

Education Watch 2001

RENEWED HOPE DAUNTING CHALLENGES

State of Primary Education in Bangladesh



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Revised Hope Learning Challenges
Special Family Education Program
Fall 2000

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State of Primary Education in Bangladesh

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Foreword

Monitoring and research are integral and essential components of a development programme. Monitoring helps to track the performance of an intervention and enables to take remedial action when necessary. Research helps understand the new frontiers in development. To some, monitoring, evaluation and research are all synonymous. The World Education Forum, held in Dakar, Senegal, in April 2000, echoed the essence of the need for this when it recommended to 'systematically monitor progress towards Education for All' as a strategy to reach the goal of quality primary education. We, the civil society in Bangladesh, have recognised this need and instituted the *Education Watch* in 1998. I am happy to note that the *Watch* is continuing its vigil uninterrupted. This is the third report of the *Watch* and it is a proof of its critical importance and that of the support it receives from individuals and organizations who are behind this unique initiative. A project like the *Watch* follows the trajectory of a development intervention and documents its successes and failures. But how does one evaluate the *Watch* itself? A short period of, say, two or three years is too early to evaluate an initiative like the *Watch*. However, the attention that it has received from its stakeholders over the past two years, I believe, is a marker of its relevance. It has been well covered by the media. The scientific community has also given it their approval since several highly respected international journals have published articles based on the *Watch* data. But the most significant impact of the *Watch* has been seen in the utterances of national policy makers. That the issue of quality in primary education is a matter of wide public discourse now is to a large extent attributed to the *Watch* reports. I think the project can take pride in this and continue in their mission of projecting an objective assessment of the state of primary education in the country.

But we should not be complacent about our own achievement. The *Watch* has a long road to traverse. It has done reasonably well in disseminating its findings at the national level. But dissemination at regional or local levels has not been done with as much zeal and effectiveness. The people at the frontier of any education programme - the teachers, their supervisors, and the parents- need to be apprised about the real state of affairs in our schools. This is very important for mobilising effective remedial actions. It has been speculated in the present report that there is some sort of complacency among the providers, viz, the teachers and their supervisors, that the schools were doing

fine in the country. Such perceptions need to be corrected through wider dissemination of the findings and public discourse thereon at all levels.

Bangladesh now has an education policy. There may be questions about some of its contents but through this the government has affirmed its commitment to education. The policy states in clear and unambiguous terms that primary education will be 'universal, compulsory and free'. Anyone with a slightest knowledge about primary education in Bangladesh will agree that the reality is far from it. As the present *Watch* report confirms the primary education is yet to be universal. About seven million children of primary school age are never enrolled or dropout before completing the full cycle. Unfortunately, most of these children are from the poorest and neglected sections of the community. The country has done commendably well in removing gender gap in access but the learning gaps between the two groups continue to pervade. The second *Watch* report very convincingly documented the poor quality in our education system. The Compulsory Primary Education Act makes it obligatory for parents to send their children to school, but there is no enforcement of it. Poverty is said to be a barrier but several non-government organizations, through their non-formal education programmes, have proved that this is only a myth. That primary education is free is another myth. As this report has documented, the parents have to pay a significant proportion of their income in paying for the concealed costs, such as subscriptions, private tutoring and stationery. Needless to mention, for parents who are poor, this means much more than just spending a portion of the income.

Monitoring and research in education in Bangladesh are neglected areas. There is little collaboration among the institutions and organizations involved in primary education in Bangladesh on education research. The *Education Watch* is making efforts in building a partnership among all the stakeholders in this area. I am hopeful that the *Watch* will continue its journey and contribute in improving the effectiveness of the primary education system in the country so that 'Education for All' does not just remain a rhetoric.

Fazle Hasan Abed

Dhaka
May 2002

Chair
Campaign for Popular Education

Preface

The *Education Watch* came into existence in 1998. The first report of the *Watch* titled *Hope not Complacency: State of Primary Education in Bangladesh* was published in 1999. The main purpose of this report was to look into internal efficiency of primary education sub-system. Although there were some radical revelations, the report was an instant success. The stakeholders, the practitioners, the development partners and the civil society representatives accepted the report with enthusiasm.

Encouraged by the success and acceptance of the first *Watch* we decided to devote the second *Watch* to quality aspects of primary education. As it was not possible to deal with all the quality indicators of primary education we picked up two major issues, assessment of learning achievement of students and teacher education.

The first *Watch* found out that there was considerable expansion of primary education and near gender parity. It can not, however, be said that we achieved similar success so far as quality is concerned. Quality assurance remains a distant goal. For the third *Watch* we have decided to revisit the internal efficiency scenario. Two additional areas included in this *Watch* are private cost of education and income and expenditure of schools, and literacy.

Findings of the internal efficiency indicators showed consistency with the first *Watch*. There was reasonable quantitative expansion. But quality remained illusive. The government, the policy planners and the stakeholders need to be concerned about how to improve quality in tandem with quantitative expansion. The other area of concern is the private cost of schooling. Primary education is the constitutional obligation of the government. It is supposed to be free and universal. Unfortunately there is cost involved which varies with school type. Parents and guardians are to pay about half of the total costs of primary education. This is a cause of concern because it may restrict access to primary education.

As in the past BRAC Research and Evaluation Division under the able leadership of Dr. A. M. R Chowdhury, Director Research BRAC and Mr. Samir Ranjan Nath, Senior Research Statistician were responsible for field investigation and preparation of the report. Both of them deserve appreciation for the commendable work done. Dr. Manzoor Ahmed former Director of UNICEF was also associated with the preparation of this report. I am very thankful to him.

Mr. Fazle Hasan Abed, Chair BRAC and Chair of the Board of Directors, CAMPE and a member, Advisory Board of the *Education Watch* was very generous towards publication of the report. His in depth comments and generous support were invaluable. I thank him from the core of my heart. Ms. Rasheda K Choudhury, Director, CAMPE and Member Secretary, Advisory Board and Working Group of the *Watch* provided logistic support to the research team. She deserves our commendation.

A number of reviewers including Mr. Kazi Fazlur Rahman, Professor Kazi Saleh Ahmed, Ms. Joushan Ara Rahman and Dr. Deborah Llewellyn deserve our thanks for their valuable comments to improve the report.

Education Watch has been possible due to generous financial assistance received from the Department for International Development (DFID), UK and Novib of the Netherlands. We acknowledge their support.

Many staff members of CAMPE and BRAC including Mr. Faruq A Choudhury, Mr. Muhammed Shafiul Alam, Mr. Subal K. Banik, Mr. Ruhul Amin Choudhury, Mr. Gias Uddin, Mr. Mirja Mohammad Shahjamal, Mr. Shahidul Islam, Mr. Shoeb Ahmed, Mr Jashimul Islam, Mr. Abdur Razzaque, Ms. Hosneara Daisy, Dr. Imran Matin, Mr. Khandaker Ariful Islam, Mr. Monowar Hossain Khandaker were involved in various stages of preparation of the report. Their devotion and hard work is appreciated. We also thank Mr. Mohiuddin Ahmed of University Press Limited for agreeing to publish the report with CAMPE and Mr. Abdar Rahman for his co-operation.

The report in draft form was shared with important stakeholders including practitioners, civil society and NGO representatives and development partners. We benefited from their suggestions. The unsung participants of this report are the thousands of students, parents, guardians and teachers who participated and helped field investigation. Without their support and co-operation the report would not have been possible. I thank them all.

We hope the report will be useful to the stakeholders and will help improve primary education scenario in Bangladesh.

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Acronyms

ABC	Assessment of Basic Competencies
AIDS	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome
AUEO	Assistant Upazila Education Officer
BANBEIS	Bangladesh Bureau of Educational Information and Statistics
BBS	Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics
BDHS	Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey
BRAC	A national NGO (formerly Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee)
CAMPE	Campaign for Popular Education
CBO	Community Based Organisation
CHT	Chittagong Hill Tracts
C-in-Ed	Certificate-in-Education
DPE	Directorate of Primary Education
EFA	Education for All
FFE	Food For Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GNP	Gross National Product
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IALS	International Adult Literacy Survey
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDEAL	Intensive District Approach to Education for All
KG	Kindergarten
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
NAPE	National Academy for Primary Education
NCTB	National Curriculum and Textbook Board
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NFPE	Non Formal Primary Education
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PEDP	Primary Education Development Programme
PMED	Primary and Mass Education Division (Government of Bangladesh)
PO	Programme Organiser

PPS	Probability Proportional to Sizes
PSPMP	Primary School Performance Monitoring Project
PTA	Parent Teachers Association
PTI	Primary Teachers Training Institute
PVO	Private Voluntary Organisation
RED	Research and Evaluation Division (BRAC)
SD	Standard Deviation
SMC	School Management Committee
TIB	Transparency International Bangladesh
TLM	Total Literacy Movement
UEO	Upazila Education Officer
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
WCEFA	World Conference on Education for All

Authors' Note

We feel very pleased to be able to bring out this report of the *Education Watch*. This is the third report of the *Watch*. The first report entitled, "Hope not Complacency: State of Primary Education in Bangladesh", was published in 1999. The second report, brought out in three volumes and titled, "A Question of Quality: State of Primary Education in Bangladesh", was published in 2001. The first report documented the status of primary education in terms of various *internal efficiency* parameters, and the second report, as the title suggests, dealt with the question of quality of learning. The second report also provided an account of the status of teachers' education at primary level. This year's *Watch* covers three aspects. Firstly, it provides an account of the changes that happened over the two-year period since the time the first *Watch* report was done in terms of the *internal efficiency* parameters. Secondly, it provides an account of the private costs that the parents accrue for their children's education, and the incomes and expenditures of schools. Thirdly, an attempt is made to estimate the literacy rate in the country. We also instituted a post-enumeration check that helped us to get an estimate of the likely dimension of the non-sampling error in our estimates for selected parameters. We were pleased to discover that such errors were within acceptable limits.

The results we found in this study have also been compared with those found in other studies, where available. Most of the results were comparable, thus endorsing the reliability of the information provided.

The purpose of the *Watch* is to provide an objective assessment of the state of primary education in Bangladesh based on what is happening on the ground. In today's provision of primary education, the government is the prime actor but it has also allowed others to fill critical gaps. The *Watch* is essentially designed to provide a global view of the overall system of primary education but, since

the system is pluralist, discussion on the contribution of various types of schools sometime becomes necessary and inevitable. It is true that in many ways the various types of schools are not comparable since they follow different approaches and strategies, but the broader goal of all these is the same: provision of basic education to all. There is no intention to criticize some and praise others, and we have tried to be objective in our analysis and interpretation of the data. On the whole we, as representatives of the civil society, have tried to perform citizens' role for instituting transparency and accountability in the management of various school systems in the country.

The study as reported here is the result of painstaking efforts by a large number of individuals. They include interviewers, supervisors, quality controllers, coders, editors, data entry technicians, and word processing assistants. Besides, the members of the Advisory Board, Working Group and Technical Committee of the *Education Watch* and reviewers of the earlier drafts of this report have been extra-ordinarily helpful. Without their hard work and support this report would have remained only a dream. Earlier versions of this report were presented to various stakeholders on two occasions and we are grateful to the participants for their inputs. Last but not least, we acknowledge the spontaneous support and cooperation provided by the various respondent groups including the students, teachers, teachers' supervisors, parents and guardians. However, we remain responsible for the remaining errors and inadequacies.

Dhaka
May 2002

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Overview

This is the third report of *Education Watch*. The previous two reports, which covered internal efficiency and quality of primary education in Bangladesh, received wide attention of various stakeholders including policy makers, NGOs, academics, donors, media and the like. The importance that the government attaches to the initiative is borne out by the presence of Ministers of Education in the launching of the two reports.

Methodology

The *Education Watch 2001* covers two areas critical to primary education: internal efficiency and household cost of schooling. In addition, the *Watch* also collected information on reported 'literacy' of household members. Using questionnaires and checklists, the study collected information from a representative sample of 30,051 households and 952 schools. The sampling technique followed permitted estimates at national and sub-national levels. Assessment of the data has revealed that they are of reasonably good quality.

Major findings

Internal efficiency: Current information on the enrolment status of children of primary school age (6–10 years) in Bangladesh shows a gross enrolment ratio of 108 and the net enrolment rate of 80 percent. This means that a large proportion of children attending primary schools is outside the designated age-span for primary school. Of the many providers of primary education in the country, the government is the most dominant with 61 percent of total enrolment. Others include private (registered and unregistered) (18.4 percent), non-formal (7.1 percent), madrassas (5.3 percent), English-medium (2.1 percent), and satellite/community schools (2.7 percent). Rural Khulna division has the highest net enrolment (91 percent) and Sylhet the lowest (75.7 percent). Enrolment rates in urban areas are significantly higher than those in rural areas. However, equity emerges as an important issue. In enrolment, the socio-economically disadvantaged groups are trailing behind their advantaged counterparts, with most of the non-enrolled coming from the former group. Village level analysis identified disparities between villages as well; there were villages where the net enrolment rate was as low as 20 percent.

The *Watch 2001* report also dealt with some additional dimensions of internal efficiency including promotion, dropout, repetition, attendance, teacher-student ratio, and school management. Using the UNESCO methodology, the completion rate for primary cycle was found to be 75.7 percent, which implied a dropout rate of 24.3 percent. However, the system appeared less efficient than implied by this figure as it took 6.6 years for an average student to complete the 5-year cycle. There were differences between different types of schools with respect to the efficiency indicators. The average attendance rate was found to be 61 percent and varied between gender, residence (urban/rural), and administrative divisions. About 40 percent of the teachers were female, with the percentage higher in urban areas than in rural and in non-formal schools than in formal schools. On average, there are 60 students per teacher but this varied widely between school type with the highest of 70 in government schools and the lowest 28 in madrassas. As reported by the head teachers, the school management committee are active in all schools but it demands further research to determine their effectiveness.

Changes 2001 vs 1999: This year's *Watch* data allowed an appraisal of changes occurring with respect to various indicators of internal efficiency between 1998 and 2000. It found no measurable change in gross enrolment ratio. However, the net enrolment rate increased by nearly three percentage points indicating that the new enrollees came mostly from the primary school age group. It also found that among the new enrollees there were more boys than girls; this eliminated the significant edge that the girls were found to have in 1998. Rural Khulna division has gained most and their net enrolment rate has now exceeded the 90 percent mark. Rural Sylhet division documented deterioration in net rate. The findings also showed that new enrolments increased more in villages where the net rate was already high. For the poorly served villages, there was no improvement. Proportion of children completing the 5-year cycle increased for the government schools and madrassas. However, there was no change in attendance rate, classroom capacity, or proportion of female teachers.

Private expenditure for education: This report also documented the various expenditures that the parents incur for the education of their children's primary education. Although the primary education in Bangladesh

is theoretically free, 90 percent parents have reported incurring expenditures of some sort. The heads of expenditure ranged from tuition and examination fees to subscriptions for various school functions to private tutoring. Most frequently cited head of expenditure was 'stationery' (91 percent). The expenditure pattern changed as the students climbed up to higher classes. On average, the parents spent Tk. 736 over a nine-month period (beginning of school year to the time of survey) or an annual amount of Tk. 1,000 per child in school. This is approximately two percent of average household income in Bangladesh. The survey findings on household spending for the nine-month period varied widely between urban (Tk. 2,181) and rural areas (Tk. 524) and between classes (Tk. 509 in class I to Tk. 1,100 in class V). However, there was no difference between girls and boys in expenditures. There was also wide variation between school type with the students attending the secondary-attached schools spending the highest (Tk. 5,711) and non-formal the lowest (Tk. 290). Over a third of the money was spent in stationery and a quarter in private tutor. As expected, the well-to-do parents spent much more in absolute terms for their children's education than did the poorer groups.

Income and expenditure of schools: Data on income and expenditure of schools were also collected. The schools had a diverse source of income which included government grants, donor funds, tuition and other fees from students, and use of fixed assets. There was variation between different types of schools. The government schools did not charge any tuition but over 90 percent of non-formal schools charged some tuition. The madrassas seemed well endowed with assets (such as land) as 61 percent of madrassas earned an income by selling produces (such as agricultural produces). The average income of madrassas exceeded the income of any other type of school.

Literacy: The *Education Watch 2001* documented the literacy situation of two groups in the surveyed households: those aged 7 years and older and adults (15+ years). It found a literacy rate of 39 percent for the population 7 years or older and 41.6 percent for adults. Females and people living in rural areas were significantly behind in literacy than males and those who live in urban areas. But, people living in urban slums were more disadvantaged than those living in non-slum areas. However, it documented a comparatively higher literacy rate for younger population (60% for the population aged 15–24 years) suggesting an impact of the recent improvement in enrolment rates at the primary level. Sixty one percent households had at least one literate person. This means that 39 percent were 'isolated'. More research is needed in view of the apparent difference between the literacy rate found in this study and that claimed by the government.

Action Recommendations

Drawing on the findings of *Education Watch 2001*, recommendations are made for action.

Bangladesh has endorsed the goals and strategies as set out in the Dakar Framework for Action 2000. There are six goals and twelve strategies laid out in the framework. In preparing the National Plan of Action for Education for All (EFA) up to year 2015, as required by the Dakar Framework, the following need to be given special attention¹:

- a) *Mobilise national political commitment for education for all, develop national action plan and enhance significantly investment in basic education.* The government is now developing a new national action plan and there seems to be a reiteration of national commitment. There is also a National Education Policy now. Unfortunately there is not much public discourse on the former nor any indication of whether there would be an increase in investment in education.
- b) *Promote EFA policies within a sustainable and well-integrated sector framework clearly linked to poverty elimination and development strategies.* Most development programmes in the country are vertical in nature with little horizontal connections. It is important that in EFA plans, an overall view of development priorities and programmes are taken and the links between education and other sectors are considered. All development sectors need to be mobilized for EFA as EFA's contribution to national development goals should be given attention. The Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP), which is the donor-supported umbrella programme of the government on primary education, has 23 plus projects under it. The common impression that there is a lack of coordination between these projects needs to be explored seriously for improving synergy and overall impact.
- c) *Ensure the engagement and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of strategies for educational development.* There is no strategy on how to involve the civil society. The government has, however, created space for NGOs to operate non-formal education programmes. Unfortunately there is no recognition of their contribution to primary and basic education. The participation of the civil society in the PEDP is hardly encouraged. The *Education Watch* is a civil society initiative for monitoring progress towards

¹ The statements in italic are strategies adopted in Dakar and endorsed by the government of Bangladesh.

- EFA. Although the Ministers and other policy makers participated in the launch of the report, it has not yet received any formal participation or recognition from PMED.
- d) *Develop responsive, participatory and accountable systems of educational governance and management.* There is much to be done on this front. Some of the issues related to governance and management have been discussed in the report (Chapter IX).
- e) *Meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability, and conduct educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance and that help to prevent violence and conflict.* The Chittagong Hill Tracts (CHT), which saw armed conflicts for about three decades, is relatively peaceful now. However, no special drive has been taken to restore the confidence of the Hill people and no headway has yet been made in increasing access to education in the region. Moreover, the Regional Council, set up in the aftermath of the peace agreement, has so far allowed very limited participation of NGOs.
- f) *Implement integrated strategies for gender equality in education that recognize the need for change in attitudes, values, and practices.* Bangladesh has done quite well in removing gender gap in enrolment, attendance and cycle completion, which was the result of several affirmative actions taken by the government and NGOs. We should not lose sight of this and continue to promote gender equality through such interventions until the gender equality is established on a sustainable basis in all aspects including the learning outcome. It may be mentioned that girls are lagging behind boys in learning achievements
- g) *Implement education programmes and actions to combat the HIV/AIDS pandemic.* Although HIV/AIDS is causing devastation in many developing countries, Bangladesh has fortunately been spared of this so far. However, many conditions that facilitate the spread of HIV/AIDS do exist in the country. The country has been indifferent to the seriousness of the problem and in implementing prevention programmes through educational institutions.
- h) *Create safe, healthy, inclusive and equitably resourced educational environments conducive to excellence in learning, with clearly defined levels of achievement for all.* As we have seen in this report and all previous *Watch* reports, the primary education system in Bangladesh is inequitable. Children belonging to poorer families and ethnic minorities, or those living in slums are particularly disadvantaged. There is hardly any opportunity available for disabled children to attend schools. Moreover, not all types of schools are equally resourced. The non-formal schools, for example are particularly resource-poor, as found in the present report.
- i) *Enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers.* Quality of education cannot improve without a commitment to quality and effective performance by teachers. Measures to this end will include improving the effectiveness of teachers' professional preparation, creating the necessary conditions for teachers to do their job in the school, rewards and incentives that recognize teachers' role and responsibility, and enhancing social recognition of teachers in appropriate ways.
- The government has recently started revising the curricula for the Certificate-in-Education (C-in-Ed) course for primary school teachers to make it more relevant vis-à-vis the 53 terminal competencies. While this is a welcome step it, however, has taken too long to happen given the fact that the terminal competency-based education was introduced in the country in 1992. In another move, the government has recently undertaken a revision and updating of the terminal competencies themselves. The C-in-Ed revision should take into consideration the latest revision in the competencies.
- j) *Harness new information and communication technologies to help achieve EFA goals.* Bangladesh is lagging behind in making the best out of information and communication technologies (ICT). Making this available to a vast majority of primary schools will be a formidable challenge. We should also try to make better use of conventional electronic media such as radio and television in teachers' professional preparation and upgrading through distance education. The government should make these channels available for educational programmes at no or subsidized costs.
- k) *Systematically monitor progress towards EFA goals and strategies.* A recent project undertaken by the government through a commercial firm and funded by development partners has done some useful work in monitoring specific aspects of the primary education sector; such activities should continue on a regular basis. The government should also support and promote the *Watch* project which has provided useful and relevant information and review on the primary education sector.
- l) *Build on existing mechanism, to accelerate progress towards Education for All.* The previous *Watch* reports identified factors responsible for success in the primary education sector in terms of quantitative gains. The major contributing factors have been the increased government, NGO and donor commitment, affirmative actions to reach particular groups (such as girls and poorer children in rural areas), and expansion of non-formal education.

Concluding Remarks

Bangladesh has made steady progress in primary and basic education in the recent past. *Education Watch* has been documenting the status of primary education and its change since 1998 through the publication of annual assessments. A review of these reports and other studies done on the subject re-affirm one conclusion: there is hope but the challenges are daunting. The commendable progress that has been made in most quantitative indicators such as enrolment, attendance in class or completion of primary cycle raises hopes. But there is no reason to be complacent. Even in quantitative terms there is more to be achieved; there still remain wide disparities between different groups in the population with respect to access to schooling. The quantitative gain is blurred by the slow or

little progress made in the quality of learning. Whether the assessment is based on a curriculum independent test (*Watch 1999*) or a curriculum-dependent test (*Watch 2000*), the message is very clear: quality of teaching and learning is unacceptably poor. This is the biggest challenge in our struggle for education. There is hope but challenges are formidable.

Like most other countries in the developing world, Bangladesh is committed to the goals and strategies as formulated in the World Education Forum in Dakar in April 2000. It is essential that we approach the challenges ahead pragmatically and build on our successes. Bangladesh has joined the international community in setting a new goal to achieve education for all by 2015. Let us not postpone its fulfilment again.

Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

“The real wealth of a nation is its people”, wrote Mahbubul Haq, an architect of the UNDP’s Human Development Report, in his first report published in 1990. It is underpinning the fact that the maximum potential of this wealth is realized through education.

Education is the backbone of sustainable development. Education stimulates and empowers people to participate in their own development. Through the previous two World Conferences on Education for All (EFA), the world communities reaffirmed their commitment to basic education. The last conference held in Dakar, Senegal, in 2000 has set a new target to achieve education for all by the year 2015¹. The progress made over the past decade is impressive. Between 1990 and 1997, the adult literacy rose from 64 percent to 76 percent (UNDP 1999). The EFA 2000 Assessment conducted prior to the Dakar conference found that the developing countries as a whole had achieved a net enrolment rate of over 80 percent. The gender gap in enrolment is also being reduced. Nevertheless, challenges remain. In 2000 more than 880 million adults were illiterate, and more than 113 million children were out of school at the primary level, 60 percent of whom are girls (UNESCO 2000). Even in developed countries, over 100 million people were thought to be functionally illiterate (UNDP 1999).

Access to education is a basic human right. The Convention on the Rights of Children (CRC), to which Bangladesh is a signatory, declares the following rights of children to education (UNICEF 2001):

- Right to develop to maximum extent possible (Art. 6)
- States render appropriate assistance to parents and legal guardians in the performance of child-rearing responsibilities and ensure the development of institutions, facilities and services for the care of children (Art. 18.2).

- Right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child’s physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development (Art. 27).
- Right of the child to education, with a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity (Art. 28).

The government of Bangladesh adopted a national education policy in 2000. The features of the policy that relate to basic, pre-primary, primary, and non-formal education are the following (Government of Bangladesh 2000):

- Introduction of a one-year pre-primary for children 5 years and over in phases to be available in all primary schools by 2005.
- Transition from the present 5-year primary education into a 8-year primary education by 2010.
- Promotion of non-formal education as a complimentary strategy for primary education for drop-out and never enrolled children; children and adolescents completing non-formal education would be eligible to enter formal primary schools in appropriate classes.
- Introduction of a uniform curricula for all educational institutions at the primary level for universal and equitable education of same quality using the mother tongue; the existing disparities that exist among primary institutions of various kinds such as government and private primary schools, kindergardens, Ebtedayee Madrassas, and different NGO-run schools would be removed.
- Promotion of adult literacy in order to eradicate illiteracy by 2006.

Bangladesh in recent years has made commendable progress in making primary education accessible to children. The net enrolment has reached nearly 80 percent and about three-quarters complete the full five-year cycle of primary education. Although the investment in education

¹ The goals and strategies of the Dakar Framework for Action 2000 are reproduced in Annex 1.1.

in terms of GNP is low compared to other South Asian countries, primary education receives about half of the education sector budget. Yet, problems remain. Of the 18 million primary school aged-children, nearly four million are out of school, and another four million or more drop out before completing primary education. Although gender gap has almost been eliminated (Chowdhury et al. 2002), the system is still largely inequitable with children of disadvantaged backgrounds being most adversely affected. Then there is the question of quality which is a matter of serious concern. Only a very low proportion of children completing primary education attain the nationally determined competencies (Chowdhury et al. 2001a). Progress has also been reported in literacy although there are wide confusions about real rate (Ahmed 2002).

Bangladesh has a pluralist system of primary education, with the public sector most dominant provider. According to latest statistics provided by the government (DPE 2001), there are 37,677 primary schools run directly by the government. Since the late 1970's, the private sector has been increasing their presence in the sector. At present, there are 21,379 such schools set up with local private initiative, and managed with limited or no government subvention. The Ebtedayee Madrassas, which numbers 3,710, provide education with a religious focus. Several non-governmental organizations (NGO) have, since mid-1980's, set up non-formal schools; most of these are one-teacher schools but cover the full five-year cycle. There are also other types of primary schools set up with government and community partnership including the Community Schools and Satellite Schools; their total number stood at 6,945 in June 2000 (DPE 2001). Then there are English medium schools, collectively known as 'kindergartens'. Lastly, there are primary section in secondary schools which are termed 'secondary-attached'. The share of students for different type of schools is an issue that this report addresses (see Chapter III).

The non-formal education system at primary level is relatively new in Bangladesh. It was started in the mid-1980's spearheaded by some non-governmental organisations (NGOs) including BRAC, Proshika and Dhaka Ahsania Mission. In late 1990's, these schools accounted for 8.5 percent of primary schools enrolments (Chowdhury et al 1999). Most of these provide full primary education. For example, the 34,000 schools run by BRAC provide the five-year cycle of primary education in four years. Although the government endorses this system as an important strategy (Government of Bangladesh 2000), the contribution of non-formal primary education is hardly recognised or acknowledged in government literature. The latest statistics provided by the government acknowledged the existence of 92 "NGO-run Full Primary School" (DPE 2001). The reason why the government is hesitant to recognise this important sub-sector which is found to provide 'good quality' education compared to other sub-sectors (Chowdhury et al 1999; 2001) is not understandable.

The government launched a Total Literacy Movement (TLM) in 1994 to gradually free the country of illiteracy. It was postulated that a six-month campaign would 'eradicate' illiteracy in a district. The programme is financed entirely by the government and is administered by the district administration; however, the NGOs were kept out of this by design. Because of this programme, the government has so far declared six districts free of illiteracy. There are, however, wide speculations and doubts about the authenticity of the claim (Ahmed 2002).

The progress that has been made in the country in recent time is the result of a series of affirmative actions taken by the State, the private sector and NGOs. Notable among these are the following:

- Free and compulsory primary education for all children.
- Free education for girls upto Class VIII (and recently raised upto Class X)
- Stipends for girls at secondary level.
- Food-for-education for children from poorer families (Food recently substituted by cash).
- Creation of space for the private sector (with financial support) and NGOs to function.
- Proliferation of NGO-run non-formal schools for children deprived of formal schooling due to gender, poverty or other reasons.

Most of the above are geared to improving the performance in quantitative terms. Yet, not much has been done that addresses the quality aspect of primary education in the country. Academic supervision and inspection continue to be extremely inadequate.

The Dakar Framework for Action 2000 (UNESCO 2000) adopted six goals and suggested twelve strategies to achieve those goals. The Bangladesh government has endorsed the goals and has committed to undertake action to achieve education for all in line with the Dakar strategies (Daily Star April 22, 2002). The goals and strategies are given in Annex 1.1.

Monitoring and research are important tools for any development programmes. Unfortunately the nation has not invested sufficiently on the measurement of progress in implementing EFA. Data on education are generally insufficient for monitoring, policymaking and resource allocation. The paucity of useful data is not peculiar to Bangladesh. In a review, the World Bank (1995) acknowledged this problem in the following:

- Existing education statistics are generally not reliable.
- Statistics are often out of date and hence of limited use in forming policy decision.
- Statistics are often collected as a matter of routine, with little critical reflection on the underlying theoretical framework, the comparative perspective, and the purpose for which the data are intended.

- The information collected focus more on counting inputs than on assessing achievement and monitoring labour market outcomes.
- Research is usually not undertaken or not used to complement statistics in monitoring education systems.

The Dakar Framework for Action 2000, which the Bangladesh government endorsed, talks in clear terms about the need for monitoring and commit to 'systematically monitor progress towards EFA goals and strategies at the national, regional and international levels' (UNESCO 2000). The *Education Watch* in Bangladesh is trying to fill in this critical gap in educational monitoring and research. Initiated by a group of likeminded organisation and individuals concerned with education in the country, the project is coordinated by Campaign for Popular Education (CAMPE), a supra body of about 400 NGOs engaged in the field of education. The outcome of the *Watch* is an annual 'State of Primary Education' report which highlights selected aspects of education based on scientifically collected field level data.

The first report, entitled *Hope not Complacency*, was published in 1999 and the second report, entitled *A Question of Quality*, was published in 2001. The present one is the third in the series. The first report dealt with the 'internal efficiency' of primary education in Bangladesh and presented the status in respect of enrolment, completion and dropout, attendance, community participation in management of primary schools, supervision, and a measure of basic competency (through a test called the Assessment of Basic Competency or ABC). The second report dealt with the 'quality of primary education' and assessed the following two aspects: achievement of nationally determined competencies by pupil, and teachers' education. It may be mentioned that both the reports were formally launched by the Minister of Education of the government of Bangladesh.

The third report, the present one, deals with the question of 'internal efficiency' again. The Advisory Board, the policy making body of the *Watch* project, decided to revisit the various indicators of internal efficiency through *Watch 2001* in order to monitor changes since *Watch 1999*.

At this stage some discussion on the concept of 'internal efficiency' is in order. The term efficiency describes the relationship between inputs and outputs (Tan and Mingat 1992). In education literature, two types of efficiencies are identified: external and internal. When education is seen in the context of broader societal goals such as better health, lower fertility, productive person-power for the labour market, empowerment, better environment, etc., one talks about external efficiency. When outputs refer to objectives which are internal to the education system such as enrolment, dropout, achievement, etc., one talks about internal efficiency. In the present report the following internal efficiency indicators have been addressed which were also covered in *Watch 1999*:

- Enrolment
- Dropout
- Attendance
- Cycle completion
- Teachers qualifications & training
- School management, and
- Student-teacher ratio.

Two new aspects related to primary and basic education in Bangladesh were also included. These were:

- Financing and expenditures for primary education at household and school levels, and
- Literacy.

This report of the Education Watch has nine chapters. Chapter I introduces the theme and contents of the report. Chapter II describes the methodology used in the study. Chapter III and IV present the results on the different internal efficiency indicators. Chapter V discusses the changes that have (or haven't) happened between 1998 and 2000. Chapter VI presents data on the private cost of education by the households and Chapter VII details the income and expenditures of different types of schools (viz., government, private registered and unregistered, madrassa, and non-formal). Literacy levels as found from the household survey are presented in Chapter VIII. The last chapter concludes with a discussion of the results and policy implications.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The Education Watch 2001 mainly covered two areas critical to primary education: internal efficiency and cost of schooling. In addition, the Watch also collected data on reported 'literacy' of household members. Using questionnaires and checklists, the study visited 30,051 households and 952 schools. The sampling technique followed allowed estimates at national and sub-national levels. Assessment on the quality of data through post-enumeration check revealed that the data were of reasonably good quality.

Introduction

Like the two previous *Education Watch*, a similar strategy was adopted for the implementation of the *Education Watch 2001*. Under the direct supervision of the Advisory Board and the Working Group of the *Watch* project a research team worked on its implementation including the field level survey and preparation of the present report. The following provides details on the various steps and stages of the implementation of the study.

Study Focus

The overarching focus of *Education Watch* project is to monitor the state of primary education in the country on a regular basis. However, with the focus remaining the same, the theme varies from year to year. The first *Watch (1999)*, for example, looked at the 'internal efficiency' of the primary education system and the second *Watch (2000)* was on quality of education where pupils' learning achievement and teacher training were addressed. The *Education Watch 2001* addresses the following:

- Internal efficiency,
- Expenditure for schooling, and
- Literacy.

The following are the objectives of *Education Watch 2001*:

1. To explore the level of internal efficiency of primary education in Bangladesh;
2. To document the changes that happened in the 'internal efficiency' parameters since the first *Education Watch* of 1999;

3. To estimate private and school level expenditure for primary education in the country; and
4. To estimate the literacy rates in the country for the population 7 years and above and adult literacy (15+ years).

The areas that were explored through this study are:

- Enrolment
- Dropout
- Attendance
- Retention
- Cycle completion
- Teachers qualification
- Teachers professional training
- School management committee
- Student-teacher ratio
- Private expenditure for education
- Income and expenditure of schools and
- Literacy.

The estimates have been computed for the national and sub-national (Division) levels. Estimates by gender, socio-economic status, and school type were also made as appropriate.

The Instruments

A set of three different instruments was used for *Education Watch 2001*. The instruments were primarily prepared by the research team and were subsequently tested several

times for validation. All the instruments were structured and pre-coded. The following instruments were used:

1. Household Survey Questionnaire;
2. School Survey Checklist; and
3. Private Expenditure for Schooling Survey Checklist.

The question on 'literacy' was incorporated in the Household Survey Questionnaire.

Household survey questionnaire

This instrument was developed to provide information on gross and net enrolment, participation in co-curricular activities and guardians' participation in school meetings. Questions related to each of the household member, schooling status of individuals aged 4-20 years and some household level information were included in this instrument. However, more emphasis was given on schooling and education related matters. Although the official age for primary schooling is 6-10 years¹ in Bangladesh but different studies including the *Education Watch 1999* (Chowdhury et al., 1999) suggested that children older and younger than this age group also enrolled in primary schools. Thus, it was decided to collect schooling information for all individuals aged 4-20 years who were members of the sample household at the time of the survey.

The Household instrument had four sections: members profile and literacy status, schooling status of individuals aged 4-20 years, parental information and household level information. These are described in more detail below.

Household members' profile and literacy status: This part of the questionnaire collected information on age, sex, and years of schooling completed for each member of the household. The profile also included question on the literacy status of each individual. The adult respondent for the questionnaire was asked about each member of the household on 'whether s/he could read and write a letter' (in any language). Anyone satisfying this condition was considered to be 'literate'. It may be mentioned that this definition of literacy is traditionally used in the Bangladesh National Census.

Schooling of individuals aged 4-20 years: Current enrolment status of each of the individuals aged 4-20 years was the main information sought in this part. More specifically, this collected information on class and type of school for the currently enrolled children; last class passed, type of latest school attended, and causes of dropout for the dropped out children; and causes of non-enrolment for the never enrolled children. Additional information for the currently

enrolled children included participation in co-curricular activities and guardians' participation in school meetings.

Parental information: This part collected selected parental information of all individuals aged 4-20 years. These were on levels of education of the parents, principle occupation of father, and mother's involvement in any income generating activities.

Household information: Four specific information about the surveyed households were included in this part, these are on self-perceived yearly food security status of household, religious beliefs of the household members, ethnicity, and type of residence (Slum or non-slum).

