside of the organization. It can take four different forms: deconcentration, delegation, devolution, and privatization. Deconcentration refers to a shift in implementation responsibility to the lower level in the same organization without giving its members the authority to make decisions on their own.[9] Education systems in Argentina, Ghana and Zambia provide an example of this form of decentralization.[10] It is, in essence, only a delegation of the responsibilities without giving the lower level the decision-making power.[11]

Delegation refers to transferring the decision-making authority to governmental officials usually at a lower level of the same ministry. In other words, the central level transfers the decision making to their units at the local level.[12] Countries such as El Salvador and Nicaragua achieved positive results in delegating the power from the central education agencies to their units at the local level.[13]

Devolution refers to a transfer of decision making to a local authority, such as states and provinces. In such cases, the local government acts in an independent way.[14] Four features characterize devolution: the local organization operates separately from the central government; through its own decisions; without any supervision from the central government; and through the authority accorded to it by law[15]. New Zealand's education

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[9] Florestal and Cooper, 1997, pp.2-3

[10] Ibid, p. 7

[11] Henson, 1995, p. 102

[12] Henson, 1995, p. 101

[13] Winkler, 2007, p. 13

[14] Henson, 1995, p. 101

[15] Florestal and Cooper, 1997, p.4

system offers a good example of this kind of decentralization; its Education Act of 1989 gave schools' boards the full authority to manage the financial and administrative resources of their schools.[16]

The fourth type of decentralization is privatization and deregulation, which means that the transfer from the public central authority is to the private and nonprofit sector. The relationship between the public sector and the private sector in managing schools would be a kind of partnership where the public authority would partially fund private schools. In addition, it would lessen constraints on the services that would be provided by the private sector, such as professional development trainings and textbooks.[17] In the study "Linking Decentralization and School Quality Improvement," Cohen used a chart to illustrate the percentage distribution of decision-making responsibilities across the central level and local levels (See appendix 1).

The failure in implementing decentralization often results form a poorly chosen form of decentralization. This is sometimes the result of officials at the central level with a vested interest in maintaining the centralized system. In addition, limited resources at a local level can discourage a local department from taking real responsibility for administering the education system. As a first step toward reform, the education policy actors should have a better understanding of these four forms of decentralization prior to selecting and implementing a new system.

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[16] Ibid, p.7
[17] Cohen, 2004, p. 3

In the past three decades, some countries such as South Africa increased students' enrollment rates in their attempts to achieve a sort of equity; however, they did not achieve the same progress in education quality.[18] Mexico represents another example of progress in students' enrollment coupled with low quality achievement.[19]Low learning progress and low students' achievement have created a crisis in education systems.

No one, including regions, ministers, ministries, advisors, parents, or students, wants to be left behind. Nearly everywhere, there is a sense that goals, visions, challenges and recurring disparities are rapidly outpacing the institutional, organizational and individual efforts.[20] While most would accept the right of every child to have a quality education as the basis of a long-term vision for education, the short-term imperative of each country and education system is to find a way to accelerate the progressive realization of that right.

The problem, which many ministries encounter, is how to implement their vision. Many countries find it difficult to implement their vision even if the vision is clear. In order to reform education, Mourshed and others suggested domains of effective decentralization, including the status quo, which determines the system's current starting point.[21] They also suggested required interventions to achieve reform, and observed that contextualization is necessary for the intervention to be compatible with the country's cultural, political, and economic context.[22] Mourshed also recommended creating plans

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[18] Chisholm, 2004, p.5

[19] Santibañez and others, 2005, p.21

[20] Mourshed, M.Chijioke, C.Barber, M. 2010, p.11

[21] Ibid, p.18

[22] Ibid.

for sustainability and stimuli that reinforce the system, encouraging a continued path toward reform.[23] For instance, in 2006, the Brazilian state of Minas Gerais[24] identified a literacy problem: about half of eight-year-old students, students could not read at the standard level. Therefore, the ministry set the goal of increasing the percentage of those who could read at the standard level to reach 90 percent by 2010. The department of education created an implementation plan to achieve this goal, including the creation of a "result book" for each school to record all data about students' achievement, which enables the school, stakeholders, and parents to follow up on the students' progress.[25] The ministry of education further called for new class activities that are related to the lessons. Such descriptive teaching aids assist students to interact effectively in the class.[26] In addition, holding capacity building workshops was one of the main goals. Therefore, workshops were held to build the capacity of all primary school teachers through 46 trainers who worked with teachers in the four regions. This team of 46, in turn, trained trainers at the regional level to ensure sustainability.[27] Creating an online database to track the progress of each school was also an important goal to empower the role of school partners and stakeholders.[28]

Regardless of whether decentralization is either inherently effective or ineffective, the international experiences from Indonesia, Colombia, South Africa, and many other countries that will be examined in this report show that decentralization has become a

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[23] Ibid. p.18

[24] Minas Gerais is the third largest state in Brazil

[25] Mourshed, M.Chijioke, C.Barber, M. 2010, p.32

[26] Ibid

[27] Ibid

[28] Ibid

necessity in educational reform. Yet, some scholars such as Fiszbein find that implementing decentralization cannot work without centralization or without support from the central government. For instance, in his research "Decentralizing education in transitional societies," Fiszbein emphasized the importance of effective tools to succeed in implementing decentralization:

> Centralization and decentralization are not mutually exclusive. A central curriculum and administrative guidance is compatible with school-site management. Decentralization paradoxically requires more central government and more sophisticated national political skills. The central administration must increase its ability to manage educational reforms to reduce the gap between intention and achievement. Implementing reform means more than transmitting papers from the MOE to the school inspectorates. It requires specialists with more than administrative competencies. [29]

THE SCHEMES OF SUCCESSFUL DECENTRALIZATION

In most countries, education improvement requires the local and regional governments to distributing authority evenly between the central level, represented by the ministry, and the local level, represented by local governments in provinces and districts. To summarize, effective decentralization in education systems requires attention to the following issues:

1. **Political and administrative dimensions of decentralization**

Although decentralization takes many forms (deconcentration, delegation, devolution, and privatization), it also takes place along different dimensions, such as political and administrative decentralization. According to Fiske, *political decentralization* involves stakeholders from outside the educational organization in

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[29] Fiszbein, A. 2001, p. 110.

making educational decisions. In contrast, he defined *administrative decentralization* as a kind of "management strategy" because the shift of power is from the central level to lower units within the same organization. For example, it is an administrative task to delegate the financial decision making from the central ministry to the local government[30].

Political and administrative decentralization alone do not create the desired educational outcomes. Instead, the educational outcome could be positively influenced by powerful community participation, financial efficiency, and reinforcing the cultural context. In education, not all forms of decentralization can enhance education quality and students achievements.[31] Thus, decentralization theories need effective implementation plans because implementation is not less important than its intellectual theory. When the theory is implemented well, it can result in positive outcomes. Nevertheless, when it is implemented poorly, poor outcomes could consequently be the result.[32] However, the failure in implementing decentralization usually results from confusion in understanding the accurate meaning of decentralization.[33]

2. The reason for decentralization

Why are some systems decentralized? To answer this salient question, Fiske, in his book *Decentralization of Education: Politics and Consensus*, demonstrated that decentralization is a consequence of a set of political, economic, cultural, and

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[30] Fiske, 1996, pp. 9-10

[31] Ibid, p.29

[32] Ibid

[33] McGinn and T. Welsh, 1999, p18

organizational contexts, and a set of leadership, policies, performance, evaluations conditions. Therefore, questions about why a decentralized education system is necessary must be addressed. Does a government decentralize because it wants to remove the weight of responsibility from its shoulders, passing it off to the local level, such as schools and parents? Is it implemented to overcome the financial problems, such as corruption, that plague the central government? Does decentralization have a direct impact on education quality? How can decentralization make difference in education quality?

Sometimes, decentralized governments change their strategies because of political or financial reasons. For instance, in Colombia, education policies had been transferred to local levels in 1989 to gain public trust after government corruption was exposed and the politicians lost their credibility among the public.[34] Politicians decided to focus attention on the Colombian education, which had several problems that led to low performance quality and low learning standards. The over-centralized system did not provide equal opportunities for all students to learn. Moreover, corruption had led to a gap between the public and policy makers. Hence, to gain the public trust and regain their credibility among the public, policy-makers decided to enhance the education system by transferring more responsibilities to the local levels[35].

Low performance quality and low learning achievement were also the primary reasons that led countries, such as Brazil, New Zealand, South Africa, and Mexico, to

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[34] Hanson, 1995, pp. 108-111
[35] Fiske, 1996, pp.1, 12

change their centralized education systems to decentralized ones[36]. Nevertheless, Eastern European countries decentralized their education because of financial reasons as such countries suffered from financial crisis after the division that resulted from the dissolution of the Soviet Union. Therefore, the new governments were forced to decentralize the national systems to improve the quality of service and to overcome the financial disorder.[37]

3. The expected and desired results

Decentralization aims to produce results, but not just any results. These results focus on learning outcomes and education quality. Organizational transformation, systems reform, and better policies and management need to be centered on school and education quality and learning. However, some results do not contribute to more and better education for more children.[38] For example, although political support has allowed Colombia, the Eastern European countries, Brazil, and New Zealand to achieve progress in implementing decentralization, some countries like Mexico have not achieved great success.

Mexico started to decentralize education in 1980, and it divided the reform plan into three phases. In the first phase (1980-1982), the central government achieved good results in transferring some authority to the states. The states, in turn, had the authority to

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[36] Ibid, p. 12
[37] Ibid, pp.12-18,
[38] McGinn and Welsh, 1999, Pp. 22-30.

manage the budget, oversee school management, and prepare the curriculum.[39] In the second phase (1983-1988), the central ministry planned for more delegates to the states. However, this phase failed because the Teachers Union and some of the MOE officials resisted this transfer due to a lack of trust in the central government.[40] The third phase started in 1992; after a change in government, policy-makers re-attempted to negotiate with the Teachers Union and stakeholders to delegate more authority to states. In 2002, the new government succeeded in convincing the Teachers Union to pass the transfer of power[41].

The Mexico example shows that throughout over 20 years, both the central and local levels were fighting to improve students' outcomes through delegating the administration of schools to the local level. The process took so long precisely because the government insisted on specific results, not merely accepting minimal changes.

4. **The effective redistribution of power and tasks throughout the system**

The main objective of decentralization is to stimulate the educational system by passing the power, tasks and functions downwards. The realignment process needs to be thoughtful, clear, and thorough. The redistribution of tasks and functions needs to be accompanied by organizational transformation, management and performance reviews, accountability, collective understanding, adequate resources, broad commitment, etc. The reassignment of the wrong tasks and functions can create resistance and new

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[39] Hanson, 1997, p. 8
[40] Ibid.
[41] Fiske E.B, 1996, pp 17-18

inefficiencies. Decentralization might be part of broader efforts by the government and civil society to democratize, respect cultural rights, gain greater economic efficiencies, and streamline government as well as to abandon responsibilities, re-concentrate power, save a discredited regime, etc.[42]

5. The nature of effective participation

Local community participation is an essential factor in implementing successful decentralization. When stakeholders participate ineffectively in education, the latter will do more harm than good. Good participation requires information, capacities, enabling conditions, and clarity of roles and responsibilities that stakeholders might play.[43] Some kinds of participation can result in the recentralization of power and decision-making to new elites at the local level. For instance, in three cases from Southern Africa—Tanzania, Madagascar, and Zambia, the experience of implementing decentralization was successful because leaders identified the interests of the stakeholders and determined the benefits they may get from implementing a decentralization. Education departments in those countries also created a unified model of stakeholders' concerns and interests. They also produced opportunities for public discussion.

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[42] Welsh T & McGinn N.F, 1999, pp 51-60
[43] Ibid, pp.40-41

6. School-based Management SBM

SBM refers to the transfer of decision-making authority from a central ministry to the school level.[44] It also represents the core of a strategic plan and its most important focus. It views the school as the basis for reform. Schools are encouraged to develop their decision-making capabilities concerning procurement, assessment of staffing requirements, and educational supplies. School principals and school boards are the key actors in making decisions. Thus, under SBM, ministries transfer many executive tasks to the school level.

In addition, the school becomes responsible for evaluating teacher performance and providing rewards. It is more empowered to communicate with the local community to raise the level of education. New Zealand, Israel, and the UK represent effective models of implementing SBM, where the central ministry has fully authorized schools to manage their own resources.[45] However, scarce resources in some schools may represent a major constraint in achieving effective governance at the school level. For example, although El Salvador produced a good model of SBM implementation, boards' financial control created a tension between school boards and schoolteachers because of school funds. Schoolteachers and staff did not believe in the strategy that the board used in allocating funds. Hence, many conflicts and clashes occurred in consequence of this tension.[46]

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[44] Caldwell, 2003, p.2
[45] Patrinos and others, 2007, p. 5
[46] Grauwe, 2004, p.6

7. Role played by donors to support decentralization and local governance

Since the 1980s, the international intergovernmental and nongovernmental organizations, such as USAID, SIDA, the World Bank, and the UNESCO, paid great attention to decentralization and to local governance. They implemented several programs to build the capacities of the governments as well as communities in many countries of the developing world. In the Evaluation Series "Lessons Learned on Donor Support to Decentralization and Local Governance," the OECD presented a synthesis of evaluation studies of decentralization and local governance support programs. This study focused on evaluating the three major roles that donors play in supporting decentralization and local governance, which include poverty reduction and community partnership as well as assuring sustainability. It concluded with acknowledging that there is a need for administrative and financial support as well as a need for effective partnership and building the capacity of the human resources.

a) The need for long-term support

Transitioning from centralization to decentralization usually takes time. Moreover, it sometimes takes a long time to start or to step up the starting point to the next point. For example, the SIDA initiative to implement democratic decentralization in Botswana took more than 20 years to achieve the desired results[47]. Hence, successful

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[47] OECD, 2004, p.20

decentralization may take more than a decade when in a context of financial and political instability[48].

b) *Fiscal decentralization support*

Donors provide programs to enhance the capacities of newly decentralized systems to manage their financial resources. The Local Development Fund (LDF) is a form of local funds that integrates with the central government to empower the local government and to build its capacities. UNCDF[49] supported LDFs in many countries, such as Uganda and Malawi. For example, CIDA, USAID, and AusAID financially support those LDFs to produce programs, such as financial planning and budgeting, to achieve improvements and sustainability in the overall financial resources of local government[50].

c) *Enhanced partnership*

Donors fund programs that are designed to improve partnerships between local government (LG) and stakeholders. Such programs are directed to both LG and stakeholders. Thus, they achieve success particularly when combining support to local government with support to civil society, which is called dual channel support[51]. Dual channel support creates a double influence because as it reinforces the role of local

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[48] Ibid

[49] United Nation Capital Development Fund

[50] Ibid, p.53

[51] Ibid, p. 10

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governments in achieving democracy, it concurrently builds the capacity of the civil society stakeholders to enhance their roles in achieving organizational quality.[52]

Since decentralization represents a reallocation of resources in a society, it can serve the interests of certain segments of society and go against the interests of other elements. Therefore, it is helpful to produce a checklist in order to regulate how donors and partner governments can assess potential conflict in supporting decentralization[53]. For example, CIDA supported decentralization in the Philippines by providing programs to build the capacity of both the local and central governments on decentralization. However, the coordination between the local governments and the Department of Local Government and Interior was very restricted[54]. Thus, the funded programs did not achieve the desired success. USAID faced the same failure with the central government of the same country. USAID offered programs to support decentralization in the Philippines, such as "reorientation of national agencies towards more supportive attitudes towards decentralization,[55]" but it could not make any connection with the central government[56].