School survey checklist

This instrument was developed to collect information about the schools and other school related matters. The school checklist was divided into seven sections. These were: general information of school, classroom information, retention and dropout, teachers profile, income and expenditure, school management committee and school visit by the supervisors.

General information: Name of school, type of school, whether it is a co-ed school, number of students and teachers by sex etc. were the foci of this part.

Classroom information: This part included information on capacity in each classroom, number of students in school registers, and number of students who were present in classes on two immediately previous reference days.

Retention and dropout: Number of students enrolled in each class at the beginning of 1999, number of students dropped out during 1999, number of students who got promotion to the next class and number of repeaters were collected.

Teachers profile: Information on sex, ethnicity, religious beliefs, attendance, current designation, level of education and years of experience of each teacher was included in this part. Information about professional training was also included. In case of secondary attached schools, only the teachers who teach at primary level were included.

Income and expenditure of school: Income and expenditure under different heads during January to September 2000 were collected through this part in three broad heading: income, value of fixed assets and expenditure.

School management committee: Existence of school management committee, size of the committee, sex composition of members, and attendance in last meeting were collected under this part of the checklist.

School visit: Information on school visit by the Upazila Education Officers (UEOs), Assistant Upazila Education Officers (AUEOs) for the government and private schools or the Programme Organisers (POs) for the NGO schools during 2000 were collected here.

¹ All primary schools in Bangladesh are supposed to follow a 5-year primary cycle. This is, not the case for many NGOs which provide primary education through a non-formal methodology. Some NGOs, however, including BRAC, provide full cycle of primary education starting from age 8.

Private expenditure for schooling checklist

This checklist included eleven expenditure heads. These are: admission/readmission fee, monthly tuition, buying/collecting textbooks, buying/collecting supplementary books, stationery, school dress, examination fees, various other fees (e.g., fees for religious festivals, social functions, amusements etc.), transport for schooling, honorarium for private tutors, and transport for private tutoring. Any expenditure apart from the above heads was recorded as 'others'.

The instruments along with their English versions are given in Annexes 2.1 to 2.6.

The Pilot Study

Prior to the national survey, a pilot study was done in Mymensingh district. This helped identify areas needing special emphasis during training of the field investigators for national survey and at the time of the survey. The pilot was carried out in August 2000 in several unions of Phulpur and Mymensingh Sadar upazilas. The three instruments, developed for the *Watch* were used in the pilot study. As most of the indicators used in *Education Watch 1999* was adapted for this year's *Watch*, we found it easier to handle. The additional items such as the educational expenditure needed extra efforts.

Definition of Variables

The definitions of some of the indicators and terms used in this report are available in Annex 2.7.

Sampling

Current enrolment status of children was considered as the key variable in determining sample size for household survey. Considering enrolment status as dichotomous (enrolled or not) the minimum sample size for an estimate was calculated to be 392 children. Annex 2.8 gives more technical details of the calculations.

Because of known variations in the educational attainment among the geographical regions in the country eight different surveys were carried out, one in each of the following strata:

Rural Bangladesh:	Rural Dhaka Division Rural Chittagong Division; Rural Rajshahi Division; Rural Khulna Division; Rural Barisal Division; and Rural Sylhet Division;
Urban Bangladesh:	Metropolitan cities; and Municipalities.

Like the first *Education Watch (1999)*, the same sample size and a similar sampling strategy were followed for each stratum. A multi-stage sampling procedure was designed for this purpose. At the first stage, 30 upazilas/

municipalities were selected through systematic sampling technique with probability proportional to size (PPS). At the second stage, one union (ward for urban strata) for each selected upazila/municipality was selected randomly. At the third stage, one village (mahallah for urban strata) was randomly selected for each selected union/ward. This means that 30 villages/wards (here called clusters) were selected for each stratum, totalling 240 for the whole of Bangladesh. Latest available information (Community Series of 1991 Census in districts volumes) published by the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics was used in sampling. It came out that all 64 districts of the country got represented in the sample (Figure 2.1).

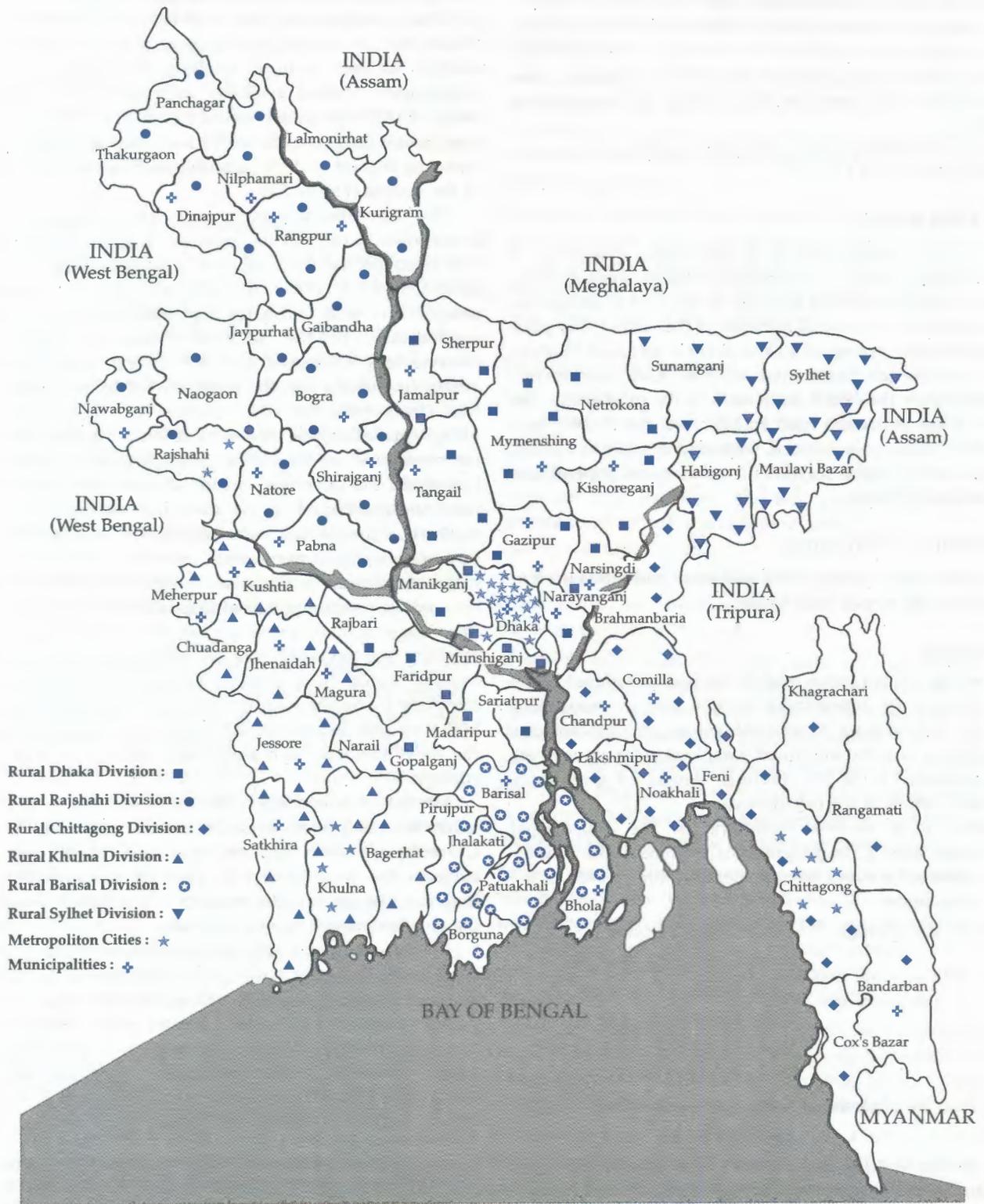
The household survey was carried out in 125 households in each of the selected clusters. This number was fixed on the basis of past experience with the first *Education Watch (1999)*. This allowed us to have enough sample for valid estimates for enrolment and private expenditure. In the selected village/mahallah, the interviewers identified the north-west corner of the village/mahallah, and the work started by surveying the first household of the corner. A sketch of the village/mahallah was drawn to identify the first house in the north-west corner. After completing work in the first household the interviewers moved anti-clockwise for the next household and so on until the required size was reached. If the village/mahallah was too small to find 125 households the interviewers moved to the village/mahallah closest to the place where they finished and covered the remaining households in the similar fashion. If the village/mahallah was too big the survey stopped by reaching the required size. A more scientific selection method would have entailed availability of a pre-listed sampling frame. As such list does not exist and would be both time and cost-intensive to prepare afresh, we followed the above method. Such a method is widely used in large surveys.

Every fifth household under the household survey was taken for the private expenditure for schooling survey. Currently enrolled students aged 4-20 years were the subjects for this survey. In case of unavailability of individual of above characteristics in a selected household the next household was considered.

For school survey four types of primary schools were considered. These are: government, private (both registered and unregistered), madrassa and non-formal². The unions/wards selected for household survey were considered as clusters for the school survey. Separate lists for each type of school providing primary education were prepared. In making the lists assistance of respective Upazila Education Office, Union Parishad and local NGO offices were

² There are many other types which offer primary-level education in Bangladesh. Because of logistical and cost considerations, we restricted our school survey to these four types. They, together, however, enrol over 90% primary school-going children (see Chapter III and also Chowdhury et al (1999)).

FIGURE 2.1
Map showing the location of sample spots



received. In addition, informants such as local elite, school heads and people in the market places were consulted for further verification. One school from each type was randomly selected from the lists of educational institutions. This means that in each union/ward one government school, one private school, one madrassa and one non-formal school were selected. Like the household survey, if any of the four types of schools was not available in the selected union/ward the interviewers moved to the neighbouring one to complete the rest of the work in a similar way.

A total of 30,051 households from 281 villages/mahallas were covered through the household survey, where 20,686 children aged 6-10 years and 22,239 students enrolled in primary classes were identified. Number of students surveyed for private expenditure for schooling was 6,554 (20% of households). Table 2.1 presents more details on the sample in different stratum. The average household size is 5 which is comparable to other studies (BDHS, 2000). Under the school survey 952 schools were surveyed, 718 in rural areas and 234 in urban areas. Number of schools surveyed by type and area is provided in Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.1

Sample for household and private expenditure for schooling surveys

Stratum	Household survey			Private cost survey			
	No. of village	No. of HHs	Total population	Children aged 6-10yrs	Primary school students	No. of HHs	Students covered
Rural Dhaka Division	36	3,757	18,112	2,553	2,806	680	823
Rural Chittagong Division	41	3,769	20,743	3,223	3,586	710	973
Rural Rajshahi Division	35	3,751	16,915	2,400	2,645	692	796
Rural Khulna Division	34	3,757	13,339	2,047	2,655	725	820
Rural Barisal Division	34	3,749	19,026	2,968	2,836	726	798
Rural Sylhet Division	38	3,748	20,326	3,123	3,086	680	980
Metropolitan cities	31	3,766	18,934	2,120	2,235	702	679
Municipalities	32	3,754	18,633	2,252	2,390	697	685
Total	281	30,051	1,50,028	20,686	22,239	5,612	6,554

TABLE 2.2

Sample for school survey

School type	Rural	Urban	All
Government	180	60	240
Private	180	59	239
Madrassa	179	55	234
Non-formal	179	60	239
Total	718	234	952

Weighting

Since the strata population in terms of number of children varied substantially and number of schools were not equal in all stratum and type, weights were used in pooling estimates for rural Bangladesh, urban Bangladesh and national levels. Following data were used to find the weights:

- Population distribution found in Census 2001 by Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS 2001).
- Percentage distribution of students currently enrolled at primary level found in Education Watch Household Survey (2000).

Standard statistical procedures were used in calculating the weights (Cochran 1977). Annex 2.8 gives more details on the technical procedures followed in weighting.

Field Investigators and their Training

A total of 120 investigators (12 females and 108 males) were recruited for smooth implementation of the surveys. Of them 100 worked as interviewers, 17 as supervisors cum re-interviewers and the rest as senior supervisors. Each had at least a Bachelor's degree but many had Masters level education. A good number of them had previous experience as field investigators/ supervisors in related studies including the *Education Watch 1999*.

The interviewers and the supervisors were trained in three groups over a six-day long training workshop each. Each training workshop included a four-day classroom discussion and role play exercises, and two days of field practice. A detailed instruction manual for all sections of the instruments was also used in the training workshops (Nath 2000). Senior staff members of the Research and Evaluation Division of BRAC conducted the training

sessions. It may be mentioned that each training workshop trained more people than needed to take care of dropouts.

The Field Operation

A team of two interviewers, one of whom was the team leader, carried out interviews in each cluster. This means that a total of 50 teams worked for the whole study. The team leader was given responsibility to distribute work to the other team member and to coordinate team activity. Each team spent four days in a cluster. The first two days were used in household survey, private expenditure for schooling survey and preparing lists of schools in the area.

The remaining two days were used for school survey. Household survey in urban clusters took more time. Because of security concerns access to urban houses was a problem and the respondents asked many questions before allowing interviewers access. In most cases, however, the interviewers convinced the respondents and completed the work successfully. The interviewers had to show their identity cards in most of these houses. However, there was no such problem in the urban slums. In most rural clusters the team members stayed in the sample villages, but in some others they stayed in nearby villages.

For the household survey, the head of the household was the principle respondent. If s/he was not available the wife/husband was chosen for the purpose. If neither was available, any adult member of the household was asked to provide information. Sometimes the respondent took help from the other members of the household in responding to selected questions. In some 'conservative' households women were not prepared to talk to male interviewers; in such cases help was sought from other male persons in the neighbouring households. Some households (less than 2%) were missed due to unavailability of an appropriate respondent. Age determination was the most difficult and time consuming part in the household survey. Event calendar was used to estimate age. On average, 15 minutes were spent for a household interview in rural areas and 30 minutes in urban areas. The households where private expenditure for schooling survey was carried out extra time was needed for this.

The headmaster was the key respondent for the school survey and the interview was held at the school premise. If the headmaster was not available, any other teacher of the school provided the information. In a typical situation, however, the headmaster along with one or two other teachers in one sitting provided the required information about the school. The interviewers carried letters from CAMPE requesting the headmasters to provide necessary co-operation and information; in a few cases, however, the headmasters, particularly in madrassas, were not happy with this and demanded letter from the government education authority. In some cases help was sought from the Upazila Education Officers who provided all assistance.

After completing each interview the team members carefully checked the filled up questionnaire to ensure that all the questions were asked and responses entered.

Each supervisor cum re-interviewer was given responsibility for three teams. The supervision included seeing whether the teams went to the right villages/mahallahs or unions and whether the interviewers worked as per instructions. For re-interviewing, 80 clusters were randomly selected and re-surveyed on some selected indicators. The senior supervisors made random visits to the teams to check the quality of work. The field data was collected during the months of October and November 2000.

Data Quality Assessment

Several steps were taken to ensure the quality of the data. First, in each team one member was made the leader whose major responsibility was to ensure the quality of data collected by the other members of the team. Secondly, each supervisor cum re-interviewer who was given responsibility for three teams frequently visited the teams, observed their work and gave necessary guidance. They also re-interviewed a sub-sample of the survey on some selected variables. Thirdly, there were five senior supervisors from the Research and Evaluation Division of BRAC, the implementer of the study, who ensured that the teams and the supervisor cum re-interviewers worked as per instructions. These supervisors also offered necessary guidance when needed. Finally, members of the core research team at BRAC visited some teams to see overall field operations. The team leaders and the supervisors regularly communicated over telephone with the research team in Dhaka.

Of the villages/ mahallahs covered by each interviewer team three were randomly chosen for post enumeration check. This means, a total of 80 clusters were revisited for post enumeration. In each cluster, 8 households from the household survey were re-interviewed. Thus a total of 638 households from the household survey was re-interviewed to check the reliability of the data. Although no such formal re-interview was made for the school survey, but listing of schools was verified and some schools were revisited to confirm that the teams carried out their work accordingly.

TABLE 2.3

Percentage of cases matched between the main survey and the re-interview for selected indicators

Indicators	% matched between survey and re-survey	
	Fully	With ± 1 unit
Sex of individuals	98.7	-
Age of individuals		
6-10 years	72.9	95.1
All population	59.1	89.6
Literacy status of all population	96.7	-
Enrolment status of individuals		
4 - 20 years	97.5	-
6 - 10 years	98.2	-
Years of schooling completed		
All population	95.4	97.1
4 - 20 years	96.6	97.6
6 - 10 years	96.0	97.0
Year of schooling completed by mothers	94.9	96.0
Years of schooling completed by fathers	94.6	95.6
Self-perceived food security status of household	89.9	97.0

For post-enumeration check, a few items were covered instead of the whole instrument. These data were then matched with the original data to find deviations. The matching operation, which was done using a computer, showed that the quality of the data was very good as most of the indicators matched in more than 90 percent of the cases (Table 2.3). As already mentioned, estimating the age of the individual was the hardest job in the household survey. However, the matching operation shows that the age information of children was correct in over 95 percent cases if a deviation of a single year is accepted as 'correct'. However, the task was harder in case of the elderly.

Limitations of the Study

1. This study covered selected internal efficiency indicators that are quantifiable and easily collectable. However, others which may be equally important but needing in-depth observations such as classroom interactions were not considered. Thus, the totality of the 'internal efficiency' of primary education in Bangladesh is not covered through this study.
2. Many of the analyses presented here assume correct reporting of age of the child. As mentioned in the text estimation of age was a most difficult job for the interviewers. However, all standard measures such as the use of 'event calendars' were used to obtain the best estimate.
3. The school survey considered only four types of primary schools. These, however, enrolled more than ninety percent of primary school-going children in Bangladesh.
4. Traditionally, the information collected from households on costs and expenditures are subject to misreporting. Moreover, in a few cases the information on private expenditure for schooling was not collected from the right person. This may have introduced some reporting error, which remains unknown.
5. The information on literacy for household members was based on report by the principle respondent. No test was done to determine how effective was the reported literacy, nor each individual was asked about her/his own assessment.

Chapter Three

GROSS AND NET ENROLMENT

This chapter presents current information on the enrolment status of children at primary level in Bangladesh. Gross enrolment ratio is 108 and the net enrolment rate is 80%. This shows that a large proportion of children attending primary schools is out-of-age. Of the many providers of primary education in the country, the government is the most dominant with 61% of total enrolment. Others include private (registered and unregistered) (18.4%), non-formal (7.1%), madrassas (5.3%), English-medium (2.1%), and satellite/community schools (2.7%). Strata-wise, rural Khulna has the highest net enrolment (91%) and Sylhet lowest (75.7%). Enrolment rates in urban areas were significantly more than those in rural areas. Equity emerges as a major issue in enrolment with the socio-economically disadvantaged groups trailing behind their more advantaged counterparts; most of the non-enrolled children came from the former group. Village level analysis identified disparities also; there are some villages where the net enrolment is as low as 20%.

Introduction

This chapter presents status of primary education in Bangladesh in terms of enrolment, an important dimension of internal efficiency, as available from the household survey. The other dimensions of internal efficiency included are: dropout, attendance, retention, cycle completion, teachers qualifications, teachers professional training, school management committee and student-teacher ratio. All of these were also addressed in the first *Education Watch 1999* report. A revisit of these through *Education Watch 2001* allows comparison over a two-year period. The estimates are presented according to gender, socio-economic status, ethnic composition and residence, where appropriate. Both national and sub-national estimates are also presented.

Gross Enrolment

Gross enrolment ratio at primary level refers to the number of children currently enrolled at the primary level (Classes I to V) for every 100 children aged 6-10 years. Through the present study we found this to be 108 (Table 3.1). This

TABLE 3.1

Gross enrolment ratio at primary level (Classes I to V) by stratum and gender

Stratum	Gross enrolment ratio		
	Girls	Boys	Both
Rural Dhaka Division	111 (1,244)	109 (1,309)	110 (2,553)
Rural Chittagong Division	110 (1,613)	112 (1,610)	111 (3,223)
Rural Rajshahi Division	109 (1,128)	111 (1,272)	110 (2,400)
Rural Khulna Division	131 (1,008)	129 (1,039)	130 (2,047)
Rural Barisal Division	96 (1,495)	95 (1,473)	96 (2,968)
Rural Sylhet Division	99 (1,509)	99 (1,614)	99 (3,123)
Metropolitan cities	103 (1,078)	107 (1,042)	105 (2,120)
Municipalities	107 (1,132)	105 (1,120)	106 (2,252)
Rural Bangladesh	108 (7,997)	108 (8,317)	108 (16,314)
Urban Bangladesh	105 (2,210)	106 (2,162)	106 (4,372)
All Bangladesh	107 (10,207)	108 (10,479)	108 (20,686)

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6-10 years
Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

included all children currently enrolled in any type of schools secular or non-secular, formal or non-formal¹, as reported through the household survey. The table also

¹ Here non-formal refers to schools operated by the NGOs. As already mentioned, most NGOs provide 2/3 years course but

shows that the gross enrolment ratio exceeded 100 percent in most of the strata considered for this study except two: rural Barisal and rural Sylhet divisions. The gross enrolment ratios for girls and boys were almost equal: 107 for girls and 108 for boys. On average the rural children enrolled marginally more than those of urban areas (108 vs. 106). Division wise analysis shows that rural Khulna had the highest enrolment rate of 130 percent, and rural Barisal had the lowest with 96 percent. Gross enrolment ratio was below the national average in four areas, viz., rural Barisal, rural Sylhet, metropolitan cities and the municipalities.

TABLE 3.2

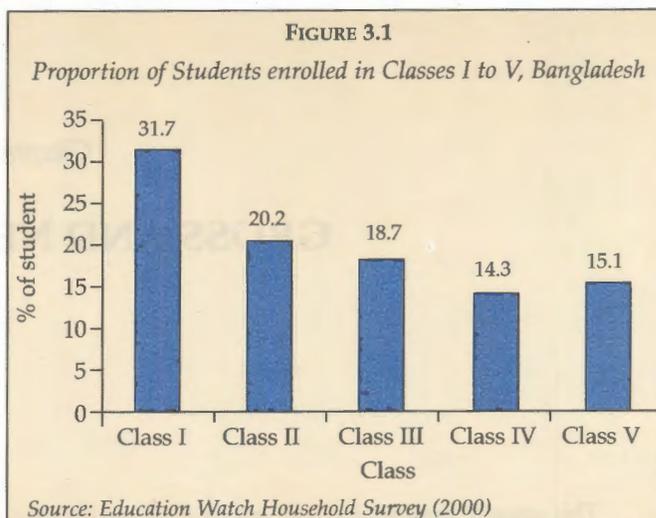
Percentage distribution of students currently enrolled in Classes I to V by residence and gender

Residence/Gender	Total students	Current class of enrolment				
		I	II	III	IV	V
Rural Bangladesh						
Girls	8,629	31.2	20.2	18.7	14.2	15.8
Boys	8,985	33.2	20.6	17.7	14.1	14.3
Both	17,614	32.2	20.4	18.2	14.2	15.0
Urban Bangladesh						
Girls	2,324	26.8	19.4	22.4	14.3	17.1
Boys	2,301	29.2	19.1	21.5	15.7	14.4
Both	4,625	28.0	19.3	22.0	15.0	15.8
All Bangladesh						
Girls	10,953	30.6	20.1	19.2	14.2	15.9
Boys	11,286	32.7	20.4	18.1	14.3	14.4
Both	22,239	31.7	20.2	18.7	14.3	15.1

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

The proportion of students by Class at the national level is presented in Table 3.2. The highest enrolment occurred in Class I which gradually decreased as one goes up to Class IV and then increases again in Class V. The drop was highest between Classes I and II, and again between Classes III and IV. The load of students in earlier classes (especially in Class I where less than a third enrolled) indicate recent motivation to schooling and/or sharp dropouts. The falling fertility rate of the early 1990s and recent reduction in drop out rates point to the former than the latter. Another reason is

some NGOs including BRAC (which is the largest provider among the NGOs) provide a full 5-year cycle of primary education following the curriculum recommended by the National Curriculum and Textbook Board (NCTB).



that some parents send their children to school before reaching age six; as there is no pre-school, these children repeat in Class I before the schools allow them to move to Class II. Such concentration of students in Class I was more in rural schools than in urban schools (32.2% vs. 28%) and more among boys than girls (30.6% vs. 32.7%). Another puzzle is the higher proportion of children in Class V than in Class IV (Figure 3.1). This may be an indication of higher repeat rate in the terminal Class. See Annex 3.1 for more analysis by stratum and gender.

Table 3.3 presents percentage distribution of children enrolled in primary classes by age of the child. The distribution is very similar to that found in *Education Watch 1999*. Although primary schooling age is 6-10 years by law, children outside this age range are also enrolled in primary schools. It can be estimated that 32.6 percent or a third of the

TABLE 3.3

Percentage distribution of currently enrolled students at primary level aged 4-20 years by age, residence and gender

Residence/ Gender	Total students	Age of students									
		4-5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13+	
Rural Bangladesh											
Girls	8,629	5.3	8.7	14.3	15.8	12.1	16.9	8.5	10.4	7.9	
Boys	8,985	5.6	7.9	13.6	16.2	12.5	16.4	8.5	11.3	8.0	
Both	17,614	5.4	8.3	14.0	16.0	12.3	16.7	8.5	10.9	7.9	
Urban Bangladesh											
Girls	2,324	5.1	8.4	14.3	14.3	14.1	17.8	11.0	9.1	5.8	
Boys	2,301	5.2	7.8	13.8	15.1	13.8	17.9	10.9	8.7	6.8	
Both	4,625	5.2	8.1	14.1	14.7	13.9	17.8	11.0	8.9	6.4	
All Bangladesh											
Girls	10,953	5.3	8.6	14.3	15.6	12.4	17.1	8.8	10.3	7.5	
Boys	11,286	5.6	7.9	13.7	16.0	12.6	16.6	8.8	11.0	7.8	
Both	22,239	5.4	8.3	14.0	15.8	12.5	16.8	8.8	10.6	7.8	

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

primary school children came from outside the above age range, 5.4 percent under-aged (less than 6 years) and 27.2 percent over-aged (more than 10 years) (Figure 3.2). Annex 3.2 presents more analysis for each stratum by gender.

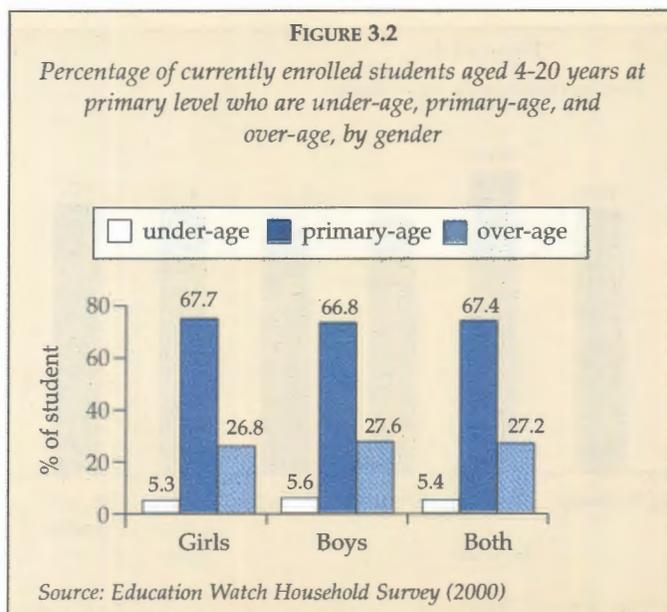


Table 3.4 shows the share of different types of primary schools in enrolment. As was found in *Education Watch 1999*, government run primary schools enrolled the highest number of students, followed by private schools, non-formal schools and madrassas. Amongst the NGO run non-formal schools BRAC's share of students was highest (68.4%). Annex 3.3 gives the breakdown of non-formal schools by name of NGOs.

TABLE 3.4

Percentage distribution of students currently enrolled at primary level (Classes I to V) by type of school, residence and gender

Type of school	Rural Bangladesh			Urban Bangladesh			All Bangladesh		
	Girls	Boys	Both	Girls	Boys	Both	Girls	Boys	Both
Government	63.0	60.2	61.6	59.0	55.7	57.3	62.4	59.6	61.0
Private (registered)	17.2	18.1	17.7	8.7	9.2	8.9	16.1	17.0	16.6
Private (un-registered)	1.6	2.1	1.8	1.3	1.7	1.5	1.5	2.0	1.8
Non-formal	8.2	5.8	7.0	9.1	7.8	8.5	8.3	6.1	7.1
Satellite/Community	2.9	3.1	3.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	2.6	2.8	2.7
Ebtedayee	2.2	2.8	2.5	2.4	3.3	2.9	2.3	2.9	2.6
Kamil/Fazel/Alim/Dakhil	3.7	6.0	4.9	0.6	2.4	1.5	3.3	5.6	4.4
Kindergarten	0.8	1.6	1.2	7.9	9.2	8.6	1.7	2.6	2.1
Secondary attached	0.5	0.2	0.3	10.1	9.9	10.1	1.7	1.4	1.6
All schools	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of students	8,629	8,985	17,614	2,324	2,301	4,625	10,953	11,286	22,239

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

TABLE 3.5

Percentage distribution of students currently enrolled at primary level (Classes I to V) by type of school and stratum

Type of school	Rural Dhaka	Rural Chittagong	Rural Rajshahi	Rural Khulna
Government	64.6	69.8	44.7	61.0
Private (registered)	10.5	10.8	36.0	14.0
Private (un-registered)	1.8	3.2	0.9	0.3
Non-formal	8.8	3.6	8.4	10.7
Satellite/Community	5.7	1.7	2.1	2.6
Ebtedayee	0.7	3.2	3.4	3.7
Kamil/Fazel/Alim/Dakhil	5.6	6.0	3.6	6.0
Kindergarten	1.9	1.6	0.8	0.7
Secondary attached	0.5	0.2	0.2	1.1
All schools	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of students	2,788	3,571	2,642	2,627

(Contd. Table 3.5)

Type of school	Rural Barisal	Rural Sylhet	Metropolitan Cities	Municipalities
Government	71.1	68.7	51.7	61.7
Private (registered)	15.0	17.0	5.9	11.2
Private (un-registered)	1.6	3.1	1.8	1.2
Non-formal	5.0	2.8	7.7	9.0
Satellite/Community	0.4	3.2	0.2	1.3
Ebtedayee	2.9	2.6	4.1	1.9
Kamil/Fazel/Alim/Dakhil	3.7	2.1	0.8	2.1
Kindergarten	0.1	0.5	9.6	7.7
Secondary attached	0.2	0.0	18.1	3.9
All schools	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of students	2,818	3,086	2,219	2,381

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

A somewhat different picture emerges in the distribution of students between rural and urban areas (Table 3.4). Next to the State-run schools, the rural children were concentrated more in the registered private schools. This was not the case in urban areas where the English medium Kindergartens, the primary sections of the secondary schools and the non-formal schools were equally popular. In terms of the enrolment of girls, a nearly opposite happened between the non-formal schools and the madrassas. As the NGOs emphasise more on women's development and girls education, the share of girls was higher in their schools, but it was opposite in the case of madrassas.

Table 3.5 provides more analysis of distribution of students in different types of schools separately for different stratum. This shows some important differences among the strata. In rural Barisal, more children went to government schools than the national estimate (71.1%). This proportion was lowest in rural Rajshahi (44.7%). In rural Rajshahi, 36 percent of the students enrolled in private schools, compared to 5.9 percent in Metropolitan cities. In metropolitan cities 18.1 percent of the students enrolled in secondary attached primary schools and 9.6 percent in English medium Kindergartens.

On the other hand, the presence of NGO-run non-formal primary schools was more in Dhaka, Rajshahi, Khulna, metropolitan cities and municipalities than in Chittagong, Sylhet and Barisal. Annex 3.4 provides more analysis of similar type by gender.

Net Enrolment

The net enrolment rate is defined as the number of children aged 6-10 years currently enrolled in any class for every 100 children of the same age. The national estimate for net

enrolment rate is found to be 79.8 percent (Table 3.6). This means that of the children aged 6-10 years, four in five are in school. The remaining children (one-fifth) may never have enrolled in any school at all or dropped out before crossing their primary schooling age. Like the gross

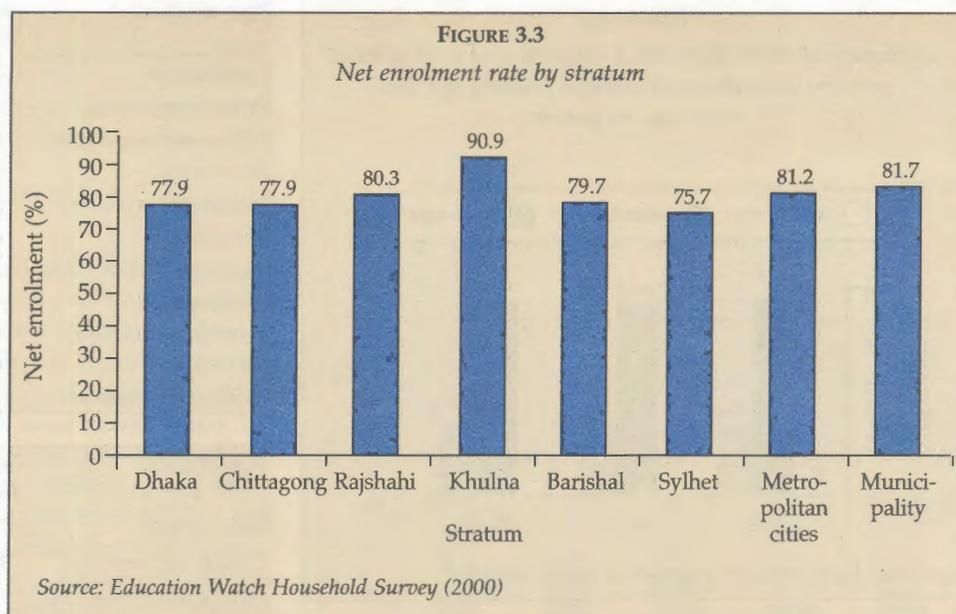


TABLE 3.6

Net enrolment rate among children aged 6-10 years by stratum and gender

Stratum	Net enrolment rate			Significance
	Girls	Boys	Both	
Rural Dhaka Division	77.5 (1,244)	78.3 (1,309)	77.9 (2,553)	ns
Rural Chittagong Division	76.4 (1,613)	79.3 (1,610)	77.8 (3,223)	ns
Rural Rajshahi Division	81.3 (1,128)	79.3 (1,272)	80.3 (2,400)	ns
Rural Khulna Division	93.5 (1,008)	88.5 (1,039)	90.9 (2,047)	p<0.001
Rural Barisal Division	81.3 (1,495)	78.1 (1,473)	79.7 (2,968)	p<0.05
Rural Sylhet Division	74.9 (1,509)	76.4 (1,614)	75.7 (3,123)	ns
Metropolitan cities	80.3 (1,078)	82.1 (1,042)	81.2 (2,120)	ns
Municipalities	82.2 (1,132)	81.3 (1,120)	81.7 (2,252)	ns
Significance	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	
Rural Bangladesh	79.7 (7,997)	79.5 (8,317)	79.6 (16,314)	ns
Urban Bangladesh	81.4 (2,210)	81.6 (2,162)	81.5 (4,372)	ns
Significance	ns	p<0.05	p<0.01	
All Bangladesh	79.9 (10,207)	79.8 (10,479)	79.8 (20,686)	ns

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6-10 years; ns = not significant at p=0.05
Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

enrolment ratio no gender difference was observed in net enrolment. However, unlike the gross ratio the urban children surpassed their rural counterparts in net enrolment rate (81.5% vs. 79.6%; p<0.001). This finding has a similarity with what we found in Table 3.2 which probably implies that urban schools are more stringent in terms of age of students while admitting them, or urban parents are more conscious about sending their kids to schools at the right age or both. A wide variation in net enrolment is seen when estimated for different strata (p<0.001). For example, the net enrolment rate was over 90 percent in Khulna division, whereas it was 75.7 percent in Sylhet division. The estimates for Dhaka and Chittagong were also lower than the national estimate (see also Figure 3.5). Statistically significant gender difference in net enrolment was found only in two areas, viz., Rural Khulna and Barisal divisions (p<0.001 and p<0.05 respectively). In both, the girls outpaced the boys.

Socio-economic Differentials of Net Enrolment

Like most other previous studies including the Education Watch 1999 this study confirms the importance of socio-economic background of parents in the enrolment of their children in school. Households' food security status as a

and the difference between them in terms of net enrolment of their children was significant ($p < 0.001$). Table 3.7 and Annex 3.5 present net enrolment rate of children by food security status of their households. Parents who reported to have a 'surplus' status, 89 percent of their children were enrolled. But the net rate reduced to 82 percent with 'balanced' economic status, to 77.7 percent for 'sometimes in deficit' status and to 65.4 percent for 'always in deficit' status (see also Figure 3.6). Annex 3.6 provides more analysis by strata.

TABLE 3.7
Net enrolment rate among children aged 6-10 years by yearly food security status of household and parental education

Socio-economic variable	Girls	Boys	Both	Significance
<i>Yearly food security status of household</i>				
Always in deficit	66.8 (1328)	64.2 (1357)	65.4 (2685)	ns
Sometimes in deficit	78.1 (2880)	77.2 (3096)	77.7 (5976)	ns
Balance	81.2 (3917)	82.8 (4043)	82.0 (7960)	ns
Surplus	88.8 (2056)	89.4 (1953)	89.0 (4009)	ns
Significance	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	
<i>Mother's education</i>				
No education	73.1 (6080)	72.8 (6327)	72.9 (12407)	ns
Classes I - V	89.9 (2504)	90.2 (2488)	90.1 (4992)	ns
Classes VI+	95.3 (1547)	95.2 (1611)	95.2 (3158)	ns
Significance	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	
<i>Father's education</i>				
No education	72.0 (5160)	71.2 (5400)	71.6 (10560)	ns
Classes I - V	86.4 (2314)	87.1 (2312)	86.7 (4626)	ns
Classes VI - X	91.2 (1918)	92.3 (1961)	91.8 (3879)	ns
Classes XI+	95.7 (671)	95.9 (686)	95.8 (1357)	ns
Significance	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

proxy for income was assessed by asking the respondents to identify themselves in one of the four categories: 'always in deficit', 'sometimes in deficit', 'balanced', and 'surplus',

Statistically significant positive relationship between parental education and net enrolment was observed (Table 3.7 and Annexes 3.7 and 3.8). Mothers with secondary or more education are more likely to send their children to school than those with primary or no education, the enrolment rates being 95.2 percent, 90.1 percent and 72.9 percent respectively for the above groups. Similarly, fathers with tertiary or more education had 95.8 percent of their children enrolled, which reduced to 71.6 percent for non educated fathers. Stratum-wise variation was statistically significant among less educated parents (Annexes 3.9 and 3.10).

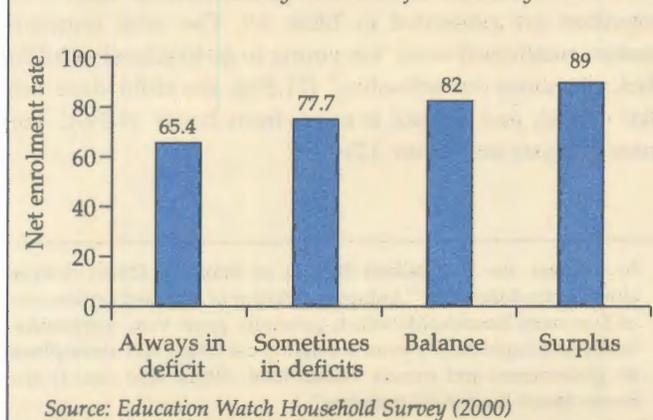
Although we did not collect data separately for different religious groups, ethnic minorities or slum dwellers, the sample covered some of those

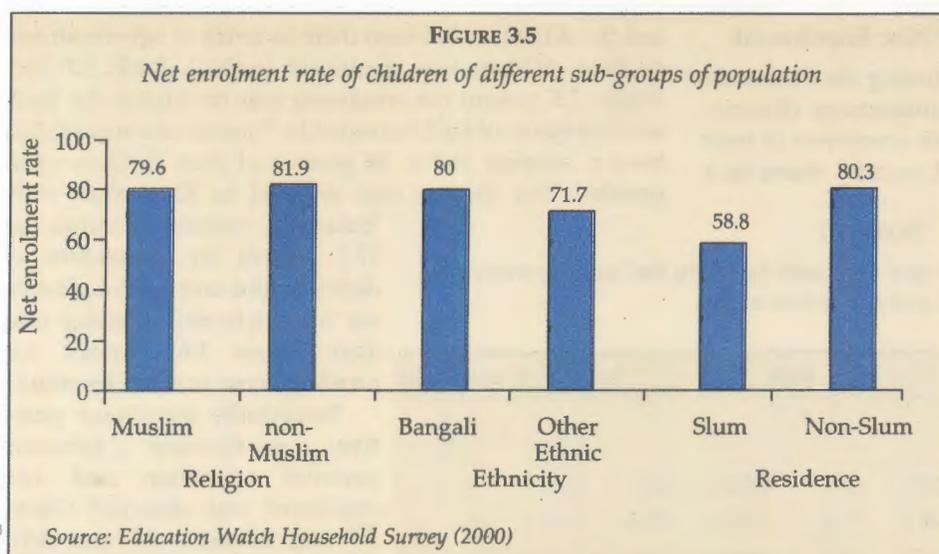
which allowed us to see the enrolment status in different sub-groups of population. However, it may be noted that the samples in some cases may not be enough to draw any statistically valid conclusion. Still, these provide some indication, however imprecise, of the prevailing state.

Net enrolment rates on the basis of religious beliefs of the parents are presented in Annex 3.11. Unlike the Education Watch 1999 the non-Muslims are more likely to enrol in schools than the Muslims ($p < 0.05$). On average, such difference prevailed more in rural areas than in urban areas. Stratum wise variation was observed in both Muslim and non-Muslims. Non-Muslims were ahead of the Muslims in three strata, viz., rural Dhaka, rural Barisal and the municipalities. However, Muslims were ahead of the non-Muslims only in rural Sylhet Division. Gender difference was not observed in any of the above categories (Annex 3.12). Annex 3.13 shows that the children of ethnic minorities were less likely to enrol in schools than those of majority Bangalis (70.7% vs. 80%; $p < 0.001$). Higher enrol-

FIGURE 3.4

Net enrolment rate by household food security status





ment rate was observed in the Bangalis in both rural and urban areas. No gender difference was seen in any of the groups (Annex 3.14). Annex 3.15 shows that families who lived in slums² had their children less likely to enrol in schools than children living in non-slum areas (58.8% vs. 80.3%, $p < 0.001$). The net enrolment rate was 53.2 percent in rural slums and 65.3 percent in urban slums ($p < 0.01$). Annex 3.16 shows no gender variation in enrolment among slum children. Figure 3.7 presents net enrolment rate for children of different sub-groups of population.

Village/Mahallah Level Analysis of Enrolment

Let us take a look at the enrolment situation at village/mahallah level considering village/mahallah as unit of analysis. Such an analysis allows us to see the variation

TABLE 3.8

Distribution of village/mahallah under study by level of gross enrolment ratio

Gross enrolment ratio	Number of village/mahallah	Percentage	Cumulative percentage
< 60	8	3.3	3.3
61 – 80	17	7.1	10.4
81 – 100	49	20.4	30.8
101 – 120	86	35.7	66.5
121 – 140	59	24.7	91.2
141 +	21	8.8	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

2 Communities (no less than 25 households) living in a very poorly constructed Kancha houses or "Jhupris" on lands belonging to the government or any other private owner was considered as slum.

among the villages/mahallahs. It should be mentioned that the estimates of this section are un-weighted because of non-availability of appropriate data.

There are a few villages where gross enrolment ratio was found to be less than 20 and in some villages it was over 140. Table 3.8 presents distribution of village/mahallah by gross enrolment ratio. The ratio was 60 or less in 3.3 percent villages, 101 to 120 in over a third of the villages, and it exceeded 140 in 8.8 percent of the villages.

Annex 3.17 presents minimum and maximum values of net enrolment rate for different

stratum. There are villages in rural Chittagong and Rajshahi divisions where only a fifth of the eligible children or less were enrolled in schools. Biggest gap between lowest and highest rates was also observed in these areas. Overall the range was smaller in urban areas than in rural areas.

The Non-enrolled Children

As already mentioned, 20.2 percent of the eligible children (age 6-10 years) did not enrol in any school at the time of survey. A small portion of these children (2.4%) had enrolled in school but dropped out before reaching age 10 years but most (17.8%) did never go to any school (Annex 3.18). Annex 3.19 shows the proportion of these children by stratum and gender. An analysis of the socio-economic background of these children confirmed that they came from disadvantaged sections (Annex 3.20). Over three-quarters of the fathers and 85.1 percent of the mothers of non-enrolled children had no schooling, and over a half of them came from households with 'deficit' economy. Nearly 88 percent of the non-enrolled children were from the rural areas. In may be noted that the rural areas constitute about 78 percent of the population of the country.

The parents of these children were asked about the reasons for non-enrolment of their children, and their responses are presented in Table 3.9. The most frequent reasons mentioned were 'too young to go to school' (40.8%) 'lack of money for schooling' (21.5%), the child does not like' (9.8%), and 'school is away from home' (9.1%).' For more analysis see Annex 3.21.

In contrast, the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (1999) defines slums in the following: "A slum is a cluster of compact settlements of 5 or more households which generally grow very unsystematically and haphazardly in an unhealthy condition and atmosphere on government and private vacant land. Slums also exist in the owner based household premises".

TABLE 3.9
Percentage distribution of unschooled children(6-10 years) by cause
of non-enrolment, residence and gender

Causes	Rural Bangladesh			Urban Bangladesh			All Bangladesh		
	Girls	Boys	Both	Girls	Boys	Both	Girls	Boys	Both
School is away from home	9.4	10.8	10.1	1.3	1.4	1.4	8.5	9.8	9.1
Scarcity of money	20.7	20.7	20.7	33.0	23.5	28.4	22.1	21.0	21.5
School authority refused	5.1	3.7	4.4	6.1	7.4	6.7	5.2	4.1	4.7
No use of education	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7
Has to work at home or outside	4.4	3.6	4.0	5.8	1.6	3.7	4.6	3.4	4.0
The child does not like	8.6	11.3	10.0	8.0	8.8	8.4	8.5	11.0	9.8
Too young to go to school	41.0	39.9	40.5	39.5	47.6	43.4	40.9	40.8	40.8
Insecure road transportation	4.8	3.1	4.0	1.5	1.6	1.5	4.4	3.0	3.7
Disability	1.9	2.1	2.0	1.5	4.2	2.8	1.8	2.3	2.1
Others	3.2	4.2	3.7	2.8	3.0	2.9	3.2	4.0	3.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of children	1,424	1,480	2,904	335	314	649	1,759	1,794	3,553

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Enrolment Outside Primary Classes

Children aged 6-10 years are expected to enrol in Classes I to V, but it does not happen smoothly in Bangladesh. As already mentioned, around a fifth of the eligible children were currently non-enrolled. One, however, may wonder about the relationship between age and Class of the currently enrolled children. Analysis shows that of the eligible children who reported to be currently enrolled in schools about 1.1 percent were enrolled in non-graded religious schools (such as Kharizi and Hafizia madrassas) and 4.3 percent in pre primary classes of different types of graded schools (Annex 3.22). Incidence of such a situation was slightly higher in urban than rural areas, and for boys than girls. However, no statistical significance of the differences was observed. Annex 3.26 provides more analysis of this kind and reveals that only 21.8 percent of the eligible children are in the right Classes at right age; 47.1 percent were behind and 5.6 percent ahead. The distribution of children who were studying in a class behind their age is

TABLE 3.10

Net enrolment rates at primary, secondary and post-secondary levels for individuals aged 4-20 years

Age (in year)	Currently enrolled in Classes (%)				Non- enrolled individuals	Total
	Pre primary	I - V	VI - X	XI+		
4 - 5	9.6	16.7	-	-	73.7	7,444
6 - 10	4.4	74.6	0.8	-	20.2	20,686
11 - 15	0.1	32.9	35.5	0.3	31.2	18,717
16 - 20	-	0.8	18.0	14.1	67.1	13,851

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

also interesting. Of them, 9.4 percent were one year behind, 12.2 percent two years, 10.6 percent three years, and 14.9 percent four years behind. More analyses of the currently enrolled students aged 6-10 years are presented in Annexes 3.22 and 3.23. Similar analysis by age of child shows that only 44.5 percent of the children of age six enrolled in Class I and of the children aged 10 only 14.8 percent were in Class V (Annex 3.24).

Table 3.10 shows the enrolment status of all individuals aged 4-20 years in four groups: 4-5 (pre primary), 6-10 (primary), 11-15 (secondary), and 16-20 (post secondary). It shows that percentage of individuals non enrolled increased with age, for instance, 20.2 percent in 6-10, 31.2 percent in 11-15, and 67.1 percent in 16-20 years or more. It might be interesting to know whether these currently non-enrolled individuals ever went to any school or not,

and if they went how long they stayed there. This issue is more relevant for individuals aged 11 years or more. Annex 3.25 shows that 42.9 percent of the currently non-enrolled individuals aged 11-15 years never went to any school, 31.9 percent left school before completing the primary cycle and a negligible proportion (0.7%) left school after attending only non-graded religious schools or pre primary classes of formal schools. A quarter of the currently non-enrolled individuals left school after completing Class V or more. On the other hand, 29 percent of the currently non-enrolled individuals of age 16-20 years never went to any school, 21.9 percent left school before completing Class V and a few (0.5%) did not move after attending any non-graded schools or pre primary classes. Over 48 percent of these individuals left schools after completing five-year cycle of primary education.

Table 3.10 also presents the 'real' rates of net enrolment at different level of schooling, meaning proportion of individuals of certain age group enrolled in the classes appropriate particularly for that age group.³ The 'real' net enrolment was 74.6 percent at primary, 35.5 percent at secondary and 14.1 percent at higher secondary level. Nearly a third of secondary school aged children, 0.8 percent of post-secondary age group and 16.7 percent children of pre-primary age group were enrolled in primary classes.

³ The 'real net enrolment' is different from the 'net enrolment' introduced earlier. Whereas 'net enrolment' at primary level includes (in the numerator) any students aged 6-10 years attending any class, the 'real net enrolment' at primary level includes (in the numerator) students aged 6-10 years attending primary classes. The denominator in both cases is the same and refers to children 6-10 years of age.

Chapter Four

THE SCHOOL SURVEY

This chapter deals with some additional dimensions of internal efficiency including promotion, dropout, repetition, attendance, teacher-student ratio, and school management. The data came from the survey of 952 schools. Using the UNESCO methodology, the completion rate for primary cycle is found to be 75.7% which implies a dropout rate of 24.3%. However, the system appeared less efficient as it took 6.6 years for an average student to complete the cycle. There were differences between different types of schools in terms of the efficiency indicators. The attendance rate was found to be 61% and varied between the gender, residence (urban/rural), and strata. About 40% of the teachers were female, with the rate higher in urban areas than in rural and in non-formal schools than in other type of schools. There were 60 students per teacher but this varied widely between school types with the highest of 70 in government schools and lowest of 28 in madrassas. As reported by the headteachers, the school management committees seemed to be active in all school but their effectiveness is a matter of further research.

Introduction

This chapter presents a few other internal efficiency indicators as received from the schools survey. These include promotion, dropout, repetition, cycle completion, attendance in class, teacher-student ratio, teachers qualification and training, and school management committee. All These information presented here in this chapter are computed especially by school type, area and gender.

Promotion, Dropout and Repetition

The household survey data provided a partial picture of dropout as mentioned in the previous chapter. A somewhat better picture may be obtained by estimating dropout rate from school records by analysing data on promotion, dropout and repetition. In the school survey we asked the school heads to provide information on students whose names appeared in Class registers at the beginning of 1999. It should be mentioned that the head teachers failed to provide information on about six percent of the students who were subsequently excluded from analysis.

Table 4.1 provides promotion, dropout and repetition rates of the students at national level by Class. On average, the promotion rate was 87 percent among those students whose names appeared in the school registers at the

beginning of 1999 and traced in 2000. The average dropout and repetition rates among these students were 4.9 percent and 8.1 percent respectively. Highest promotion rate was found in Class II (90.4%) and lowest in Class III (83.1%). Dropout and repetition rates were also higher in Class III (6.2% and 10.7%). Annexes 4.1 and 4.2 provide such analysis for girls and boys, and for rural and urban students separately. The average promotion rate was marginally higher for girls than boys (87.5% vs. 86.5%), and the urban

TABLE 4.1

Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by Class

Class	Percentage of students			Total	Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated		
I	87.9	3.7	8.4	100.0	42,564
II	90.4	3.4	6.2	100.0	38,589
III	83.1	6.2	10.7	100.0	37,488
IV	85.3	6.1	8.6	100.0	32,540
V	88.0	5.7	6.3	100.0	28,995
All	87.0	4.9	8.1	100.0	1,80,176

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

TABLE 4.2

Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by school type

Class	Percentage of students			Total	Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated		
Government	87.5	4.7	7.8	100.0	79,873
Private	85.3	5.2	9.5	100.0	54,247
Madrassa	82.3	7.8	9.9	100.0	38,767
Non-formal	96.3	3.3	0.4	100.0	7,289

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

students were also ahead of their rural counterparts in this regard (89% vs. 86.3%). Table 4.2 presents promotion, dropout and repetition rates for different types of schools. On average, the promotion rate was much higher in non-formal schools than any other school type. The highest dropout and repetition occurred in madrassas. Area-wise analysis shows that promotion rate was higher for rural students than urban students in non-formal schools, but it was reverse in other three types of schools (Annex 4.3). Highest repetition rate occurred in rural private schools and madrassas. For more analysis see Annexes 4.4 and 4.5.

Stratum-wise variation in promotion, dropout and repetition rates are shown in Annex 4.6. The promotion rate was highest in metropolitan cities (89.1%) and lowest in rural Sylhet division (78.7%). Although not much variation was observed in the dropout rates in different strata, repetition rate was much higher in rural Rajshahi and Sylhet divisions. Annex 4.7 provides more analysis by gender. For further analysis by school type, area and class see Annexes 4.8 to 4.13.

Retention and Cycle Completion

In order to find the retention rate of the students in different Classes and to find overall five-year cycle completion rate one ideally would follow a cohort of students for five years, from beginning to end of schooling. However, this was not possible in our situation. Instead, we created a hypothetical (or synthetic!) cohort of 1000 students entering Class I in 1999 and assumed that they experienced the above promotion, dropout and repetition rates for the next five years.¹ This allowed us to find refined estimates of cycle completion, overall dropout, repetition, and class-wise retention rates and other internal efficiency indicators. However, these results should be interpreted with caution as we did not take a real cohort and the rates of promotion, dropout and repetition may change over time.

¹ This is a UNESCO proposed methodology to find estimates on selected internal efficiency indicators. This method was used by the

TABLE 4.3

Retention rate by Class (1999 – 2000)

Class	All girls	All boys	Rural students	Urban students	All students
I	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
II	96.0	96.0	96.0	95.8	96.0
III	92.7	92.3	92.3	92.3	92.6
IV	86.7	85.3	85.4	86.8	86.3
V	81.0	78.5	79.1	82.6	80.6
Number of students	85,545	94,631	1,20,055	60,121	1,80,176

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

TABLE 4.4

Retention rate by Class and type of school (1999 – 2000)

Class	School type			
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal
I	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
II	96.2	95.4	91.7	98.4
III	92.8	91.7	84.0	95.9
IV	86.3	85.1	76.4	90.9
V	80.8	78.3	70.0	88.3
Number of students	79,873	54,247	38,767	7,289

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Note: The NGOs run non-formal schools of various duration. In this survey, however, only the schools which are run for a full 5-year cycle were included.

Table 4.3 presents retention rates in different Classes of primary schools separately for girls and boys, and for rural and urban students. At the national level, of the students who enrol in Class I, 96 percent survived up to Class II, 92.6 percent up to Class III, 86.3 percent up to Class IV and 80.6 percent up to Class V (Figure 4.1). Overall retention rate was higher for girls than boys (81% vs. 78.5%) and for urban students than rural students (82.6% vs. 79.1%). School type wise analysis shows that 88.3 percent of the non-formal school students retained up to Class V, which was 80.8 percent for government, 78.3 percent for private and 70 percent for madrassas (Table 4.4). A comparison of retention rates for rural and urban schools of different types is presented in Annex 4.14. Although there was no area-wise difference in non-formal schools, the urban schools were ahead of rural schools in other sub-systems.

Primary and Mass Education Division (PMED) of the government while preparing the national plan of action in 1995.

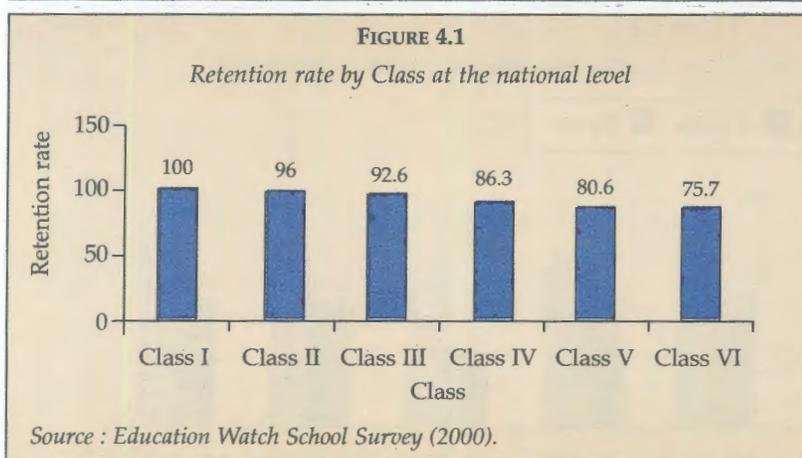


TABLE 4.5

Hypothetical cohort analysis of students registered in various classes using the UNESCO methodology, for different groups of students (1999 – 2000)

Class	All girls	All boys	Rural students	Urban students	All students
Completion rate	76.2	73.5	73.8	78.8	75.7
Drop-out rate	23.8	26.5	26.2	21.2	24.3
Repetition rate	38.3	41.4	42.3	32.7	39.9
Survival rate	81.0	78.5	79.1	82.6	80.6
Co-efficient of efficiency	77.0	74.6	74.8	80.4	76.3
Year input per graduate	6.5	6.7	6.7	6.2	6.6
Number of students	85,545	94,631	1,20,055	60,121	1,80,176

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

About three-quarters of the enrolled students completed the full cycle of primary education (Table 4.5). The girls were slightly ahead of the boys (76.2% vs. 73.5%) and the rural students lagged behind their urban counterparts (73.8% vs. 78.8%). The system as a whole is 76.3 percent efficient². The efficiency coefficient was 77 percent for girls and 74.6 percent for boys; 74.8 percent for rural and 80.4 percent for urban schools. School wise analysis shows that the completion rate was higher for non-formal schools (82.6%) followed by government (76.1%) and private (73%) schools and the madrassas (63.4%) (Table 4.6). In this respect, no area wise variation was observed in government schools, but urban private schools and the madrassas were ahead of their rural counterparts (Figure 4.2). On the other hand, the completion rate was slightly

2 Coefficient of efficiency is a ratio of expected pupil years to complete the cycle by the graduates and total pupil years actually spent to produce those graduates in percentage terms. The higher the figure the more efficient it is.

higher in rural non-formal schools than the urban ones. On average the children takes 6.6 years to complete the five-year cycle, 6.5 years for girls and 6.7 years for boys. Non-formal school students take lesser time to complete (5.7 years) than any other system and the madrassas take the longest (7.4 years). The government system was 77.1 percent efficient compared to non-formal's 87.2 percent and madrassas' 67.6 percent. Annex 4.15 gives more information on this.

TABLE 4.6

Hypothetical cohort analysis of students enrolled in various classes using the UNESCO methodology, for different types of schools (1999 – 2000)

Class	School Type			
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal
Completion rate	76.1	73.0	63.4	82.6
Drop-out rate	23.9	27.0	36.6	17.4
Repetition rate	37.5	45.6	46.8	17.0
Survival rate	80.8	78.3	70.0	88.3
Co-efficient of efficiency	77.1	73.6	67.6	87.2
Year input per graduate	6.5	6.8	7.4	5.7
Number of students	79,873	54,247	38,767	7,289

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

How many of our children complete the full cycle without repetition? Although overall completion rate is 75.7 percent but 49.8 percent or two thirds of them complete the

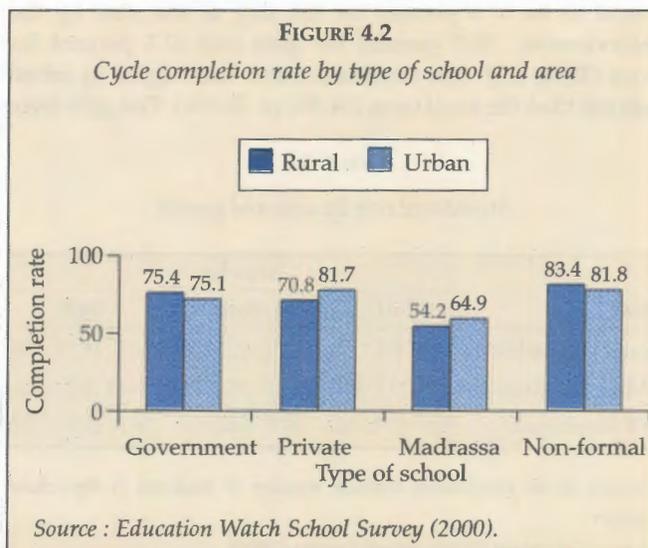
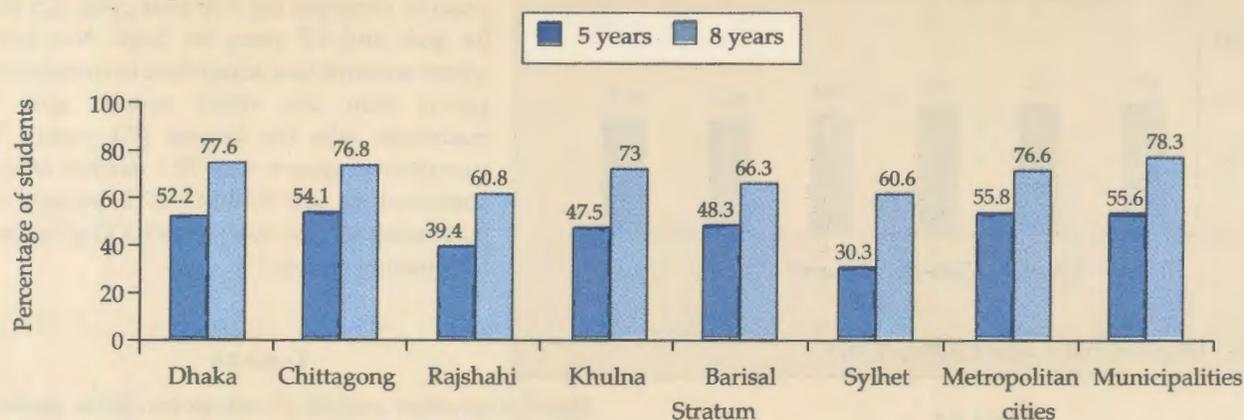


FIGURE 4.3
Percentage of Students completing the primary cycle by years taken to complete and stratum



Source : Education Watch School Survey (2000).

cycle without any break or repetition. This means that 25.9 percent of the students (which is a third of the total completers) complete the cycle taking more time than the officially determined five years. Percentage of students completing the five-year cycle of primary education by stratum and years taken to complete is provided in Annex 4.16. The completion rates (without or with repetition) are much lower in rural Rajshahi and Sylhet divisions and higher in urban areas (Figure 4.3). This figure shows the proportion of students who complete the full cycle in five years and in eight years. For example, in Dhaka, 52.2 percent of the students completed the cycle in five years and 77.6 percent took up to eight years to complete. Annexes 4.17 and 4.18 provide more analysis on completion rates in each stratum.

School Attendance

At the national level, the attendance rate in classes was found to be 57.8 percent on the day of the visit by the interviewers; 59.7 percent for girls and 57.1 percent for boys (Table 4.7). The attendance rate was higher in urban schools than the rural ones (64.3% vs. 56.5%). The girls were

TABLE 4.7

Attendance rate by area and gender

Area	Gender		
	Girls	Boys	Both
Rural Bangladesh	57.8 (58,120)	55.1 (65,838)	56.5 (1,23,958)
Urban Bangladesh	65.8 (19,931)	64.3 (22,239)	64.3 (42,170)
All Bangladesh	59.7 (78,051)	57.1 (88,077)	57.8 (1,66,128)

Figures in the parenthesis indicate number of students in the school register

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

a little ahead of the boys in both the areas. These estimates have some obvious limitations. In computing the rate, the denominator was the number of students at the beginning of the school year (January/February) and numerator was the number of students present at the time of school visit (October/November). The dropout between the two events were not considered. If we consider dropouts (based on Table 4.1), the attendance rate increases to 61 percent, 63 percent for girls and 60 percent for boys.

Annex 4.19 provides attendance rate in the schools by stratum; without adjusting for dropout. The attendance rate was highest in metropolitan cities (65.9%) and lowest in rural Dhaka division (54.4%). The girls attended school more frequently than the boys in all the areas. Class-wise analysis of attendance rate shows that it started from 60 percent in Class I and then remained constant at around 57 percent for next three Classes and then rose to 58.5 percent in Class V (Annex 4.20).

The attendance rate in the non-formal schools, in general, was much higher than any other school systems (87.5%). The lowest attendance rate was reported in madrassas (46.1%). This was 58.8 percent in government and 55.6 percent in private schools. The girls attended more than the boys in all types of schools (Annex 4.21). The urban students were ahead of their rural counterparts in all sub-systems except the non-formal schools, where the rural students attended more frequently (Annex 4.22). For more analysis of attendance rate see Annexes 4.23 to 4.26.

Table 4.8 compares the seating capacities in schools with the number of students actually enrolled. This also provides the mean number of students actually present in the classrooms. It should be mentioned that assessment of seating capacity was subjective, and carried out by the interviewers. Mean number of enrolled students per class was 50.6 and on average a classroom had a seating capacity for 33.2 students. This means that the schools could

accommodate only about 66 percent or two thirds of the enrolled students with ease. Urban classrooms were slightly more spacious than rural ones. It appears that the space availability in schools is just enough for attending students. However, it is speculated that non-availability of enough space in the classrooms discourages students from attending classes.

TABLE 4.8

Mean number of students enrolled, can seat with ease and attended school on the day of observation by area

Area	No. of classrooms surveyed	Mean number of students		
		Enrolled	Can seat with ease	Attended in classroom
Rural Bangladesh	2889	50.3	32.0	28.4
Urban Bangladesh	893	51.6	37.6	33.2
All Bangladesh	3782	50.6	33.2	29.2

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

School type wise analysis shows that government schools had the capacity to accommodate more students than other sub-systems (Table 4.9). For more analyses see Annex 4.27 to 4.29.

TABLE 4.9

Mean number of students enrolled, can seat with ease and attended school on the day of observation by school type

Area	No. of classrooms surveyed	Mean number of students		
		Enrolled	Can seat with ease	Attended in classroom
Government	1303	54.3	37.1	32.0
Private	1164	43.4	28.3	24.0
Madrassa	1071	38.0	29.5	17.5
Non-formal	244	29.2	31.0	25.6

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

The Teachers

Average number of teachers per school in different types of schools for different stratum is presented in Table 4.10. On average there are 4.5 teachers in a school at the national level, urban rural variation was much prominent with urban schools having 6.4 teachers per school and rural 3.8 teachers. The government and the private schools had mostly equal number of teachers (around 5) per school, but the madrassas had more (6.7). There may be room for confusion as the non-formal schools are mostly one teacher schools. It may be useful to analyse the data by number of teachers per class (or per section, as the case may be). Unfortunately we donot have detailed information on the

latter. On average 82.6 percent of all teachers were Muslims (Annex 4.30). As expected Muslim teachers were more available in madrassas (99.6%), than to government or non-formal schools (77.3% and 74.4% respectively).

Proportion of female teachers by type of school system and stratum is provided in Table 4.11. On average about 40 percent of the primary school teachers were female. There

TABLE 4.10

Mean number of teachers per school by stratum and type of school

Stratum	Type of school			
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal
Rural Dhaka Division	4.4 (30)	4.1 (30)	6.2 (30)	1.0 (30)
Rural Chittagong Division	4.4 (30)	4.0 (30)	6.2 (29)	1.0 (30)
Rural Rajshahi Division	4.1 (30)	4.0 (30)	6.8 (30)	1.0 (30)
Rural Khulna Division	3.8 (30)	4.1 (30)	5.0 (30)	1.1 (30)
Rural Barisal Division	4.4 (30)	4.3 (30)	5.2 (30)	1.0 (30)
Rural Sylhet Division	3.2 (30)	3.9 (30)	7.1 (30)	1.1 (29)
Metropolitan cities	9.6 (30)	11.1 (29)	8.9 (25)	1.3 (30)
Municipalities	6.3 (30)	5.9 (30)	7.7 (30)	1.0 (30)
Rural Bangladesh	4.0 (180)	4.0 (180)	6.3 (179)	1.0 (179)
Urban Bangladesh	7.9 (60)	8.5 (59)	8.2 (55)	1.2 (60)
All Bangladesh	5.0 (240)	5.1 (239)	6.7 (234)	1.1 (239)

The figures in the parenthesis indicate number of schools surveyed
Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

were twice as many female teachers in the urban schools as rural schools (58.1% vs. 28.8%). The proportion of female teaching staff found in this study seems to be higher than what is found in many government documents. Nearly 93 percent of the NGO school teachers were female, compared to 47.8 percent in government, 39.3 percent in private and 7.6 percent in madrassas. Stratum-wise analysis shows a wide variation in this regard. Less than a quarter of the teachers in Rajshahi and Barisal divisions were female but they were more than half in the two urban areas. Female teachers were least available in madrassas in all strata except metropolitan cities.

Mean level of education of the teachers by school type and stratum is provided in Annex 4.31. The teachers in government schools had on average 12.1 years of schooling; 12.2 years in private, 13.8 in madrassas and 10.5 in non-formal schools.

Teacher training varies from system to system. For instance, it is a ten month long course for the government and private school teachers, but much shorter for NGO school teachers (2/3 weeks foundation and monthly refreshers training). Annex 4.32 shows that over 92 percent teachers of the government and non-formal schools had

TABLE 4.11
Percentage of female teachers by stratum and type of school

Stratum	Type of school				Total
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal	
Rural Dhaka Division	38.9 (131)	31.1 (122)	5.4 (186)	93.3 (30)	32.5 (469)
Rural Chittagong Division	39.8 (133)	37.8 (119)	2.2 (181)	86.7 (30)	34.2 (463)
Rural Rajshahi Division	29.5 (122)	20.2 (119)	3.9 (204)	100.0 (30)	24.1 (475)
Rural Khulna Division	27.4 (113)	27.9 (122)	6.6 (151)	96.9 (32)	26.9 (418)
Rural Barisal Division	21.4 (131)	33.3 (129)	3.2 (186)	96.7 (30)	24.1 (476)
Rural Sylhet Division	39.6 (96)	36.2 (116)	0.5 (214)	84.8 (33)	31.2 (459)
Metropolitan cities	68.6 (287)	54.3 (322)	22.5 (222)	87.2 (39)	59.3 (870)
Municipalities	74.1 (189)	45.5 (178)	13.0 (231)	100.0 (39)	56.5 (628)
Rural Bangladesh	32.6 (726)	31.1 (727)	3.5 (1122)	93.0 (185)	28.8 (2760)
Urban Bangladesh	70.8 (476)	51.2 (500)	17.7 (453)	92.8 (69)	58.1 (1498)
All Bangladesh	47.8 (1202)	39.3 (1227)	7.6 (1575)	92.9 (254)	39.9 (4258)

The figures in the parenthesis indicate number of teachers under surveyed schools.

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

basic professional training. This was less than half in private schools and only 15.2 percent in madrassas. Urban school teachers in all sub-systems were ahead of their rural counterparts in receiving basic professional training.

Teachers in the government schools had more teaching experience than other types (Annex 4.33). On average they had 19.4 years of experience. Mean length of service of the private schools teachers was 12.1 years and 10.1 years for madrassa teachers. The non-formal schools had least experienced teachers. It may be mentioned that the history of non-formal primary schools in Bangladesh is only recent.

Information on absenteeism by teachers was also collected (Annex 4.34). Overall 12.1 percent teachers kept themselves absent on the day of school visit by the interviewers, the rate being slightly higher for females than males. Teachers on leave or absent without official permission constituted absenteeism. On average, 14.6 percent of the teachers of rural schools were absent on the day of school visit, but it was 7.8 percent for urban school teachers. Highest absenteeism was recorded in private schools (12.5%) and least in non-formal schools (only 2%).

Teacher-Student ratio

A favourable teacher-student ratio is important for any education system. Table 4.12 shows teacher-student ratio in various types of schools by area where the schools are established. The government primary schools had the highest ratio with 70 students per teacher and the madrassas lowest with 28 students per teacher. This ratio was 1:47 for private and 1:31 for non-formal schools. The ratio was higher for rural schools than urban schools in

most of the school systems. The madrassas and the non-formal schools in both the areas had a more favourable ratio and the government and the private schools were more crowded. More analysis by school type and strata is available in Annex 4.35.

Most of the formal primary schools (both government and private) are held in two shifts. The morning shift is for Classes I and II, and the day shift is for the Classes III to V. If we calculate the teacher-student ratio in these schools segregating the data by shifts a favourable ratio would be seen, forty or lesser number of students per teacher (Table 4.13).