This chapter has provided an overview of the key terms concepts, and schemes of decentralization, which help improve our understanding of the theory. The next chapter will offer an outline of the major aspects of successful implementation of decentralization plans, based on an extensive literature review.

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[52] Ibid
[53] Ibid, p 9-10, 56.
[54] Ibid, p.22
[55] Ibid
[56] Ibid

Chapter Two: Decentralization plan features

Scholars have debated the merits of centralized and decentralized education systems. However, a mixture of centralization and decentralization in a system could achieve effectiveness and enhance quality.[57] For instance, Hanson argued that the central government could set policies in coordination with the local government to achieve a competent decentralization. For instance, in cases such as Colombia and Mexico, their ministries of education (MOEs) have retained their power to set the national standards and curriculum. At the same time, schools and teachers' councils have the full responsibility to administer their financial and human resources.[58] Despite promising results in individual countries, there is no specific map for mixing decentralized and centralized functions. Instead, the roles vary from country to country and from one experience to another. However, the common standards of successful decentralization emphasize the importance of setting a strategic vision, community involvement, and organizational transformation. Based on a survey of the existing literature, certain patterns emerge that point us toward clear political steps and factors as discussed below:

CLEAR VISION

A plan cannot succeed without a clear vision that includes all factors that motivate stakeholders, clients, and staff to be committed to attaining the goals. Carron defined the vision statement as "*somewhat broader since it sets out the ideal state of affairs which*

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[57] Hanson, 1997, p7

[58] Fiske, 1997, p. 3

the organization would like eventually to achieve.''[59] In other words, it is what an organization aims to do to sustain progress by raising the community's awareness and by gaining the community's commitment. Since a vision is essential in creating an organizational strategic plan, the clarity of this vision is a must to make it more effective because clarity would make the plan more understandable and more credible. Cohen has argued the necessity of clear vision because he finds that ambiguity could provide schools and stakeholders with a degree for flexibility in interpreting the vision.[60] He also argues that the ambiguity has its policy purposes.[61] Like Cohen's argument, some governments like El Salvador believe in the vision's clarity. When El Salvador's MOE established the educational vision "Education 2020" with the assistance of the USAID, the ministry started the process by holding several meetings with political stakeholders to set the priorities of the educational strategic plan. Education priorities were set and gained the political credibility and legitimacy by which the state as a whole became committed to achieve this vision. Although Guatemala's MOE established the Commission of Education Reform (COPARE) in 1997 in order to outline regulations for decentralizing education, there was no clear national vision. Thus, educational progress was hampered not only by the lack of a national vision but also by the lack of funding and governmental commitment to implement the peace accords.[62]

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[59] Carron, 2010, p.10

[60] Cohen, 2009, pp.27-28

[61] Ibid, p30

[62] Marques J., Bannon I., p.17

STRATEGIC PLANNING

State commitment to a clear vision is not the only requirement for attaining reform: strategic planning to achieve this desired vision is required as well. State and community mobilization are tools that could achieve a particular vision by using media and campaigns to reinforce educational goals and keep them in the national agenda[63]. For example, when Zambia's MOE set the vision "Education for our Future" in 1996, it strategically set up a plan to mobilize the MOE's new vision. Aside from the education ministry and its agencies, which were committed to implementing this vision, all other ministries and state agencies worked collaboratively to achieve it. Pushing the educational vision into the national agenda could be an essential element in mobilizing the top-down organization departments.[64] In 2003, for example, Guatemala's Ministry of Education (MINEDUC) mobilized the media to market their new educational vision as well as to raise the public awareness of education reform. There were articles about education reform written in journals on a daily basis as well as television coverage of education programs. At the same time, the MOE engaged the private sector in funding projects and activities that were planned but not included in the main education budget[65].

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND PRIVATE SECTOR ENGAGEMENT

Widening the role played in educational decision making for those who do not officially belong to the educational institution is one of the main characteristics of

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[63] Ibid., p.12

[64] Msango, H., Mwale, G. and others, 2000, pp. 15-20

[65] Conciliation Resources website, Guatemala webpage, 1995

decentralization[66]. Community and private sector's involvement is important in order to carry out an educational strategic plan effectively; it functions to reinforce good governance and increase public trust. Yet, public participation and trust greatly rely on the effectiveness of the information system that operates in the educational institution because accurate information would lead to making decisions based on knowledge, which achieves better solutions and choices.

In a study presented in Winkler's paper "Identifying the Impact of Education Decentralization on Quality of Education," Crouch illustrated that the problem with centralized education is the failure of both schools and the ministry to provide the required information to the elected politicians or to the public. In addition, the community may not have the skills or the tools to give feedback to the educational institution reflecting their evaluation of school performance.[67] Crouch suggested that delegation could be the most efficient type of decentralization for enhancing accountability although many responsibilities would still be under the central power (see appendix 2 in the appendices).

A distinctive example came from Central America when a project called Civic Engagement for Education Reform in Central America (CERCA[68]) started in 2004. Its goal was to promote social change by involving public stakeholders in school decision-making. Specifically, CERCA introduced "School report cards" to measure education quality. By using these cards, all parents, MOE staff, state decision makers, and

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[66] Grauwe, A.D, and others, 2005, p.6
[67] Winkler, 2007, pp.2-5
[68] It is implemented in Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua

stakeholders could identify school quality and determine the progress in educational performance and educational outcome. Education reform plans were used to mobilize the community to work on the educational vision and goals.[69]   Consequently, community members and stakeholders were not only responsible for measuring the progress of education quality, but they were also involved in establishing the goals and objectives.[70] Nonetheless, community engagement requires careful implementation. Although community participation will create autonomous school governance, it may not achieve education quality unless the local stakeholders receive training. For instance, the increase of community involvement in schools in El Salvador reduced the rate of absenteeism, but it did not have any effect on students' achievement[71]. From El Salvador's example, we can conclude that community involvement can be more effective if the community partners receive specific trainings to build their decision-making capacity.

The goals of decentralization were promoted to the public as a way to achieve the shared vision. Governments also build the capacity of the institutions and stakeholders in oder to be train them in their new tasks and responsibilities, especially the financial and managerial tasks, under a decentralization umbrella. Then, the governments at local and central levels created clear standards of monitoring and evaluation to strengthen accountability and transparency. With an efficient information system that enabled the community to monitor school progress, the local community was effectively engaged with the school community. By implementing these steps, the educational systems in the

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[69] Guío A., Chesterfield R., and Siri C., pp. 7-8

[70] AED, Civic Engagement for Education Reform in Central America Project

[71] Litvack, 2011, Education and Decentralization

three South African countries (Tanzania, Madagascar, and Zambia) have attained good progress in implementing decentralization in their systems.[72]

QUALITY- BASED RESTRUCTURING

Aside from community participation, one of the main strategies that MOE should mainstream in every level and sector of education is organizational restructuring in order to achieve better quality. This quality approach should be mainstreamed not only between MOE departments, agencies, and staff but also among stakeholders, states, provinces and local communities to emphasize school governance, quality, and school accountability. The latter is essential because clarity and transparency of the interface across the different roles and parts must be achieved. For instance, Tatto stated that teachers' performance was greatly affected when the shift to decentralization occurred in countries such as Mexico. From 1992 through 1997, the Mexican government passed laws to improve teachers' quality, to empower the local community, and to enhance the curriculum.[73] Since then, teachers have started to develop their expertise in solving problems and to be more engaged in school decision-making.[74]

ORGANIZATIONAL TRANSFORMATION

Organizational transformation is another strategy of restructuring at different levels. At both the MOE level and the local level, each department should determine its exact roles. Florestal and Cooper found that transformation in the central organizations

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[72] Final Research Report on Decentralization of Education Delivery, 2007
[73] Tatto, 1999, p.260
[74] Ibid, p.254

was successful when accompanied by effective financial management, as in Chile's case. Chile's education system in the 1980s attempted to build the capacity of the administrative staff by effectively managing its financial resources and passing laws that assured the central government's control of the financial resources.[75] Thus, the decentralization process had first been implemented at the financial level from 1973 until 1989; then, it was followed by decentralization at the pedagogical level from 1990 until 1995.[76] Chile passed three main laws to process the financial and pedagogical decentralization. The first law was decree law No. 3073 of 1979, which authorized the municipalities to administer their tax revenues. The second law decree was No. 34676 of 1980, which supported private schools' subsidies, while Espinola No. 3 of 1995 regulated the allocation process at the school level.[77] Although these changes are encouraging, organizational transformation at the central level should operate in parallel with an effective transformation at the local level. Education reform is not a matter of creating a new hierarchy and removing others[78]. Rather, it is a matter of rereading the current chart, reorganizing it, and restructuring the tasks to be more effective. In other words, it is the strategy of functioning within the status quo and doing the tasks differently to go forward in achieving the targeted strategic plan.

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[75] Litvack, 2011

[76] Ibid, pp. 9-10

[77] Ibid.

[78] Ibid, p. 7

FUNCTIONAL MAPPING

Organizational transformation could not be attained without functional mapping for all levels, agencies, departments and sectors in educational institutions. By mapping the system, it would be easy to accurately define the roles and responsibilities of every actor. By identifying the role of each member in an educational system, education quality would be defined as well. It would be easy to determine quality if you knew who is responsible for improving teacher effectiveness, producing textbooks, constructing the infrastructure, and administering school management. The vision and goals should be reflected in all activities that would be implemented. In addition, the quality in each level of the vertical and horizontal hierarchy should be assessed by a very effective accountability system. At the same time, the educational system at the central and local level should create measurements to identify the value added of departments in general and individuals in particular. This measure would be based on the individual or group's quality and effectiveness. For example, Florestal and Cooper examined the Indian constitution and found a constitutional mandate called the Conformity Act of 1994, which allowed the local states to create their own functional mapping to improve governance[79]. The MOE realized the importance of functional mapping, so they started implementing it at both the MOE management level and the governance level in the local department as well as at the community level. Hence, the states and districts became responsible for assessing the progress they attained in governance. In addition to governance assessment, districts became responsible for measuring the management

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[79] Florestal C., and Cooper R, 1997, p. 10

skills they developed. They also gained an opportunity to determine the indicators they can use to measure the capacity building that districts offer to staff, teachers, and administrators.[80]   To conclude, this relationship between the MOE and the local departments requires a careful balance of authority between the central and the local levels.

CAPACITY BUILDING STRATEGIES THAT ACHIEVE INTENDED RESULTS

Each new change or movement to change may find barriers that block the way to achieving progress. In educational systems, for example, both the status quo and the expected resistance to change represent the main barriers to enhancing quality. The question of how these obstacles might be removed could be answered simply by emphasizing the role of building the capacity of the education actors to improve their performance and provide them with the required skills for the change. Capacity building usually includes workshops, formal and informal trainings, seminars, and meetings.[81] Nevertheless, capacity building is usually hampered by the discrepancy between what should be done and what actually happens. The debate over identifying the educational vision and its actual implementation creates a wide gap in improving the quality of capacity building among actors. Success in building the capacity of those actors is based on the clarity of the educational vision, which should go in tandem with mobilizing all resources.

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[80] Ibid
[81] Rizvi M, 2007, p.9

In 2008, the World Bank (WB) conducted a survey to evaluate the impact of trainings they finance to build the capacities of teachers, principals, and administrators in different countries including Kenya and Burkina Faso. They concluded that about 90 percent of the trainees found the trainings were not applicable to their daily activities, while about 50 percent of respondents did not find the training materials functionally adequate[82]. Thus, capacity building could be effective when it fills in the gap between the organizational resources and the target goals that local and central levels want to reach. In accordance with the WB survey, education departments are responsible for holding and following up with the trainings. When education departments offer the training, they should provide sessions that are more practical and reflect the actual need of their audience. They should elicit solutions from the trainees and instruct them on how to solve problems using scientific methods.[83] The department should also follow up the outcomes of the trainings by listing the lessons learned from the training and adding them to the implementation plan.[84]In addition, the department should prepare adequate training materials, including proper solutions and methods for problems that attendees would encounter in the work place.[85]

MANAGING FINANCIAL RESOURCES

Acknowledging the high cost of change and the higher cost of not changing is a significant factor to achieve successful decentralization. The continuing complaint in

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[82] Belman A., Berryman S.E., Chakrapani D., Ahuja S., Knutson I., Marcos M., Meli N., Ranganathan R. 2008, p. xiv.