TABLE 4.12
Teacher-student ratio by type of school and area

School type	Rural school		Urban school		All school	
	No. of schools	Teacher-student ratio	No. of schools	Teacher-student ratio	No. of schools	Teacher-student ratio
Government	180	1:72	60	1:68	240	1:70
Private	180	1:55	59	1:34	239	1:47
Madrassa	179	1:29	55	1:24	234	1:28
Non-formal	179	1:30	60	1:33	239	1:31

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

TABLE 4.13
Teacher-student ratio in formal schools by shifts

Area	Government school		Private school	
	Classes I - II	Classes III - IV	Classes I - II	Classes III - IV
Rural	1:33	1:39	1:28	1:27
Urban	1:30	1:38	1:15	1:20
All	1:32	1:39	1:23	1:24

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

School Management Committee

Almost all schools (98.7%) reached by the survey had a school management committee (SMC) (Table 4.14). School-

wise, over 95 percent government, private schools and the madrassas, and 88.7 percent of non-formal schools had such committees. The average size of the committee was 10.7. Size of SMC was mostly equal in government and private schools, with 11 persons. The non-formal schools had the smaller committee with about seven persons. Only 14.3 percent of SMC members were female; the non-formal schools recruited the highest proportion of female and the madrassas least.

TABLE 4.14

Selected information about school management committee

School type	No. of schools surveyed	% of schools having SMC	Average size of committee	% female in the committee
Government	240	97.4	11.1	13.7
Private	239	99.4	10.9	11.9
Madrassa	234	97.5	12.1	1.1
Non-formal	239	88.7	6.7	60.4
All schools	952	98.7	10.7	14.3

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Table 4.15 presents information about the meetings of school management committees. During the first nine months of 2000 AD, on average, 8.7 meetings were reported. Three fourths of the total members of the committees were present in the last meeting. However, we do not know the extent of participation of the members in the meeting or the veracity of the report by head teachers.

TABLE 4.15

Information on the meetings of school management committee

School type	No of schools surveyed	Average number of meetings held during Jan. -Sep. 2000	Attendance in last meeting		
			Mean	Female %	Male %
Government	240	8.9	8.1	71.0	74.2
Private	239	7.9	8.3	73.9	76.6
Madrassa	234	6.7	9.3	79.3	76.5
Non-formal	239	7.8	5.9	90.3	82.7
All schools	952	8.7	8.1	75.7	75.2

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

CHANGES IN INTERNAL EFFICIENCY 1998-2000

This chapter compares the results found on various parameters of internal efficiency between Education Watch 2001 and Education Watch 1999. It found no change in gross enrolment ratio. However, the net enrolment rate increased by nearly three percentage points indicating that the new enrollees came mostly from the primary school age group. It also found that the new enrollees were more boys than girls; this eliminated the significant edge that the girls were found to have in 1999. Strata-wise, rural Khulna gained most and their net enrolment rate has now exceeded 90 percent mark. Rural Sylhet actually experienced a deterioration in net rate. The results also showed that the new enrolments increased more in villages where the net rate was already high. For the poorly served villages, there was no change. Proportion of children completing the five-year cycle increased for the government schools and madrassas. There was no change, however, in attendance rate, seating capacity in classrooms, or proportion of teachers female.

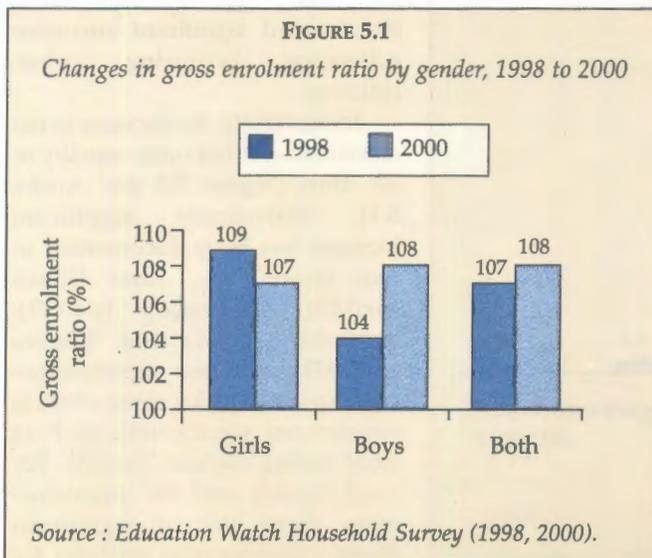
Introduction

The theme of Education Watch 2001 is internal efficiency of primary education in Bangladesh. Through this we revisited various dimensions and indicators of internal efficiency, and explored the changes that have (or haven't) happened since 1999 when the first Watch report was

published. It may be recalled that Education Watch 1999 and Education Watch 2001 covered identical aspects of internal efficiency of primary education in Bangladesh using similar indicators and methodology.

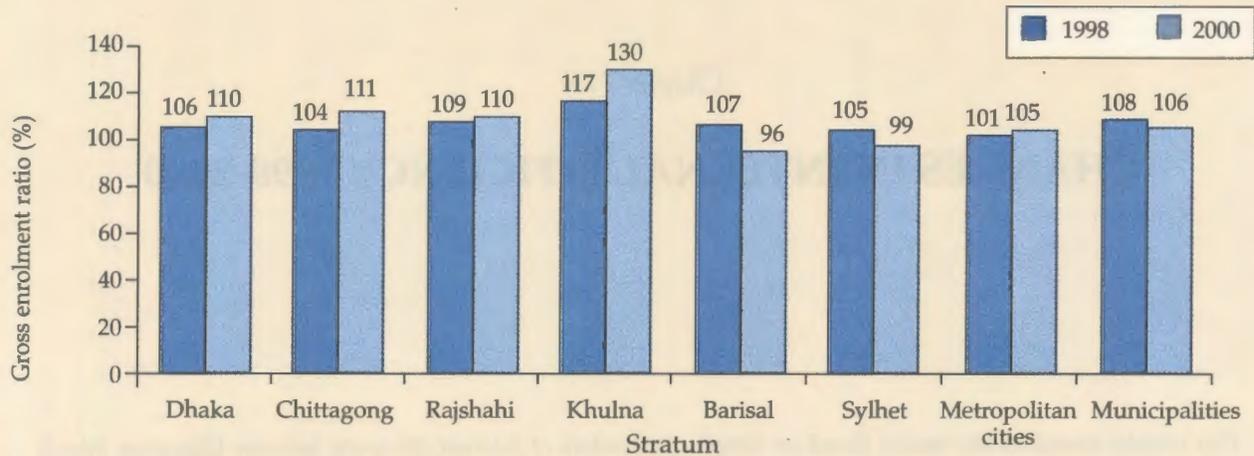
Changes in Gross Enrolment

Figure 5.1 presents changes in the gross enrolment ratio over the two-year period by gender. This was done comparing this year's data with those of Education Watch 1999¹. On average, the gross enrolment ratio increased marginally by one percentage point during this period. Gender-wise it increased by four percentage points for boys, but decreased by two percentage points for girls. No change was found in rural areas, but the ratio increased by one percentage point for urban children. Strata-wise, some progress is noticed in four rural and one urban areas which are rural Dhaka, Chittagong, Rajshahi and Khulna divisions and the metropolitan cities (Figure 5.2). Khulna division made the largest gain. Sylhet and Barisal lost some ground.



¹ It should be pointed out here that the data for Education Watch 1999 pertain to the year 1998 and that for Education Watch 2001 to 2000.

FIGURE 5.2
Changes in gross enrolment ratio by stratum, 1998 to 2000

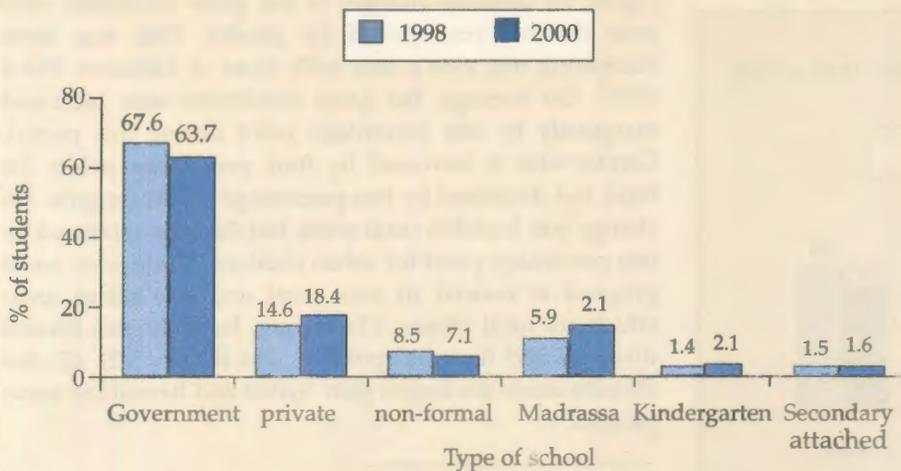


Source : Education Watch Household Survey (1998, 2000).

Changes in Share of Different School Type in Enrolment

The share of students for State-run primary schools decreased from 67.7 percent in 1998 to 61 percent in 2000. Decrease in the share of non-formal schools happened too, from 8.5 percent to 7.1 percent during the same period (Figure 5.3). On the other hand, student flow in the private schools increased from 14.9 percent in 1998 to 18.4 percent in 2000. Small increases in the shares of madrassas and English medium Kindergartens are also noticed. The share of secondary attached primary sections did not change, however.

FIGURE 5.3
Changes in proportion of students by school type, 1998 to 2000

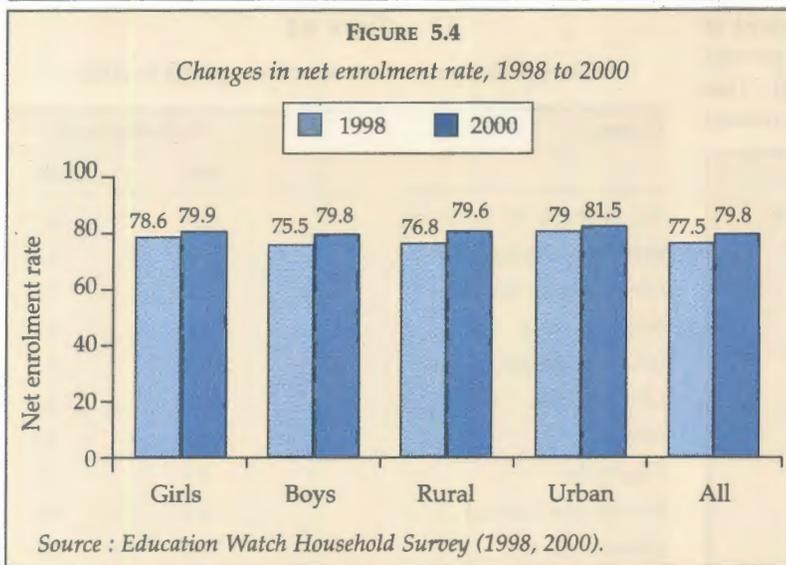


Source : Education Watch Household Survey (1998, 2000).

Changes in Net Enrolment

The net enrolment rate at the national level increased significantly by 2.7 percentage points over the two-year period from 77.1 percent in 1998 to 79.8 percent in 2000 ($p < 0.001$) (Figure 5.4). The rate of increase was higher for boys than girls, boys increased by 4.5 percentage points ($p < 0.001$) and girls 1.3 ($p < 0.05$). The increase in net rate was seen equally well in both rural and urban areas (at $p < 0.001$); however, the rate was slightly faster in rural than urban areas. One important message from the comparison of the two surveys is that the former found significant gender difference in net enrolment in favour of girls, especially in rural girls, but such difference disappeared in 2000 because of increased enrolment of boys. On the other hand, both the surveys documented significant area-wise difference favouring urban children.

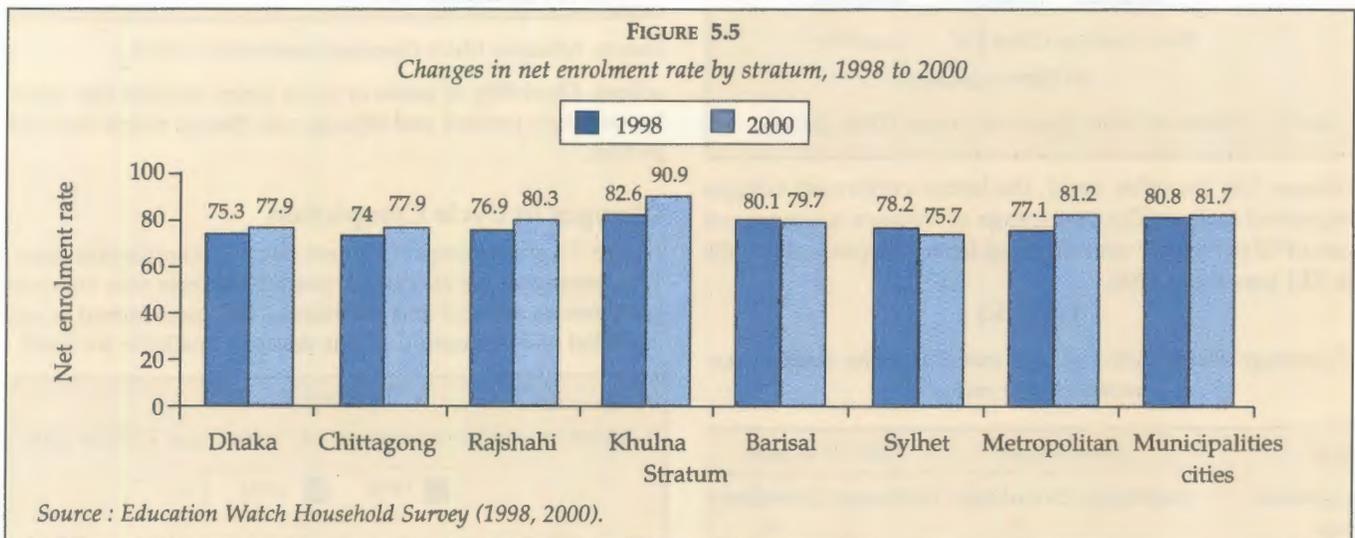
Interestingly, the increase in net enrolment did not occur equally in all strata (Figure 5.5 and Annex 5.1). Statistically significant increase has been documented in five strata, viz., rural Dhaka ($p < 0.05$), Chittagong ($p < 0.01$), Rajshahi ($p < 0.01$) and Khulna ($p < 0.001$), and the metropolitan cities ($p < 0.001$). For some strata it deteriorated significantly, such as rural Sylhet division ($p < 0.05$). For rural Barisal and the municipalities, there was no significant change. Gender-wise analysis for



participation of the disadvantaged groups remained lower than that of the affluent groups. In 1998, the girls in poorer households (and 'illiterate households') were ahead of boys in terms of net enrolment but this difference disappeared in 2000, with the boys gaining and girls slowing down. The net enrolment rates for different economic groups (proxied by 'self-rated food security status') and social groups (proxied by 'mothers education') are given in Figures 5.6 and 5.7 respectively for the two years.

Changes in Net Enrolment at Village Level

In Chapter 3 we presented the net enrolment at the village or mahalla level. Here we examine if any change has occurred in the distributions

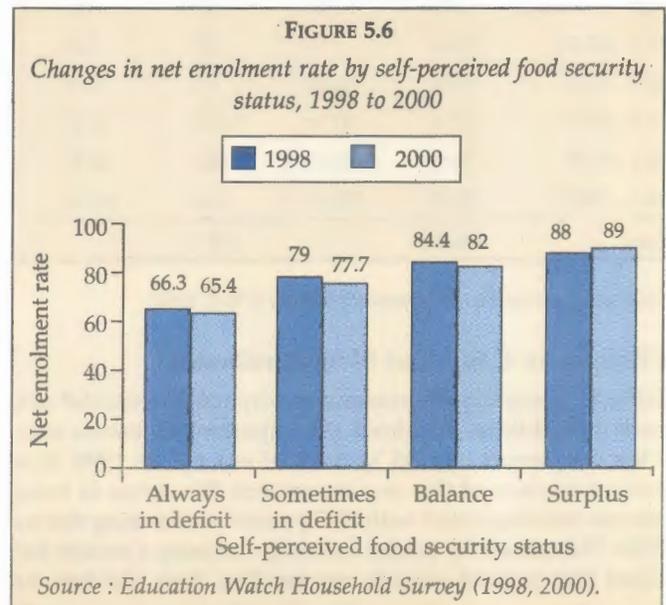


the strata shows that the net enrolment rate increased for boys in five strata, viz., rural Dhaka, Chittagong, Rajshahi and Khulna, and the metropolitan cities (Annex 5.2) and for girls in two areas, viz., rural Rajshahi and the metropolitan cities. Sadly, the net enrolment rate deteriorated significantly for girls in rural Khulna and Sylhet divisions.

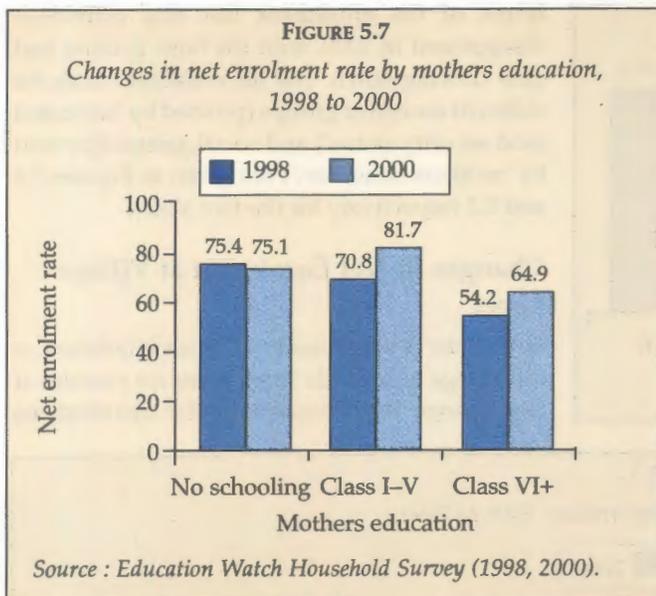
Rural Khulna division presents itself as an interesting case as it made tremendous progress in both gross and net enrolment measures during the last two years. Although the gross ratio increased for both girls and boys, girls' performance deteriorated in net rate. This implies that more boys than girls from both inside and outside the official age range enrolled in primary schools in Khulna division during the period.

Changes in Socio-Economic Composition of Enrolment

No change in the socio-economic composition of net enrolment happened during the previous two years. The



between 1998 and 2000 (Table 5.1). About eight percent of the villages/mahallahs had net enrolment rate of 60 percent or less in 1998 which remained the same in 2001. This means that no change has happened in poorly covered



villages. On the other hand, the better performed villages improved further. The percentage of villages having a net rate of 90 percent or over doubled from 16.2 percent in 1998 to 32.1 percent in 2000.

TABLE 5.1

Percentage distribution of village/ mahallah under study by net enrolment rate and year

Net enrolment rate	1998 (n = 240)		2000 (n = 240)	
	Percentage	Cumulative %	Percentage	Cumulative %
≤50	3.8	3.8	4.5	4.5
50.1 – 60.0	4.1	7.9	3.3	7.8
60.1 – 70.0	12.9	20.8	7.5	15.3
70.1 – 80.0	27.1	47.9	15.8	31.1
80.1 – 90.0	36.3	84.2	36.7	67.8
90.1 – 100.0	15.8	100.0	32.2	100.0
Total	100.0		100.0	

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (1998, 2000)

Changes in Causes of Non-Enrolment

Table 5.2 compares the reasons of why the parents did not send their children to school. An important difference is in what the parents termed 'scarcity of money'. In 1998, 31.6 percent mentioned this as a reason but this seems to have become less important with 21.5 percent mentioning this in 2000. The refusal by school authority remains a reason for about five percent parents not sending their children to

TABLE 5.2

Changes in causes of non-enrolment, 1998 to 2000

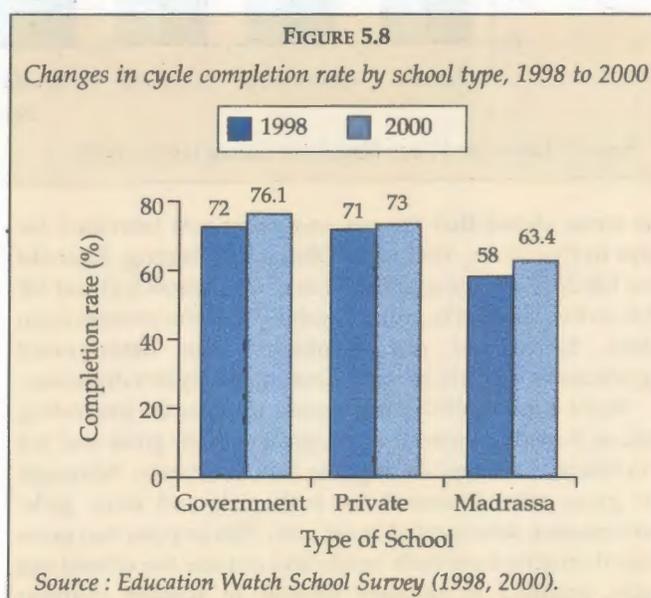
Causes	% of responses	
	1998	2000
Too young to go to school	36.9	40.8
Scarcity of money	31.6	21.5
Child doesn't like school	12.0	9.8
School is away	3.6	9.1
School authority refused	5.2	4.7
Child labour	3.7	4.0
Insecurity	1.5	3.7
Disability	2.4	2.1
No use of education	0.9	0.7
Others	2.1	3.6
Number of Non-enrolled students	6,177	3,553

Sources: Education Watch Household Survey (1998; 2000)

school. Disability of some or other form remains the cause for over two percent and this did not change much over the period.

Changes in Cycle Completion

Figure 5.8 shows improvements in cycle completion rates. This happened for all three types but the rate was faster in government schools and madrassas. The non-formal is not included as information of this was not available for 1998.

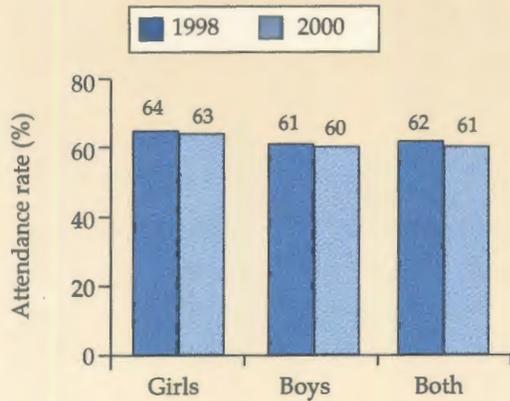


Changes in Attendance Rate

Figures 5.9 and 5.10 show the change in attendance over the period. As seen the change is insignificant. However, in terms of school type the non-formal schools documented some improvements.

FIGURE 5.9

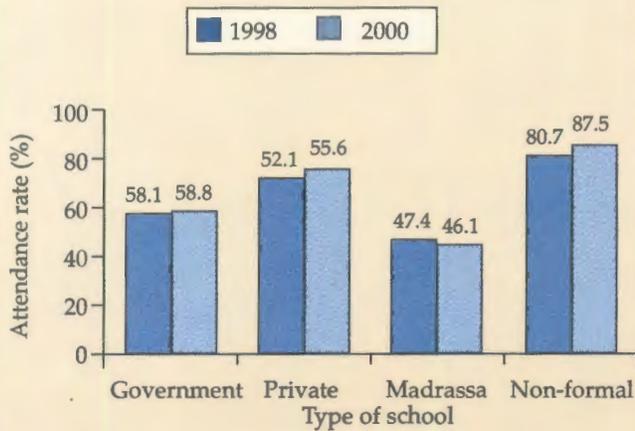
Changes in attendance rate by gender 1998 to 2000



Source : Education Watch School Survey (1998, 2000).

FIGURE 5.10

Changes in attendance rate by school type, 1998 to 2000



Source : Education Watch School Survey (1998, 2000).

Changes in Seating Capacity at School

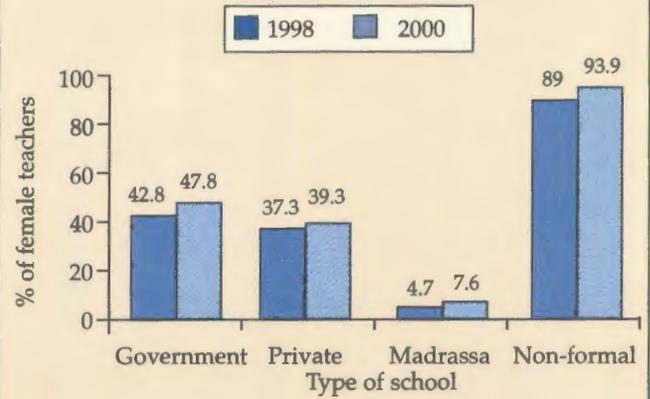
Comparing the data between 1998 and 2000 it has been seen that seating capacity in schools did not change at all over the last two years for any type of schools.

Changes in Proportion of Women as Teachers

Figure 5.11 presents a comparison of the proportion of teachers who are women in 1998 and 2000. It shows that women's share in teaching profession marginally increased in all four sub-systems.

FIGURE 5.11

Changes in women's share in teaching by school type, 1998 to 2000



Source : Education Watch School Survey (1998, 2000).

Chapter Six

PRIVATE EXPENDITURE FOR SCHOOLING

This chapter documents the various expenditures that parents incur for the education of their children at primary level. Although primary education in Bangladesh is theoretically free, 90% parents reported incurring expenditures of some sort. The heads of expenditure ranged from tuition and examination fees to subscriptions for various school functions to private tutoring. Most frequently mentioned head of expenditure was 'stationery' (91%). The expenditure distribution changed with students' grade. On average the parents spent Tk. 736 over a nine-month period (beginning of school year to the time of survey). This varied widely between urban (Tk. 2,181) to rural areas (Tk. 524) and between grades (Tk. 509 in Class I to Tk. 1,100 in Class V). However, there was no difference between girls and boys. There was wide variation between school type with the secondary-attached schools spending the highest (Tk. 5,711) and non-formal the lowest (Tk. 290). Over a third of the money was spent in stationeries and a quarter in private tutors. As expected, the well-to-do spent much more than the poorer groups.

Introduction

This chapter presents findings on private expenditure for primary schooling in different types of schools in Bangladesh. As already mentioned, such information was collected as part of the household survey, described earlier. The survey asked parents/guardians about private expenditure for education of their wards. Every fifth household under the household survey was sampled for the purpose. A list of eleven expenditure heads was presented to the parents/guardians and were asked to recall how much they paid for each of these items for each school-going child in the household. The expenditure heads included in the list were; admission/readmission, monthly tuition fee, buying/collecting textbooks, buying/collecting supplementary books, stationery, school dress, examination fee, various subscriptions (e.g., subscriptions for religious festivals, social functions, amusements etc.), transport for schooling, private tutor, and transport for private tutoring. Any expenditure apart from the above was recorded under 'others' category. The later also included donation to school funds. It should be mentioned that the expenditure data for

a full academic year could not be collected as the survey was done during October-November, before the end of the academic year. The respondents were asked to provide information for the first nine months of the year 2000.

Heads of Expenditure

Table 6.1 shows that over 90 percent of the students of primary classes spent money for buying stationeries such as copybook, paper, pencil, eraser etc. and three quarters paid examination fees. Although textbooks at primary level is provided free of costs, slightly over a third of the students had to pay certain amount for this and 37 percent had to spend money for buying/collecting supplementary books. Over a third of the students paid money in the name of various subscriptions such as religious festivals, social functions or amusements, 30.8 percent paid admission/readmission fees and over a fifth paid for private tutoring. A small proportion of the students had to pay monthly fees (7.8%), or spend money for school dress (15.5%) and transportation (5%). About 60 percent of the students had to pay money for heads other than the above.

TABLE 6.1

Percentage of students of primary classes (I to V) spending money for schooling by expenditure heads and residence

Expenditure heads	Residence			Significance
	Rural	Urban	All	
Admission/ readmission	27.5	53.4	30.8	p<0.001
Monthly tuition fees	5.2	25.3	7.8	p<0.001
Buying/ collecting textbooks	33.0	34.4	33.2	ns
Buying/ collecting supplementary books	36.9	38.4	37.1	ns
Stationery	90.9	93.4	91.2	p<0.01
School dress	12.4	37.1	15.5	p<0.001
Various fees	33.1	34.5	33.3	ns
Examination fees	75.7	75.4	75.7	ns
Transport for schooling	3.1	12.0	4.3	p<0.001
Honorarium for private tutor	18.0	41.5	21.0	p<0.001
Transport for private tutoring	0.9	1.5	1.0	ns
Others	58.7	64.4	59.4	p<0.001
Number of students	5,190	1,364	6,554	

Note: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

Urban-rural difference was common for most of the expenditure heads with urban schools spending more for admission/ readmission, monthly tuition, school dress,

TABLE 6.2

Percentage of students of primary classes (I to V) had to spend money for schooling by expenditure heads and Class

Expenditure heads	Class					Significance
	I	II	III	IV	V	
Admission/ readmission	37.6	29.8	29.4	25.8	24.0	p<0.001
Monthly tuition fees	7.1	7.8	9.7	8.5	6.2	p<0.05
Buying/ collecting textbooks	36.8	32.0	31.5	33.2	29.2	p<0.001
Buying/ collecting supplementary books	14.6	24.0	46.1	60.3	71.5	p<0.001
Stationery	88.6	92.4	90.3	93.4	94.2	p<0.001
School dress	12.4	13.8	18.4	18.3	18.7	p<0.001
Various fees	26.5	33.2	35.0	35.8	43.6	p<0.001
Examination fees	55.2	75.4	88.3	89.6	91.6	p<0.001
Transport for schooling	3.6	3.8	4.3	4.9	5.8	ns
Honorarium for private tutor	12.2	16.6	24.7	29.1	34.5	p<0.001
Transport for private tutoring	0.5	0.5	0.5	2.4	1.8	p<0.001
Others	59.9	58.4	60.3	58.3	61.0	ns
Number of students	2,072.0	1,348.0	1,242.0	960.0	932.0	

Note: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

private tutoring and transportation compared to their rural peers. No area-wise difference was observed for the other heads of expenditures. Proportionately more boys spent money for buying/collecting textbooks and private tutoring. However, it was the girls who had to pay for buying stationery more in number than the boys (Annex 6.1). Statistically significant school-wise variation was observed in this regard; larger number of students of madrassas had to pay money for all the expenditure heads except private tutoring (Annex 6.2). Larger number of students of government schools had to pay for private tutoring than others. During first nine months of the year, 23.1 percent of government, 25.8 percent of private, 15.5 percent of madrassa and 9.2 percent of non-formal school students spent money for private tutor.

Similar analysis for the students of each Class is presented in Table 6.2. In each Class almost all students had to pay for buying stationery. A large proportion also had to pay examination fees. Proportion of students paying for admission/readmission or for buying/collecting textbooks reduced as the students went up the Classes. Such rate for paying money against examination and various other fees and private tutor increased over the Classes. For instance, only 12.2 percent of the students of Class I spent money for private tutor, which increased to 34.5 percent for those in Class V. Urban-rural difference in this regard is provided in Annex 6.3.

Average Expenditure Per Student

At the national level, on average, private expenditure per student in primary classes was Tk. 736 for first nine months of the year 2000 AD, or nearly Tk. 82 per month¹ (Table 6.3).

Average private expenditure for first nine months of the year was significantly higher for urban students than rural ones (p<0.001); the expenditure for urban students was fourfold higher than that of the rural students. Average private expenditure for first nine months of the year was Tk. 509 for the students of Class I which gradually increased in each Class and was more than double for those in Class V (Figure 6.1). Wide urban-rural variation was found among the students of each Class (Table 6.3). On average, Tk. 787 had to be spent for a rural student of Class V, but it was Tk 3,150 for a student of the same class in urban schools. Average expenditure for girls was Tk. 705 and for boys Tk. 765. Expenditure for boys was higher than that of girls irrespective of Class they enrolled; however, the difference was statistically significant only for those of Class III (Table 6.4). Figure 6.2 presents average expenditure for girls and boys by area.

¹ 1 US \$ = Tk. 53.65

TABLE 6.3

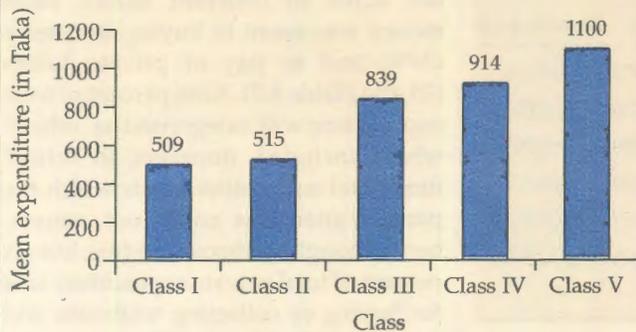
Mean private expenditure for primary schooling for nine months (in Taka) by Class and residence

Class	Residence			Significance
	Rural	Urban	All	
I	332 (1,663)	1797 (409)	509 (2,072)	p<0.001
II	453 (1,098)	1927 (250)	615 (1,348)	p<0.001
III	615 (952)	2126 (290)	839 (1,242)	p<0.001
IV	681 (750)	2353 (210)	914 (960)	p<0.001
V	787 (727)	3150 (205)	1100 (932)	p<0.001
All	524 (5,190)	2181 (1,364)	736 (6,554)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of students in the sample
Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

FIGURE 6.1

Mean private expenditure for primary schooling for nine months by Class



Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

TABLE 6.4

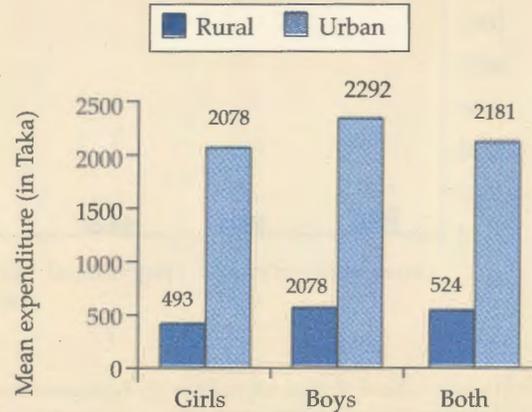
Mean private expenditure for primary schooling for nine months (in Taka) by class and gender

Class	Girls	Boys	All	Significance
I	483 (981)	531 (1,091)	509 (2,072)	ns
II	652 (681)	579 (667)	615 (1,348)	ns
III	730 (640)	961 (602)	839 (1,242)	p<0.05
IV	847 (475)	978 (485)	914 (960)	ns
V	1046 (488)	1159 (444)	1100 (932)	ns
All	705 (3,265)	765 (3,289)	736 (6,554)	ns
Significance	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of students in the sample
Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

FIGURE 6.2

Mean private expenditure for schooling for nine months by residence and gender



Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

A wide variation in mean private expenditure for schooling by school type was observed and is presented in

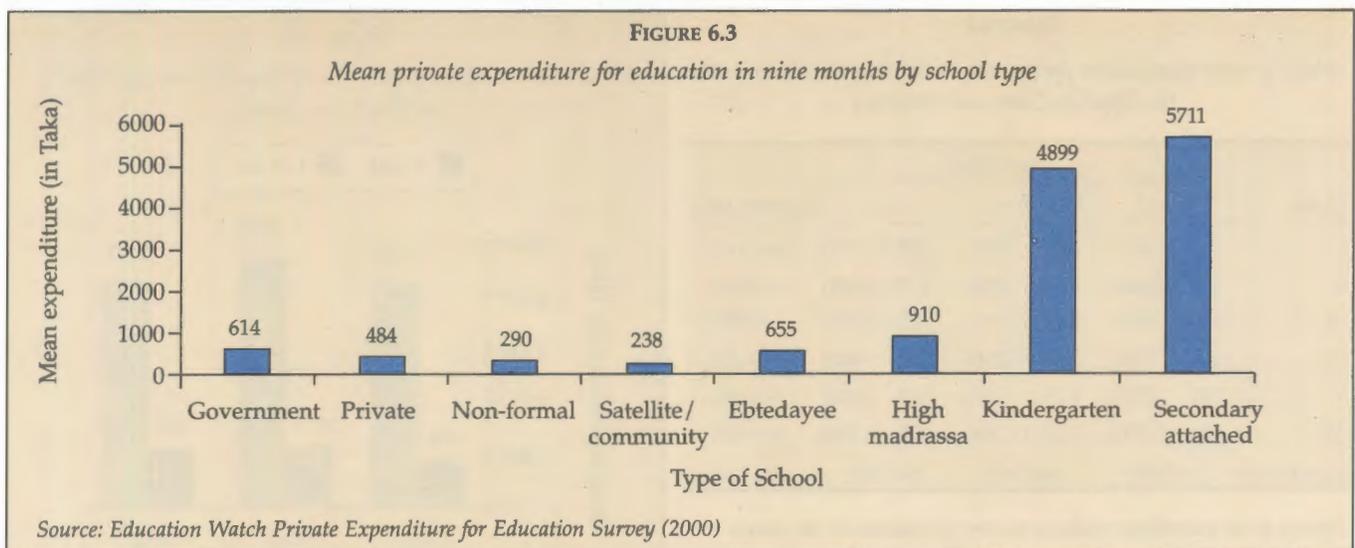
TABLE 6.5

Mean private expenditure for primary schooling for nine months (in Taka) by school type and gender

School type	Girls	Boys	All	Significance
Government	596 (2,037)	631 (2,010)	614 (4,047)	ns
Private	471 (533)	496 (578)	484 (1,111)	ns
Non-formal	299 (268)	278 (211)	290 (479)	ns
Satellite/ Community	336 (71)	320 (69)	328 (140)	ns
Ebteyayee	592 (81)	714 (95)	655 (176)	ns
Kamil/Fazil/ Alim/Dakhil	776 (97)	992 (159)	910 (256)	ns
Kindergarten	4680 (83)	5109 (89)	4899 (172)	ns
Secondary attached	4834 (86)	6990 (65)	5711 (151)	ns
All	705 (3,256)	765 (3,276)	736 (6,532)	ns
Significance	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of students in the sample
Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

Table 6.5. It was much higher for the students of English medium Kindertartens (Tk. 4,899) and secondary attached primary schools (Tk. 5,711), and lower for the students of non-formal (Tk. 290) and community/satellite schools (Tk. 328). Private expenditure for schooling was higher among the students of government schools than private schools. No statistically significant variation was found between boys and girls in any of the school type in terms of average

**TABLE 6.6**

Mean private expenditure of primary schooling for nine months (in Taka) by class and school type

Class	Type of school				Significance
	Government	Private	Non-formal	Madrassa	
I	359 (1,237)	297 (405)	220 (103)	475 (151)	p<0.001
II	461 (813)	415 (253)	337 (99)	685 (78)	p<0.001
III	733 (769)	580 (189)	240 (111)	915 (85)	p<0.001
IV	829 (617)	754 (147)	333 (80)	1097 (55)	p<0.001
V	997 (611)	807 (117)	322 (86)	1362 (63)	p<0.001
All	614 (1,047)	484 (1,111)	290 (479)	823 (432)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001	p<0.001	ns	p<0.001	

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of students in the sample

Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

expenditure for schooling. Figure 6.3 presents mean expenditure for schooling by type of school. Expenditure for the urban students was higher than that of the rural students in most types of schools (Annex 6.4).

Average expenditure for the students of Class I of the government schools was Tk. 359 which increased to Tk. 997 for the students of Class V of the same type of school (Table 6.6). Similar increase was seen in case of private schools and madrassas. However, in case of non-formal schools not much increase was observed, Tk. 220 was spent for the students of Class I and Tk. 322 for the students of Class V. The difference in expenditure between school type can be understood well if we look at this table considering the Class and school type together. For instance, average expenditure for the students of Class V of non-formal schools was less than that of the students of Class I in government schools and madrassas. Expenditure for the students of

non-formal schools was the least in each Class.

Distribution of the Expenditure

Private expenditure for education was not equal in different heads. Most money was spent in buying stationery (36%) and to pay of private tutors (25.4%) (Table 6.7). Nine percent of total expenditure was categorised as 'others' which included donation in school funds and some other heads which the parents/guardians could not remember. Although textbooks are free, but six percent of total private expenditure was for buying or collecting textbooks and supplementary books. There was not much difference between the gender groups.

TABLE 6.7

Percentage of total private expenditure shared by various items by gender

Items	Girls	Boys	Both
Admission/ readmission, monthly tuition fees	9.6	9.1	9.4
Buying/ collecting textbooks/ supplementary books	6.2	6.1	6.1
Stationery	37.0	35.0	36.0
School dress	5.2	4.9	5.0
Examination and other fees	4.2	4.1	4.1
Transport cost	5.1	4.8	4.9
Private tutor	23.7	26.9	25.4
Others	9.0	9.1	9.1
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00

Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

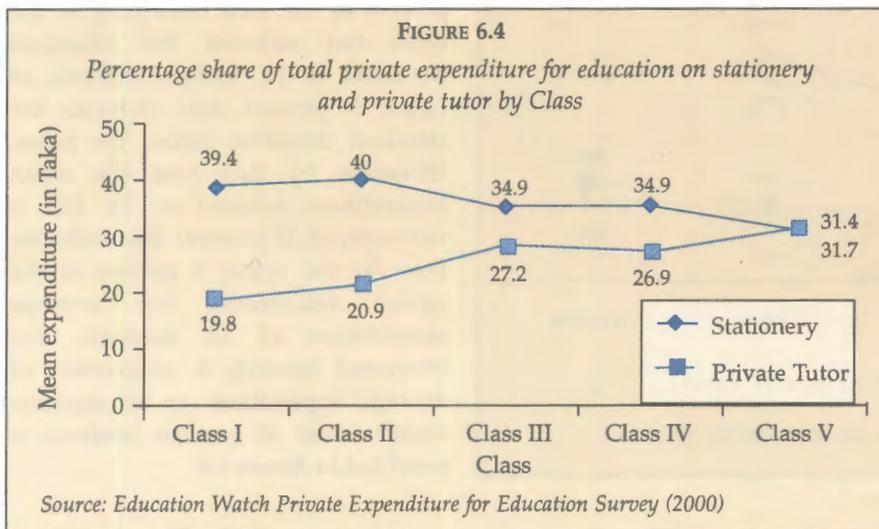
The above analysis is provided separately for the students of each Class in Table 6.8. This shows that proportionate expenditure for private tutor increased over the Classes; 19.8 percent in Class I to 31.7 percent in Class V. Conversely, expenditure for admission, readmission and monthly tuition fees, and costs for stationery decreased proportionately over the Classes. Whatever the Class is, about 60 percent of the total expenditure was for buying stationery and honorarium for private tutor. However, Figure 6.4 shows how frequently the gap between these two heads is decreasing over the classes.

TABLE 6.8

Percentage of total private expenditure shared by various items by Class

Items	Classes				
	I	II	III	IV	V
Admission/ readmission, monthly tuition fees	14.6	12.1	8.7	6.4	4.8
Buying/ collecting textbooks/ supplementary books	5.1	4.8	5.3	7.2	8.0
Stationery	39.4	40.0	34.9	34.9	31.4
School dress	5.2	5.1	5.4	4.8	4.5
Examination and other fees	3.4	3.7	4.4	4.8	4.5
Transport cost	5.0	4.8	4.1	5.5	5.4
Private tutor	19.8	20.9	27.2	26.9	31.7
Others	7.5	8.6	10.0	9.5	9.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

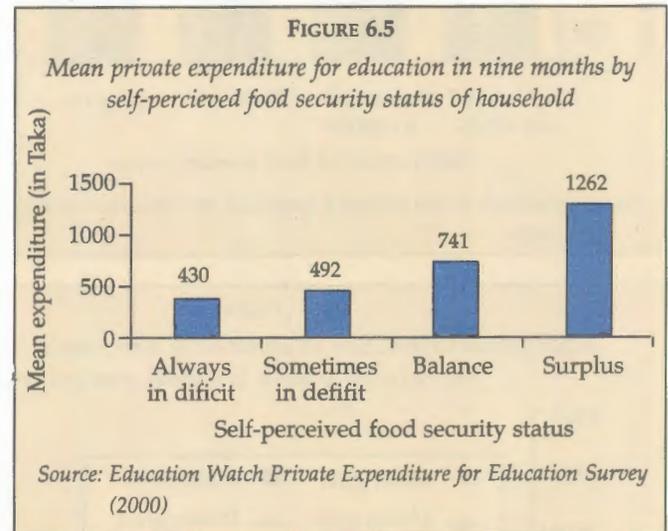


Annex 6.5 provides proportionate distribution of expenditure by students of different types of schools. Largest share of the expenditure went for buying stationery for the students of most of the school types except English medium Kindergartens and Secondary attached schools.

Largest share of private expenditure went for admission and monthly tuition fees for the students of Kindergartens. It was for private tutor which consumed the largest share of expenditures in case of the students of secondary attached schools.

Socio-economic Status and Expenditure on Education

Private expenditure for education by self-perceived food security status of households (as a proxy for economic status) is provided in Figure 6.5. As expected, average expenditure per student increased with the increase in the

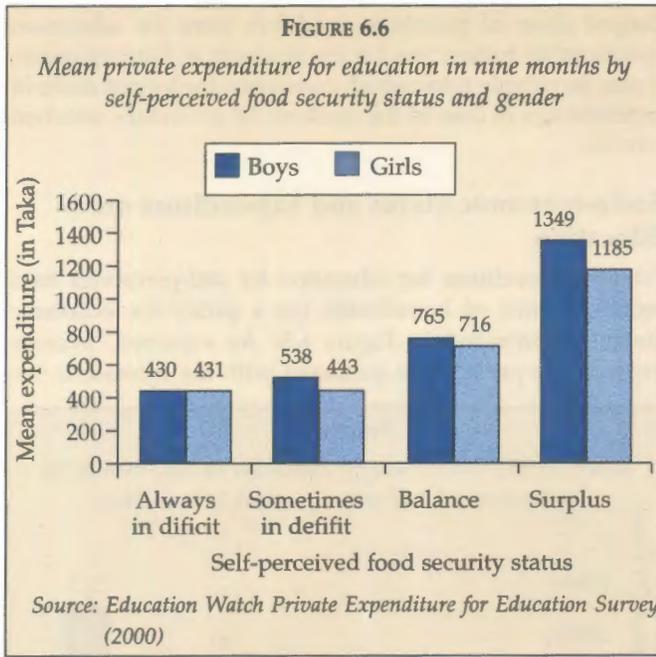


economic status; less than Tk. 500 for the students of 'deficit' households to over Tk. 1200 for 'surplus' households. Gender difference in educational expenditure,

disfavouring girls, was observed in each of the four categories of food security status (Figure 6.6). Such disfavour occurred especially among those living in 'surplus' group. It can be seen that almost equal amount of money was spent for girls and boys in the households 'always in deficit'. On the other hand, in the 'surplus' households, on average, the boys spent Tk. 164 more than the girls.

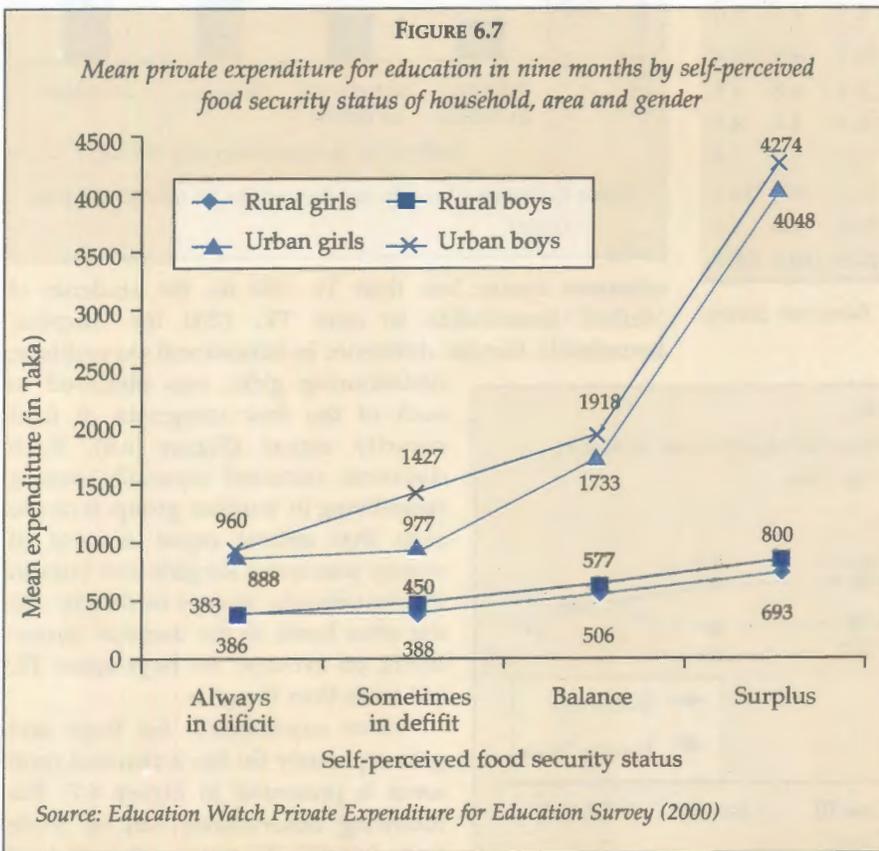
Mean expenditure for boys and girls separately for the urban and rural areas is presented in Figure 6.7. The following observations can be made from this. Firstly, irrespective of food security status of households, educational expenditure for the students of

rural schools was much lower than that of the urban students. Secondly, families spent less for girls than boys in both the areas. Finally, gender difference was wider among urban students than rural students.



Primary education is theoretically free in Bangladesh. But findings of this chapter show how misleading the statement is. Data available on budgetary allocation shows that annual public expenditure for primary schooling is Tk 776 per student in the fiscal year 2000-2001 (Ahmad and Alamgir 2001). We have just seen that the parents pay as much as it is allocated by the State in the annual budget. In other words, about half of the total expenditure for primary schooling is financed by the families themselves. But many parents pay more than the average according to their economic capacity.

Finally, a few words about the data used in this Chapter. Although 'expenditure for schooling' is a continuous variable by nature, it did not follow a normal distribution here. This is expected as income distribution of any population is not normal. Moreover, plurality in education sector is promoted in the country and children do enrol in various types of schools. The schools demand private financing for education and the guardians pay according to their capacity. Annex 6.6 shows that 12.4 percent of the



students spent Tk. 100 or less and 1.8 percent spent over Tk. 5,000. These figures indicate a wide dispersion in educational expenses. The standard deviation of total expenditure was found to be Tk. 1,578, which is more than double the mean. An attempt was made to see how the standard deviation decreases with the elimination of data from right tail of the expenditure curve. It can be seen in Annex 6.7 that cutting of only 0.5 percent of the data belonging in the right tail reduced the standard deviation to Tk. 1,035. Reduction of upper 5 percent data reduced the standard deviation below the mean. However, by this time the mean expenditure reduced to Tk 482, a reduction of 35 percent! This indicates how far the upper 5 percent of the values influenced the average expenditure of all students. For interested readers, a comparison of average expenditure of all students versus lower 95 percent students is provided in Annex 6.8.

Chapter Seven

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF SCHOOLS

This chapter presents the income and expenditures of schools as collected through the survey of 952 schools. The schools had a diverse source of income which included government grants, donor funds, tuition and other fees from students, and productive use of school assets. There was variation between the type of schools. The government schools did not charge any tuition but over 90% of non-formal schools charged some tuition. The madrassas seemed to be well endowed with assets as 61% of the madrassas earned some income by selling products (such as agricultural produces in school land). The total income of madrassas outpaced the income of any other type of school.

Introduction

This chapter explores income and expenditure of schools for a period of nine months, viz., January to September 2000. Besides, value of fixed assets belonging to the schools was also estimated. Data were collected during school survey, thus in most cases the headteachers and/or his/her colleagues provided the information. In case of non-formal schools, the programme organiser (POs) of concerned NGO was the source of information.

Income of Schools

Income of the schools under six major heads was collected. These were: monthly tuition fees, other fees, grant from the government, donation from private sources, renting out of school assets and selling of products (mostly agricultural). Income from the sources other than the above were lumped together under 'others'. A good number of the school heads reported that they received money in addition to the above six heads. Seventeen percent government, 23.9 percent private, 33.4 percent madrassas and 2.7 percent non-formal schools had income from 'other' sources (Table 7.1). All government primary schools under the survey received grants from the government; 97.7 percent of the schools had income from students ('other fees'), a third received donation from private sources and parents and a few had income from 'other' sources. As expected, none of the government schools collected monthly tuition fees from the students.

TABLE 7.1

Percentage of schools having income during January to September 2000 by school type and income source

School type	Monthly fees	Other fees	Govt. grant	Non-govt. donation	Rent out something	Selling products	Other sources
Government	0.0	97.7	100.0	33.4	1.1	8.9	16.9
Private	8.7	97.9	93.1	49.3	3.8	8.4	23.9
Madrassa	36.7	96.9	78.9	81.6	10.5	61.1	33.4
Non-formal	92.0	94.4	0.2	99.4	0.0	0.0	2.7

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Ninety three percent of the private primary schools received government grant and a half received donation from private sources. Over eight percent of these schools collected monthly tuition fees and 97.9 percent charged 'other fees'. Some private schools also earned by renting out school assets and selling products. Over a third or 36.7 percent of the madrassas collected monthly tuition fees from the students and 96.9 percent received 'other fees'. Nearly four in five of the madrassas received government grants and 81.6 percent received private donations. Over 60 percent of the madrassas had earning by selling products such as paddy or fruits grown in school premises. Almost all the NGO operated non-formal schools received donation from private sources and a very negligible portion received government grant. For big NGOs like BRAC, Proshika or others, private sources meant the donors

especially the international donors, and for few small NGOs the source was the national NGOs. Ninety two percent schools of this type collected monthly tuition fees from the students and 94.4 percent charged money against educational materials.

The above analysis done separately for rural and urban schools showed a significant difference in terms of charging monthly tuition fees by the schools (Annex 7.1). In case of madrassas and the private schools monthly tuition fees were charged mostly in urban areas. Over 55 percent of private and two thirds of madrassas in urban areas charged monthly tuition fees to their students. Seventy eight percent of urban and 93.5 percent of rural non-formal schools charged monthly tuition fees to their students.

The average income of the schools accounted from the above sources was estimated (Table 7.2). Comparison of schools according to average income per schools may be misleading because the non-formal schools are one-teacher schools and schools attached to secondary schools have many teachers. The former contains only 30-33 students but the later may have as many as 10-15 times of this. The readers should interpret these results with caution. During January-September 2000 average income of government schools was Tk. 250,000; this was 170,000 for private schools, Tk. 410,000 for madrassas and only Tk. 13,000 for non-formal schools. Except for non-formal, a wide urban-rural variation was observed in the mean income of schools (Table 7.2). On average, the urban government primary schools earned double that of schools in rural areas. Area-wise gap in income was much wider in case of private schools. Whereas the private schools in rural areas earned only Tk. 80,000, it was Tk. 720,000 for urban areas. On average, the rural madrassas earned Tk. 350,000 and the urban madrassas earned Tk. 700,000.

TABLE 7.2

Average income (in Taka) per school by school type and area

School type	Area		
	Rural	Urban	Both
Government	2,18,618	4,22,482	2,51,257
Private	75,896	7,19,089	1,70,509
Madrassa	3,53,975	7,04,147	4,14,564
Non-formal	12,903	13,805	12,988

Note : 1 US \$ = Tk. 53.65

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Let us take a look at the distribution of total income by sources. The major source of income of the government and private schools and the madrassas was the grant from the State (Table 7.3). The State contributes 96.3 percent of total income of the government schools, 54.1 percent of private and 73.2 percent of madrassas. The madrassas and the private schools also earned from private sources, 14.6

percent and 10.6 percent respectively. Thirty percent of total income of private schools came from monthly tuition and other fees charged to the students. Around 87 percent of total income of the non-formal schools came from private sources, i.e., the respective NGOs. These schools also take fees from the students (12%). Annex 7.2 presents more analysis on this.

TABLE 7.3

Percentage distribution of total income by sources of income and school type

Sources of income	School type			
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal
Monthly tuition fees	0.0	20.6	3.7	9.5
Other fees	1.7	9.4	4.2	2.6
Government grant	96.3	54.1	73.2	0.2
Non-government donation	1.5	10.6	14.6	87.4
Rent out something	0.0	0.3	0.7	0.0
Selling products	0.1	0.2	1.9	0.0
Others	0.4	4.8	1.7	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Urban-rural differential of above analysis is presented in Annex 7.3. The income pattern was mostly similar in both the areas in government and non-formal schools. However, a wide variation was observed in other two types of schools between the areas. The rural private schools earned 88.5 percent of its total income from government sources, which was only 33 percent for the urban areas. About 46.4 percent of total income of urban private schools came from the students (monthly tuition fees 32.9% and other fees 13.5%), which was only 3.2 percent in case of rural private schools. The rural madrassas received 80.4 percent of its income from government grants but it was 55.9 percent for the urban madrassas.

Expenditure of Schools

Operating expenditure of the schools under five different heads were collected. These are: staff salary (both teachers and others), construction work, buying stationery, rent in something and buying fixed assets. Any expenditure other than the above are categorised as 'others'. Irrespective of school type over 96 percent of the schools gave salary to their staff and almost all schools had to buy stationery (Table 7.4). Construction work occurred in over three-fourths of the madrassas, 50.5 percent of the private, 47.3 percent of government and 16.4 percent of non-formal schools. The non-formal schools are generally arranged in rented houses, thus a higher portion (96%) of such schools

had to spend money for this. Among others, 22.1 percent of madrassas and about 13 percent of government and private schools had to rent in something during the period of January – September 2000. About a quarter of the government schools and the madrassas bought fixed assets during the period, 16.3 percent private and 10.6 percent non-formal schools also did so. A quarter of the non-formal and 60-to-75 percent of the other schools had expenditure other than above heads.

TABLE 7.4

Percentage of schools having expenditure during January to September 2000 by school type and sources of expenditure

School type	Teachers and others salary	Construction work	Buying stationery	Rent in something	Other expenditure	Buying fixed asset
Government	96.3	47.3	98.9	13.2	60.8	24.1
Private	97.1	50.5	98.2	13.1	75.5	16.3
Madrassa	96.4	76.0	98.7	22.1	69.9	23.0
Non-formal	99.8	16.4	99.1	96.0	26.8	10.6

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Similar analysis separately for rural and urban schools showed some variation in this regard (Annex 7.4). For instance, proportionately more private schools and the madrassas in urban areas had to spend money for rent compared to same type of schools in rural areas. Similarly, more government, private and madrassa types in urban areas did construction work compared to their respective counterparts in rural areas. In respect to buying fixed assets urban schools of private and madrassa type were ahead of their rural counterparts, which was reverse for government schools. Annex 5.5 presents more analysis of this.

Average expenditure per school during the observation period is presented in Table 7.5. Here also the readers

TABLE 7.5

Average expenditure (in Taka) per school by school type and area

School type	Area		
	Rural	Urban	Both
Government	2,07,400	4,81,338	2,51,233
Private	95,201	6,72,014	1,80,021
Madrassa	3,29,227	6,04,115	3,76,737
Non-formal	12,324	15,720	12,651

Note: 1US\$ = Tk. 53.65

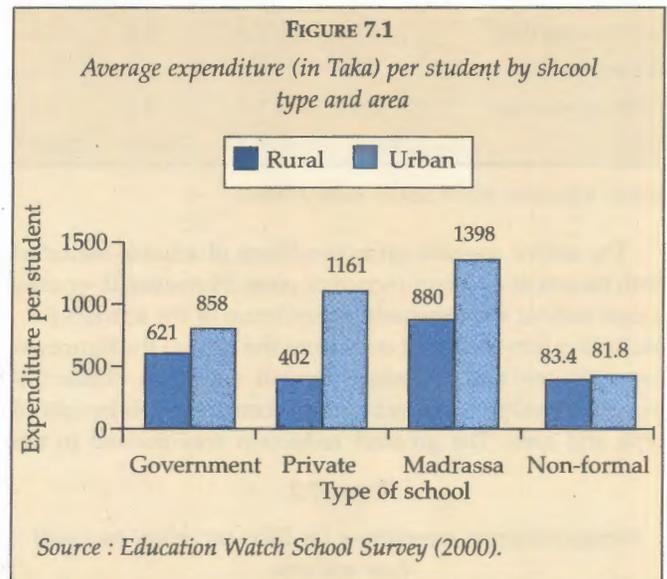
Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

should take the results with caution because sizes of the schools of different types were not same in respect to the number of students or teachers. Where the size was bigger annual expenditure was also higher. Moreover, the heads of the secondary schools could not separate costs for primary

section and again, the NGO schools are mostly too small. Whatever the case is, on average the expenditure for the government schools was Tk. 250,000, Tk. 180,000 for private, Tk. 380,000 for madrassas and only Tk. 12,700 for non-formal schools.

Similar to income, operating expenditures for the urban schools was higher than their rural counterparts (Table 7.5). Average expenditure for the government schools in urban areas was more than double of those in rural areas (Tk. 480,000 vs. Tk. 210,000). The gap was much bigger in case of private schools where the expenditure for the urban schools was more than seven times higher than their rural counterparts (Tk. 670,000 vs. Tk. 95,000). Among others, average expenditure for rural and urban madrassas were Tk. 330,000 and Tk. 610,000 respectively, and the non-formal schools spend Tk. 12,300 for rural schools and Tk. 15,700 thousands for urban schools. For more analysis of this see Annex 7.5.

Above analysis gave us an estimate of overall expenditure of the schools, but what about the expenditure per student. During the first nine months of the year 2000



the government schools spent Tk. 679 per student, private schools Tk. 627, madrassas Tk. 981 and the non-formal schools Tk. 408. It should be remembered that a small amount of this came from various fees collected from the students. Urban-rural variation of this estimate is provided in Figure 7.1. It shows how big the amounts are for the urban schools of government, private and madrassas. Expenditure in urban non-formal schools is slightly higher than those of rural areas. The highest urban-rural variation was observed in private schools, and small in non-formal schools.

Proportionate distribution of expenditure by different heads shows that over 80 percent of total costs in government schools and the madrassas went for staff salary (both teachers and helping staff) and about 12 percent for construction work (Table 7.6). On the other hand, the private schools spent 61.3 percent of their costs for teachers' salary and the non-formal schools only 49.6 percent. The private schools spent 27.5 percent of total costs for construction work, which was only one percent for non-formal schools. Compared to others, the non-formal schools spent more in buying stationeries (30.9%) and paying rent (15.3%). This is because the non-formal schools provide stationeries (such as copybook, pen, pencil, ruler, slate, chalk etc.) free of cost to all students and the school premises are rented houses nearer to the home of the students.

TABLE 7.6

Percentage distribution of total expenditure by sources of expenditure and school type

Sources of income	School type			
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal
Teachers and others salary	81.8	61.3	81.5	49.6
Construction work	12.4	27.5	11.8	0.9
Buying stationery	1.4	3.2	1.8	30.9
Rent in something	0.5	0.3	0.5	15.3
Buying fixed assets	1.1	2.4	1.4	2.0
Other expenditure	2.8	5.3	3.0	1.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

The above analysis on expenditure of schools included both recurrent and non-recurrent costs. However, if we take a look only at the recurrent expenditure of the schools (i.e., excluding non-recurrent ones from the above) the figures of expenditures would reduce for all estimates. Table 7.7 presents average recurrent expenditure of schools by school type and area. The greatest reduction was noticed in the

TABLE 7.7

Average recurrent expenditure (in Taka) per school by school type and area

School type	Area		
	Rural	Urban	Both
Government	1,83,162	3,96,014	2,17,316
Private	51,327	5,59,441	1,26,195
Madrassa	2,84,163	5,30,010	3,27,008
Non-formal	12,067	15,097	12,284

Note: 1 US \$ = Tk. 53.65

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

estimates for private schools especially in urban areas. This is because these schools had highest proportion of non-recurrent expenditures. Proportional distribution of total recurrent expenditure by sources shows that the share of teachers salary was 94.6 percent in government schools, 87.9 percent in private schools and 93.9 percent in madrassas (Table 7.8). As the non-formal schools do not have much expenditure of non-recurrent type very little change was noticed there in the distribution.

TABLE 7.8

Percentage distribution of recurrent expenditure by sources of expenditure and school type

Sources of income	School type			
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal
Teachers and others salary	94.6	87.4	93.9	51.1
Buying stationery	1.6	4.6	2.1	31.8
Rent in something	0.6	0.4	0.6	15.8
Other expenditure	3.2	7.6	3.4	1.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Urban-rural differential of above analysis is provided in Annex 7.6. Not much variation was observed in the distribution of expenditure in the government schools. Proportion of expenditure for teachers salary was higher in urban private schools than in its rural counterparts. However, the rural schools spent a higher proportion in construction work than the urban schools. Rent of schoolhouses was higher in urban areas than in rural areas in case of non-formal schools.

Value of Fixed Assets

Value of fixed assets belonging to the schools was collected under four major heads, viz., land and school building, furniture, educational materials, and tube well/ trees. Value of any other fixed asset was put under 'others' category. It should be mentioned that the school heads assessed the values of the assets according to current market prices. The field investigators did not take any part in the valuation process. However, s/he made sure that the assessing teachers included all eligible items. Almost all schools of all types had furniture and except the non-formal schools others had land and school building. Most of the madrassas had educational materials and tube well/ trees, and the non-formal schools had educational materials (Table 7.9). About 12 percent of the government schools lacked educational materials. No area wise variation was observed in any type of school in this regard (Annex 7.7).

TABLE 7.9

Percentage of schools having fixed assets by school type and heads of fixed asset

School type	Land and school building	Furniture	Educational materials	Tube-well/ trees	Other fixed assets
Government	99.1	99.5	88.1	91.2	47.5
Private	98.9	99.5	89.4	88.0	43.1
Madrassa	99.7	98.9	97.1	94.9	62.5
Non-formal	2.4	99.1	99.2	4.8	26.3

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Average amount of fixed assets was much higher in the madrassas than other type of schools (Table 7.10). On average the madrassas had fixed assets of Tk. 3.31 million. It was Tk. 2.07 million for private and Tk. 1.73 million for government schools. The non-formal schools had fixed assets of Taka three thousands only.

TABLE 7.10

Average value of fixed assets (in Taka) per school by school type and area

School type	Area		
	Rural	Urban	Both
Government	7,77,865	70,03,014	17,73,581
Private	6,99,837	1,00,35,403	20,74,159
Madrassa	17,55,987	1,08,98,689	33,09,722
Non-formal	2,159	11,033	3,020

Note : 1 US \$ = Tk. 53.65

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Like the previous sections (income and expenditure) a wide urban-rural gap was observed in all types of schools (Table 7.10). The average value of fixed assets of urban private schools and the madrassas were more than taka 10 million which was Tk. 700,000 and Tk. 1.76 million respectively in rural schools. Urban-rural gap in government schools was also wide, total value of fixed assets was Tk. 780,000 and Tk. 7 million respectively in rural and urban schools of this type. In case of non-formal schools it was Tk. 2,200 in rural areas and Tk. 11 thousands in urban areas. In both the areas madrassas were more endowed than any other type of schools. Annex 7.8 provides more analysis of this.

Whatever the type is, the highest share of total fixed value was in land and school building (Table 7.11). This was 97.2 percent in government, 95.1 percent in private, 94.1 percent in madrassas and 60.3 percent in non-formal schools. The shares for educational materials and furniture were much bigger in non-formal schools than others. Similar pattern was observed in both rural and urban areas (Annex 7.9).

TABLE 7.11

Percentage distribution of value of fixed assets by types of asset and school type

Sources of income	School type			
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal
Land and school building	97.2	95.1	94.1	60.3
Furniture	1.9	3.3	2.4	17.9
Educational materials	0.2	1.1	1.4	16.8
Tube well/ trees	0.5	0.3	1.1	1.4
Other fixed assets	0.2	0.2	1.0	3.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Chapter Eight

A NOTE ON THE LITERACY SITUATION

This chapter reports on the findings of the Education Watch 2001 on the literacy situation for two groups in surveyed households: those aged 7 years or older and adult literacy (15+ years). It found a literacy rate of 39% for the population 7 years or older and 41.6% for adults. Female and people living in rural areas were significantly more disadvantaged than those of males and those who live in urban areas. Again, people living in slums were more disadvantaged than those living in non-slum areas. However, it also documented a very high literacy rate for younger populations suggesting an impact of the recent improvement in enrolment rates at primary level. Further research is needed in view of the apparent difference between the findings on overall literacy as found here and that claimed by the government.

Introduction

As mentioned in Chapters I and II, selected information on 'literacy' was collected as an add-on to the household questionnaire. This chapter presents the literacy situation at individual, household and community levels as found in the survey. In exploring literacy the definition is critical. In this study we asked an adult (age 18 or over) in each surveyed household to report the literacy status of each individual living in her/his household. A person was considered 'literate' if s/he could read and write a letter. One should interpret such information with caution as no oral or written test was undertaken to test the validity of the report. As done by the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (BBS) on the Census data, we estimated literacy rates for two groups in the population: population aged 7 years and above and adults (15+ years).

TABLE 8.1

Literacy rate among population age 7 and above by stratum and gender

Stratum	Literacy rate			Significance
	Female	Male	Both	
Rural Dhaka Division	29.5 (7,354)	35.5 (7,524)	32.5 (14,878)	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong Division	32.2 (8,670)	38.2 (8,430)	35.2 (17,100)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi Division	24.8 (6,896)	32.8 (7,445)	29.0 (14,341)	p<0.001
Rural Khulna Division	35.2 (7,235)	45.2 (7,509)	40.3 (14,744)	p<0.001
Rural Barisal Division	36.7 (7,622)	40.0 (7,806)	38.4 (15,428)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet Division	27.4 (7,949)	33.8 (8,317)	30.7 (16,266)	p<0.001
Metropolitan cities	54.1 (7,879)	65.8 (8,514)	60.2 (16,393)	p<0.001
Municipalities	47.5 (7,758)	55.7 (7,985)	51.7 (15,743)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	
Rural Bangladesh	30.0 (45,726)	36.7 (47,031)	33.4 (92,757)	p<0.001
Urban Bangladesh	50.5 (15,637)	60.4 (16,499)	55.6 (32,136)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001	p<0.001	p<0.001	
All Bangladesh	33.3 (61,363)	40.6 (63,530)	37.0 (1,24,893)	p<0.001

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of persons aged 7 years or above

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Literacy of the Population

Table 8.1 presents literacy rate of population aged 7 years and above. Only 37 percent of the population was reported to be literate as defined above, 33.3 percent for females and 40.6 percent for males ($p < 0.001$). Over 55 percent of urban population and 33.4 percent of rural population were literate ($p < 0.001$). Literacy rate varied significantly by stratum ($p < 0.001$). Highest literacy rate was reported in metropolitan cities (60.2%) and lowest in rural Rajshahi division (29%). Statistically significant gender difference favouring males was reported in each of the strata. Literacy rates in four rural stratum, viz., Dhaka, Chittagong, Rajshahi and Sylhet were below the national average. Females in all areas were behind the national average.

Adult Literacy

A very similar situation as above prevailed in adult literacy. Adult literacy rate was calculated among population aged 15 years and older (Table 8.2). At the national level the adult literacy rate was found to be 41.6 percent, 35.8 percent for females and 47.3 percent for males ($p < 0.001$). This was 37.5

Trend in Literacy Rate

The literacy rate as found in this study is much less than what the government estimates. The government claims

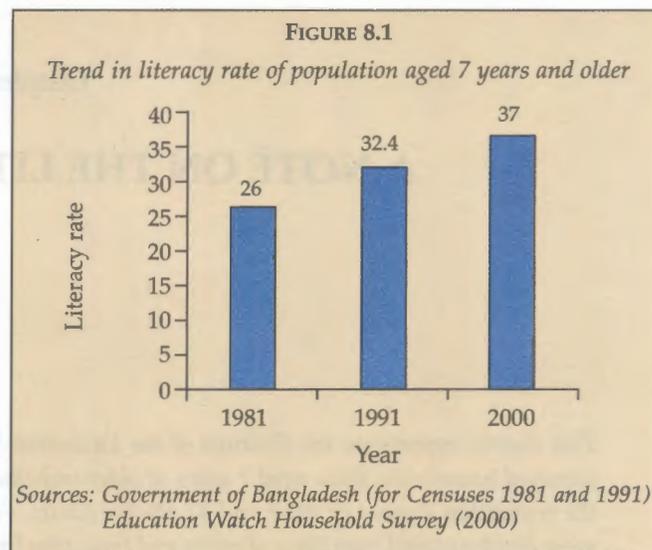


TABLE 8.2

Adult literacy rate (population age 15 and older) by stratum and gender

Stratum	Literacy rate			Significance
	Female	Male	Both	
Rural Dhaka Division	30.8 (5,431)	41.2 (5,454)	36.0 (10,885)	$p < 0.001$
Rural Chittagong Division	36.6 (6,207)	46.9 (6,006)	41.7 (12,213)	$p < 0.001$
Rural Rajshahi Division	24.9 (5,199)	37.0 (5,523)	31.1 (10,722)	$p < 0.001$
Rural Khulna Division	36.1 (5,612)	51.0 (5,758)	43.7 (11,370)	$p < 0.001$
Rural Barisal Division	41.0 (5,470)	47.9 (5,520)	44.4 (10,990)	$p < 0.001$
Rural Sylhet Division	30.1 (5,736)	40.1 (6,032)	35.2 (11,768)	$p < 0.001$
Metropolitan cities	59.6 (6,036)	73.8 (6,771)	67.1 (12,807)	$p < 0.001$
Municipalities	52.1 (5,864)	63.7 (6,161)	58.1 (12,025)	$p < 0.001$
Significance	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	
Rural Bangladesh	31.9 (33,655)	42.9 (34,293)	37.5 (67,948)	$p < 0.001$
Urban Bangladesh	55.5 (11,900)	68.5 (12,932)	62.3 (24,832)	$p < 0.001$
Significance	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	
All Bangladesh	35.8 (45,555)	47.3 (47,225)	41.6 (92,780)	$p < 0.001$

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of persons aged 15 years or above

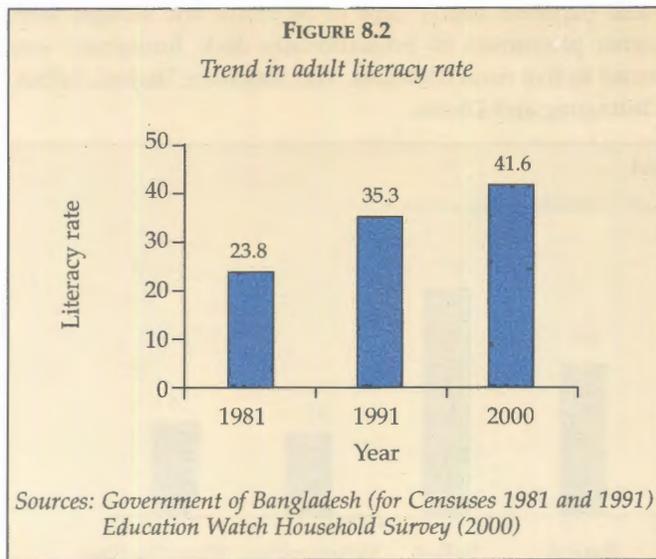
Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

percent for rural and 62.3 percent for urban population ($p < 0.001$). Statistically significant gender difference favouring males was observed in both the areas ($p < 0.001$). The adult literacy rate significantly varied by stratum ($p < 0.001$). Highest adult literacy rate was found in metropolitan cities (67.1%) and lowest in rural Rajshahi division (31.1%). Males surpassed females in all the eight strata ($p < 0.001$).

that two thirds of the adult population of Bangladesh are literate (Daily Star 2002). However, there is no clear explanation is given on the basis of this claim. Our independent survey attempts to provide a field picture. The government claim is corroborated only for urban areas especially for metropolitan cities. If we compare the literacy rates found in the Censuses of 1981 and 1991 with ours we see a linear progression of the rates. For instance, the literacy rate of population aged 7 years and above was 26 percent and 32.4 percent respectively in the Censuses of 1981 and 1991, which has now of gone up to 37 percent in 2000 (from Watch 2001 data) (Figure 8.1). Again, the adult literacy rate was 23.8 percent in 1981 and 35.3 percent in 1991, and we found it to be 41.6 percent in 2000 (Figure 8.2).