[83] Ibid, p. 16

[84] Ibid, p. 17

[85] Ibid

each educational system is the shortage of financial resources, which hampers reform efforts. However, the point here is not only the shortage of financial resources; rather, it is also the effective use of the available resources. Better management of resources is the key milestone in the reform process. Cohan argues that school low performance is a direct cause of economic decline.[86] Yet, studies emphasize that maintaining an ineffective education system without reform may cost more than stimulating change. This result occurs because failing to address the problems of dwindling resources may consume the system without achieving promising outcomes. In other words, the cost of resources consumed to improve teaching effectiveness, for example, is lower than the cost of low teaching performance. Furthermore, the costs of low quality education at the political, social, and economical levels are higher than the costs of education quality.[87] Yet, in Colombia, since decentralizing education, the central government froze its share of funding to the local municipalities and districts. The local government, in consequence, used the tax revenues to pay salaries and all other expenses that had been previously paid by the MOE. Thus, the new local governments struggled to raise the current performance of schools.[88]

SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT (SBM)

Education for all students is the main goal that all the above-mentioned schemes (e.g. vision, organization transformation, resources management, accountability, etc.) aim

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[86] Cohen, 2009, p103
[87] Winkler, 1989, p.2
[88] Alesina and others, 2004, pp. 4-6

to achieve. They are working to improve the education that all students receive because school quality is the starting point and the ending point of reform. SBM aims to empower parents and community in schooling and to increase school governance in decision-making. SBM further aims to achieve school financial autonomy.[89] Thus, decentralization is the key element to achieve SBM.

This chapter discussed nine themes that can affect decentralization including clear and strategic vision, community participation, information system, and organizational transformation. However, countries vary in implementing such themes because each country has its unique political, social and economic issues. In the following chapter, I introduce case studies from Colombia, Indonesia, and South Africa to trace how the factors that distinguish one country from another affect decentralization efforts.

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[89] Patrinos and others, 2007, p.3

Chapter Three: Case studies

In this chapter, I discuss case studies from Colombia, Indonesia, and South Africa. The three countries began decentralizing their education systems at approximately the same time in the 1990s. I chose to focus on those three countries for six main reasons. The first reason was the similarity in their political circumstances: all three of them established a new constitution that pays more attention to education. Both Colombia and South Africa established a new Constitution in 1991 and 1996, respectively, while Indonesia amended its 1945 Constitution in 1999, adopting acts and laws that serve to reinforce the concept of decentralization. The second reason was the political transition in the three countries. For example, both Indonesia and South Africa have started a new era of political democratic transition by ending long-ruling presidents and parliaments. Suharto, in Indonesia, was forced to resign after 30 years of dictatorial rule, while a vital political change occurred in South Africa when the National Party was excluded from ruling the country. In the Colombian case, the political change was quite different because it happened to emphasize the credibility of politicians rather than the intention to achieve real change. The third reason was the three countries' realization of the importance of education access, particularly after piloting the Education for All initiative in 1990.

Although each country of the three represents a different geographical and demographical context, the fourth similarity is that all of the three have overcome the same challenges that prevented their stepping forward in achieving education reform. For example, the scarce financial resources in some districts made achieving education

quality a kind of fiction; however, the role played by the local community and private sector make it somehow possible. Fifth, low learning outcome and low enrollment rates, particularly among children in disadvantaged communities, was increasing in the three countries until the 1990s, which enforced their central governments search for solutions to overcome such problems. Sixth, each case is unique in interpreting the implementation of decentralization strategies. Colombia represents a very critical case due to central political dominance; South Africa represents a complicated case due to the racial segregation, while Indonesia represents a remarkable model of decentralization implementation.

This chapter introduces the three case studies, focusing on their political status in the 1990s and then listing the laws, acts, and decrees that were passed to promote education reform and education decentralization. The last part of each case study will discuss the challenges and problems that Colombia, Indonesia, and South Africa have faced in implementing decentralization in education.

1. **Overview**

Colombia is a nation of about 45 million people (75 percent urban).[90] Its constitution was established in 1886 and characterized. It placed an immense authority at the central level. The president had full power to appoint whomever he wanted in critical positions, such as mayors and governors. In addition to the complete power given to the president, in 1953, the military forces excluded the civilian government from ruling and institutionalized the dictatorship instead. In 1957, the Conservative and Liberal parties started compromises and negotiations to minimize the role of military forces, impose democracy and establish the National Front[91].

That same year (1957), the National Front put an end to the military dictatorship's rule and the central government's legitimacy. It also ended the civil war (*la Violencia*), which caused death for more than 200,000 people over a decade[92]. Nevertheless, the National Front was not the perfect pathway that could enable Colombians to overcome poverty and injustice because the income disparity between the poor and the rich was still very vast. Although the National Front attempted to balance the political forces between political parties, the elite groups still had the power to be represented in the elections more than those candidates who were not from the favored elite parties[93].

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[90] Index Mundi, Colombia Demographics Profile 2011

[91] Hanson, 1995, p.104

[92] Ibid

[93] Ibid, p. 105

In education, the National Front managed to increase the rate of educational expenditure from 1.4 Percent to 3.5 percent of the Gross National Product (GNP), from the 1960s through the 1980s. However, the National Front's strategies did not achieve much progress in learning outcomes. For example, about half of elementary-school-age children were illiterate.[94] Besides, this period saw a great increase in violence at schools and universities, where many principals and teachers were assassinated.[95]

Between the 1970s and the 1980s, the government started to lose its legitimacy again, particularly with the growth of violence everywhere, in streets, in political campaigns, in schools, and in universities. At that moment, the elite groups found that reestablishing the government and institutions and decentralizing them would be the only effective solution to overcome this crisis[96]. Hence, a new constitution was established in 1991 to increase the power of the local governments[97].

Implementing the constitution's new approach in education involved many arguments, negotiations and debates. In 1992, the Ministry of National Education (MEN) and the Department National Planning (DNP) in cooperation with the Ministry of Finance (MOF) proposed the draft of the law that guaranteed attaining a decentralized education system, providing full autonomy to schools, and achieving effective community participation in education[98]. However, the Teachers Union found that legislation would marginalize its roles. Therefore, it fiercely resisted, to the extent that the MOE created a

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[94] Ibid
[95] Ibid, p. 105
[96] Ibid, p. 106
[97] Ibid
[98] Fiske, 1997, p.3

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second draft of the legislation in the two following years (1993 and 1994). The final legislation offered limited decentralization to municipalities as well as limited school autonomy by which schools do not have the power to hire or fire teachers, administrators, or staff. Instead, teacher councils took the responsibility of making such decisions.[99]

Two main observations about Colombia should be noted. First, decentralizing the educational system started a few years prior to establishing the new constitution. Second, it is obvious that elite groups' pursuit of this transition from centralization to decentralization was only to gain the public trust and increase their credibility among the public.

2. Laws, Acts, and Decrees

Colombia had started decentralizing its education in 1991. Three main acts regulate decentralization, including Act No. 60 of 1993, Act No. 115 of 1994, and Act No. 715 of 2001.

- Act No. 60 of 1993 authorized the municipalities that were populated with more than 100,000 citizens to manage Value Added Tax (VAT) revenues. In addition, it granted the social sector funds to support education reform.[100]

- Act No. 115 of 1994 set out the roles and the responsibilities of the three governmental levels (the national, regional, and local levels).[101]

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[99] Ibid
[100] UNESCO, 2005, p. 31
[101] Ibid, p.32

- Act No. 715 of 2001 was passed to regulate resources allocations and distribution. Further, it determined the promotion and incentive basis when it first established measures of incentives based on the test results. This act reinforced the role of the central ministry in formulating the policies.[102]

3. Stages of Decentralization Implementation

For more than thirty years since 1985, Colombia has carried out different kinds of decentralization such as municipalization (deconcentration) and departmentization by using several acts. On the one hand, municipalization occurred from 1986 to 1991 by transferring the resources of VAT to the local level as well as giving the local government the opportunity to plan the budgets and administer the human resources. Fiske found that the reason for using the municipalization approach is to support financial and administrative autonomy at the school level[103]. On the other hand, departmentalization started in 1991 and lasted for ten years (1991-2001) by reinforcing the role of local government and community stakeholders in administering the financial resources. Acts such as Act 60 of 1993 and Act 115 of 1994 empowered municipalities to have full authority in administering the grants and resources as well as building independent local departmental structures.[104]

A quality monitoring and evaluation process is required to assess the decentralization progress at the school level. In 1998, the government established a

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[102] Ibid
[103] Fiske, 1997, p. 2
[104] Ibid, p.2

national evaluation body.[105] The main goal of this national evaluation facility is measuring learning outcomes and student achievement through two main exams. They are end-of-year exams called SABER, which are taken at the end of the final year of both primary and secondary stages.[106]

4. Challenges and Problems

a) At the National Level

Although Acts No. 115 and 715 give more authority to the municipal level, the lack of capability, capacity, and accountability have led to critical problems in allocating the resources, enhancing the performance, and achieving education quality.[107] Since implementing the departmentalization in 1991, the mechanism used was not effective, causing inefficiency in providing the services to regions and schools. The lack of experience caused unfairness in allocation distributions. Moreover, the lack of information created poor assessment tools that caused poor results.[108]

b) At the municipal level

VAT management has represented another major problem to the municipalities. Based on Act No. 60 of 1993, the municipalities were authorized to manage their tax resources and to administer education by using tax revenues. The central ministry withdrew its education allocations, which forced the municipalities to cover all the

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[105] Adopted by Carbonari, F. from original report of Vargas, J., 2007, p. 7
[106] Ibid
[107] UNESCO, 2006, p. 31
[108] Ibid, p. 32

education costs. These costs had been previously covered by the ministry from the tax revenue. Thus, tax resources were spent in covering many of the necessary expenses, such as salaries, rather than enhancing education quality.[109] This problem is greatly apparent in poor municipalities with limited tax revenue, where the number of teachers was reduced due to a decrease in the local budget. Of course, the activities for quality reform have not been funded.[110]

c) At the school level

Although the state and local level did not have the sufficient capacities to develop policies to enhance result-based quality, a growing number of schools have developed plans to improve their quality. However, schools have developed plans of improvement based on students' scores on SABER exams.[111] Such plans cannot give an accurate evaluation because exam scores are not the adequate measure to evaluate quality. For instance, rich students who enroll in private schools achieve higher scores on SABER exams than those in the public schools.[112] Therefore, quality, education accessibility, and equality are controversial in such plans. In addition, the education at the central level created quality standards to assess teachers' performance. Although teachers' performance is monitored and evaluated regularly, there is no method to evaluate the teaching programs.[113] By law, elementary education is mandatory, but there is no

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[109] Ibid, p.33

[110] Ibid

[111] Adopted by Carbonari, F. from original report of Vargas, J., 2007, p. 7

[112] Ibid

[113] Ibid, p. 3

measure available to monitor this mandate, particularly with the limited resources in some schools and municipalities.[114]

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[114] Ibid, p.1

INDONESIA

1. Overview

Indonesia is a nation of 250 million people and is considered one of the largest archipelagos in the world, including 17,000 islands[115]. At the beginning of the 21st century, the number of children who were expected to enroll in schools from grade one to grade nine was about 65 million, which represents about 30 percent of the total population at that time (UNESCO 2006)[116]. Since Suharto's resignation in 1998, Indonesia has experienced a new reign of democracy and political change, which is characterized by new transformation of the political structure toward decentralization and transferring the full authority to the local level after 30 years from an increasingly autocratic regime[117]. In his study "Indonesia Decentralization Policy, Initial Experience and Emerging Problems," Usman drew attention to the kind of hierarchical organization that the government followed after experiencing decentralization (See appendix 3). Since then, Indonesia decided to start to decentralize its education, which had been managed and fully controlled by the central ministry for thirty years. The new decentralization laws became effective on January 1, 2001[118]. Education was one sector that received the lion's share of the transformation. Indonesia started with a five-year program that

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[115] Index Mundi, Indonesia Population, July 2011
[116] Decentralization in Education in Indonesia, UNESCO 2005, p. 9
[117] Ibid
[118] Usman, 2001, p.ii

reinforced the school-based management approach as well as curriculum reform that attained competency and quality and empowered localization[119].

The Constitution and *Pancasila*[120] represent the two main pillars of K-12 education that comprise public and significant private education. Both private and public schools represent the majority of schools in Indonesia besides a third kind of school called *Madrasah*, which is established and administered by the Ministry of Religion Affairs (MORA). The Indonesian education is a 6-3-3 system where a student has to study 6 years of elementary education, followed by 3 years for junior secondary education, and then 3 years for senior general stream/vocational education.[121]

Indonesia was one of the nations that have had many problems in education attainment and in enrollment equality, where about 3.6 million of children between 7 and 15 years old were out of schools. In addition to the enrollment equality problem, problems such as low education quality, inefficient resource distribution, and low teacher performance had accumulated to cause low student achievement and low school performance.[122]

In 1994, the government established a 9-year basic education program (1994-2004), which was mainly based on college-career readiness programs in order to provide students with all the requisite knowledge and skills to prepare them for jobs or higher

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[119] Decentralization in Education in Indonesia, UNESCO 2005, p. 9

[120] The state's five principals philosophy: 1) Belief in the one and only God, 2)Justice and civilized humanity, 3) The unity of Indonesia, 4) Democracy, 5) Social Justice

[121] Behrman, Deolalikar, and Soon, 2002, p. 26

[122] Schools that are established and administered by the Ministry of Religion Affairs (MORA), p. 12

education[123]. Nine-year basic education was a solution that might step Indonesia up to be part of the global market. Therefore, the goals focused on increasing the rates of schooling to reach 95 percent and decreasing the gender enrollment disparity as well as enhancing the quality of teaching services. Yet, the program required financial resources, which neither the central nor the local government had. Hence, the government sought external funds to assist in implementing this 9-year basic education program. For instance, UNESCO and UNICEF, JICA, and AustAID provided funds to assist in accomplishing school-based management programs and effective learning activities.[124]

2. Laws and Decrees

Since the fall of President Suharto and his regime (New Order) in 1998, several amendments were added to the 1945 Constitution to make it more decentralized and more democratic. These amendments were followed by some new laws that facilitate the transformation to decentralization at the education level. Five main laws were passed to implement decentralization since 1999. However, the first law towards decentralization in education was law No. 5, which was established in 1974. The more recent laws were passed through three ministries, including the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC), the Ministry of Finance, and the Ministry of Home Affairs, which aimed to regulate the relationship among the three levels of government (the central, provincial, and district levels). These laws are as follows:[125]

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[123] Ibid, p. 11
[124] Ibid p. 13
[125] Cohen, 2004, p. 22

- Law No. 5 of 1974 is considered a primary initiative of decentralization; it distributed the education political decision-making between the provincial level and the districts. Both districts and provinces have autonomous units that are similar to their counterparts in the central government. However, sub-districts and villages did not have a fully autonomous function because they had the authority to administer their financial resources but were controlled by the districts.[126] This law was an opportunity for the local districts and provinces to implement development in education; however, Suharto's regime restricted this opportunity due to central government control.[127]

- Laws No. 22 and 25 of 1999 represented the major laws in applying decentralization at the financial, administrative, and political level. They were passed by the Ministry of Home Affairs to determine the roles of each governmental level. Appendix 7 indicates the framework of government under Law 22 of 1999.