Village/ Mahallah Level Analysis of Literacy

Village/ mahallah level analysis of literacy shows a wide gap among the clusters considered for this study (Annex 8.1). There are villages in rural Rajshahi, Barisal and Sylhet divisions where the literacy rate was as low as five percent. Adult literacy rate varied from 2.5 percent to 94.6 percent in the village/ mahallahs under this study.



Age Specific Literacy Rate

Age specific literacy rate of the population is presented in Table 8.3. The literacy rate is highest among population aged 15-19 years (64.2%) and lowest among children of 5-9 years (1.7%). The higher literacy rate shown for age group 15-19 years, particularly females, is a confirmation of the impact of increased enrolment in schools in the decade of the 1990s. For age group 15-34 years the literacy rate is nearly 50 percent and for 15-24 years it is 60 percent. Among the population below 20 years the literacy rate was higher for females than males. However, it reversed for population 20 years and over. Largest gender gap persists

TABLE 8.3

Age specific literacy rates by gender

Age group (yrs)	Literacy rate			Difference (Female-Male)
	Female	Male	Both	
5-9	1.9	1.6	1.7	0.3
10-14	40.2	33.6	36.8	6.6
15-19	66.6	61.8	64.2	4.8
20-24	51.4	61.0	55.7	-9.6
25-29	38.3	47.2	42.5	-8.9
30-34	31.5	46.2	38.9	-14.7
35-39	29.0	42.9	36.3	-13.9
40-44	24.6	41.3	33.7	-16.7
45-49	20.9	47.1	34.8	-26.2
50-54	15.3	42.1	30.0	-26.8
55-59	13.6	39.9	28.3	-26.3
60-64	8.6	34.9	22.3	-26.3
65-69	7.9	34.8	22.7	-26.9
70-74	4.5	29.0	18.0	-24.5
75-79	7.0	30.6	20.4	-23.6
80+	2.3	13.6	8.3	-11.3

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

among population aged 45 to 74 years where females were about 25 percentage points behind their male counterparts. Annex 8.2 provides similar analysis for urban and rural population.

Literacy of Household Heads

Table 8.4 presents literacy rate of the household heads. On average, 37 percent of the household heads were literate, 23.5 percent for female heads and 38.6 percent for male heads ($p < 0.001$). A third of the rural and 59.3 percent of the urban household heads were found literate ($p < 0.001$). Only a fifth of the rural female household heads were literate. Comparing the literacy rates of the household heads with those of the general population one can see that they are closer to each other. However, dissimilarity exists in the case of females. Female heads are less literate than the average female population.

TABLE 8.4

Literacy rate of the household heads by area and gender

Area	Literacy rate of household heads			Significance
	Female	Male	Both	
Rural	21.1 (2,402)	34.4 (20,080)	32.9 (22,482)	$p < 0.001$
Urban	39.4 (660)	61.2 (6,846)	59.3 (7,506)	$p < 0.001$
All	23.5 (3,062)	38.6 (26,926)	37.0 (29,988)	$p < 0.001$
Significance	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of households
Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Mean years of schooling completed by the household heads are presented in Table 8.5. On average the household heads had 3.2 years of schooling ($p < 0.001$). This was 2.8 years for rural and 5.5 years for urban household heads ($p < 0.001$).

TABLE 8.5

Mean and (standard deviation) of years of schooling completed by household heads by area and gender

Area	Female	Male	Both	Significance
Rural	1.6 (2.9)	3.0 (3.8)	2.8 (3.7)	$p < 0.001$
Urban	3.2 (4.0)	5.7 (4.5)	5.5 (4.5)	$p < 0.001$
All	1.8 (3.1)	3.4 (4.0)	3.2 (4.0)	$p < 0.001$
Significance	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	$p < 0.001$	

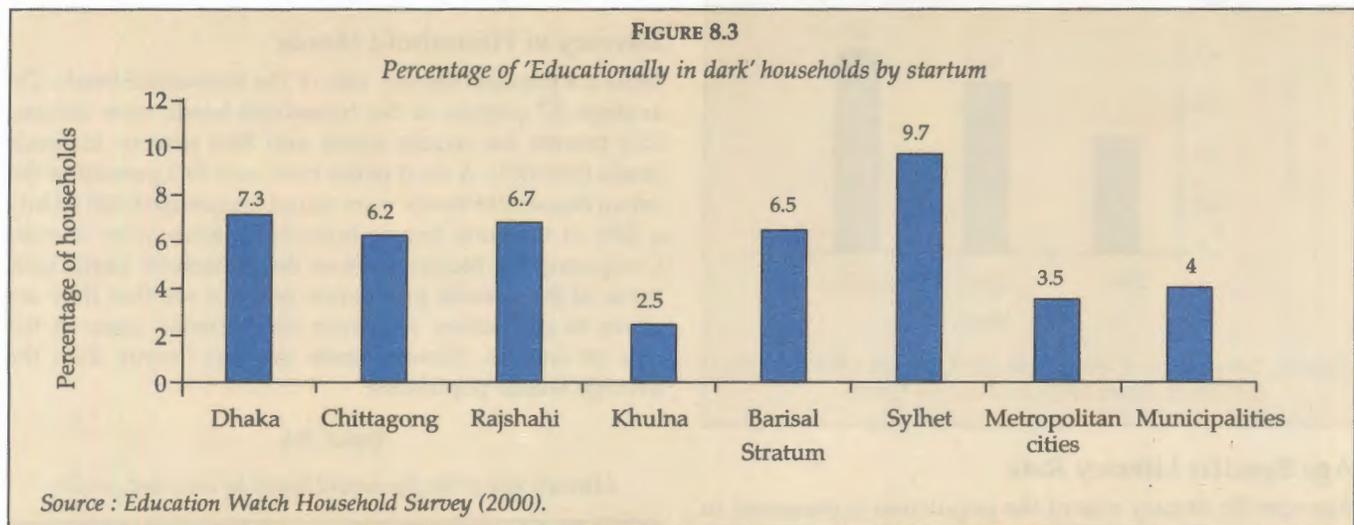
Figures within parentheses indicate standard deviation.
Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

'Educationally Dark' Households

If no one (aged 7+) in a household was literate and no school aged children (6-15 years) of the household (if there was any) went to school, the household was defined as

'educationally dark' (Nath 2001). Such an indicator measures household level situation of schooling and literacy as a whole. At the national level six percent of the households fall under such category. For them no education

value occurred nearly zero in all strata but villages with higher proportion of 'educationally dark' household was found in five rural divisions, viz., Rajshahi, Barisal, Sylhet, Chittagong and Dhaka.



(as defined here) has entered into their households. This was 6.5 percent in rural and 3.8 percent in urban areas ($p < 0.001$). Statistically significant stratum-wise variation was also observed ($p < 0.001$). Highest number of 'educationally dark' households was found in rural Sylhet division (9.7%) and least in rural Khulna division (2.5%). Figure 8.3 presents percentage of 'educationally dark' households for each stratum.

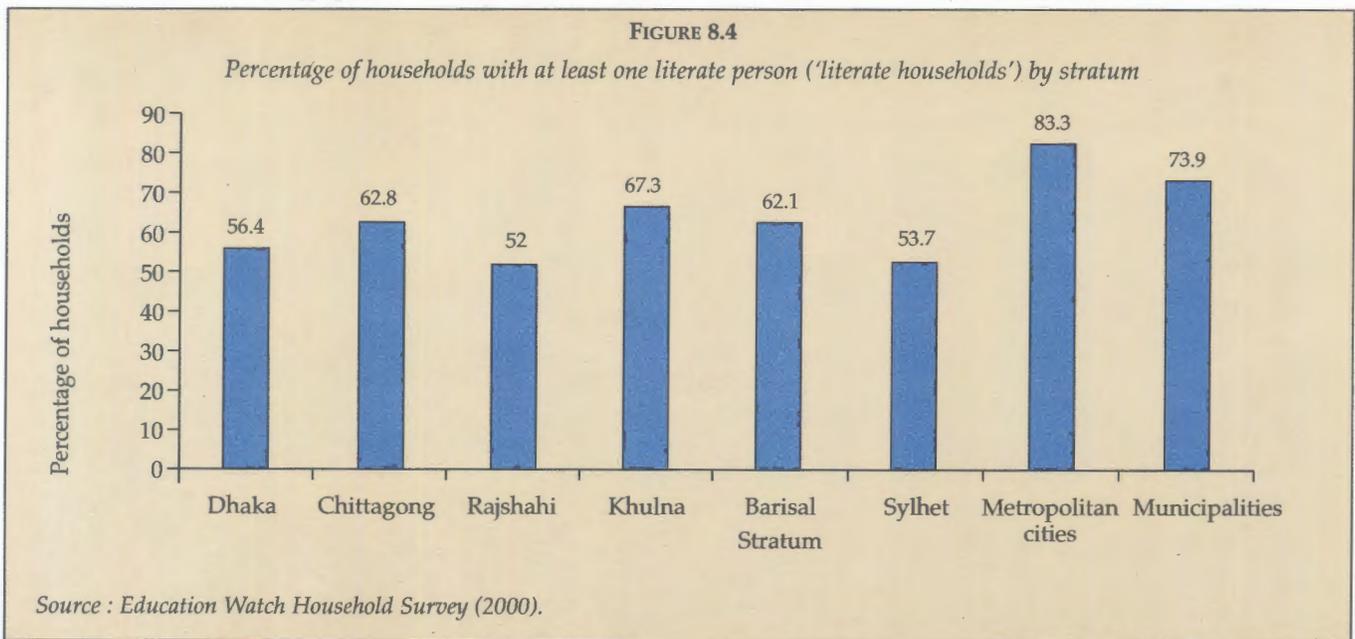
The socio-economic status has a significant influence on a household's becoming 'educationally dark'. Proportion of 'educationally dark' household was 14.4 percent among those households with 'always in deficit' economy and 8 percent in 'sometimes in deficit' economy, 4.5 percent in 'balance' economy and 1.5 percent in 'surplus' economy. This rate was 6.3 percent among Muslim households and 4.4 percent among other religious minority groups. Six percent of the Bangali households and 9.3 percent of the ethnic minority households were in this category. This was 13.2 percent in slum and 5.9 percent in non-slum areas.

Village/ mahallah level analysis shows that there is not a single household in 8.3 percent of the study villages/ mahallahs which can be called 'educationally dark' (Annex 8.3). In 4.6 percent of the villages/ mahallahs, over a fifth of the households were 'educationally dark'. Annex 8.4 presents maximum and minimum values of 'educationally dark' households by stratum. Although the minimum

Literate Households

If we consider literacy as one of the primary basis of development it might be important to examine households with at least one literate person (hence after called 'literate household'). At the national level 61.1 percent of the households had at least one literate person. This rate was 58 percent in rural and 78.1 percent in urban areas ($p < 0.001$). Statistically significant variation was also observed across the strata (Figure 8.4). Highest proportion of literate households was found in metropolitan cities (83.3%) and lowest in rural Rajshahi division (52%). The estimate for rural Sylhet was also very low (53.7%).

Statistically significant positive correlation between households' economic status and literate household was observed. Only 36.4 percent of the households with 'always in deficit' economy had at least one literate person which was 51.2 percent in 'sometimes in deficit' economy, 64.5 percent in 'balance' economy and 82.4 percent in 'surplus' economy ($p < 0.001$). Sixty percent of the Muslim households were literate households which was 71.1 percent in case of the non-Muslims ($p < 0.001$). There was not a single literate person in about half of the households living in the slum areas, compared to 38.6 percent in non-slum areas. No significant statistical difference was found by ethnicity.



Literacy in 'Illiteracy Free' Districts

A countrywide literacy movement called Total Literacy Movement (TLM) was started in 1994 by the government. Through this the government organised adult literacy programmes in different districts. Based on the 'success' of this programme the government has declared six districts (viz., Magura, Joypurhat, Gazipur, Lalmonirhat, Rajshahi and Chuadanga) 'free from illiteracy'. The *Education Watch* data do not allow computing separate estimates for literacy rates for these districts. Of the 240 clusters surveyed under this study 15 were from these districts. To get some indication we examined the education situation in these districts compared to the rest of the country (Table 8.6). However, one must be aware of the statistical limitations of this analysis and thus the readers should be careful in interpreting the results. The literacy rate of the population aged 7 and above was 39 percent in the districts which were declared 'free from illiteracy', only two percentage points higher than the national average. There was no difference in adult literacy rates between the districts declared free from illiteracy and others. It has, however, been observed

that enrolment of the children in the above six districts was significantly higher than that in the other districts.

TABLE 8.6

Literacy situation and enrolment of children in schools in government declared 'illiteracy free' districts

Indicators	Districts declared illiteracy free	Other districts	Significance
Literacy rate of population (7+)	39.0	36.9	p<0.001
Adult literacy rate	41.6	41.6	ns
Net enrolment (primary)	83.9	79.6	p<0.001
Net enrolment (secondary)	77.0	68.6	p<0.001
Gross enrolment (primary)	121	107	

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Clearly further research is needed in this sector.

CONCLUSION AND ACTION IMPLICATIONS

The Hopes and Challenges

This is the third report of *Education Watch*. The previous two reports, which covered internal efficiency and quality of primary education in the country, received wide attention of various stakeholders including policy makers, NGOs, academics, donors, media and the like. The importance that the government attaches to it is borne out by the presence of Ministers of Education in the launching of the previous two reports.

The present report is essentially a revisit of the *internal efficiency* parameters as covered in the first report. Two new aspects were also added to it, which are the private costs of education and an appraisal of the literacy situation.

Several items of good news and renewed hopes are offered by *Education Watch 2001*. *First*, the progress made in respect of gross enrolment in primary education first reported in *Education Watch 1999* has been confirmed by the new report. At that time, questions were raised about the gross enrolment ratio (GER) reported as substantially higher than the official GER figure. The higher GER has been reported again by the new *Watch* report. The difference with the official rate of 96 percent in 2000 can perhaps be explained by the fact that the official statistics do not include enrolment in NGO-run non-formal primary education. There may also be some questions about the denominator used in official statistics to calculate enrolment ratio.

Second, there has been acceleration in progress in respect of net enrolment rate in the last two years compared to progress in earlier years in the 1990s.

Third, there also has been a more rapid progress in cycle completion rate in primary schools in the last two years.

Fourth, progress in net enrolment, cycle completion, as well as gender parity in primary education enrolment has been fairly broad-based, across different sampling strata, except for some geographical disparity and disadvantage indicated for the poorest socio-economic groups.

Fifth, school managing committees exist in almost all schools and they also meet periodically, though there are

questions about the role they should play and their general effectiveness.

Sixth, over 40 percent of the teachers are women, with a much higher proportion in NGO and community schools, which has been a contributory factor in overcoming gender disparity. All of these positive developments provide a foundation for building future improvement both in quantity and quality of primary education.

The bad news and the continued challenge is that despite some improvement in efficiency indicators in primary education, as noted above, some of the quantitative measures reported by the present *Watch* report point to causes and contributory factors to the serious quality problems in primary education reported in *Education Watch 2000* and other studies.

First, in spite of a broad-based quantitative progress reported, the present survey also indicates unacceptable geographical disparity in access and participation, e.g., between the high figures for Khulna division and the low statistics in net and gross enrolment and cycle completion in Barisal and Sylhet divisions. These disparities perhaps could be pinpointed further and demonstrated more sharply if the sample size permitted district or upazila-wise analysis. The study also documented wide disparity between villages in terms of access to primary education. There are 4.5 percent of the villages where the net rate is 50 percent or less. In absolute term, this means that there are around 3,800 villages where the enrolment rate is very low. A study on inequities in child immunization coverage has documented that these low performing villages are often small villages in low-lying areas (Chowdhury et al. 2002).

Second, there is a clear pattern of disadvantage in educational access and participation for the low socio-economic groups indicated by food security status and mother's education. For example, there is a 24-percentage point difference in net enrolment rate between food-deficit and food-surplus households. Similarly, there is a 23-percentage point difference between children of mothers with no education and those with education beyond Class

VI. These differences have widened slightly since *Watch* survey in 1998. The most disadvantaged children are those in urban slums whose situation is worse than the socio-economic low groups in rural areas. Children of ethnic minorities, whose mother tongue is not Bangla and who generally fall in the low socio-economic category, also are at a distinct disadvantage in respect of access and participation in primary education.

Third, the state of physical facilities is extremely poor for the average school—often without such basic paraphernalia as useable blackboards, safe and hygienic classrooms, and functioning toilets. The average classroom can properly seat and accommodate only 60 percent of the enrolled students—perhaps an explanation for an average pupil attendance rate of around 60 percent, which has remained unchanged over the past two years.

Fourth, the teacher-student ratio is such that classes can only be barely managed with two different shifts for lower and higher grades during the school day. The strategy of single shift schools with longer hours to combat low contact hours and poor pupil achievement, under consideration by the government, can be implemented only with a large increase in the number of various categories of teachers, classroom space, and other physical facilities.

Fifth, madrassas stand out among primary schools as those with lowest internal efficiency measures and highest per pupil cost. Improving the quality of madrassas, which serve seven percent of primary school children, remains a difficult challenge. Annex 9.1 gives a comparative analysis of performance of madrassas with government schools and non-formal schools.

Sixth, supposedly free primary education cost parents an average of Taka 1,000 for each child per year, which amounts to about two percent of average household income. Obviously, the parents' cost is proportionately substantially higher for cash-starved rural landless families.

Seventh, the survey pointed out that roughly one-third of the adolescents in the 11-15 years age group are in primary school, another third is in secondary school and the last third is out-of-school. Among the older adolescents and youth in the age range of 16-20 years, one-third is enrolled in some type of school and two-thirds are out-of-school. The large majority of over 15 million out-of-school adolescents and youth either has not been to school ever or dropped out early without acquiring basic literacy and functional skills. The survey did not probe further in to the situation of this large proportion of the youth population who face the world unequipped and unprepared—a colossal waste of human resources and the potential breeding ground for social turmoil. This situation has major implications for primary and basic education policies and programmes.

Finally, the survey shows that adult literacy rate (for age 15+ years) in 2000 was 41.6 percent, in contrast to officially claimed rate of 64 percent in 2000 and 66 percent in 2002.

The literacy rate for population 7 years and above, according to the survey, was 37 percent. The survey also showed that the six districts declared officially "free of illiteracy" had the same adult literacy rate as other districts.

A Brief Discussion of the Findings

A brief discussion of the major findings and the action implications for the development of primary education are presented below.

The report found a net enrolment of nearly 80 percent. This is comparable with results found in other studies. The Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) carried out in the same year as the *Watch* by Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics with assistance from Unicef provides net enrolment rate for various groups in the population (Table 9.1) (*Pragatir Pathey* 2000).

TABLE 9.1

Net enrolment rates (%) for different groups in the population as found by Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), 2000.

Group	Girls	Boys
Metropolitan slum	55.8	60.0
Metropolitan non-slum	81.0	80.8
Other urban	84.5	83.9
All Rural	80.7	83.0
National	80.7	82.8

Source: Pragatir Pathey (2000)

The enrolment rate available from Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey (BDHS 2001) also confirms the *Watch* data. The rates found by BDHS are 80.3, 78.4 and 79.3 for girls, boys and both respectively.

This report also provided estimates of the literacy levels. This was based on household level reporting of literacy but no test was conducted to check the veracity of this report or how "functional" the reported literacy was. The adult literacy rate for population aged 15 years and older has been found to be 41.6 percent (35.8% for female and 47.3% for male). Compared with the Censuses of 1981 and 1991, this shows a linearly increasing trend. What is interesting is the reduction in gender gap. In the past, women's literacy rate was about half of men's, but now the gap is much narrower. The literacy rate found in this survey is much less than the reported official literacy rate. As mentioned in Chapter I, the government has been implementing a literacy programme named the Total Literacy Movement (TLM) since 1994, with a budget of Taka 6 billion (US\$ 120 million). Estimated on the basis of the number of people presumed to have graduated through TLM and the number of children completing at least three years of primary schooling every year, the literacy rate has been reported by the government to be rising steadily. According to a former

Secretary of PMED the literacy rate increased from 44 percent in 1996 to 64 percent in 2000 'as a result of this programme' (Husain 2000). The latest government figure for literacy rate published in the press was 66 percent in early 2002 (*Daily Star* 22 April 2002).

Skepticism has been expressed by scholars and in media reports about participation and management of the programme and literacy skills acquired through TLM¹, since there has been no independent assessment of the programme or the process and methods used for estimating and reporting the literacy rate. The 2001 Census, which collected information on literacy, has not yet been released. *Pragati Pathey* (2000) cited the estimated literacy rate provided by the Sample Vital Registration System of the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics as 53 percent in 1998. The Bangladesh Demographic and Health Survey 2000 (BDHS) collected data on the proportion of people who never went to school and those who never completed primary education. If these groups are considered illiterate, then the literacy rate for the population aged six years and older stands at 42.3. In the districts which the government declared 'free of illiteracy', the literacy rate was found to be no more than the national average, as reported in Chapter VIII of this report. Even for the age group of 11-35 years, which is the target group of TLM (Husain 2000), the literacy rate is less than 50 percent. It appears that officially claimed literacy rate is an over-estimate. Clearly more studies are needed to establish definitively the literacy level of the population. It is also necessary to use standardized tests to determine actual literacy level, as was done by the International Adult Literacy Survey (OECD 1997), rather than to rely on self-reporting about literacy in the household.

Basu and Foster (1998) and Basu et al. (2000) have analysed literacy from an intra-household *externality* perspective. They argued that an illiterate person living in a household with at least one literate person is in a much more advantageous situation than another illiterate person living in a household with no literate person². With the *Watch* data we found that in 61 percent households there was a literate person (a 'literate household') and in 39 percent there was no such person. This suggests that 39

percent of the households are isolated from the mainstream and cannot take advantage of development inputs, the effective use of which requires literacy.

This report draws our attention to several interesting dynamics of the primary education sector in the country. It's a story of hopes and challenges. The first *Watch* report documented a net enrolment rate of 77 percent, with girls' rate higher than that of boys. Comparing with a previous survey, the first report had concluded that the rate was increasing but at a slow pace: three percentage points in five years (Chowdhury et al. 1999). By comparison, the present report's finding of 80 percent means an increase of three percentage points in two years. This faster rate of increase than that of the early 1990s indicates a stronger capacity of the system to respond to increased demand, at least in terms of access.

The report also revealed that most of the new enrollees in primary schools actually got enrolled in private (registered/unregistered) schools. From the late 1990's, the government started providing one-time grants to NGOs, community-based organizations (CBOs) and private voluntary organisations (PVOs) to set up primary schools in villages without any school (Government of Bangladesh 1998). The actual effect of this on enrolment is not known, but latest government statistics show a large increase in the number of community and satellite schools. In 1996, for example, there were 200 satellite schools, which rose to 3,884 in 2000 (DPE 2001).

We have also seen that the new enrollees came mostly from Khulna division and were boys. With more boys coming to school, the "reverse" gender imbalance against boys as found in 1999 has now disappeared. Interestingly, this happened without any affirmative action to bring more boys to school as was the case with girls, such as, stipends for girls in secondary schools, and "positive discrimination" in favour of girls in NGO-run non-formal schools (Chowdhury et al. 2001b).

The study also found an increase in cycle completion rate which shows progress in the struggle to reduce dropouts. It also shows more clearly than previously a problem of geographical disparity as illustrated by the large difference in cycle completion in five years of 30 percent in Sylhet and 52 percent in Dhaka (the rates are 61 percent and 78 percent respectively in eight years). A similar disparity prevails also in respect of gross primary school enrolment indicated by 36-percentage point difference between Khulna and Barisal and 30-percentage point difference between Khulna and Sylhet. The disparities have widened somewhat compared to 1998. We are, however, not sure why the improvement happened in Khulna and deterioration in Sylhet.

With some exceptions, the internal efficiency of the primary education sector has improved with progress in its various dimensions, even over the short span of two years. With the present rate of increase in enrolment, we should be able to attain virtual universalisation of primary education

1 In India, a Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) has been in operation since 1988. Although it earned some success in the non-Hindi belt until 1993, it has lost much of its appeal by now. In the words of an observer, "Today, one can hardly find any sympathizers of the NLM (National Literacy Mission) even among those who were once its most avowed proponents (activists). This cuts across the entire spectrum of learners, volunteers, activists, NGOs, progressive citizens, the community, and even many within the official machinery. Their disillusionment is not with literacy, but what has happened to the literacy movement. The NLM is, indeed, in need of a moral and ideological renewal or else the literacy achievement will inexorably slide to the margins of civil conscience" (Mathew 2002; p. 231).

2 An illiterate person living in the former has been termed by Basu and Foster (1998) as 'proximate illiterate' and an illiterate person in the latter an 'isolated illiterate'.

in terms of access and participation before 2015, the timetable agreed in the Dakar World Education Forum.

Obviously, quantitative achievements are not enough. A matter of continuing concern is the quality of learning. The previous two *Watch* reports (Chowdhury et al. 1999; 2001a; Nath et al. 2001) and other reports (Chowdhury et al. 1997; Greaney et al. 1998; PSPMP 2001) have documented a highly unsatisfactory state of affairs on the quality front. Researchers have used both curriculum-independent and curriculum-dependent tests and classroom observations and the conclusions of all are that much more need to be done in improving learning achievement. The *Watch 1999*, which used a very elementary curriculum-independent test called the *Assessment of Basic Competencies* or ABC, found that of the children completing the full 5-year primary cycle, only 57 percent achieved the 3R's and selected basic life skills (Chowdhury et al. 1999). The result of *Watch 2000* was even more disappointing. This study examined the achievement of the expected terminal competencies by children completing the full cycle of primary education, specified by the National Curriculum and Textbook Board. Only 1.6 percent children attained 27 of 53 terminal competencies tested (Chowdhury et al. 2001; Nath et al. 2001). As mentioned in Chapter I, there has not been as much action or intervention to improve the quality of learning achievement as there has been to improve the quantitative outcome. Various studies pointing out the quality deficiencies now have led to a broad consensus among top officials and policy-makers about the need to do more on the quality front³. But what is holding up the attainment of better quality in primary education?

It is widely known that quality represents the impact and interplay of several factors (Chowdhury et al. 1997). Any effort to improve quality must deal with these factors. The present *Watch* report illuminates several of these issues.

Teachers

The development of the child depends on what happens in the classroom where the teacher is the key player. Studies done over the years have documented a series of issues related to teachers.

Training of teachers is a much-discussed subject. It is known from various reports including all three *Watch* reports that over 90 percent of the 158,000 government primary school teachers received the nine-month Certificate-in-Education (C-in-Ed) training at the Primary Teachers Training Institutes (PTI). The proportions of teachers trained at the private schools, madrassas or the Kindergartens are less. The non-formal teachers undergo their own short basic training followed by monthly refresher courses. When this impressive training experience is examined against the outcome of students

learning, one is baffled. What does this training then contribute to children's learning? There are 53 PTIs in the country and one wonders about the justification of this large investment. *Watch 2000* included a detailed study on teacher training and identified a number of issues and problems that beset teacher training in Bangladesh (Alam and Haque 2001).

The other issue, also related to training, is how the teacher performs and behaves in the classroom. Classroom observations have revealed a very passive teaching behaviour with little or no interaction with learners. A recent study found that two-thirds of the government and four-fifths of the private school teachers attend school without any preparation (PSPMP 2001; Hussain et al. 2001). There is hardly any reflection of what they learn at PTIs in their performance in classrooms. The use of teaching aids is minimal and rote memorization is the dominant practice. Student assessment is hardly done according to the specified competencies.

Teachers have traditionally enjoyed a status in the community as wise and respectable citizens. Despite a widely shared perception of a general moral degradation in society, the respect for teachers or at least for the role of the teacher still survives. However, the status of teachers in the bureaucratic hierarchy does not match the social perception of the role of the teacher. In terms of gradation in the civil service structure and remuneration, a primary school teacher is just a notch above the office messenger. Improvement of "the status, morale, and professionalism" of teachers has been identified as a key factor in improving the quality of education in the Dakar Framework of Action (UNESCO 2000).

Supervision

The supervision of primary schools is vested with the Upazila Education Officer (UEO) and his assistants, the AUEOs. The statistics provided by schools on frequency of visits by UFO and AUEO shows at least one visit a year for most schools. The effectiveness of such visit and the veracity of the report by schools are debatable (Chowdhury et al. 1999). Particularly questionable is the background, training and capability of the designated supervisors to offer help and advice to classroom teachers, because few of the former have any hands-on classroom experience. The difference between 'inspection' and 'supportive supervision' need to be delineated and more of the latter needs to be pursued by building the capacity in the supervisory structure to do so.

Management, governance and accountability

Primary education in Bangladesh is centrally managed. The Conference on Universal Primary Education in Bangladesh in 1996 had recommended a "significantly greater devolution of responsibility and authority to levels close to the learners" through the formation of, say, District Primary

3 Such a concern is expressed quite frequently from top officials such as the Secretary of PMED to the highest political level including the Prime Minister (Daily Star, 22 April 2002).

Education Board (Jalaluddin and Chowdhury 1997). Unfortunately nothing of the sort has happened over the five years since the conference. There is a need to remind all of this imperative and work towards decentralization. Moreover, there is very little primary level experience of people who run the primary education sector in the country. The directors or their deputies are taken mostly from the cadre of college teachers with little experience on the problems prevalent at the primary level. Surprisingly, even the instructors at PTIs or at the National Academy for Primary Education (NAPE) never taught or had direct teaching exposure at primary level (Alam and Haque 2001).

There is hardly any accountability of the people involved at the primary education sector. The government emphasized the formation of School Management Committee (SMC) and Parent-Teacher Association (PTA). We have seen that most schools do have them but their effectiveness is always debated, as they exist mostly on paper. A recent study documented that only 15 percent of the SMCs were active (PSPMP 2001)⁴. In contrast, an important factor for the success of BRAC's non-formal primary education programme is the active participation of the parents in the affairs of the school (Ahmed et al. 1993).

Then there is the question of corruption. An analysis by Transparency International Bangladesh (TIB) based on the scanning of newspaper reports found the education department to be on the top in terms of wastage and plundering of public money (TIB 2001). Based on field-level research it has recently documented the various forms of corruption that take place at the upazila level. Corruption in terms of receiving subscriptions, giving favour to enroll in Food for Education projects, cheating in examinations, and bribery at the upazila education office of the government were documented (TIB 2001a). The government and the society at large must act together immediately to stop this monster from engulfing the whole sector.

Investment and cost of education

Over half of the educational budget is now allocated to primary education (DPE 2001) but the overall investment is still low, just over two percent of the GDP (Haq and Haq 1998). This investment is lower than what other countries in South Asia invest in education. A contentious issue and an impeding factor for the overall success of primary education programme is the distribution of the expenditures at the primary level. More than 90 percent of the revenue expenditure is spent in meeting teachers salaries and benefits leaving very little for quality enhancing activities such as increased supervision, monitoring, training and learning materials.

Primary education in Bangladesh is free but we have seen in this report⁴ that the reality is a sea apart from this.

On an average, the parents of a primary school student were found to spend over Taka 700 in private costs in nine months of the survey year, which amounts to an annualized expenditure of Taka 1000 per year. This is about two percent of average household income and a considerably higher share of income of a rural landless family. A significant proportion of this money is spent in private tutoring which is also reflective of the quality of teaching in the school. That 80 percent of the parents send their children to school despite this high concealed cost is a testimony to a strong desire for their children's education. Efforts on the part of the schools to improve their quality of teaching will relieve many parents of this extra burden on their meagre income.

Complacency and lack of awareness

The recent gains in quantitative outcome of primary education are well recognised and also have earned kudos for the country. Unfortunately this has also created a sense of complacency among many in the primary education sector.⁵ There is only a recent recognition of the issue of quality at the highest level but this has not yet percolated down to the school level. As a consequence, many teachers are not even aware that their teaching is hardly making much difference or of their role and responsibility in this matter. The UEO and AUEO are supposed to have a key role in raising teachers' awareness and assisting teachers to do their job, but they themselves are often not as aware and knowledgeable as they should be. There is thus a strong case to mount an awareness drive about the present state of affairs and the need to improve quality that will involve many stakeholders including students, teachers, upazila and district level education officials, parents, local government and the civil society. In this task the NGOs, particularly an organization like CAMPE, and the media can play important roles.

Physical facilities

Hardly any school in rural Bangladesh has all the necessary facilities. Rather many of these are in dilapidated condition, unfit for a learning situation. Over the years, there has been a substantial investment in improving the physical facilities but they are far from satisfactory yet. The schools have a capacity to accommodate only about 60 percent of enrolled students. It won't be surprising if a link between the 60 percent capacity and the 60 percent attendance were to be found in the primary school. It is not necessarily the shortage of funds that impede the improvement of basic facilities. Some of these facilities, such as availability of basic teaching aids, could be mobilized through local action. In this regard, participation of the local community in school affairs is critical.

4 This is also substantiated by a study done by Transparency International Bangladesh (2001a).

5 It may be recalled that the first report of the *Education Watch* was entitled *Hope not Complacency* to forewarn ourselves of this danger.

Action Recommendations

Drawing on the findings of *Education Watch 2001*, the research team makes action recommendations in three categories: (a) action implications regarding primary education access and participation, the focus of the present survey, (b) items that should be considered in formulating the National Plan of Action currently underway in fulfilling the requirements of the Dakar Framework of Action, and (c) a reiteration of the recommendations on quality of primary education made in *Education Watch 2000*, which are complementary and integrally linked to the recommendations on access and participation.

1. Actions on access and participation

The gains made in respect of access and participation in primary education in recent years have to be maintained, consolidated and made truly broad-based and inclusive. Achieving this overall goal will require a number of mutually complementary measures.

- (a) A fifth of the primary school-age children who still do not enroll and at least a quarter of the enrolled that does not complete the cycle (which add up to 40 percent of children deprived of a full cycle of primary education) need to be brought to school and kept in school for the duration of the cycle.
- (b) Measures have to be taken to eliminate geographical disparity in primary education opportunities by identifying the factors behind the disparity and giving urgent attention to overcoming the causes. A first action may be to identify villages with lower than 50 percent net enrolment rate.
- (c) The inequities in primary education arising from socio-economic disadvantages require identifying the characteristics of the deprived children and the specific contributory factors. The lessons from NGO-run primary education programmes in serving the disadvantaged children should be looked at and incorporated in strategy to deal with socio-economic causes of primary education inequities. Other elements of the strategy will be greater devolution of responsibilities to district, upazila and school levels and accountability at all stages for performance of schools and teachers, especially to the parents.
- (d) The substantial household costs for "free" primary education should be eliminated, especially for the poor families, by improving the quality of instruction in school (thus making private tutoring unnecessary) and making provisions for essential learning materials. Alternative use of funds allocated to food-for-education and stipends, focusing directly on quality improvement in school, should be considered.
- (e) A major programme, developed and implemented in collaboration with non-governmental and community organizations, for a "second chance" of basic education and appropriate skill development opportunities should be initiated for some 15 million of out-of-school adolescents and youth in the age-range of 11-20 years, a majority of whom have missed primary education and enter adulthood without basic education and life skills.
- (f) Conflicting views and confusion about the state of literacy should be resolved by undertaking an independent and technically sound survey of literacy achievement, which will serve as the basis for planning future literacy and continuing education activities.