- Law 43 of 1999 determined the responsibilities of each province in education reform, focusing on teacher incentives, textbook subsidies, and quality assurance methods to evaluate schools' performance.[128]

- Law No. 25 of 2000 was passed by the Ministry of Finance to regulate the funding issues, whether internal or external.[129]

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[126] Ibid

[127] Indriyanto, 2003, p. 1

[128] Ibid

[129] Ibid

- Law 34 of 2003 authorized districts to completely administer their taxes. Although this law empowered the districts, it did not give the same authority to provinces.[130]

- Law 17 of 2003 was passed to improve budget management at the central government level as well as in the provinces and districts.[131]

- Education Law 20 of 2003 was passed by MOEC to regulate transferring the roles, responsibilities and financial resources to the local districts[132].

Indonesia encountered an economic recession in the late 1990s; however, student enrollments increased steadily, exceeding the universal average from 1995 through 2002.[133] In 2002, no student was left behind. Table(1) below indicates the rates of enrollment in the period between 1995 and 2002.

Table (3): Education Enrollment rates at all levels (1995-2002)

	1995	1997	1998	1999	2000	2002
Gross Enrollment rate						
• **Primary Level**	107.0	108.0	107.6	108.0	107.7	106.0
• **Junior Secondary Level**	65.7	74.2	73.4	76.1	77.6	79.9
• **Senior Secondary Level**	42.4	46.6	47.4	48.4	50.2	48.2
Net enrollment rate						
• **Primary Level**	91.5	92.3	92.1	92.6	92.3	92.7
• **Junior Secondary Level**	51.0	57.8	57.1	59.2	60.3	61.7
• **Senior Secondary Level**	32.6	36.6	37.5	38.5	39.3	38.2

Source: Pradhan (2001) and calculations using SUSNAS, 2002 (King, E., Aarons, A., Crouch, L., Iskandar, S., Larrison, J., Moegiadi, H., Munger, F., Strudwick, J., Muljoatmodjo, S. 2004)

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[130] Ibid

[131] Ibid

[132] Ibid, p. 24

[133] Aarons and others, 2004, p. 1

UNESCO's annual report of 2006 stated that the rate of student enrollment has increased by a million students since the academic year 2000/2001 through 2003/2004. The table below indicates the growth in student enrollment until 2004:[134]

Table (4): Education Enrollment rates at all levels (2002-2004)

	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/3004
Student				
• Primary Level	28,690,131	28,926,377	29,050,834	29,247,546
• Junior Secondary Level	9,563,434	9,757,132	9,936,647	10,167,311
• Senior Secondary Level	5,478,603	5,712,745	5,941,786	6,192,610
• Higher Education	3,199,174	3,348,567	3,441,429	3,551,092
Institution				
• Primary Level	170,999	171,315	169,147	170,404
• Junior Secondary Level	31,086	31,626	32,322	33,263
• Senior Secondary Level	16,120	16,079	16,774	17,061
• Higher Education	2,199	2,386	2,692	2,856
Teacher				
• Primary Level	1,289,072	1,361,182	1,431,486	1,453,228
• Junior Secondary Level	377,720	384,843	376,512	375,940
• Senior Secondary Level	303,365	320,310	335,671	346,782
• Higher Education	147,716	153,598	159,532	164,844

Source: Office of Research and Development, MONE, 2004((UNESCO 2006)

3. Challenges and problems

In the Indonesian case, Crouch and his colleagues[135] observed that Law No. 22 of 1999 was not clearly defined and did not clearly assign the responsibilities and tasks of both the central and local level. [136]At the same time, the tasks and responsibilities of the local and the central levels were not well organized. They also listed some other challenges as follows:

• The central government still had some power at the state and provincial level,

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[134] UNESCO, 2006, p.31
[135] Crouch and others, 2004, Vol. 1, 2, 3
[136] Adb, 2005, p.28

- The management procedures were ineffective with a lack of skillful teams in the implementation process,

- There were lack of accountability and transparency whether at the individual level or at the organization level[137],

- There was no participation in the education process from the community or private sector,

- There was no efficient IT system[138],

- There was no efficient technical support[139],

- In some provinces, inequity of educational quality and enrollment still existed[140],

- Resource allocations were not efficient or equal[141], and

- There was no adequate political support, which led to a severe resistance to decentralization.[142]

Since 2002, decentralization strategies have affected school governance and management, but their effect on school quality is unnoticeable. Aarons and his team found that the quality could not be measured in the early years of decentralization because there was neither a change in the organization structure nor a change in the financing system.[143]

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[137] Aarons and others, 2004, vol. 2, chapter 1, pp. 6- 7
[138] Ibid
[139] Ibid
[140] Ibid
[141] Ibid
[142] Ibid
[143] Ibid, p.111

a) At the school level

Schools identified low students' achievements and low teacher performance due to low standards, supply constraint, and corruption in order to pinpoint the three main obstacles that affect improving education quality. Thus, they implemented a plan to overcome those obstacles in three steps. The first step is raising the minimum standards of human resources.[144] Hence, building teachers' capacity is the most decisive step in the quality improvement process. To affect school performance in accredited schools, teachers require resources, motivation, and skill development and subject knowledge.[145] International experience demonstrates that schools need to continuously renew teacher motivation and skills in order to achieve higher levels of school performance.

The second step is to reduce the supply side constraints. This is achieved by building the capacity of the managerial sector at schools in order to gain the knowledge and the skills to achieve best practice and best utilization of the resources. This sector includes principals, administrative employees, and school intermediate management (senior teachers, supervisors, subject managers)[146]. The third step is to reduce and prevent the corruption constraint that affects quality improvement. Moreover, lack of transparency and corruptive practices in hiring and deploying principals and teachers, school construction, and textbook procurement is a binding constraint on quality improvement.[147]

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[144] Ibid, pp. 14,30
[145] Ibid, p. 56
[146] Ibid, p. 52
[147] Ibid, p. 13

b) At the district and state level

On the one hand, districts and states considered building the staff capacities as the key element to improve education quality. The Ministry of National Education (MONE) set out a list of requirements that are needed to improve decentralization at the district level.[148] There is a need for establishing an appropriate regulatory framework that is aligned with national goals and whose regulations are enforced. The MONE also emphasized the importance of creating robust information systems as a basis for wise planning as well as the importance of establishing pro-active public relations, including forums for public communication on district and school performance. This kind of relationship building creates channels of transparency between the school and the public. Additionally, the local government must enhance the technical skills of the education staff to improve information-based plans for quality improvement that are integral to district development priorities.[149] This plan should also include different strategies for assisting unaccredited, low-performing, middle and high-performing schools. Building the capacity of the local level further requires creating a credible fiscal management that meets international standards in order to finance education quality improvement using public and private resources.[150] However, managing the fiscal resources should parallel creating a set of incentives and corrections to assure compliance with minimum standards over a set time period.[151]

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[148] Ibid

[149] Managing the Transition to Decentralization," Education Sector Review", 2004, vol. 1, chapter 2, pp. 10-11

[150] Ibid.

[151] Ibid.

On the other hand, Indonesian district governments realized the necessity of political willingness to make and implement critical decisions. Mostly, these decisions are related to budgeting and management issues such as allocating an adequate proportion of financial resources to schools to cover non-salary costs (e.g., asset maintenance) and quality improvement. They also require a structural change in the district civil service to create a sector management structure that fits the new functions; access to financial, human, and knowledge resources to develop a local supply of service; and quality-improvement ideas and the skills to implement them.[152]

Although the decision to hire and fire teachers is one of the responsibilities of the local district, teachers' dismissal is not an easy decision because the district needs to get the central government's approval to provide, renew, or dismiss teachers[153].

c) At the national and provincial level

The MONE in Indonesia determined that its role to improve quality is based on setting national standards, creating incentive procedures, forming an effective informational system, and producing the national tests. Establishing a national quality control framework involves many factors such as setting and monitoring minimum standards for students, teachers, schools and districts. These standards include minimum service standards for districts in managing education service, accreditation standards, auditing indicators for schools, and basic competency standards in core subjects. In addition to standards, there is a need for developing and implementing a strategy of

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[152] Ibid
[153] UNESCO, 2006, p. 18

incentives and corrections based on results of performance to control quality. To activate the monitoring strategy, there is a need to establish information channels that linked to district information systems in order to communicate comparative information on district and school performance to the public and government. The MONE also finds that producing periodic tests is its responsibility to assess students' progress.[154]

The consultants of the sector review recommend that during the mapping exercise of functions and roles across levels, it is important to identify the activities at each level, not just the objectives or goals. This provides a level of clarity to the local and the central level that is often missing. They also state that Indonesia needs a multi-year education development plan for each region that includes expenditure plans as well as financial, staffing and management plans.[155]

4. Governance and management problems

As the management lines are operated vertically, problems at both levels are raised in the Indonesian case. The vertical line represents the management from top to bottom while the horizontal line represents the governance across the MOE and civil society. Management and governance faced some problems in the Indonesian case at the national level as well as at the district and school levels.

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[154] Managing the Transition to Decentralization," Education Sector Review", 2004, vol. 1, chapter 2, p. 27
[155] Ibid

a) At the national level

To achieve effective management, the national government that is represented by the MONE determined its need to increase the MONE's ability to assess decentralized best practices and to change the nature of inspectorates. Besides, the MONE required setting up a facility for evaluating and improving standards. Additionally, it required carrying out systematic management and skills audits against assigned governance and management skills.[156]

Governance at the national level required developing a clearer vision as well as acceptance of the national level's role from the local level. It also required finalizing the Education Law and developing criteria for asymmetrical decentralization. Additionally, it was necessary to resolve governance standards of the school boards and school committees.

b) At the district level

Before initiating a plan to improve the top-down management at the district level, districts first need to assess their own management and governance capacities. Then, they could start upgrading their staff skills based on the demand. Additionally, districts need to assess their own standards to match them with both the national standards and resources availability. [157]

To empower governance at the district level, it is necessary to apply processes for determining district-specific standards and develop better norms and guidelines for the

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[156] Ibid, p. 13
[157] Ibid

functioning of Education Boards and School Committees. Furthermore, a strategy for dissemination and reporting of school specific performance against standards should be applied. Training the staff is the key element to reinforce governance at the district level. Hence, lower-level staff should be trained on the meaning of the new laws and regulations as well as on learning from governance experiences elsewhere.[158]

According to the UNESCO Report of 2007, the accountability system is represented as a separate framework. Appendix (4) indicates that although the local level does not have the sufficient accountability system on the basic education[159].

c) At the school level

School management improvement must upgrade the skills of teachers and staff based on the need. Schools must apply models for interacting with school committees. In addition to this, schools need to apply decentralized financial, personnel, procurement and information systems.[160]

To empower governance at the district level, there is a need to apply governance guidelines to school committees. There is a further need to train staff at the lower levels to learn from governance experience elsewhere as a means of raising their own performance as well as to train school committees in assessing their own schools,

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[158] Ibid
[159] Ibid, 2007, pp. 9-10
[160] Ibid, p. 21

finances and personnel management, and using information for improving education quality.[161]

5. Execution of Decentralization

The MONE in Indonesia has found that implementing an accreditation strategy is one method to execute decentralization. Each school could use its own resources and create internal policies to enhance its performance and meet accreditation standards[162]. Based on Law No. 22 of 1999, the MONE has passed a decree to activate accreditation. This ministerial decree established an independent accreditation facility that examines nine school components: curriculum, teaching and learning process, school administration and management, school institutional organization, equipment and infrastructure, staff, budgeting, teachers and students, community participation, and school environment and culture. [163]It also assesses the school quality by using the Balance Scorecard approach as well as assessing the teacher management skills. This accreditation body is responsible for determining the challenges of including Madrasahs in the formal education system in Indonesia and measuring the impact of corrupt practices within the education sector.[164]

For more than twenty years, Indonesia has been working continuously to implement decentralization in education. It has achieved very good progress in the last two decades. For instance, the 2011 OECD report emphasized that Indonesia is the third

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[161] Ibid, p. 31

[162] Ibid

[163] Ibid

[164] Education in Indonesia: Managing the Transition to Decentralization," Education Sector Review, volume 2, Indonesia, Feb.9, 2004

country with the highest mean index for all students who enjoy reading and reading performance (See appendix 6).[165] Although Indonesian students still have not achieved much progress on the international tests such as TIMMS, they are progressing year after year. For example, in 1995 Indonesian students did not get any scores in TIMSS test. In 1999, the average mathematics score was 403, which improved to 411 in 2003.

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[165] OECD, 2011, p.109

SOUTH AFRICA

1. Overview

Since 1948, the political environment in South Africa was under the dominance of the National Party, which was based on the whites voting to deny the will of the rest of the population, such as Africans, Blacks, or Indians. However, in 1990, the ban on political practice was lifted, and the racial apartheid legislations were repealed to allow parties such as the African National Congress to participate in the political decision-making .[166] Releasing Nelson Mandela in 1993, having the first universal elections in 1994, and establishing the first democratic government at the same year, which was called the Government of National Unity (GNU)[167] reinforced that South Africa has started new political era. Yet, with the political change, the unemployment rates increased not only for blacks but also for white people[168].

Since 1995, the ministry of education has developed post-apartheid policies to reduce the gap in education between whites and blacks. These policies were represented by the White Paper, the South Africa School Act (SASA) and other policies that focused on changing the school governance and creating new objectives and values for education. Furthermore, the new policies emphasized the importance of extending the kindergarten stage in education[169].

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[166] ASQH, 2011

[167] GNU was a coalition between African National Congress, Inkhata Freedom Party, and National Party including 12 members from the African National Congress, 6 members from the National Party, and 3 members from Inkatha Freedom Party

[168] ASQH, 2011

[169] Sayed, Y, 2008, p.2

2. Acts, policies, and decrees in post-apartheid to emphasize education quality

South Africa's Constitution was established in 1996 as an attempt to create a relationship between the governmental institutions and the desired governance at the local level[170]. The Constitution of 1996 considers education reform a major priority. Chapter Two of the 1996 Constitution mandates the right of basic education for all. Additionally, the right of further education was guaranteed for all[171].

> "Everyone has the right to a basic education, including adult basic education; and to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible (Section 29 (1)" (DoE 2006, 7).[172]"

Since 1948, the education system was institutionalized by the Apartheid[173] policies as education services were driven by racial differences. After 1994, the government passed more than 12 acts and laws to regulate the educational transformation process to ensure system quality and education equity:

- The White Paper on Education and training of 1996 was the first serious step that was taken by the ministry of education in GNU to set education values and priorities with a focus on the application of the new constitution. The White Paper focused further on the tasks and responsibilities of the government on both national and provincial levels. Discussions about budgets and financial resources

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[170] Pampallis, 2002, p.4

[171] Ibid

[172] Sayed, Y. 2008, p. 21

[173] As defined in Wikipedia: "**Apartheid** was a system of legal racial segregation enforced by the National Party governments of South Africa between 1948 and 1994, under which the rights of the majority 'non-white' inhabitants of South Africa were curtailed and white supremacy and minority rule by Afrikaners was maintained".

were further parts of the detailed policy because they raised issues of governance and funding in education.[174]

- The Organization and Funding of Schools Notice of 1996 established GNU policy, which was passed in order to regulate school governance and schools funding. This notice also set out policies of leadership and professional development for schools.[175]

- The South Africa School Act (SASA) of 1996 was the landmark of governance at the school level because it established a framework called School Governing Bodies, which consisted of parents, community members, and education stakeholders who collaborated to achieve the best community engagement in education reform. This act not only allows the local community interaction in school decision-making, it also allows schools to manage their financial resources in a fully autonomous way.[176]

- The National Norms and Standards for School Funding Act of 1998 regulated the school funds, focusing on the establishing criteria of school fee exemptions for students who cannot pay and creating standards of school subsidies.[177]

- Curriculum 2005 was established in 1997 to be compatible with the educational vision "Outcomes Based Education (OBE)." This act emphasized the concept of

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[174] Sayed, Y. p.3
[175] Ibid
[176] Ibid
[177] Ibid

learning-areas- based education rather than subject-based education. It focused on the outcome rather than on the content.[178]

- The Education White Paper 3 of 1997 set out policies to reinforce management and financial decentralization of higher education.[179]

- Further Education and Training Act (FET) No. 98 of 1998 was a progressive step to establish institutions and colleges. Through this act, about 152 colleges and institutions were merged into 50 colleges.[180] This merge was used to support weak institutions to increase students' accessibility to them and to enhance institutions' performance.[181]

- The Education White Paper 4 of 1998 followed the FET Act to create channels of collaboration with the Ministry of Labor for achieving further implementations of FET in order to empower the governance sector.[182]

- The Education White Paper on Early Childhood Education of 2001 outlines policies to develop early childhood programs for children whose parents' income is under the poverty line. At the same time, White Paper 4 established guidelines for improving the quality of these programs.[183]

- The Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy of 2001 was a detailed description of educational values and vision based on the values that were raised

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[178] Ibid
[179] Ibid, p.4
[180] Saide, 2010
[181] Cathsseta, FET Act No. 98 of 1998
[182] Sayed, Y. 2008, p. 4
[183] Ibid

by the Constitution. These values focused on raising students' awareness to rights equity and democracy. In addition, these values ensured the principles of non-racism and open society.[184]

- The Education White Paper 6 on Special Needs Education of 2001 was a clear move to ensure education-for-all principles as this document committed schools and education institution to mobilize inclusive education, including students with learning disabilities.[185]

- The Education Laws Amendment Bill of 2001 was an amendment of 1996's SASA. It set out a group of sanctions against a government body that fails to carry out its tasks and responsibilities appropriately. Based on this bill, the government body is not allowed to raise school fees without getting approval from the Member Executive Council.[186] Thus, this bill has become a firm step forward to make all schools accountable.

(See appendix 7 in the appendices, which summarizes these laws and acts.)

3. **Problems and Challenges**

In 1994, the main challenge that the newly elected government encountered was achieving community involvement in educational decision-making without violating state autonomy.[187] In contrast, the main educational concern in the 1996 Constitution was dismantling the inherited legacy of apartheid culture by abrogating the 19 educational

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[184] Ibid
[185] Ibid
[186] Ibid
[187] Sayed, p. 8

departments structured to reinforce racial segregation. At the same time, the constitution attempted to create new education-policy frameworks that would construct a new non-racism-based philosophy.

The universal right to basic and higher education was considered as a large issue and surrounded by multiple barriers, such as the limited percentage of school fee exemptions that were granted to each school; the restricted authority of the School Government Body (SGP); and limited parental involvement in school decision-making. Furthermore, the constitutional mandate was not the basis of policy formulation; instead, the government formulated new education policy based on the availability of national financial resources rather than constitutional principles.[188]

Governance policy implementation encountered another barrier as it was not connected to democratization philosophy; rather, it was connected to management regulations.[189] For example, the SGP's role was financing schools rather than empowering community participation in decision-making. Because wealth was mainly in the hands of white parents who were members of the SGP, they used the SGP's financial power to reduce school access to the colored students in some schools.[190]

Although fee policies were an essential indicator to achieve equity, they have not been reflected in education quality and students' outcomes. Education Act No. 27 of 2006 clearly affirmed the principle of achieving education quality when it stated

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[188] Ibid, 22
[189] Ibid, p. 24
[190] Sayed and Soudien, 2005, pp. 115-125

> "Moreover, the school allocation is primarily and exclusively intended for
> the promotion of efficient and quality education in public schools.[191]"

This statement led to great confusion, particularly among the poor schools, as some critiques suggested that allocations and inputs sometimes do not improve school outcomes or quality, especially in poor schools, which devote their allocation to increasing school accessibility rather than school quality.[192] Others suggested alternative kinds of inputs that would achieve education quality, such as teachers' professionalism and experience as well as accessibility of textbooks.[193]

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[191] Sayed, 2008, p. 25
[192] Ibid
[193] Ibid

Chapter Four: Common challenges across countries and regions that encounter decentralization implementation

Chapter Three gave us an overview of the nature of the education system in Colombia, Indonesia, and South Africa and how the political transitions affected education policies. However, the stories of passing laws, acts, and decrees did not reveal the influence of these political transitions on education. Therefore, this chapter will analyze the three study cases of Indonesia, Colombia, and South Africa in light of the themes that were discussed in chapter two. The framework for the analysis based on the ability of the three countries to create clear vision, to achieve community participation, to develop the organizational structure, to enhance the capacities of education actors and stakeholders, to build an effective information system, and to achieve best utilizing of human and financial resources.

CLEAR STRATEGIC VISION

The education vision has been clear and strategically implemented in Indonesia and South Africa, while it is significantly unclear in the Colombian case. The vision in Indonesia and South Africa is centered on School-based-Management. In Indonesia's case, since it activated the decentralization laws in 2001, it has begun creating a vision of education focusing on the role of local community and local government in administering the education to cope with low school performance. Indonesia participated in the Jomtien World Declaration on Education for All in 1990, and agreed to implement the UNESCO initiative "Education for All" (EFA) by setting up 9-year basic education programs for all

Indonesian children and adults[194]. Participating in the EFA initiative created a new vision of education focusing on increasing education access and education quality.

Besides realizing the importance of the School-based-Management approach to improve education outcomes, South Africa created its vision based on disassembling the apartheid philosophy to make education more accessible and to achieve learning equity. Thus, a framework was created and several acts were passed, such as SASA and NNSSF and others that were previously mentioned in Chapter 3.[195]

In Colombia's case, the Harvard Institute for International Development reported that education reform lacked a shared vision, which has caused several problems between central and local institutions. Each institution seeks a mechanism in order to impose its control on the other institutions.[196] Since 1990, it was agreed that Colombia's education needed to be decentralized. However, MEN, states as well as DNP and MOF fought to control the content of this new system.[197] Each institution tried to impose its own vision to dominate the new decentralization approach.[198]

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND PRIVATE SECTOR ENGAGEMENT

Indonesia has efficiently produced a good model for implementing community participation in school decision-making. its success in administering a school is measured by the community's engagement in school life, including

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[194] UNESCO, 2006, p. 12

[195] Sayed, 2008, p. 5

[196] Hanson, 1995, p. 112

[197] Hanson, 1997, p.8

[198] Ibid.

participation in activities with students in class or out of class, establishing standards to improve school performance, and finding practical uses for the school budget to achieve the desired goals.[199] For example, Decree No. 44 of 2002 established two new bodies— School Committees (SC) and Education Councils (EC)—that consist of community stakeholders. Both bodies represent the community's involvement at the local level and school level, where the SC is a body for schools while the EC is a body for districts.[200]The EC and SC have worked collaboratively to improve education quality and quality as well as to increase students' enrollments at schools. Appendix 6 indicates the hieratical map of governance in the education system in Indonesia, where both the SC and EC interact with both schools and districts to achieve accountability.

Although the Colombian Constitution of 1991 was an attempt to regulate community participation by establishing community education councils that were responsible for administering local education juxtaposed with the local government, they have not been able to play this role or overcome their inherited legacy of centrality[201]. Legal scholar Fernando Rojas Hurtado reflected on how the community interacted with the new decentralized education approach, which forced them to positively participate in education decision making at the local level. Hurtado said:

> "Notwithstanding their theoretical virtues, the community advisory councils have not passed beyond a legal hypothesis. Like other instruments of participation foreseen in recent times, they have remained fundamentally on paper due to a lack of promotion, method, orientation, and regulation by the central government. As new institutional figures, they have no antecedents in Colombia."

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[199] UNESCO, 2006, p.25

[200] Fitriah, 2010, p.40

[201] Ibid, p. 116

In addition to the inherited legacy of centrality, public schools particularly do not have the full authority to make the required decisions. For example, public school principals or directors do not have the authority to hire, compensate, or fire teachers[202]. Professional development for school teachers and staff also remains outside the scope of their responsibilities[203].

Although South Africa's new educational system has tended to reduce racial segregation and apartheid, it has not pursued involved the community in educational decision-making because the elected government wanted to keep the influence of state involvement without getting a negative effect from the community stakeholders' decisions[204]. Thus, the roles of schools' governing bodies were restricted to advisory rather than decision-making roles[205]. In addition, SASA accorded some responsibilities to parents as members of school councils, but these responsibilities were withdrawn over time[206]. For example, SASA originally gave parents and stakeholders the right to select the beneficiaries of the schools' admission policies. However, the Parliamentary Education Committee has later abrogated this article from the act[207].

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202 Ibid, p. 116
203 Ibid
204 Sayed, 2008, p. 8
205 Ibid
206 Ibid, p. 11
207 Ibid, p. 14

QUALITY-BASED RESTRUCTURING

Indonesia's case Law No. 22 of 1999 gave public and private schools (except Madrasah[208]) the full authority to hire, fire, and compensate teachers and staff[209]. Districts not only do not have any power to recruit teachers but also they have to pay for any new civil servant that they hire from their own budget. For instance, if a district is willing to hire a new teacher, it has to pay his salary from its own budget because the school he works for did not make the hiring decision[210].

Colombia has had a significantly different struggle due to the low performance of its infrastructure, which has led to confusion about roles and responsibilities at the local level[211]. Another difficulty was the lack of experience among the provinces' officials such as mayors and city managers who would have the full administrative responsibility in education reform. As discussed in chapter three, they have not been provided with appropriate training to build their capacities in playing their roles.[212]

South Africa's educational system selected the deconcentration model of decentralization, where every provincial department has sub-units at both the district and regional levels[213]. The South African School Act of 1996 changed the apartheid school models and replaced them with two main models: public and private[214]. It gave schools' governing bodies flexible responsibilities, such as establishing the school's mission

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[208] Madrasah are schools that are administered by the Ministry of Religion Affairs MORE

[209] UNESCO, 2006, p. 17

[210] Ibid, p. 18

[211] Ibid, p. 115

[212] Ibid

[213] Pampallis, 2002, p. 11

[214] Ibid, p.8

statement, administering school buildings, and managing the school budget. However, the

governing bodies were given a restricted role in admission policy implementation.[215]

ORGANIZATIONAL TRANSFORMATION AND FUNCTIONAL MAPPING

In his study "Indonesia's decentralization policy," Usman quoted from the GTZ

report of 2001 regarding the number of civil servants in central education before 1999's

Law 22:

> "In total, 239 provincial-level offices of the central government (kanwil),
> 3,933 district-level offices of the central government (kandep), and 16,180
> technical units (UPT) of the central government have been handed over to the
> provinces, districts, and municipalities (GTZ Decentralization News, March
> 2001).[216]"

Although a large number of civil servants transferred from the central government

to the regional one, districts and provinces avoided firing any of the transferred

employees. Thus, they kept about two million civil servants; some of them perform

unnecessary tasks and functions because the local regions did not want to retrench

employees[217].

Usman sketched a governmental framework based on Law 22 that drew the

connections between the central government, provinces, and districts. Law 22 allowed the

districts and provinces to allocate education funds, but it did not make them autonomous

in raising education funds.[218]

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[215] Ibid, p.10

[216] Usman, 2001, p. 11

[217] Ibid, p. 12-13

[218] Usman, 2001, p. 6

Colombia's ministry of education, Ministerio de Educacion Nacional (MEN),[219] has attempted to redistribute tasks and responsibilities to empower the local government since 1989, two years prior to the establishment of the new constitution. MEN authorized municipal managers to hire, fire, and transfer teachers as well as to make all administrative decisions related to schools in his municipality[220]. Thus, MEN tended to use devolution to decentralize the educational system in the municipalities. Municipalities, however, are responsible for setting their programs, standards, curriculum, and budget allocation management[221].