2. Bangladesh and the Dakar Framework 2000

Bangladesh has endorsed the goals and strategies as set out in the Dakar Framework for Action 2000. There are six goals and twelve strategies laid out in the framework. In preparing the National Plan of Action for EFA up to year 2015, as required by the Dakar Framework, the following need to be given special attention :

- (a) *Mobilise national political commitment for education for all, develop national action plan and enhance significantly investment in basic education.* The government is now developing a new national action plan and there seems to be a reiteration of national commitment. There is also a National Education Policy now. Unfortunately there is not much public discourse on the former nor any indication of whether there would be an increase in investment in education.
- (b) *Promote EFA policies within a sustainable and well-integrated sector framework clearly linked to poverty elimination and development strategies.* The development programmes in the country are vertical in nature with little horizontal connections. It is important that in EFA plans, an overall view of development priorities and programmes are taken and the links between education and other sectors are considered. All development sectors need to be mobilized for EFA as EFA's contribution to national development goals should be given attention.

The Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP), which is the donor-supported umbrella programme of the government on primary education, has 23 plus projects under it. The common impression that there is a lack of coordination between these projects needs to be looked at seriously for improving synergy.

- (c) *Ensure the engagement and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of*

- strategies for educational development.* There is no strategy on how to involve the civil society. The government has, however, created space for NGOs to operate non-formal education programmes. Unfortunately there is no recognition of their contribution to primary and basic education. There is also hardly any participation of the civil society in the implementation of PEDP. The *Education Watch* is a civil society initiative for monitoring progress towards EFA. Although the Ministers and other policy makers participated in the launch of the report, it has not yet received any formal participation or recognition from PMED.
- (d) *Develop responsive, participatory and accountable systems of educational governance and management.* There is much to be done on this front. Some of the issues related to governance and management have been discussed above.
- (e) *Meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability, and conduct educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance and that help to prevent violence and conflict.* The Chittagong Hill Tracts (CHT), which saw armed conflicts for about three decades, is relatively peaceful now. However, no special drive has been taken to restore the confidence of the Hill people and no headway has been reported in the expansion of access to education in the region. Moreover, the Regional Council, set up in the aftermath of the peace agreement, has allowed very limited participation of NGOs.
- (f) *Implement integrated strategies for gender equality in education that recognize the need for change in attitudes, values, and practices.* Bangladesh has done quite well in removing the gender gap in enrolment, attendance and cycle completion, which was the result of several affirmative actions taken by the government and NGOs. We should not lose sight of this and continue to promote gender equality through such interventions until gender equality is established on a sustainable basis in all aspects including the learning outcome. It may be mentioned that girls are lagging behind boys in learning achievements (Chowdhury et al. 2001; Nath et al. 2001).
- (g) *Implement education programmes and actions to combat the HIV/AIDS pandemic.* Although HIV/AIDS is causing devastation in many developing countries, Bangladesh has fortunately been spared of this so far. However, many conditions that facilitate the spread of HIV/AIDS do exist in the country. The country has been indifferent to the seriousness of the problem and in implementing prevention programmes through educational institutions.
- (h) *Create safe, healthy, inclusive and equitably resourced educational environments conducive to excellence in learning, with clearly defined levels of achievement for all.* As we have seen in this report and all previous *Watch* reports, the primary education system in Bangladesh is inequitable. Children belonging to poorer families and ethnic minorities, or those living in slums are particularly disadvantaged. There is hardly any opportunity available for disabled children to attend schools. Moreover, not all types of schools are equally resourced. The non-formal schools, for example are particularly resource-poor, as found in the present report.
- (i) *Enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers.* Quality of education cannot improve without a commitment to quality and effective performance by teachers. Measures to this end will include improving the effectiveness of teachers' professional preparation, creating the necessary conditions for teachers to do their job in the school, rewards and incentives that recognize teachers' role and responsibility, and enhancing social recognition of teachers in appropriate ways.
- The government has recently started revising the curricula for the Certificate-in-Education (C-in-Ed) course for primary school teachers to make it more relevant vis-à-vis the 53 terminal competencies. While this is a welcome step it has, however, taken too long to happen given the fact that the terminal competency-based education was introduced in the country in 1992. In another move, the government has recently undertaken a revision of the terminal competencies themselves. The C-in-Ed revision should take into consideration the latest revision in the competencies.
- (j) *Harness new information and communication technologies to help achieve EFA goals.* Bangladesh is lagging behind in making the best out of information and communication technologies (ICT). Making this available to a vast majority of primary schools will be a formidable challenge. We should also try to make better use of conventional electronic media such as radio and television in teachers' professional preparation and upgrading through distance education. The government should make these channels available for educational programmes at no or subsidized costs.
- (k) *Systematically monitor progress towards EFA goals and strategies.* A recent project undertaken by the government through a commercial firm and funded by development partners has done some useful work in monitoring specific aspects of the primary education sector (PSPMP 2001); such activities should continue on a regular basis. The government also should support and promote the

Watch project which has provided useful and relevant information and review on the primary education sector.

- (1) *Build on existing mechanism, to accelerate progress towards Education for All.* The previous *Watch* reports identified factors responsible for success in the primary education sector in terms of quantitative gains. The major contributing factors have been the increased government, NGO and donor commitment, affirmative actions to reach particular groups (such as girls and poorer children in rural areas), and expansion of non-formal education.

3. Complementary actions on quality

We re-state the short, medium and long-term measures which were recommended in *Education Watch 2000* and remain highly relevant as essential steps complementary to the actions indicated above regarding universal and equitable access and participation in primary education.

Short-term measures

- Undertake an independent review of the quality improvement aspects of the major primary education development projects including various separate quality improvement projects in order to develop a comprehensive and coordinated quality improvement strategy and programme, addressing root causes of poor quality.
- Begin increasing public budget for primary education (within the framework of a goal of doubling the share of education expenditure in GNP), targeting the new resources to quality improvement measures.
- Revisit the list of the 53 competencies, retain those that are competencies in real sense of the term, and redefine these, as necessary, in terms of measurable pedagogic outcomes.
- For the new list of competencies, design fresh orientation programmes for teachers and their supervisors in terms of both teaching-learning and assessment processes. Devise and introduce measurement indicators and standards for the competencies.
- Raise awareness among teachers and their supervisors about the existing state of the quality of primary education in terms of the attainment of the terminal competencies, and the need to improve it.
- Consider deferring the introduction of English until Class IV.
- Introduce new materials and books to engage students in creative and problem solving exercises in various

subject areas. Also train teachers to handle this new demand on them.

- Re-examine existing and required capacities in the supervisory system from a perspective of improving learning outcome of students; and monitor the performance of teachers, their supervisors and schools from this perspective; consider instituting incentive and reward systems for better performing schools.
- Supply textbooks on time and Khata (copybook) and pencils free of cost to students, particularly those who are disadvantaged. If resource is a constraint (which we believe is a matter of priorities and choice rather than scarcity), divert resources from the Food-for-Education and stipend programmes.
- Support and encourage more interaction between the formal and non-formal systems and institutions including those for teacher training in order to build on and make best use of the strengths of each other.

Medium and long-term measures

- Hold implementation of the proposed eight-year primary cycle until the existing system is more responsive to the need of the students; priority should be to improve quality and performance standards in existing institutions rather than engage in a major institutional restructuring venture with consequent strain on resources and management capacity.
- Create autonomous district education authorities for overall planning, management and accountability of primary education; begin with a trial in a number of districts to ensure success and learn lessons.
- Improve the reach and outcome performance of secondary school system to create aspirations among primary students and their parents.
- Double the GNP share of public resource allocation for education to five percent in the next five to seven years.

Concluding Remarks

Bangladesh continues to make commendable progress in increasing access to primary education. However, this gain is blurred by a slow or limited progress in improving the quality of the learning. This is the biggest challenge and newest frontier in our struggle for education. The hopes have been renewed but challenges remain.

Like other countries in the developing world, Bangladesh is committed to the goals and strategies as formulated through the Dakar Framework. It is essential that we approach the challenges pragmatically and build on our successes. We have set a new goal to achieve education for all by 2015. Let us not postpone it again.

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Annexes

Annex 1.1: Goals and strategies of the Dakar Framework of Action 2000

Goals

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

Strategies

1. Mobilize strong national and international political commitment for Education for All, develop national action plans and enhance significantly investment in basic education.
2. Promote EFA policies within a sustainable and well-integrated sector framework clearly linked to poverty elimination and development strategies.
3. Ensure the engagement and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of strategies for educational development.
4. Develop responsive, participatory and accountable systems of educational governance and management.
5. Meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability, and conduct educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and that help to prevent violence and conflict.
6. Implement integrated strategies for gender equality in education that recognize the need for change in attitudes, values and practices.
7. Implement education programmes and actions to combat the HIV/AIDS pandemic as a matter of urgency.
8. Create safe, healthy, inclusive and equitable resourced educational environments conducive to excellence in learning, with clearly defined levels of achievement for all.
9. Enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers.
10. Harness new information and communication technologies to help achieve EFA goals.
11. Systematically monitor progress towards EFA goals and strategies at the national, regional and international levels.
12. Build on existing mechanisms to accelerate progress towards Educational for All.

Source: UNESCO (2000). *The Dakar Framework of Action*. Paris : UNESCO

Annex 2.2: Checklist for private expenditure for schooling survey

Education Watch 2001 Private Expenditure for Schooling Survey

Identification

বিভাগ : জেলা :

থানা : ইউনিয়ন/ওয়ার্ড :

গ্রাম : খানা নম্বর : ক্রাস্টার নম্বর :

স্ট্রাটাম : গ্রামীণ ঢাকা 1 গ্রামীণ চট্টগ্রাম 2 গ্রামীণ রাজশাহী 3 গ্রামীণ খুলনা 4

গ্রামীণ বরিশাল 5 গ্রামীণ সিলেট 6 মেট্রোপলিটন শহর 7 পৌরসভা 8

এ বছর (২০০০ সালের জানুয়ারি থেকে সেপ্টেম্বর) ছাত্র/ছাত্রীর লেখাপড়া বাবদ পাসপোর্টের খাতড় গুলোতে কত টাকা খরচ হয়েছে।		4-20 বৎসর বয়সী যারা বর্তমানে স্কুলে যাচ্ছে তাদের নাম ও লাইন নম্বর			
খাত	টাকা	টাকা	টাকা	টাকা	টাকা
ভর্তি, পুনঃভর্তি ইত্যাদি বাবদ					
স্কুলের বেতন					
পাঠ্যপুস্তক ক্রয়/সংগ্রহ					
সাহায্যকারী পুস্তক ক্রয়/সংগ্রহ					
খাতা, কলম, পেনসিল, জ্যামিতি বক্স, ইত্যাদি ক্রয়					
স্কুলের পোশাক					
বিভিন্ন প্রকার চাপা (মিলাদ, পূজা, খেলাধুলা ইত্যাদি উপলক্ষে)					
পরীক্ষাসমূহের ফিজ					
স্কুলে যাতায়াত					
গৃহ শিক্ষকের বেতন/কোচিং/সেন্টারের ফি					
গৃহ শিক্ষকের বাড়ি/কোচিং সেন্টারের যাতায়াত					
অন্যান্য					

তথ্য সংগ্রহকারীর নাম : তারিখ :

Annex 2.3: Questionnaire for survey of educational institutions

Education Watch 2001
শিক্ষা প্রতিষ্ঠান জরিপ প্রশ্নপত্র

সনাক্তকরণ

বিভাগ : জেলা :

থানা : ইউনিয়ন/ওয়ার্ড :

গ্রাম : ক্লাস্টার নম্বর : খানা নম্বর :

ডাটাম : গ্রামীণ ঢাকা গ্রামীণ চট্টগ্রাম গ্রামীণ রাজশাহী গ্রামীণ খুলনা

 গ্রামীণ বরিশাল গ্রামীণ সিলেট মেট্রোপলিটন শহর পৌরসভা

স্কুলের সাধারণ তথ্য

ক্রমিক	প্রশ্ন	কোড
1	স্কুলের নাম	
2	স্কুলটি কত সালে প্রতিষ্ঠিত হয়েছে?	
3	স্কুলটিতে কি ছেলে ও মেয়ে উভয়ের পড়াশুনার ব্যবস্থা আছে?	শুধু ছেলেদের 1 শুধু মেয়েদের 2 উভয়ের 3
4	স্কুলের ধরন কি? কোড : সরকারি প্রাথমিক = 1, সরকারি উচ্চ বিদ্যালয় সংলগ্ন প্রাথমিক = 2, বেসরকারি রেজিস্টার্ড প্রাথমিক = 3, বেসরকারি আনরেজিস্টার্ড প্রাথমিক = 4, বেসরকারি উচ্চ বিদ্যালয় সংলগ্ন প্রাথমিক = 5, এবতেদায়ী মাদ্রাসা = 6, কামিল/ফাজেল/আলিম/দাখেল মাদ্রাসা = 7, উপ-আনুষ্ঠানিক = 8	
5	স্কুলটি NGO পরিচালিত উপ-আনুষ্ঠানিক প্রাথমিক বিদ্যালয় হলে কোন NGO'র?	
6	স্কুলে কোন ক্লাশ থেকে কোন ক্লাশ পর্যন্ত পড়ানো হয়?	সর্বনিম্ন সর্বোচ্চ
7	স্কুলে কয়টি শ্রেণীকক্ষ আছে?	
8	স্কুলে কতজন শিক্ষক আছেন?	পুরুষ মহিলা
9	স্কুলে মোট কতজন ছাত্র/ছাত্রী আছে?	ছাত্র ছাত্রী

(Contd.)

(Contd. of Annex 2.3)

শ্রেণীকক্ষে বসার ব্যবস্থা ও উপস্থিতি								
শ্রেণী ও সেকশন		স্বাভাবিকভাবে কতজন বসতে পারে	ছাত্র			ছাত্রী		
			তালিকাভুক্ত (রেজিস্টার থেকে)	আজ ক্লাশে উপস্থিতি (মাথা গুনে)	গতকাল উপস্থিতি দেখানো হয়েছে (রেজিস্টার থেকে)	তালিকাভুক্ত (রেজিস্টার থেকে)	আজ ক্লাশে উপস্থিতি (মাথা গুনে)	গতকাল উপস্থিতি দেখানো হয়েছে (রেজিস্টার থেকে)
শিশু	0	1						
	0	2						
	0	3						
	0	4						
প্রথম	1	1						
	1	2						
	1	3						
	1	4						
দ্বিতীয়	2	1						
	2	2						
	2	3						
	2	4						
তৃতীয়	3	1						
	3	2						
	3	3						
	3	4						
চতুর্থ	4	1						
	4	2						
	4	3						
	4	4						
পঞ্চম	5	1						
	5	2						
	5	3						
	5	4						

Household information

Ques. No.	Questions	Name and serial number of individuals aged 4-20 years																	
		1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3						
1	Whether the mother enrolled any school	Yes	No	Not known	1	2	3	Yes	No	Not known	1	2	3	Yes	No	Not known	1	2	3
2	Year of schooling completed																		
3	Whether the mother enrolled any school	Yes	No	Not known	1	2	3	Yes	No	Not known	1	2	3	Yes	No	Not known	1	2	3
4	Year of schooling completed																		
5	Father's main occupation																		
6	Whether the mother involve with any income generating activity	Yes	No	Not known	1	2	3	Yes	No	Not known	1	2	3	Yes	No	Not known	1	2	3
7	Whether father/mother or any member of HH attended in school meeting this year Code: Yes=1, No=2, Not known=3, Not applicable=4	Father	Mother	Any other	Father	Mother	Any other	Father	Mother	Any other	Father	Mother	Any other	Father	Mother	Any other	Father	Mother	Any other
8	Whether the child participated in any co-curricular activities this year. If yes, put the appropriate code. Code: Not participated=1, Debate=2, Cultural programme/ Yearly drama=3, Sports and games = 4, Scout/ Rover/ BNCC/ Social work =5, Science fair=6, Study tour=7, Don't know=8, Not applicable=9	In school	Others		In school	Others		In school	Others		In school	Others		In school	Others		In school	Others	
9	Self-perceived yearly economic status of household. Code: Always in deficit=1, Sometimes in deficit=2, Balance=3, Surplus=4																		
10	Religion.	Code: Muslim=1, Hindu=2, Others=3																	
11	Ethnicity.	Code: Bangali = 1, Non-Bangali = 2																	
12	Whether the household lives in Slum.	Code: Yes=1, No=2																	

Name of the interviewer: _____

Date: _____

Annex 2.5: English version of checklist for private expenditure for schooling survey

Education Watch 2001
Private Expenditure for Schooling Survey

Identification

Division : District : Thana : Union/Ward :

Village/Mahallah Household No. : Cluster No.

Stratum : 1. Rural Dhaka 2. Rural Chittagong 3. Rural Rajshahi 4. Rural Khulna
 5. Rural Barisal 6. Rural Sylhet 7. Metropolitan city 8. Municipalities

1	Educational expenses of the student during January to September 2000	Names and line numbers of those aged 4-20 years and currently enrolled in school							
		Taka	Taka	Taka	Taka	Taka	Taka	Taka	Taka
	Items								
	Admission, re-admission etc.								
	School fees								
	Buying/collection of textbooks								
	Buying/collection of supplementary books								
	Notebook, pen, pencil, geometry box, etc								
	School dress								
	Different fees (Milad, Puza, sports etc)								
	Examination fees								
	Transportation cost (home to school)								
	Salary for house tutor/ extra coaching fee								
	Transportation cost (home to private tutor)								
	Any other								

Name of the interviewer: Date:

Annex 2.6 : English version of questionnaire for survey of educational institutions

Education Watch 2000 Survey of Educational Institutions

Identification

Division : District :

Thana : Union/Ward :

Village/Mahallah : Household No. : Cluster No.

Stratum : 1. Rural Dhaka 2. Rural Chittagong 3. Rural Rajshahi 4. Rural Khulna
 5. Rural Barisal 6. Rural Sylhet 7. Metropolitan city 8. Municipalities

Basic Information

Serial	Questions	Code
1	What is the name of the school?	
2	When does it established (year)?	
3	Whether it is a co-ed school?	Only for boys 1 Only for girls 2 Co-ed 3
4	What is the type of the school? <i>Code:</i> Government primary = 1, Primary attached to government high school = 2, Non-government primary registered primary = 3, Non-government unregistered primary = 4 Primary attached to non-government high school = 5, Non-government primary registered primary = 3, Ebtedayee madrassa = 6, Kamil/Fazel/Alim/Dakhel madrassa = 7, Non-formal primary = 8.	
5	If it is a NGO operated school, please mention the name of the NGO.	
6	What is the lowest and highest grade in the school?	Lowest Highest
7	How many classrooms are there in the school?	
8	How many teachers are there in the school?	Male Female
9	How many students are there in the school?	Boys Girls

(Contd.)

(Contd. of Annex 3.12)

Sitting arrangement and attendance in the classroom								
Grade	section	No. of students can seat with ease	Boys			Girls		
			No. of students in the register book	No. of students attended today	No. of students attended yesterday	No. of students in the register book	No. of students attended today	No. of students attended yesterday
Shishu	0	1						
	0	2						
	0	3						
	0	4						
One	1	1						
	1	2						
	1	3						
	1	4						
Two	2	1						
	2	2						
	2	3						
	2	4						
Three	3	1						
	3	2						
	3	3						
	3	4						
Four	4	1						
	4	2						
	4	3						
Five	5	1						
	5	2						
	5	3						
	5	4						

(Contd.)

(Contd. of Annex 2.6)

Income and expenditure during January to September 2000			
Income	Amount (in Taka)	Expenditure	Amount (in Taka)
Monthly fees from the students		Fixed assets	
Other fees from the students		Lands and school buildings	
Selling fruits, fishes and other food grains earned from the lands of the school		Furniture (Bench, chair, table, almira)	
Donation received a) Government source b) Other sources		Educational materials (blackboard, Books for library, laboratory materials, any others)	
Rent out any wealth		Tube well, trees	
Any other (specify)		Any other fixed assets	
Last years surplus		Recurrent cost	
Last years deficit		Teachers and other employees salary and other benefits	
		Construction works (lands, school building, furniture etc.)	
		Buying stationaries	
		Rent in anything	
		Any other (specify)	
		Buying fixed assets	

School management committee and school visit			
Serial	Questions	Code	
1	Whether there is SMC for this school?	Yes	1
		No	2
2	How many members are there in the committee? <i>Code: Not known=88, Not applicable=99</i>	Male	
		Female	
3	How many times the committee met this year (January to September 2000)? <i>Code: Not known=88, Not applicable=99</i>		
4	How many of the members were present in last meeting?	Male	
		Female	
5	What is the distance (in km) between your school and the local education office (TEO/ATEO/PO or any other)		
6	Could you please mention the number of visits to your school by the local education authority (TEO/ATEO/PO).	TEO	
		ATEO	
		PO	
		Others	
Name of the interviewer: _____ Date: ____/____/____			

Annex 2.7: Definitions of some of the indicators used in this report

Followings are the definitions of some of the indicators used in this report.

Primary level: Classes I (one) to V (five) were considered as primary level.

Primary age group: Aged 6-10 years were considered as primary age group.

Secondary level: Classes VI (six) to X (ten) were considered as secondary level.

Secondary age group: Aged 11-15 years were considered as secondary age group.

Net enrolment rate: Percentage of children currently enrolled in any type of school among the children aged 6-10 years.

$$\text{Net enrollment rate (for 6-10y)} = \frac{\text{Number of children aged 6-10 currently enrolled in any type of school}}{\text{Total number of children aged 6-10 years}} \times 100$$

In Bangladesh, the official primary school age group is 6 to 10 years. In this study a child was reported as currently enrolled if s/he went to school at least for a day within the previous six months of the interview.

Gross enrollment ratio: Number of children currently enrolled at the primary level (class I to V) for each 100 children aged 6-10 years.

$$\text{Gross enrollment ratio (at primary level)} = \frac{\text{Total number of children currently enrolled at primary level (class I to V)}}{\text{Total number of children aged 6-10 years}} \times 100$$

Attendance rate: Percentage of children was present in a class during school visit among the children registered for that Class.

$$\text{Attendance rate} = \frac{\text{Total number of students were present}}{\text{Total number of students registered}} \times 100$$

Promotion rate: Percentage of students promoted to a certain Class among the students registered in the previous Class during last year.

$$\text{Promotion rate:} = \frac{\text{Number of students promoted to a certain Class}}{\text{Total number of students were registered in the previous Class during last year}} \times 100$$

Repetition rate: Percentage of students repeating a certain Class among the students registered in the same Class during last year.

$$\text{Promotion rate:} = \frac{\text{Number of students repeating a certain Class}}{\text{Total number of students were registered in the same Class during last year}} \times 100$$

Dropout rate: Percentage of students of a certain Class dropped out during a certain year among the students registered in the same Class during the year.

$$\text{Promotion rate:} = \frac{\text{Number of students of a certain Class dropped out during a certain year}}{\text{Total number of students were registered in the same Class during the year}} \times 100$$

Completion rate: This was calculated through reconstructing a cohort of 1000 students and assuming the following:

- i) Promotion and repetition rates are constant throughout the period;
- ii) All students are considered to have same likelihood of promotion and repetition, whether they have never repeated or have repeated once or more;
- iii) The possible number of times a Class is repeated is limited to 2 or 3;
- iv) There are no other entrants apart from the original 1000.

Thus, completion rate is the percentage of students completing the whole cycle of primary education among the students enrolled in Class I five years ago.

Co-efficient of efficiency: This is a ratio of expected student years needed to complete the primary cycle by the graduates and total student years actually spent to produce the graduates expressed in percentage.

$$\text{Co-efficient of efficiency} = \frac{\text{Expected student years to complete the cycle}}{\text{Total student years actually spent to produce the graduates}} \times 100$$

Literate person: A person reported to have skills in reading and writing a letter was considered as literate person.

Literacy rate: Percentage of population aged 7 and above can read and write letter among all population of the same age group.

$$\text{Literacy rate} = \frac{\text{Number of literate person aged 7 and above}}{\text{Total population aged 7 and above}} \times 100$$

Adult literacy rate: Percentage of population aged 15 and above can read and write letter among all population of the same age group.

$$\text{Literacy rate} = \frac{\text{Number of literate person aged 15 and above}}{\text{Total population aged 15 and above}} \times 100$$

'Educationally dark' household: A household was defined as 'educationally dark' if no one (aged 7 and above) in the household was literate and no school aged children (6-15 years) of the household (if there is any) went to school.

Literate household: A household having at least one literate person was considered as literate household.

Self-perceived yearly economic status: It is a proxy variable for economic condition of households. The respondents were asked to assess their own households economic status in one of the following four-point scale keeping in mind the overall income and expenditure for last one year: 'always in deficit', 'sometimes in deficit', 'balance/break even', and 'surplus'.

ANNEX 2.8 : Determination of sample size and weighting

Sample size determination: In order to determine the size of the sample for household survey, enrolment was considered as principle variable. Considering the variable as dichotomous, i.e., a child is currently enrolled in school or not, following formula was used in determining the sample size (Cochran, 1977; Kalton, 1983).

$$n = \frac{z^2 \times p \times q}{\alpha^2}$$

where, n is the estimated size of the sample
 p is the probability of a child to be currently enrolled,
 q ($= 1 - p$) is the probability of a child not to be currently enrolled,
 z is the area of standard normal curve under certain confidence limit, and
 α is the desired level of precision

Taking the value 0.5 for both p and q (because such values of p and q maximises the sample size) and considering the confidence limit as 95% (of which the value of z is 1.96) with 7% error level it was calculated that the required sample size for an estimate stands at 196. This means that for a single estimate 196 children are required. As a cluster sampling approach was followed in this study, to reduce cluster effect it was decided to double the size of the sample for each estimate. Thus the required sample size for an estimate stand at 392. This means that 392 children were required for a reasonable estimate of enrolment. It can be seen in Table 2.1 that children surveyed for estimating enrolment rates were five times higher than this figure. Thus it allowed us to have separate estimates for each age.

Procedure for weighted estimate: The way was to find the proportion of the population for different stratum and calculate the pooled estimate by using the following formula.

$$P = \sum s_i \times w_i,$$

where, P is the pooled estimate
 s_i 's are the estimates for different stratum
 w_i 's are the weights.

Latest available census information was used to find the weights for children level indicators. These weights were used to find the pooled estimates at rural, urban and national levels for those indicators for which data were collected through household and school surveys.

Annex 3.1: Percentage distribution of currently enrolled students by Class, stratum and gender						
Residence	Total students	I	Current Class of enrolment			
			II	III	IV	V
Rural Dhaka Division						
Girls	1,377	31.0	20.7	19.3	13.6	15.4
Boys	1,429	32.5	21.2	19.5	12.4	14.3
Both	2,806	31.8	21.0	19.4	13.0	14.9
Rural Chittagong Division						
Girls	1,778	30.1	20.8	17.6	15.3	16.2
Boys	1,808	32.9	19.5	17.1	15.4	15.1
Both	3,586	31.5	20.2	17.3	15.4	15.6
Rural Rajshahi Division						
Girls	1,233	32.4	19.4	19.1	13.1	16.1
Boys	1,412	35.2	21.7	16.4	13.5	13.2
Both	2,645	33.9	20.6	17.6	13.3	14.6
Rural Khulna Division						
Girls	1,316	32.3	17.6	18.5	14.8	16.7
Boys	1,339	32.2	18.4	16.2	16.1	17.1
Both	2,655	32.2	18.0	17.4	15.5	16.9
Rural Barisal Division						
Girls	1,430	29.1	20.2	18.9	14.1	17.7
Boys	1,406	31.0	21.8	17.5	15.4	14.4
Both	2,836	30.0	21.0	18.2	14.7	16.0
Rural Sylhet Division						
Girls	1,495	32.1	22.1	19.2	15.3	11.3
Boys	1,591	34.3	20.4	19.1	14.7	11.6
Both	3,086	33.2	21.2	19.2	15.0	11.4
Metropolitan cities						
Girls	1,115	24.8	21.8	22.6	15.0	15.9
Boys	1,120	26.0	21.0	22.3	16.7	14.0
Both	2,235	25.4	21.4	22.5	15.8	14.9
Municipalities						
Girls	1,209	28.4	17.5	22.2	13.7	18.1
Boys	1,181	31.8	17.7	20.9	14.9	14.7
Both	2,390	30.0	17.6	21.6	14.3	16.4

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.2: Percentage distribution of currently enrolled students by age, residence and gender										
Residence	Total students	Age of students								
		4-5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13+
Rural Dhaka										
Girls	1,377	5.5	7.8	13.5	16.6	11.6	16.2	8.6	11.2	9.1
Boys	1,429	2.0	6.6	14.4	16.0	11.7	16.2	8.0	12.2	10.0
Both	2,806	5.2	7.2	14.0	16.3	11.7	16.2	8.3	11.7	9.5
Rural Chittagong										
Girls	1,778	5.3	9.7	14.1	14.3	12.5	15.4	8.8	10.1	9.9
Boys	1,808	6.5	8.0	12.4	15.4	12.7	17.4	7.9	11.7	8.1
Both	3,586	5.9	8.8	13.2	14.8	12.6	16.4	8.4	10.9	9.0
Rural Rajshahi										
Girls	1,233	5.2	9.5	14.8	16.5	11.5	18.1	7.4	11.0	5.9
Boys	1,412	6.0	8.9	13.7	18.1	11.9	16.1	8.4	10.7	6.1
Both	2,645	5.6	9.1	14.2	17.3	11.7	17.1	7.9	10.9	6.2
Rural Khulna										
Girls	1,316	6.1	9.0	14.2	14.6	12.6	17.4	10.3	9.3	6.5
Boys	1,339	6.1	8.0	14.5	15.3	12.6	14.3	10.2	10.5	8.5
Both	2,655	6.0	8.5	14.4	15.0	12.6	15.8	10.2	9.9	7.6
Rural Barisal										
Girls	1,430	4.1	7.3	13.6	16.9	13.1	20.3	7.9	9.4	7.2
Boys	1,406	3.8	6.9	12.0	14.2	16.4	18.1	10.2	11.4	7.0
Both	2,836	3.9	7.1	12.8	15.6	14.7	19.2	9.0	10.4	7.1
Rural Sylhet										
Girls	1,495	5.2	7.2	17.3	16.9	12.6	17.7	8.3	9.6	5.0
Boys	1,591	4.4	10.6	14.8	16.1	12.9	17.0	8.0	10.1	6.0
Both	3,086	4.9	9.0	16.0	16.5	12.8	17.3	8.2	9.9	5.6
Metropolitan cities										
Girls	1,115	4.5	7.3	15.0	12.5	14.4	19.1	11.7	8.3	7.4
Boys	1,120	3.8	6.9	14.0	13.5	13.4	19.2	11.8	8.9	8.6
Both	2,235	4.1	7.1	14.5	13.0	13.9	19.1	11.7	8.6	7.9
Municipalities										
Girls	1,209	5.6	9.3	13.8	15.6	13.8	16.8	10.6	9.8	4.7
Boys	1,181	6.4	8.5	13.6	16.4	14.1	16.9	10.2	8.5	5.4
Both	2,390	5.9	8.9	13.7	16.0	14.0	16.8	10.4	9.1	5.1

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.3: Percentage distribution of students of non-formal schools by provider	
Provider NGO	Percentage
BRAC	68.4
Proshika	10.7
Friends in Village Development (FIVDB)	4.9
Ghashphul	3.0
World Vision	2.9
Nizera Shikhi	2.7
Community Development Centre (CODEC)	1.0
Underprivileged Children's Educational Programmes (UCEP)	0.9
Other 23 NGOs	5.5
n	1457

Annex 3.4: Percentage distribution of students currently enrolled at primary level (Classes I to V) by type of school, stratum and gender								
Type of school	Rural Dhaka		Rural Chittagong		Rural Rajshahi		Rural Khulna	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Government	65.6	63.7	72.9	66.9	44.2	45.1	62.8	59.2
Private (registered)	10.4	10.7	11.2	10.4	35.2	36.6	13.0	14.9
Private (un-registered)	1.5	2.1	2.5	3.8	0.8	0.9	0.5	0.2
Non-formal	10.6	7.1	4.2	2.9	10.3	6.7	11.4	9.9
Satellite/Community	5.0	6.3	1.8	1.5	2.7	1.6	2.0	3.2
Ebtedayee	0.6	0.8	2.4	4.1	3.4	3.4	3.4	4.0
Kamil/Fazel/Alim/Dhakil	4.5	6.6	3.6	8.3	2.8	4.3	5.3	6.6
Kindergarten	1.4	2.4	1.0	2.2	0.4	1.1	0.3	1.1
Secondary attached	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.2	0.1	1.3	0.9
All schools	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
n	1,368	1,420	1,770	1,801	1,232	1,410	1,302	1,325
<i>(Contd Annex 3.4)</i>								
Type of school	Rural Barisal		Rural Sylhet		Metropolitan cities		Municipalities	
	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys
Government	70.7	71.6	70.5	67.1	51.6	51.8	64.5	58.7
Private (registered)	15.5	14.5	16.6	17.4	5.2	6.7	11.4	11.0
Private (un-registered)	1.3	1.9	3.1	3.1	1.4	2.2	1.2	1.2
Non-formal	5.8	4.3	2.7	2.8	8.1	7.3	9.8	8.2
Satellite/Community	0.4	0.3	3.1	3.3	0.4	0.1	1.2	1.4
Ebtedayee	3.0	2.7	1.7	3.3	3.6	4.5	1.5	2.4
Kamil/Fazel/Alim/Dhakil	2.9	4.4	1.8	2.3	0.2	1.4	1.0	3.1
Kindergarten	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.7	10.1	9.2	6.2	9.3
Secondary attached	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.0	19.4	16.8	3.1	4.7
All schools	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
n	1,422	1,396	1,495	1,591	1,106	1,113	1,204	1,177

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.5: Net enrolment rate among children 6–10 years by residence, self-perceived food security status and gender									
Residence	Self-perceived food security status								Significance
	Always in deficit		Sometimes in deficit		Balance		Surplus		
Rural Bangladesh									
Girls	66.8	(1,103)	77.5	(2,406)	80.9	(2,980)	90.2	(1,488)	p<0.001
Boys	63.6	(1,141)	77.6	(2,592)	82.4	(3,116)	89.5	(1,447)	p<0.001
Both	65.2	(2,244)	77.5	(4,998)	81.7	(6,096)	89.9	(2,935)	p<0.001
Significance	ns		ns		ns		ns		
Urban Bangladesh									
Girls	66.7	(225)	83.9	(474)	83.2	(937)	81.9	(568)	p<0.001
Boys	69.3	(216)	74.0	(504)	85.0	(927)	88.7	(506)	p<0.001
Both	68.0	(441)	78.8	(978)	84.1	(1,864)	85.1	(1,074)	p<0.001
Significance	ns		p<0.001		ns		p<0.01		
All Bangladesh									
Girls	66.8	(1,328)	78.1	(2,880)	81.2	(3,917)	88.8	(2,056)	p<0.001
Boys	64.2	(1,357)	77.2	(3,096)	82.8	(4,043)	89.4	(1,953)	p<0.001
Both	65.4	(2,685)	77.7	(5,976)	82.0	(7,960)	89.0	(4,009)	p<0.001
Significance	ns		ns		ns		ns		

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6–10 years; ns = not significant at $p = 0.05$