South Africa's new organizational structuring attempted to balance maintaining the power of the national level with giving the provincial level more opportunities to participate in educational decision-making[222]. The SASA of 1996 used a deconcentration model, where each province has sub-units called *districts* that perform the same tasks and responsibilities at the local level. Some large districts consist of smaller units called *circuits*. Although districts and circuits may formulate independent units, they do not have the power that is accorded to them by SASA[223].

CAPACITY BUILDING STRATEGIES THAT ACHIEVE INTENDED RESULTS

Teachers in Indonesia are responsible for creating their school syllabi. However, they can fulfill this task effectively only when they receive sufficient professional

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[219] Ministry of Education

[220] Hanson, 1995, p. 109

[221] Ibid, p. 110

[222] Pampallis, 2002, p. 13

[223] Ibid, p. 11

training.[224] Hence, the government has provided an accurate and complete framework of teachers' professional development and staff-capacity building, including pre-service trainings; upgrading trainings; in-service trainings; internships; and teacher forums.[225] Teachers' capacity building is being processed with further attention to finding policies and regulation to increase autonomy of universities and boards of accreditation.[226]

However, the relationship between districts and provinces tells another story about a deficit in organizational capacity building. Indonesian ministerial officials did not trust on the local level administrative and financial capabilities. They believe that officials at the local levels are not ready to be responsible for making decisions and creating the laws and decrees. Law 22 of 1999 allowed the transfer of functions from the district to the province if the district could not manage administering these tasks, but it did not clarify the conditions that would lead to this surrender of responsibility.[227]

Unlike Indonesia, Colombia's new constitution has fully authorized mayors of municipalities to manage education reform. However, most of the municipalities have weak infrastructure and unqualified officials. Moreover, the constitution determines a 3-year non-renewal term for mayors, which does not give them or their administrations enough training time to achieve an efficient performance.[228]

In South Africa, there is a wide gap between the capacity of the central government and that of the local levels. Thus, a lack of qualified officials in provinces

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[224] UNESCO, 2006, p. 21

[225] Ibid, p. 28

[226] Ibid, p. 29

[227] Usman, 2001, p.8

[228] Hanson, 1995, p. 115

and districts makes it difficult to transfer authority.[229] In addition, the local government officials do not have sufficient capacity to perform the required tasks effectively.[230]

The three cases prove the importance of training officials at the local level, with a clear job description for every position to avoid ambiguity and overlapping of task.

UP-TO-DATE INFORMATION SYSTEMS

Indonesia represents a good model of gathering information from parallel levels of the government and of the local districts in order to achieve governance and sustain accountability at all of the educational system's levels. At the school level, internal evaluation of teachers, staff, and school performance is undertaken regularly to document their competence. A complete report about the results of these evaluations is presented to parents and stakeholders by the end of each semester.[231] While districts are required to submit reports about the progress achieved in implementing the service standards, provinces are required to report progress achieved by schools and districts in attaining quality assurance[232]. As the national level is the head of the system, its role is setting out the standards to measure teachers' performance and accreditation standards in addition to national standards of service. Through the Assessment Center, it is responsible for providing a national examination in Math, English and the Indonesian official language ,Bahasa, to assess student achievements and proficiency in the fore-mentioned

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[229] IMBEWU II Program, 2004, p.4-19

[230] Ibid

[231] UNESCO, 2006, p.26

[232] Ibid

subjects.[233] In general, teachers and schools are accountable to the school management committees, which are established by community members and stakeholders.[234]

Colombia's information system is not as efficient as the Indonesian one. For example, information about budget allocation is not available at the local level. Because the municipal allocation to education was not made available to the local government, it, in turn, refused any responsibility before knowing the expenses and costs.[235]

Like Colombia, South Africa's information system is not clear. School boards are not the only player in decision-making because school governing bodies, teachers' unions, and school principals are partners in making school decisions.[236] As a result, decentralization outcomes contradict with governance outcomes because there is no common line between the goals of decentralization at the central level and the goals of governance at the local level.[237] In his study "Decentralization in education in South Africa," Naidoo quoted the following passage from Wolhsetter and Mohrmanm (1994), which highlights the importance of information systems:

> "School-Based decision-making can contribute to improving schools if the following conditions are present: empowerment, knowledge that enables employees and community members to understand and contribute to the organization information about the performance of the organization, and reward for high performance."

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[233] Ibid, p. 27
[234] Ibid
[235] Hanson, 1995, p. 116
[236] Naidoo, 2005, p.42
[237] Ibid

ACKNOWLEDGING THE HIGH COST OF CHANGE, AND THE HIGHER COST OF NOT

CHANGING

It is critical to acknowledge that Indonesia reduced the cost of education as a way to improve its educational system. Financial resources allocation took a new form. Prior to implementing decentralization, provinces and districts received their budget allocations from the central government through two channels: *Subsidi DaerahOtonom* (SDO[238]) and *Instruksi Presiden* (INPRES[239]). Since decentralization, districts and provinces receive grants from the central government as well as from expanding their share of the revenues. Districts and provinces receive their new grants through the *Dana Alokasi Umum* (DAU[240]), which transfers about 70% of the revenues, and *Dana Alokasi Khusus* (DAK[241]).[242]

In addition to central allocation, Law 34 of 2000 authorized districts rather than provinces to generate taxes. Thus, this authorization has created a gap between the revenues of a rich district like Jakarta and a poor province such as East Nusa Tenggara[243].

Personnel distribution is another challenge because the educational system authority, when transferred to the local level, also transferred about 2 million public servants from the central level to the regional ones. Districts and province have accepted the transfer of the central employees for two reasons. The first reason was logistical because the transfer is not physical. Those employees work under the umbrella of the

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[238] Autonomous Government Subsidy
[239] The President Instruction Grant
[240] The General Purpose Fund
[241] The Special Purpose Fund
[242] Aerons and others, 2004, Vol. 1, p. 17
[243] Ibid, p. 18

central government in their own district or province. The second was social because districts and provinces did not fire any of them. They find that firing those public servants is a problematic issue because it may increase the unemployment rate.[244]

Prior to decentralization in Colombia, the central government's share in funding education was about 85 percent, while both municipalities' and districts' contribution was about 5 percent. After implementing decentralization, the government withdrew its share, allowing the municipalities districts to contribute the full tax share. As mentioned in Chapter Three, municipalities have struggled as a result of this transfer because they have to pay for all expenses that were previously covered by the central government, such as teachers' salaries and schools' maintenance.[245]

Like Colombia, South Africa's central government share is about 95 percent. The National Treasury is the organization that distributes those shares equitably between provinces based on a specific formula. The Ministry of Education does not play a role in reallocating these financial resources, while provinces and districts have the full authority to reallocate those shares[246]. Conditional share is another grant that is transferred from the central level to provinces, which is used to empower the decentralized goals.[247]

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[244] Usman, 2004, pp. 11-12
[245] Hanson, pp.10-11
[246] Pampallis, 2002, p. 7
[247] Ibid

SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT (SBM): MAKING THE SCHOOL THE UNIT OF CHANGE

Indonesia adopted SBM as a major tool to carry out education reform. Throughout 30 years of central government control, schools suffered from five main problems that blocked education quality. In his study "SBM: issues and hopes," Indriyanto listed them as follows: dependency on central government; lack of textbooks; lack of qualified teachers; paperwork standards; and centralized districts.[248] Thus, SBM initiatives focused on increasing the autonomy at the school level using one of three approaches: school approach, community approach, and district approach.[249] The school approach was represented by launching the Directorate of Junior Secondary Education in 2000, which offers grants to secondary schools that have specific programs for school reform.[250] Community participation is one of the most important factors in achieving SBM. Thus, UNICEF launched an initiative to offer grants to primary schools that demonstrate effective community participation. The UNICEF pilot schools were in poor communities, and the community representation took a form of physical and labor assistance rather than financial assistance.[251] The district approach is represented by the Decentralized Social Service Delivery Project (DSSD), which was established to help districts to functionalize their budget in order to achieve education quality.[252]

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[248] Indriyanto, 2003, pp.3-5
[249] Ibid, pp. 6-7
[250] Ibid, p.6
[251] Ibid, p. 7
[252] Ibid

Colombia's MEN and municipalities did not devolve the full authority to school administrations. Thus, the Colombia Rural Education Project is one of the solutions that provide technical support to municipal officials and school staff to develop strategic educational planning and increase governance at schools.[253] School management in South Africa has played an effective role in governing school resources in the post-apartheid state. School boards have received the power to determine the fees they collect and the language teachers use for instruction. Thus, schools have gained much autonomy as a result of principals' power rather than due to a political effect.[254]

This chapter illustrates the range of successes and challenges posed by decentralization efforts in Indonesia, Colombia, and South Africa. In Chapter 5, I conclude with a series of policy recommendations that derive from close examination of these three cases.

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[253] Patrinos and others, 2007, p. 10
[254] De Grauwe, 2004, p.3

Chapter Five: Conclusion and Recommendations

REMARKS, OBSERVATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Common Features

Political will: All three cases are considered examples of political decentralization because in each case the new system agreed to allow local governments to elect their own officials and create their own councils[255]. Both Indonesia and South Africa have approved local funding to provinces and local government, while Colombia's central government allows the localities to manage their own tax rates.[256]

Quality improvement is the responsibility of schools, parents and the state. The primary roles of the state mainly focus on subsidizing quality improvement and stimulating a regulated market in teachers' training. They also achieve responsibility to disseminate good practices, stimulate a market in new, low maintenance interventions for school quality improvement, and ensure accountability for quality to parents and civil society.[257] Clearly, there is a gap between the government's intention, its ability, and its political will to execute. There are more capacities at the local level than most central government policy makers assume. The challenge is to promote and document interesting results to analyze and devise regulations based on emerging best practices rather than on the theories and idealism of planners at the central government level.[258]

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[255] Literature and Best Practice Review on Educational Decentralization, 2004, p. 4-16
[256] Ibid
[257] Ibid
[258] Ibid, pp. 27-28

2. Common Challenges

a) *Fast implementation versus slow implementation*

The rush to get results or a slowdown in the implementation process will not lead to desired results because implementing changes at a steady pace is important. Slow implementation will lead to frustration and ambiguity while fast implementation will lead to distrust. However, the rhythm and pace vary from a country to another. Some governments such as Colombia used an all regions-at-once approach to achieve fast results. Therefore, the ministry of education started transferring power to schools in all the 1,024 municipalities at the same time. Yet, only 200 municipalities managed to carry out the transfer successfully while the rest of municipalities faced many problems[259]. The same situation was repeated in Argentina. On the other hand, the success story came from Spain when the ministry of education used an incremental approach to enforce decentralization. Specifically, it adopted three tracks (fast, medium, and slow) and used whichever track was appropriate for a given region. Prior to classifying regions by tracks, the ministry established standards and secured public and constitutional recognition for this political change.[260]

b) *Ability to achieve decentralization*

The central hierarchy seems to be the direct cause of resisting decentralization. In other words, people at the top of a hierarchal system do not trust the efficiency or readiness of those who are under them in the hierarchy. Across countries the top officials

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[259] Hanson, 1997, p. 14
[260] Ibid

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in the central government believe that those who are below them in the districts and states are not ready to run decentralization. State officials, in turn, do not trust schools' capacity or readiness for implementing decentralization, while those who are at the school level do not trust the officials in the central government or at the state level. Schools believe that officials in a higher position actively resist relinquishing their power. They will not leave the authority and power in the hands of people "downstream" in the system.

Distrust and lack of credibility exist across levels; however, trust could be gained if governments built the capacity of the new local leaders and created an accountability system to prevent corruption. Fear of corruption is commonplace whether of the current centralized educational system or of the new decentralized one. Hence, change could be achieved by creating new accountability and transparency methods.

In order to increase trust between all education actors, I recommend building the capacity of all public servants at all levels in accordance with minimum performance standards. The local departments should set minimum performance standards that all public servants are guaranteed to meet if they develop their professionalism through trainings and workshops. The local level does not need to invest considerable financial resources in such trainings if they manage to use technology, such as online tutorials and video conferences. Technology in the developing countries is no longer a costly innovation, particularly with the support of the international sponsors that have provided thousands of schools with computers.

c) Central accountability

Control and support are main issues here because the study indicated that many central educational systems are reluctant to shift the responsibilities to the other levels. Significantly, the educational hieratical systems in the developing countries are established on a top-level-control basis. Such central systems do not give the lower and local levels to practice taking a responsibility. Those lower levels work as implementers for the central plan. They have to make a paradigm shift from the role of being implementers only to the role of being planners who are able to create new plans and standards.

d) *Legitimate and less legitimate reasons for opposing decentralization*

There are always opponents of decentralization whose opposition stems from self-interest or skepticism about the likelihood of successful change. The legitimate concern of those who oppose decentralization is based on the fear that the possibility of inequality and corruption may increase with decentralization, particularly if the accountability system at the lower levels is inefficient. Others object to decentralization because they have a vested interest, often financial, in the centralized system..

e) *The impact of resources availability in implementing decentralization*

Reform requires human and financial resources to be delivered at the appropriate time because education systems need such resources to attain quality. However, sufficient resources alone will not lead to better education quality for all. An abundance

of financial resources is important, but far more important is *how* these resources are invested. Furthermore, in order to achieve sustainability and quality, the educational vision and mission should be crafted by taking into consideration the availability of resources.

Like Fiszbein, I find that a mixed policy that includes both decentralization and centralization is required in order to regulate the relationship between ministries and local governments. However, this mixture should not violate the governance of the local level. For example, although a national strategic plan with a national vision is necessary, a local strategic plan is far more important. Both plans should produce an estimated budget that shows the expenses that are needed to attain the goals of the plan. The estimated budget in the national plan can be considered as a standard budget. The central government can create reform funds to help local governments overcome their limited resources; however, these funds should not cover all aspects of the implementation plan because the local government should manage the rest of its activities through its own resources. The central government should give the local government the full authority to use such funds at their discretion. In turn, the local government should use the granted funds to achieve both the local and the national strategic plan.

Of course, district and local governments do not have equal financial and administrative resources. One solution to resource inequality is to create cluster funds, where wealthier districts can support the districts with fewer resources in order to help meet the budget's minimum standards. This cooperation between districts should be regulated by the districts themselves without any intervention from the central government.

f) *Setting high expectations*

Researchers have also found that setting high expectations as well as building the teachers' and staff's capacity are very important factors that link the staff to the organizational vision. This approach leads to the required outcomes, as high expectations could not be achieved by low goals and high goals could not be achieved by low capacity.

CONCLUSION

This report has discussed decentralization in education systems in the developing countries as an attempt to answer the question of why decentralization matters, given that decentralization has become one of the major policy strategies since the 1980s. Thus, it was important to identify the difference between centralization and decentralization strategies. In Chapter One, I defined decentralization as a shift in decision making from one level to another. Decentralization can be directed into four main types: deconcentration, delegation, devolution, and privatization.

The report also discussed standards that lead to effective implementation of decentralization. These standards include clear and strategic vision, community participation, and quality-based restructuring. Organizational transformation and functional mapping represent a considerable factor in implementing decentralization because they help in creating accurate tasks and roles for departments and units at the local and central levels. Chapter Two also argued for the importance of building capacity because policies cannot be implemented effectively without skilled actors at both levels. School-based Management is also an essential factor to empower governance at the school level.

It examined in chapter three, three case studies of Colombia, Indonesia, and South Africa. The cases were not selected because they represent successful implementation of decentralization. Instead, they were selected because they started decentralizing their education systems at approximately the same time in the 1990s. They had participated in the World Declaration on Education for All in Jomtein in 1990. In addition, the three of

them have experienced political change because their regimes transitioned from central dominance to local governance.

The report produced a comparative analysis of the three case studies in chapter four on the basis of the common features of effective decentralization that were previously discussed in chapter two. For instance, I have examined creating a clear and strategic vision in Colombia, Indonesia, and South Africa. I have found that Indonesian's vision for decentralizing the educational system was the clearest one, which was also strategically implemented. Although the educational vision for South Africa was similar to that of Indonesia, the state as well as the ministry of education and the ministry of finance hampered it because each actor wanted to control educational decentralization through its own vision.

In this final chapter, I have outlined a group of recommendations in order to implement decentralization effectively. I have observed that political will represents a common feature that all developing and developed countries shared in transferring their education system from centralization to decentralization. Therefore, it is required to match political change with public will to achieve effective decentralization and governance. Although professional development and financial resources are important to achieve education quality, the best practice and effective redistribution of such resources are more important. Governments need to assess their resources, capacities, and the status quo before starting to implement a new political movement.

Appendices

APPENDIX (1)

Location of Decisions by Category of Decision (by Percentage)

Category	Central	Regional	District	Local
Governance				
Policy	90	40	10	10
Planning	90	40	10	30
Implementation	90	30	50	40
School Organization				
Structure	90	10	10	0
Minimum Requirements	90	10	0	0
Financing				
Recurrent	80	50	30	50
Development	90	40	30	60
Training:				
In-service	80	50	20	30
Pre-service	70	50	10	0
Management	60	40	60	50
Curriculum:				
Subjects	90	30	0	0
Content	90	20	10	20
Textbooks	80	20	10	30
Textbook Provision	70	30	20	40
Language Policy	100	20	10	0
Instructional Methods	70	30	20	20
Evaluation of Teachers	60	50	60	70
Monitoring:				
Accreditation	70	30	0	20
Examinations	70	30	30	90
Pupil Promotion	70	0	30	70
Discipline	10	10	30	90
Data Systems	60	50	50	60
School Evaluation	90	40	40	30
Research				
Needs	90	30	10	20
Conduct	80	50	20	20
Implementation	60	20	30	10

Shared responsibilities account for rows adding up to more than 100%
Source: Rideout and Ural, 1993

Figure 3: Accountability Framework Under School Autonomy

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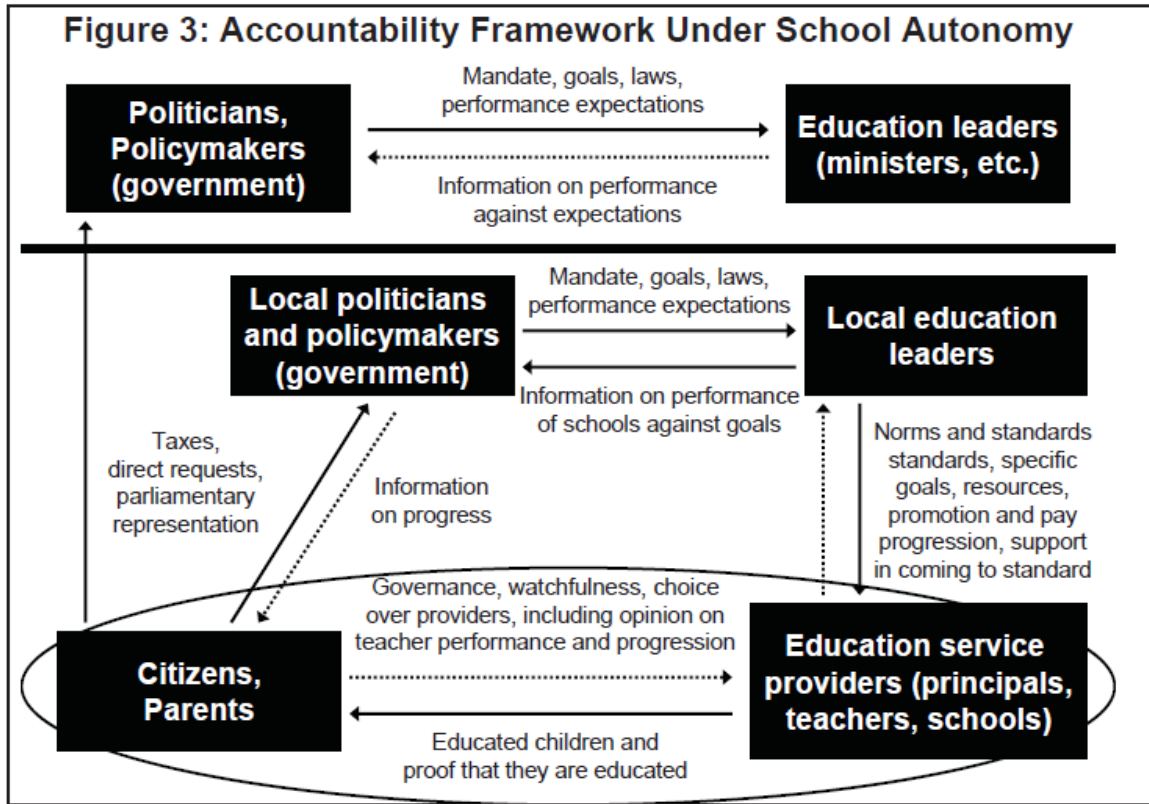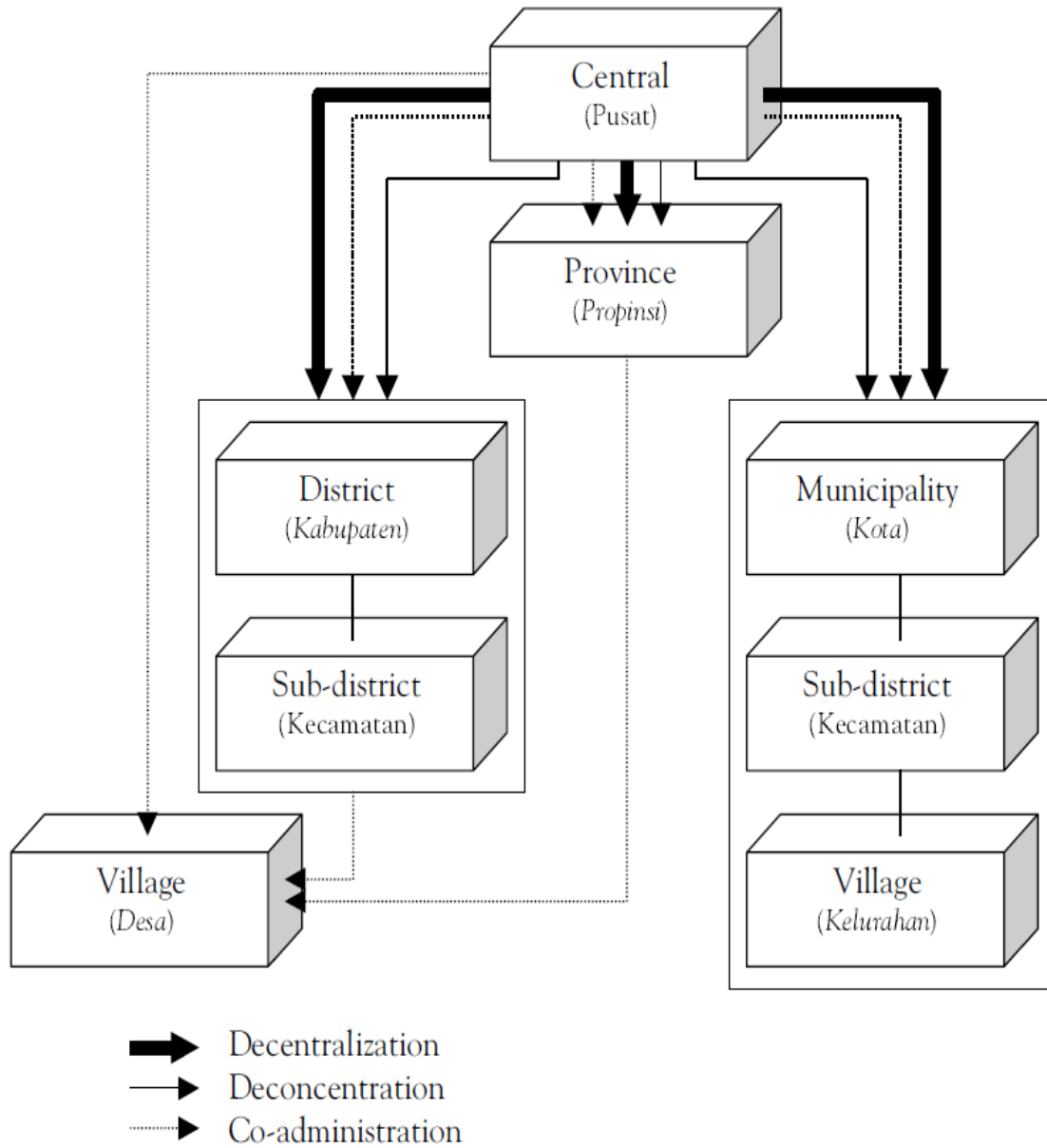
Framework of Government According to Law No. 22 of 1999
Source: The SMERU Research Institute, September 2001

APPENDIX (4)
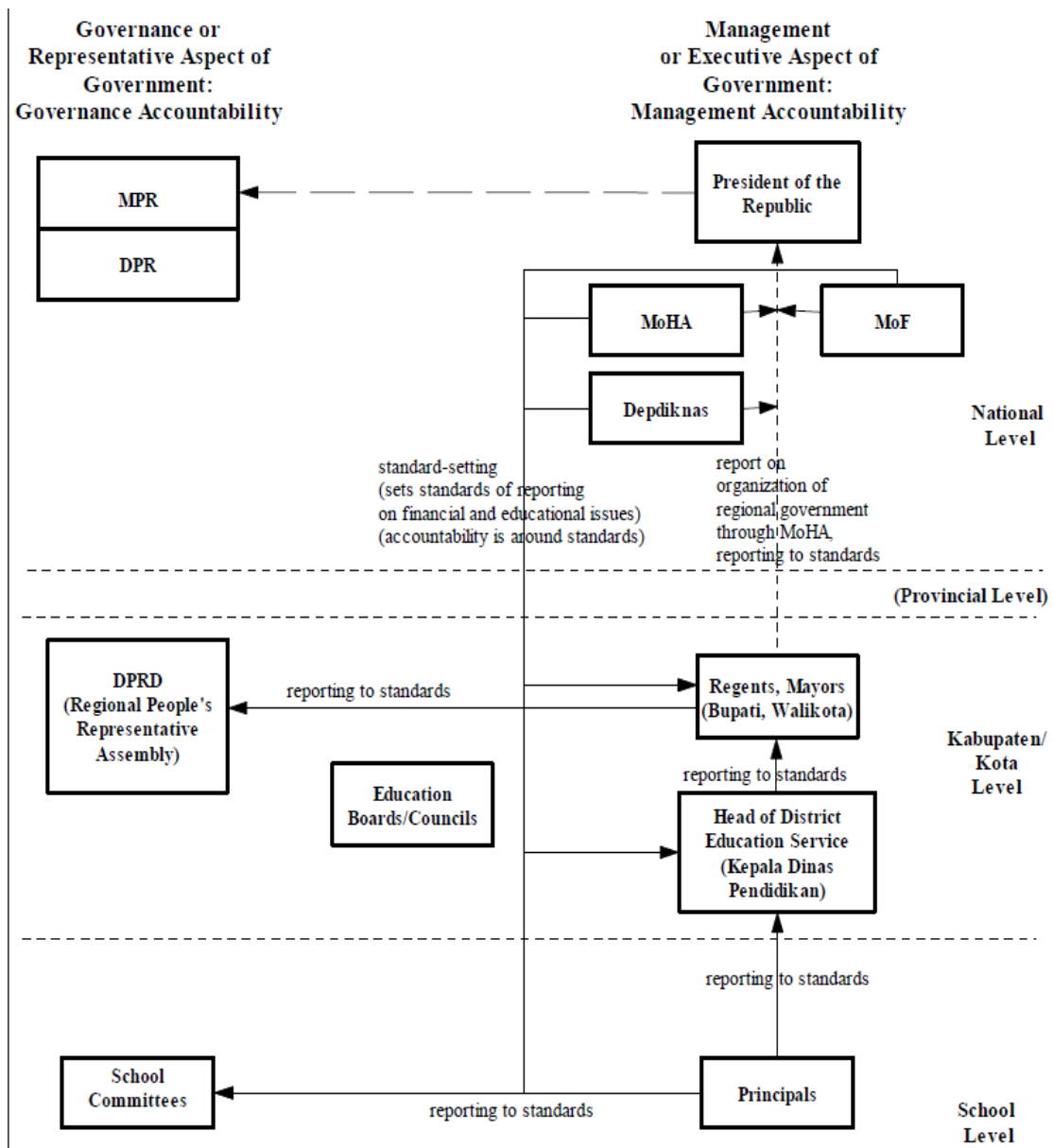
Source is Managing the Transition to Decentralization Volume 1,2,3, UNESCO 2007

APPENDIX (5)

Balanced Scorecard to Determine Appropriate Action for Each District or School

Better than last performance evaluation

BAD SCHOOLS/DISTRICTS GETTING BETTER

- *Look for innovation and best practices*
- *Eligible for increased funding through block grants*
- *Recognize achievement in public forums*

GOOD SCHOOLS/DISTRICTS GETTING BETTER

- *Block grant financing*
- *Most resourcing through funds (rather than materials or in-kind services)*
- *Eligible for special grants to become "service providers"*

Below Standard   Above Standard

Minimum Service Standard

BAD SCHOOLS/DISTRICTS GETTING WORSE

- *Close attention from higher authority*
- *Earmarked funds*
- *Intensive capacity building*
- *At risk of losing accreditation*

GOOD SCHOOLS/DISTRICTS GETTING WORSE

- *Very common in newly decentralized systems*
- *Examine regulatory framework to remove policies that may be inhibing performance (e.g. financing formula)*
- *Site visit to determine cause for performance drop and collaborate on remediation*

Worse than last performance evaluation

Source is Managing the Transition to Decentralization Volume 1,2,3, UNESCO 2007

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APPENDIX (6)

Table A6.1. [1/2] **Index of enjoyment of reading and reading performance, by national quarters of this index**

Results based on students' self-reports

	Index of enjoyment of reading														
	All students		Boys		Girls		Gender difference (B - G)		Bottom quarter		Second quarter		Third quarter		Top quarter	
	Mean index	S.E.	Mean index	S.E.	Mean index	S.E.	Dif.	S.E.	Mean index	S.E.	Mean index	S.E.	Mean index	S.E.	Mean index	S.E.
OECD Australia	0.00	(0.02)	-0.33	(0.02)	0.31	(0.02)	**-0.64**	(0.03)	**-1.36**	(0.01)	-0.37	(0.00)	0.31	(0.00)	1.42	(0.01)
Austria	-0.13	(0.03)	-0.55	(0.03)	0.26	(0.03)	**-0.81**	(0.04)	**-1.52**	(0.02)	-0.65	(0.01)	0.14	(0.01)	1.47	(0.02)
Belgium	-0.20	(0.02)	-0.45	(0.02)	0.07	(0.02)	**-0.52**	(0.03)	**-1.42**	(0.01)	-0.58	(0.00)	0.11	(0.01)	1.11	(0.01)
Canada	0.13	(0.01)	-0.28	(0.02)	0.55	(0.02)	**-0.83**	(0.02)	**-1.25**	(0.01)	-0.24	(0.00)	0.45	(0.00)	1.57	(0.01)
Chile	-0.06	(0.01)	-0.29	(0.02)	0.16	(0.02)	**-0.44**	(0.02)	**-1.01**	(0.01)	-0.37	(0.00)	0.10	(0.00)	1.02	(0.02)
Czech Republic	-0.13	(0.02)	-0.44	(0.02)	0.22	(0.02)	**-0.66**	(0.03)	**-1.21**	(0.01)	-0.46	(0.00)	0.10	(0.00)	1.06	(0.02)
Denmark	-0.09	(0.02)	-0.35	(0.02)	0.17	(0.02)	**-0.52**	(0.03)	**-1.17**	(0.01)	-0.40	(0.01)	0.15	(0.01)	1.07	(0.02)
Estonia	-0.03	(0.02)	-0.38	(0.02)	0.33	(0.02)	**-0.71**	(0.03)	**-1.07**	(0.01)	-0.37	(0.00)	0.20	(0.01)	1.10	(0.02)
Finland	0.05	(0.02)	-0.41	(0.02)	0.50	(0.02)	**-0.91**	(0.03)	**-1.25**	(0.02)	-0.28	(0.01)	0.36	(0.01)	1.35	(0.02)
France	0.01	(0.03)	-0.23	(0.03)	0.24	(0.03)	**-0.47**	(0.04)	**-1.26**	(0.01)	-0.33	(0.01)	0.34	(0.01)	1.30	(0.02)
Germany	0.07	(0.02)	-0.38	(0.02)	0.52	(0.03)	**-0.89**	(0.03)	**-1.33**	(0.01)	-0.45	(0.01)	0.42	(0.01)	1.63	(0.02)
Greece	0.07	(0.02)	-0.24	(0.02)	0.36	(0.02)	**-0.60**	(0.03)	**-0.95**	(0.01)	-0.22	(0.00)	0.29	(0.01)	1.14	(0.02)
Hungary	0.14	(0.02)	-0.15	(0.03)	0.43	(0.02)	**-0.58**	(0.04)	**-0.94**	(0.01)	-0.19	(0.01)	0.37	(0.01)	1.30	(0.02)
Iceland	-0.06	(0.02)	-0.38	(0.02)	0.25	(0.02)	**-0.63**	(0.03)	**-1.28**	(0.02)	-0.43	(0.01)	0.18	(0.01)	1.27	(0.02)
Ireland	-0.08	(0.02)	-0.30	(0.03)	0.15	(0.00)	**-0.45**	(0.04)	**-1.30**	(0.02)	-0.44	(0.01)	0.19	(0.01)	1.23	(0.02)
Israel	0.06	(0.02)	-0.26	(0.03)	0.35	(0.03)	**-0.60**	(0.04)	**-1.16**	(0.01)	-0.28	(0.00)	0.31	(0.01)	1.35	(0.02)
Italy	0.06	(0.01)	-0.27	(0.01)	0.41	(0.01)	**-0.68**	(0.02)	**-1.10**	(0.01)	-0.28	(0.00)	0.37	(0.00)	1.27	(0.01)
Japan	0.20	(0.02)	0.02	(0.03)	0.38	(0.02)	**-0.36**	(0.03)	**-1.07**	(0.01)	-0.19	(0.01)	0.48	(0.01)	1.58	(0.02)
Korea	0.13	(0.02)	0.00	(0.02)	0.27	(0.02)	**-0.27**	(0.03)	**-0.82**	(0.01)	-0.15	(0.00)	0.31	(0.00)	1.17	(0.02)
Luxembourg	-0.16	(0.02)	-0.51	(0.02)	0.20	(0.03)	**-0.71**	(0.03)	**-1.43**	(0.01)	-0.58	(0.01)	0.12	(0.01)	1.25	(0.02)
Mexico	0.14	(0.01)	-0.04	(0.01)	0.32	(0.01)	**-0.35**	(0.01)	**-0.77**	(0.01)	-0.13	(0.00)	0.32	(0.00)	1.15	(0.01)
Netherlands	-0.32	(0.03)	-0.66	(0.03)	0.02	(0.03)	**-0.69**	(0.03)	**-1.47**	(0.02)	-0.66	(0.01)	-0.03	(0.01)	0.88	(0.02)
New Zealand	0.13	(0.02)	-0.17	(0.02)	0.44	(0.02)	**-0.61**	(0.02)	**-1.07**	(0.02)	-0.21	(0.01)	0.40	(0.01)	1.41	(0.02)
Norway	-0.19	(0.02)	-0.50	(0.02)	0.13	(0.03)	**-0.63**	(0.03)	**-1.41**	(0.01)	-0.56	(0.01)	0.09	(0.01)	1.12	(0.02)
Poland	0.02	(0.02)	-0.36	(0.02)	0.39	(0.03)	**-0.75**	(0.03)	**-1.21**	(0.01)	-0.43	(0.00)	0.21	(0.01)	1.49	(0.02)
Portugal	0.21	(0.02)	-0.15	(0.02)	0.54	(0.02)	**-0.69**	(0.02)	**-0.87**	(0.02)	-0.09	(0.00)	0.44	(0.00)	1.35	(0.02)
Slovak Republic	-0.10	(0.02)	-0.36	(0.02)	0.15	(0.02)	**-0.51**	(0.03)	**-1.07**	(0.02)	-0.41	(0.00)	0.06	(0.00)	1.02	(0.02)
Slovenia	-0.20	(0.01)	-0.53	(0.02)	0.14	(0.02)	**-0.67**	(0.03)	**-1.35**	(0.01)	-0.55	(0.00)	0.06	(0.01)	1.04	(0.02)
Spain	-0.01	(0.01)	-0.28	(0.02)	0.26	(0.01)	**-0.55**	(0.02)	**-1.15**	(0.01)	-0.35	(0.00)	0.23	(0.00)	1.22	(0.01)
Sweden	-0.11	(0.02)	-0.47	(0.02)	0.26	(0.02)	**-0.72**	(0.03)	**-1.29**	(0.02)	-0.45	(0.01)	0.18	(0.00)	1.14	(0.02)
Switzerland	-0.04	(0.02)	-0.44	(0.02)	0.37	(0.03)	**-0.80**	(0.03)	**-1.46**	(0.02)	-0.50	(0.01)	0.32	(0.01)	1.48	(0.02)
Turkey	0.64	(0.02)	0.34	(0.02)	0.95	(0.02)	**-0.61**	(0.03)	**-0.34**	(0.01)	0.33	(0.00)	0.80	(0.00)	1.77	(0.02)
United Kingdom	-0.12	(0.02)	-0.37	(0.02)	0.13	(0.02)	**-0.50**	(0.03)	**-1.29**	(0.01)	-0.45	(0.00)	0.14	(0.00)	1.13	(0.02)
United States	-0.04	(0.03)	-0.35	(0.03)	0.28	(0.03)	**-0.63**	(0.03)	**-1.27**	(0.01)	-0.41	(0.00)	0.19	(0.01)	1.33	(0.02)
OECD average	0.00	(0.00)	-0.21	(0.00)	0.31	(0.00)	**-0.62**	(0.01)	**-1.17**	(0.00)	-0.36	(0.00)	0.26	(0.00)	1.27	(0.00)
Other G20 Argentina	-0.16	(0.02)	-0.34	(0.02)	-0.01	(0.02)	**-0.34**	(0.03)	**-1.02**	(0.01)	-0.43	(0.00)	0.00	(0.00)	0.81	(0.02)
Brazil	0.27	(0.01)	0.05	(0.01)	0.47	(0.01)	**-0.42**	(0.02)	**-0.64**	(0.01)	-0.01	(0.00)	0.45	(0.00)	1.28	(0.01)
Indonesia	0.43	(0.01)	0.32	(0.01)	0.55	(0.01)	**-0.22**	(0.02)	**-0.16**	(0.01)	0.27	(0.00)	0.55	(0.00)	1.07	(0.01)
Russian Federation	0.07	(0.01)	-0.15	(0.02)	0.29	(0.02)	**-0.44**	(0.02)	**-0.73**	(0.01)	-0.19	(0.00)	0.23	(0.00)	0.99	(0.01)
Shanghai-China	0.57	(0.01)	0.39	(0.02)	0.75	(0.01)	**-0.35**	(0.02)	**-0.29**	(0.01)	0.36	(0.00)	0.78	(0.00)	1.43	(0.01)

Note: Values that are statistically significant are indicated in bold.
Source: OECD, PISA 2009 Database.
StatLink 🖉 http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932462776

Source: OECD Report, 2011, p.109 (Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators 2011)

Education White Paper 3: A Programme for Higher Education Transformation 1997	Outlines a comprehensive set of initiatives for the transformation of higher education through the development of a single co-ordinated system with new planning, governing and funding arrangements.
Education White Paper 4: A Programme for the Transformation of the Further Education (FET) Sector 1998	Resulted in the establishment of a new FET system. Outlines close collaboration with the Ministry of Labour in the governance of the FET sector. The central objective is to build the policy foundation and scaffolding for a new FET system that is responsive to the needs of our people and that is efficient, effective and accountable to its clients and stakeholders.
Education White Paper on Early Childhood Education. 2001	Sets out policy guidelines for the Department of Education's Early Childhood Development Programmes for poor children and to improve the quality of these programmes. While its main thrust is to close the gap in programmes for five-year olds, thus giving effect to the Constitution and the Education White Paper 1 on Education and Training, it also addresses itself to the Early Childhood Development (ECD) challenge in respect of children younger than four years.
Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy 2001	Ten fundamental values were described, namely, Democracy, Social Justice and Equity; Non-Racism and Non-Sexism; Ubuntu (Human Dignity); An Open Society; Accountability and Responsibility; Respect; Rule of Law; and Reconciliation. The Manifesto further identified 16 strategies for familiarising young South Africans with the values of the Constitution, which were to find expression in the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) (2002) including: nurturing a culture of communication and participation in school; Role-modelling and promoting commitment as well as competence amongst educators; Learning about the rich diversity of cultures, beliefs and world views within which the unity of South Africa is manifested; Making multilingualism happen.
Education White paper 6: Special Needs Education: Building an inclusive education and training system 2001	This document makes it clear that special schools will be strengthened rather than abolished. This White Paper, together with Education White Paper 5 on Early Childhood Development, commits the government to the provision of educational opportunities in particular for those learners who experience or have experienced barriers to learning and development or who have dropped out of learning because of the inability of the education and training system to accommodate their learning needs. Inclusive education is defined as that which acknowledges that children and youth can learn and that all children and youth need support, enabling education structures, systems and learning methodologies to meet the needs of all, acknowledges and respects differences in learners, whether due to age, gender, ethnicity, language,

	class, disability, etc. Commits the government to the mobilisation of out-of-school disabled children and youth of school-going age, within mainstream schooling, the designation and phased conversion of approximately 500 out of 20,000 primary schools to full-service schools.
Education Laws Amendment Bill 2001	Amendments to the South African Schools Act of 1996 including sanctions against the failure of a governing body to perform its functions; the prohibition for public schools to raise money by means of loans or overdrafts without the approval of the Member of the Executive Council; clarify the manner in which disciplinary proceedings must be conducted; to provide for a process to establish norms and standards for school funding by means of quintiles; clarify the charging and payment of school fees.

Source: UNESCO, Education Decentralization in South Africa: Equity and Participation in the Governance of Schools, 2008, UNESCO, pp. 3-5

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