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.6: Net enrolment rate among children 6–10 years by stratum, self-perceived food security status and gender									
Stratum	Self-perceived food security status								Significance
	Always in Deficit		Sometimes in deficit		Balance		Surplus		
Girls									
Rural Dhaka	66.7	(153)	77.2	(276)	76.3	(468)	87.2	(242)	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong	57.3	(157)	70.3	(198)	78.1	(625)	90.3	(349)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi	68.1	(229)	80.9	(419)	84.1	(359)	92.5	(186)	p<0.001
Rural Khulna	92.1	(126)	93.5	(436)	93.4	(392)	94.6	(148)	ns
Rural Barisal	64.3	(305)	79.6	(341)	87.3	(529)	93.2	(222)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet	54.9	(133)	66.6	(351)	76.8	(607)	89.1	(341)	p<0.001
Metropolitan cities	66.7	(99)	82.3	(478)	81.6	(488)	81.4	(290)	p<0.001
Municipalities	66.7	(126)	84.8	(381)	84.6	(449)	82.4	(278)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001		p<0.001		p<0.001		p<0.001		
Boys									
Rural Dhaka	58.5	(176)	77.3	(419)	80.8	(463)	89.2	(251)	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong	60.4	(144)	76.1	(515)	82.4	(647)	87.2	(298)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi	68.2	(242)	77.7	(404)	82.3	(417)	89.4	(207)	p<0.001
Rural Khulna	85.2	(128)	84.6	(357)	90.4	(415)	95.7	(138)	p<0.01
Rural Barisal	56.6	(311)	79.5	(454)	85.4	(519)	89.7	(184)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet	52.1	(140)	71.1	(443)	76.9	(655)	91.3	(369)	p<0.001
Metropolitan cities	71.3	(94)	76.6	(205)	83.1	(478)	89.1	(258)	p<0.001
Municipalities	68.0	(122)	72.6	(299)	86.6	(449)	88.3	(248)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001		p<0.001		p<0.001		ns		
Both									
Rural Dhaka	62.3	(329)	77.3	(800)	78.3	(931)	88.2	(493)	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong	58.8	(301)	73.3	(993)	80.3	(1272)	88.9	(647)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi	68.2	(471)	79.2	(755)	83.1	(776)	90.8	(393)	p<0.001
Rural Khulna	88.6	(254)	89.0	(698)	91.8	(807)	95.1	(286)	p<0.01
Rural Barisal	60.4	(616)	79.6	(890)	86.4	(1048)	91.6	(406)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet	53.5	(273)	68.9	(862)	76.9	(1262)	90.3	(710)	p<0.001
Metropolitan cities	68.9	(193)	79.4	(403)	82.3	(966)	85.0	(548)	p<0.001
Municipalities	67.3	(248)	78.4	(575)	85.6	(898)	85.2	(526)	
Significance	p<0.001		p<0.001		p<0.001		p<0.001		

Figures in the parenthesis indicate number of children 6–10 years; ns = not significant at $p = 0.05$

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.7: Net enrolment rate among children 6–10 years by residence, mothers education and gender							
Residence	Mothers education level						Significance
	No schooling		Grades I – V		Grades VI+		
Rural Bangladesh							
Girls	73.4	(5,040)	89.9	(2,016)	94.8	(896)	p<0.001
Boys	73.0	(5,304)	90.6	(2,037)	95.1	(936)	p<0.001
Both	73.2	(10,344)	90.2	(4,053)	95.0	(1,832)	p<0.001
Significance	ns		ns		ns		
Urban Bangladesh							
Girls	69.7	(1,040)	90.0	(488)	96.3	(651)	p<0.001
Boys	70.5	(1,023)	87.6	(451)	95.4	(675)	p<0.001
Both	70.1	(2,063)	88.9	(939)	95.8	(1,326)	p<0.001
Significance	ns		ns		ns		
All Bangladesh							
Girls	73.1	(6,080)	89.9	(2,504)	95.3	(1,547)	p<0.001
Boys	72.8	(6,327)	90.2	(2,488)	95.2	(1,611)	p<0.001
Both	72.9	(12,407)	90.1	(4,992)	95.2	(3,158)	p<0.001
Significance	ns		ns		ns		

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6-10 years; ns = not significant at $p = 0.05$

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.8: Net enrolment rate among children 6–10 years by residence, fathers education and gender								
Residence	Fathers education level						Significance	
	None		Grades I–V		Grades VI–X			Grades XI+
Rural Bangladesh								
Girls	72.1	(4,325)	86.7	(1,856)	91.3	(1,415)	95.0 (316)	p<0.001
Boys	71.5	(4,597)	87.5	(1,883)	92.8	(1,423)	95.6 (325)	p<0.001
Both	71.8	(8,922)	87.1	(3,739)	92.1	(2,838)	95.3 (641)	p<0.001
Significance	ns		ns		ns		ns	
Urban Bangladesh								
Girls	70.2	(835)	84.6	(458)	90.8	(503)	96.9 (355)	p<0.001
Boys	68.5	(803)	84.3	(429)	90.1	(538)	96.4 (361)	p<0.001
Both	69.4	(1,638)	84.4	(887)	90.4	(1,041)	96.6 (716)	p<0.001
Significance	ns		ns		ns		ns	
All Bangladesh								
Girls	72.0	(5,160)	86.4	(2,314)	91.2	(1,918)	95.7 (671)	p<0.001
Boys	71.2	(5,400)	87.1	(2,312)	92.3	(1,961)	95.9 (686)	p<0.001
Both	71.6	(10,560)	86.7	(4,626)	91.8	(3,879)	95.8 (1,357)	p<0.001
Significance	ns		ns		ns		ns	

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6-10 years; ns = not significant at $p = 0.05$

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.9: Net enrolment rate among children 6–10 years by stratum, mothers education and gender							
Stratum	Mothers education level						Significance
	No schooling		Grades I – V		Grades VI+		
Girls							
Rural Dhaka	72.0	(831)	88.5	(295)	91.6	(107)	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong	68.7	(988)	86.0	(401)	94.9	(214)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi	75.8	(793)	93.0	(228)	97.1	(104)	p<0.001
Rural Khulna	90.7	(579)	96.9	(259)	97.6	(168)	p<0.001
Rural Barisal	71.1	(736)	91.2	(555)	94.2	(189)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet	69.7	(1113)	87.8	(278)	93.9	(114)	p<0.001
Metropolitan cities	67.1	(456)	87.0	(231)	94.9	(374)	p<0.001
Municipalities	71.4	(584)	92.2	(257)	97.8	(277)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001		p<0.001		ns		
Boys							
Rural Dhaka	72.3	(882)	89.1	(284)	96.9	(131)	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong	71.6	(986)	90.4	(408)	94.7	(208)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi	74.5	(897)	90.6	(256)	93.0	(114)	p<0.001
Rural Khulna	82.8	(564)	94.5	(291)	96.1	(180)	p<0.001
Rural Barisal	66.8	(791)	90.1	(516)	95.6	(158)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet	70.8	(1184)	91.1	(282)	93.1	(145)	p<0.001
Metropolitan cities	69.0	(442)	87.4	(222)	95.4	(368)	p<0.001
Municipalities	71.4	(581)	87.8	(229)	95.4	(307)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001		ns		ns		
Both							
Rural Dhaka	72.2	(1713)	88.8	(579)	94.5	(238)	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong	70.2	(1974)	88.3	(809)	94.8	(422)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi	75.1	(1690)	91.7	(484)	95.0	(218)	p<0.001
Rural Khulna	86.8	(1143)	95.6	(550)	96.8	(348)	p<0.001
Rural Barisal	68.8	(1527)	90.7	(1071)	94.8	(347)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet	70.3	(2297)	89.5	(560)	93.4	(259)	p<0.001
Metropolitan cities	68.0	(898)	87.2	(453)	95.1	(742)	p<0.001
Municipalities	71.4	(1165)	90.1	(486)	96.6	(584)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001		p<0.001		ns		

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6-10 years; ns = not significant at $p = 0.05$

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.10: Net enrolment rate among children 6–10 years by stratum, fathers education and gender									
Stratum	Fathers education level								Significance
	None		Grades I – V		Grades VI–X		Grades XI+		
Girls									
Rural Dhaka	70.3	(725)	84.8	(256)	91.1	(192)	93.8	(48)	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong	65.7	(793)	82.8	(400)	89.3	(327)	95.1	(82)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi	76.2	(705)	88.2	(203)	90.8	(173)	95.1	(41)	p<0.001
Rural Khulna	90.3	(465)	95.4	(260)	97.0	(233)	97.7	(44)	p<0.01
Rural Barisal	70.4	(689)	90.1	(434)	92.7	(286)	93.7	(63)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet	67.7	(948)	186.1	(303)	88.7	(204)	97.4	(38)	p<0.001
Metropolitan cities	66.5	(349)	83.7	(233)	87.3	(244)	97.2	(217)	p<0.001
Municipalities	72.4	(486)	85.3	(225)	93.4	(259)	96.4	(138)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001		p<0.001		p<0.01		ns		
Boys									
Rural Dhaka	70.7	(769)	86.2	(260)	93.8	(210)	94.1	(51)	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong	69.0	(835)	86.8	(372)	93.5	(321)	94.5	(73)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi	72.9	(770)	88.6	(246)	90.5	(190)	98.1	(54)	p<0.001
Rural Khulna	83.9	(484)	88.7	(257)	94.9	(237)	98.0	(49)	p<0.001
Rural Barisal	65.9	(700)	86.8	(454)	94.2	(260)	90.7	(43)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet	69.3	(1039)	90.1	(294)	87.8	(205)	96.4	(55)	p<0.001
Metropolitan cities	68.2	(349)	82.9	(211)	88.7	(248)	96.8	(217)	p<0.001
Municipalities	68.7	(454)	85.3	(218)	91.0	(290)	95.8	(144)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001		ns		p<0.05		ns		
Both									
Rural Dhaka	70.5	(1494)	85.5	(516)	92.5	(402)	93.9	(99)	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong	67.4	(1628)	84.7	(772)	91.4	(648)	94.8	(155)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi	74.4	(1475)	88.4	(449)	90.6	(363)	96.8	(95)	p<0.001
Rural Khulna	87.0	(949)	92.1	(517)	96.0	(470)	97.8	(93)	p<0.001
Rural Barisal	68.1	(1389)	88.4	(888)	93.4	(546)	92.5	(106)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet	68.5	(1987)	88.1	(597)	88.3	(409)	96.8	(93)	p<0.001
Metropolitan cities	67.3	(698)	83.3	(444)	88.0	(492)	97.0	(434)	p<0.001
Municipalities	70.6	(940)	85.3	(443)	92.2	(549)	96.1	(282)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.001		p<0.001		p<0.001		ns		

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6-10 years; ns = not significant at $p = 0.05$

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.11: Net enrolment rate among children 6–10 years by religion and stratum					
Stratum	Religion				Significance
	Islam		Others		
Rural Dhaka Division	77.2	(2,390)	87.7	(163)	p<0.01
Rural Chittagong Division	78.2	(2,830)	75.6	(393)	ns
Rural Rajshahi Division	80.5	(2,215)	77.3	(185)	ns
Rural Khulna Division	90.4	(1,668)	93.1	(379)	ns
Rural Barisal Division	78.9	(2,774)	90.7	(194)	p<0.001
Rural Sylhet Division	76.2	(2,788)	71.3	(335)	p<0.05
Metropolitan cities	81.5	(1,943)	78.0	(177)	ns
Municipalities	81.1	(2,039)	87.3	(213)	p<0.05
Significance	p<0.001		p<0.001		
Rural Bangladesh	79.4	(14,665)	81.7	(1,649)	p<0.05
Urban Bangladesh	81.3	(3,982)	83.5	(390)	ns
Significance	p<0.01		ns		
All Bangladesh	79.6	(18,647)	81.9	(2,039)	p<0.05

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6-10 years; ns = not significant at $p = 0.05$
 Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.12: Net enrolment rate among children 6–10 years by religion and gender					
Gender	Religion				Significance
	Islam		Others		
Girls	79.8	(9,189)	81.3	(1,018)	ns
Boys	79.5	(9,458)	82.6	(1,021)	p<0.05
Significance	ns		ns		
Both	79.6	(18,647)	81.9	(2,039)	p<0.05

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6-10 years; ns = not significant at $p = 0.05$
 Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.13: Net enrolment rate among children 6–10 years by residence and ethnicity					
Residence	Ethnicity				Significance
	Bangali		Non-Bangali		
Rural Bangladesh	79.7	(16,084)	66.9	(230)	p<0.001
Urban Bangladesh	81.8	(4,167)	76.2	(205)	p<0.05
Significance	p<0.01		p<0.05		
All Bangladesh	80.0	(20,251)	70.7	(435)	p<0.001

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6–10 years

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.14: Net enrolment rate among children 6–10 years by ethnicity and gender					
Gender	Ethnicity				Significance
	Bangali		Non-Bangali		
Girls	80.1	(9,979)	67.2	(228)	p<0.001
Boys	79.9	(10,272)	74.7	(207)	ns
Significance	ns		ns		
Both	80.0	(20,251)	70.7	(435)	p<0.001

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6–10 years; ns = not significant at $p = 0.05$

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.15: Net enrolment rate among slum children 6–10 years: slum dwellers verses others					
Residence	Ethnicity				Significance
	Bangali		Non-Bangali		
Rural Bangladesh	53.2	(270)	80.0	(16,044)	p<0.001
Urban Bangladesh	65.3	(364)	82.9	(4,008)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.01		p<0.001		
All Bangladesh	58.8	(634)	80.3	(20,052)	p<0.001

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6–10 years

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.16: Net enrolment rate among slum children 6–10 years: slum dwellers verses others by gender					
Gender	Residence				Significance
	Slum		Non-slum		
Girls	61.3	(302)	80.3	(9,905)	p<0.001
Boys	56.4	(332)	80.3	(10,147)	p<0.001
Significance	ns		ns		
All Bangladesh	58.8	(634)	80.3	(20,052)	p<0.001

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of children aged 6–10 years; ns = not significant at $p = 0.05$

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.17: Village/mahallah level analysis of net enrolment rate among children 6-10 years by stratum			
	Minimum	Maximum	Range
Rural Dhaka Division	45.9	98.1	52.2
Rural Chittagong Division	10.1	97.4	87.3
Rural Rajshahi Division	12.2	98.0	85.8
Rural Khulna Division	70.7	100.0	29.3
Rural Barisal Division	29.4	96.2	66.8
Rural Sylhet Division	28.7	97.5	68.8
Metropolitan cities	53.2	98.1	44.9
Municipalities	59.7	95.1	35.4
Rural Bangladesh	10.1	100.0	89.9
Urban Bangladesh	53.2	98.1	44.9
All Bangladesh	10.1	100.0	89.9

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.18: Percentage distribution of children aged 6-10 years by current enrolment status and stratum				
Stratum	Number of children	Enrolment status		
		Currently enrolled	Dropped out	Never enrolled
Rural Dhaka Division	2,553	77.9	2.0	20.1
Rural Chittagong Division	3,223	77.8	3.4	18.8
Rural Rajshahi Division	2,400	80.3	1.8	17.9
Rural Khulna Division	2,047	90.9	1.4	7.7
Rural Barisal Division	2,968	79.7	2.1	18.2
Rural Sylhet Division	3,123	75.7	2.0	22.4
Metropolitan cities	2,120	81.2	3.3	15.5
Municipalities	2,252	81.7	3.6	14.7
Rural Bangladesh	16,314	79.6	2.2	18.2
Urban Bangladesh	4,372	81.5	3.5	15.0
All Bangladesh	20,686	79.8	2.4	17.8

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.19: Percentage distribution of children aged 6-10 years by current enrolment status, stratum and gender				
Stratum	Number of children	Enrolment status		
		Currently enrolled	Dropped out	Never enrolled
Girls				
Rural Dhaka Division	1,244	77.5	1.4	21.1
Rural Chittagong Division	1,613	76.4	3.7	19.9
Rural Rajshahi Division	1,128	81.3	1.2	17.5
Rural Khulna Division	1,008	93.5	0.9	5.7
Rural Barisal Division	1,495	81.3	1.9	16.8
Rural Sylhet Division	1,509	74.9	1.7	23.5
Metropolitan cities	1,078	80.3	3.5	16.1
Municipalities	1,132	82.2	3.2	14.7
Rural Bangladesh	7,997	79.7	1.9	18.4
Urban Bangladesh	2,210	81.4	3.3	15.3
All Bangladesh	10,207	79.9	2.1	18.0
Boys				
Rural Dhaka Division	1,309	78.3	2.7	19.0
Rural Chittagong Division	1,610	79.3	3.1	17.6
Rural Rajshahi Division	1,272	79.3	2.4	18.3
Rural Khulna Division	1,039	88.5	1.8	9.7
Rural Barisal Division	1,473	78.1	2.2	19.7
Rural Sylhet Division	1,614	76.4	2.2	21.4
Metropolitan cities	1,042	82.1	3.0	14.9
Municipalities	1,120	81.3	4.1	14.6
Rural Bangladesh	8,317	79.5	2.5	17.9
Urban Bangladesh	2,162	81.6	3.6	14.7
All Bangladesh	10,479	79.8	2.7	17.5

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.20 : Profile of the currently non-enrolled children aged 6-10 years			
Characteristics	Girls (n = 1941)	Boys (n = 2048)	Both (n = 3989)
Age (in year)			
6	29.9	30.1	30.0
7	24.6	21.8	23.2
8	16.3	16.8	16.6
9	10.4	10.5	10.4
10	18.8	20.8	19.8
Mean (sd)	7.6 (1.5)	7.7 (1.5)	7.7 (1.5)
Mothers education			
No education	84.6	85.5	85.1
I – V	12.2	11.3	11.7
VI +	3.2	3.3	3.2
Mean (sd)	0.8 (3.1)	0.8 (3.2)	0.8 (3.1)
Fathers education			
No education	75.5	77.9	76.7
I – V	15.2	13.9	14.5
VI – X	8.2	7.0	7.6
XI +	1.2	1.2	1.2
Mean (sd)	1.4 (2.9)	1.2 (2.8)	1.3 (2.9)
Self-perceived yearly food security status of household			
Always in deficit	22.1	23.7	22.9
Sometimes in deficit	31.8	34.7	33.2
Balance	35.0	32.0	33.5
Surplus	11.0	9.6	10.3
Mothers involvement in IGA			
Yes	32.4	29.6	31.0
No	67.6	70.4	69.0
Religion			
Muslim	91.2	91.8	91.5
Non-Muslim	8.8	8.2	8.5
Area			
Rural	87.4	88.4	87.9
Urban	12.6	11.6	12.1

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.21 : Percentage distribution of children 6-10 years who were never enrolled by cause of non-enrolment and stratum								
Causes	Rural Dhaka	Rural Chittagong	Rural Rajshahi	Rural Khulna	Rural Barisal	Rural Sylhet	Met. city	Municipality
School is away from home	2.4	10.6	24.5	5.1	4.7	5.1	3.1	0.0
Lack of money	21.2	19.0	17.8	17.2	29.6	24.5	29.9	27.1
School authority regretted	3.4	8.1	3.7	3.8	1.7	2.8	7.1	6.5
No use of education	0.0	1.0	1.2	0.0	0.6	1.6	0.3	1.2
Has to work at home	4.6	5.2	2.3	1.9	2.6	5.1	5.2	2.5
The child does not like	8.2	6.5	9.8	20.4	18.1	13.3	6.2	10.2
Too young to go to school	49.7	35.7	35.5	41.4	28.7	44.7	38.6	47.4
Insecure road transportation	5.2	7.9	0.7	0.6	2.4	0.7	1.5	1.5
Disability	1.0	2.0	2.8	9.6	0.7	0.9	2.8	2.8
Others	4.4	4.0	1.6	0.0	11.0	1.3	5.2	0.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
n	501.0	596.0	428.0	157.0	537.0	685.0	324.0	325.0

Annex 3.22: Percentage distribution of currently enrolled students of age 6-10 years by Class of enrolment, residence and gender									
Residence	n	Class of current enrolment							Non-graded religious
		Preparatory classes	I	II	III	IV	V	VI – VII	
Rural Bangladesh									
Girls	6,400	5.2	34.6	24.0	18.7	10.1	6.3	0.8	0.4
Boys	6,612	5.4	36.8	23.8	16.8	10.0	4.9	0.7	1.7
Both	13,012	5.2	35.7	23.9	17.7	10.0	5.6	0.8	1.1
Urban Bangladesh									
Girls	1,795	7.3	27.5	21.6	21.8	11.0	7.2	2.2	1.3
Boys	1,765	7.1	30.5	21.5	20.1	11.2	5.8	1.9	1.8
Both	3,560	7.2	29.0	21.6	21.0	11.1	6.5	2.1	1.5
All Bangladesh									
Girls	8,195	5.4	33.6	23.7	19.1	10.2	6.4	1.0	0.5
Boys	8,377	5.5	36.0	23.5	17.2	10.2	5.0	0.8	1.7
Both	16,572	5.5	34.8	23.6	18.2	10.2	5.7	0.9	1.1

Notes: Preparatory includes play group, Nursery and baby (shishu) classes.

Hafizia, Kaomi and Kharizi are non-graded religious schools.

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.23: Percentage distribution of currently enrolled students of age 6-10 years by Class of enrolment, residence, stratum and gender

Residence	n	Class of current enrolment							
		Preparatory classes	I	II	III	IV	V	VI – VII	Non-graded religious
Girls									
Rural Dhaka	1,244	5.2	34.5	24.7	19.4	9.1	6.0	0.8	0.2
Rural Chittagong	1,613	3.5	34.4	25.4	18.7	10.7	5.9	0.6	0.9
Rural Rajshahi	1,128	4.4	36.0	23.4	18.4	10.1	6.5	1.0	0.1
Rural Khulna	1,008	3.9	37.0	21.7	18.8	10.5	6.8	1.2	0.1
Rural Barisal	1,495	14.9	28.4	20.6	17.4	9.2	8.3	1.2	0.0
Rural Sylhet	1,509	3.3	34.3	26.5	18.3	11.4	4.3	0.6	1.2
Metropolitan cities	1,078	9.2	25.4	23.2	21.2	10.9	7.3	2.6	0.1
Municipalities	1,132	5.7	29.0	20.4	22.4	11.1	7.2	1.9	2.3
Boys									
Rural Dhaka	1,309	6.8	36.5	22.5	18.0	8.0	5.5	1.0	1.8
Rural Chittagong	1,610	3.2	36.4	23.3	16.8	11.9	4.9	0.7	2.8
Rural Rajshahi	1,272	2.8	39.4	26.6	15.9	9.8	4.4	0.2	1.0
Rural Khulna	1,039	4.2	36.3	23.5	17.0	11.6	5.8	1.0	0.5
Rural Barisal	1,473	15.6	31.0	22.7	14.1	10.3	4.7	0.9	0.9
Rural Sylhet	1,614	4.9	37.2	23.3	18.0	10.1	3.6	0.4	2.5
Metropolitan cities	1,042	9.5	27.9	23.2	20.3	11.7	4.4	2.4	0.4
Municipalities	1,120	5.3	32.6	20.1	19.9	10.9	6.8	1.5	2.9
Both									
Rural Dhaka	2,553	6.1	35.5	23.6	18.7	8.5	5.7	0.9	1.0
Rural Chittagong	3,223	3.3	35.4	24.3	17.7	11.3	5.4	0.6	1.9
Rural Rajshahi	2,400	3.6	37.8	25.1	17.1	10.0	5.4	0.6	0.6
Rural Khulna	2,047	4.1	36.7	22.6	17.9	11.1	6.3	1.1	0.3
Rural Barisal	2,968	15.2	29.6	21.6	15.8	9.7	6.6	1.1	0.4
Rural Sylhet	3,123	4.1	35.8	24.8	18.2	10.7	3.9	0.5	1.9
Metropolitan cities	2,120	9.4	26.7	23.2	20.7	11.3	5.9	2.6	0.2
Municipalities	2,252	5.5	30.8	20.3	21.2	11.0	7.0	1.8	2.6

Notes: Preparatory includes play group, Nursery and baby (shishu) classes.

Hafiziya, Kaomi and Kharizi are non-graded religious schools.

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 3.24: Net enrolment rate of children aged 6-10 years by Class and age						
Class	Age of children					
	6	7	8	9	10	All
Non-enrolled	35.5	21.7	15.4	12.9	17.0	20.2
Non-graded religious schools	0.5	0.7	1.0	0.9	1.4	1.1
Pre-primary	10.8	6.5	3.5	1.6	0.6	4.3
Class I	44.5	43.8	29.4	16.2	7.7	27.8
Class II	7.6	21.1	26.8	22.0	15.5	18.9
Class III	1.2	5.7	17.9	27.0	20.4	14.5
Class IV	-	0.6	4.6	14.4	19.8	8.1
Class V	-	-	1.5	4.5	14.8	4.5
Class VI	-	-	-	0.4	2.6	0.7
Class VII	-	-	-	-	0.4	0.1
All	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
n	3,536.0	4,431.0	4,360.0	3,433.0	4,926.0	20,686.0

Source: Education Watch Household Surveys (2000)

Annex 3.25: Percentage of currently non-enrolled individuals by years of schooling completed and age group		
Years completed	Age group	
	11-15 years	16-20years
Nil	42.9	29.0
Non-graded religious and pre primary	0.7	1.5
Class I	5.1	1.7
Class II	8.7	5.1
Class III	8.4	5.6
Class IV	9.7	9.5
Sub total I-IV	31.9	21.9
Class V	15.8	17.7
Class VI	4.1	6.3
Class VII	2.1	5.7
Class VIII+	2.6	18.9
Sub total VI-VIII+	24.6	48.6
Total	100.0	100.0
n	6,021.0	9,137.0

Annex 4.1: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by Class and gender					
Class/ gender	Percentage of students			Total	Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated		
Girls					
I	87.8	3.7	8.5	100.0	20,097
II	91.2	3.3	5.5	100.0	18,370
III	83.6	5.7	10.7	100.0	18,081
IV	86.0	6.0	8.0	100.0	15,606
V	88.5	5.5	6.0	100.0	13,391
All	87.5	4.7	7.8	100.0	85,545
Boys					
I	87.9	3.7	8.4	100.0	22,467
II	89.6	3.6	6.8	100.0	20,219
III	82.5	6.7	10.8	100.0	19,407
IV	84.5	6.2	9.3	100.0	16,934
V	87.5	5.9	6.6	100.0	15,604
All	86.5	5.1	8.4	100.0	94,631

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.2: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by Class and area					
Area/class	Percentage of students			Total	Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated		
Rural					
I	87.1	3.7	9.2	100.0	29,343
II	89.6	3.5	6.9	100.0	26,256
III	82.4	6.5	11.1	100.0	24,483
IV	84.5	6.6	8.9	100.0	21,416
V	87.6	6.2	6.2	100.0	18,557
All	86.3	5.1	8.6	100.0	1,20,055
Urban					
I	90.3	4.0	5.7	100.0	13,221
II	92.6	3.5	3.9	100.0	12,333
III	84.8	5.4	9.8	100.0	13,005
IV	87.8	4.4	7.8	100.0	11,124
V	89.3	4.2	6.5	100.0	10,438
All	89.0	4.3	6.7	100.0	60,121

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.3: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by area and school type					
Area/School type	Percentage of students				Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated	Total	
Rural schools					
Government	86.9	4.9	8.2	100.0	48,418
Private	84.3	5.6	10.1	100.0	37,636
Madrassa	82.0	7.9	10.1	100.0	28,956
Non-formal	96.4	3.3	0.3	100.0	5,045
Urban schools					
Government	89.2	4.3	6.5	100.0	31,455
Private	89.2	3.6	7.2	100.0	16,611
Madrassa	83.1	7.5	9.4	100.0	9,811
Non-formal	95.2	3.5	1.3	100.0	2,244

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.4: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by gender and school type					
Gender/ School type	Percentage of students				Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated	Total	
Girls					
Government	88.0	4.5	7.5	100.0	40,971
Private	85.5	5.1	9.4	100.0	26,286
Madrassa	80.7	8.6	10.7	100.0	13,841
Non-formal	96.3	3.4	0.3	100.0	4,447
Boys					
Government	86.9	4.9	8.2	100.0	38,902
Private	85.0	5.3	9.7	100.0	27,961
Madrassa	83.2	7.3	9.5	100.0	24,926
Non-formal	96.2	3.2	0.6	100.0	2,842

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.5: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by area and gender					
Area/gender	Percentage of students				Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated	Total	
Rural schools					
Girls	86.7	5.0	8.3	100.0	56,218
Boys	85.9	5.2	8.9	100.0	63,837
Both	86.3	5.1	8.6	100.0	1,20,055
Urban schools					
Girls	89.6	3.9	6.5	100.0	29,327
Boys	88.4	4.7	6.9	100.0	30,794
Both	89.0	4.3	6.7	100.0	60,121

Annex 4.6: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by stratum					
Stratum	Percentage of students				Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated	Total	
Rural Dhaka	87.8	4.4	7.8	100.0	22,282
Rural Chittagong	88.7	4.6	6.7	100.0	25,503
Rural Rajshahi	82.9	5.7	11.4	100.0	19,248
Rural Khulna	86.3	5.4	8.3	100.0	17,845
Rural Barisal	86.6	6.5	6.9	100.0	17,468
Rural Sylhet	78.7	7.7	13.6	100.0	17,709
Metropolitan cities	89.1	4.8	6.1	100.0	36,646
Municipalities	88.9	3.5	7.6	100.0	23,475

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.7: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by stratum and gender					
Gender/Stratum	Promoted	Percentage of students			Number of students
		Dropped out	Repeated	Total	
Girls					
Rural Dhaka	88.5	4.1	7.4	100.0	10,513
Rural Chittagong	89.0	4.5	6.5	100.0	11,606
Rural Rajshahi	83.0	5.9	11.1	100.0	9,085
Rural Khulna	86.7	5.4	7.9	100.0	8,414
Rural Barisal	86.4	6.6	7.0	100.0	8,575
Rural Sylhet	79.3	7.4	13.3	100.0	8,025
Metropolitan cities	89.8	4.3	5.9	100.0	17,912
Municipalities	89.4	3.3	7.3	100.0	11,415
Boys					
Rural Dhaka	87.1	4.7	8.2	100.0	11,769
Rural Chittagong	88.5	4.7	6.8	100.0	13,897
Rural Rajshahi	82.8	5.5	11.7	100.0	10,163
Rural Khulna	85.9	5.4	8.7	100.0	9,431
Rural Barisal	86.7	6.5	6.8	100.0	8,893
Rural Sylhet	78.0	8.0	14.0	100.0	9,684
Metropolitan cities	88.3	5.4	6.3	100.0	18,734
Municipalities	88.4	3.8	7.8	100.0	12,060

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.8: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by stratum and school type					
Stratum / school type	Percentage of students				Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated	Total	
Rural Dhaka					
Government	88.0	4.1	7.9	100.0	9655
Private	87.7	4.4	7.9	100.0	6782
Madrassa	84.0	8.5	7.5	100.0	4919
Non-formal	96.5	3.5	0.0	100.0	926
Rural Chittagong					
Government	89.0	4.4	6.6	100.0	11850
Private	87.9	5.0	7.1	100.0	7718
Madrassa	83.8	8.8	7.4	100.0	5282
Non-formal	95.4	4.1	0.5	100.0	653
Rural Rajshahi					
Government	84.1	5.3	10.6	100.0	7579
Private	81.7	6.2	12.1	100.0	5682
Madrassa	77.6	6.9	15.5	100.0	5092
Non-formal	97.2	2.8	0.0	100.0	895
Rural Khulna					
Government	86.2	5.2	8.6	100.0	6327
Private	87.4	5.0	7.6	100.0	5828
Madrassa	84.1	7.6	8.3	100.0	4804
Non-formal	96.1	3.3	0.6	100.0	886
Rural Barisal					
Government	86.5	6.3	7.2	100.0	6639
Private	86.7	7.3	6.0	100.0	5779
Madrassa	86.0	8.6	5.4	100.0	4349
Non-formal	95.6	4.0	0.4	100.0	701
Rural Sylhet					
Government	79.0	8.3	12.7	100.0	6368
Private	76.3	5.9	17.8	100.0	5847
Madrassa	81.2	8.3	10.5	100.0	4510
Non-formal	97.7	1.4	0.9	100.0	984
Metropolitan cities					
Government	88.9	5.1	6.0	100.0	20627
Private	90.4	3.3	6.3	100.0	10056
Madrassa	85.5	5.6	8.9	100.0	4675
Non-formal	92.8	5.0	2.2	100.0	1288
Municipalities					
Government	89.6	3.1	7.3	100.0	10828
Private	87.0	4.2	8.8	100.0	6555
Madrassa	81.5	8.7	9.8	100.0	5136
Non-formal	98.4	1.6	0.0	100.0	956

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.9: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates by school type and Class					
Class/School type	Percentage of students				Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated	Total	
Government schools					
I	89.2	3.5	7.3	100.0	18,130
II	91.3	3.3	5.4	100.0	17,206
III	82.8	6.1	11.1	100.0	17,035
IV	85.3	5.8	8.9	100.0	14,588
V	89.3	5.4	5.3	100.0	12,914
Private schools					
I	83.7	4.0	12.3	100.0	13,988
II	87.7	3.3	9.0	100.0	11,894
III	82.9	6.3	10.8	100.0	10,654
IV	84.9	7.2	7.9	100.0	9,380
V	88.2	6.2	5.6	100.0	8,331
Madrasahs					
I	79.7	7.3	13.0	100.0	8,741
II	82.1	7.5	10.4	100.0	7,642
III	82.8	8.2	9.0	100.0	7,530
IV	83.9	7.5	8.6	100.0	7,413
V	83.2	8.6	8.2	100.0	7,441
Non-formal schools					
I	98.1	1.6	0.3	100.0	1,705
II	96.8	2.5	0.7	100.0	1,847
III	94.5	5.2	0.3	100.0	2,269
IV	96.9	2.9	0.2	100.0	1,159
V	93.2	6.4	0.4	100.0	309

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.10: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates in government schools by area and Class					
Area/Class	Percentage of students			Total	Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated		
Rural					
I	88.6	3.4	8.0	100.0	11,296
II	90.8	3.2	6.0	100.0	10,415
III	82.3	6.3	11.4	100.0	10,191
IV	84.5	6.3	9.2	100.0	8,787
V	88.0	5.8	6.2	100.0	7,729
All	86.9	4.9	8.2	100.0	48,418
Urban					
I	91.2	3.8	5.0	100.0	6,834
II	93.2	3.4	3.4	100.0	6,791
III	84.5	5.5	10.0	100.0	6,844
IV	87.8	4.3	7.9	100.0	5,801
V	89.3	4.2	6.5	100.0	5,185
All	89.2	4.3	6.5	100.0	31,455

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.11: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates in private schools by area and Class					
Area/Class	Percentage of students			Total	Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated		
Rural					
I	83.1	4.0	12.9	100.0	10,390
II	86.8	3.5	9.7	100.0	8,623
III	81.8	6.9	11.3	100.0	7,290
IV	83.6	8.2	8.2	100.0	6,130
V	87.3	7.1	5.6	100.0	5,203
All	84.3	5.6	10.1	100.0	37,636
Urban					
I	87.4	4.0	8.6	100.0	3,598
II	91.3	2.9	5.8	100.0	3,271
III	97.4	3.9	8.7	100.0	3,364
IV	89.3	3.9	6.8	100.0	3,250
V	90.8	3.4	5.8	100.0	3,128
All	89.2	3.6	7.2	100.0	16,611

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.12: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates in madrassas by area and Class					
Area/Class	Percentage of students				Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated	Total	
Rural					
I	79.1	7.3	13.6	100.0	6,572
II	81.7	7.6	10.7	100.0	5,759
III	83.2	8.1	8.7	100.0	5,588
IV	84.2	7.4	8.4	100.0	5,517
V	82.7	9.2	8.1	100.0	5,520
All	82.0	7.9	10.1	100.0	28,956
Urban					
I	83.0	7.4	9.6	100.0	2,169
II	83.8	7.2	9.0	100.0	1,883
III	81.5	8.3	10.2	100.0	1,942
IV	82.6	8.0	9.4	100.0	1,896
V	85.0	6.3	8.7	100.0	1,921
All	83.1	7.5	9.4	100.0	9,811

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.13: Promotion, dropout and repeater rates in non-formal schools by area and Class					
Area/Class	Percentage of students				Number of students
	Promoted	Dropped out	Repeated	Total	
Rural					
I	98.4	1.4	0.2	100.0	1,085
II	97.3	2.4	0.3	100.0	1,459
III	94.3	5.4	0.3	100.0	1,414
IV	97.0	2.9	0.1	100.0	982
V	94.1	5.6	0.3	100.0	105
All	96.4	3.3	0.3	100.0	5,045
Urban					
I	96.9	2.8	0.3	100.0	620
II	91.4	3.4	5.2	100.0	388
III	96.1	3.5	0.4	100.0	855
IV	96.7	2.2	1.1	100.0	177
V	92.1	7.4	0.5	100.0	204
All	95.2	3.5	1.3	100.0	2,244

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.14: Retention rate by Class, type of school and area (1999 – 2000)								
Class	Government		Private		Madrassa		Non-formal	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
I	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
II	96.3	96.0	95.4	95.6	91.5	91.8	98.6	97.2
III	93.1	92.6	91.6	92.7	81.4	84.6	96.2	93.7
IV	86.4	86.9	84.4	88.8	74.1	76.7	91.0	90.4
V	80.3	82.8	76.7	85.0	63.9	69.8	88.4	88.4
n	48,418	31,455	37,636	16,611	28,956	9,811	5,045	2,244

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.15: Hypothetical cohort analysis of students registered in various classes using the UNESCO methodology, for different types of schools by area (1999 – 2000)					
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal	All students
Rural schools					
Completion rate	75.4	70.8	54.2	83.4	73.8
Drop-out rate	24.6	29.2	37.6	16.6	26.2
Repetition rate	40.5	48.2	43.0	12.0	42.3
Survival rate	80.3	76.7	63.9	88.4	79.1
Co-efficient of efficiency	75.9	78.4	60.8	87.9	74.8
Year input per graduate	6.6	6.4	8.2	5.7	6.7
n	48,418	37,636	28,956	5,045	1,20,055
Urban schools					
Completion rate	75.1	81.7	64.9	81.8	78.8
Drop-out rate	24.9	18.3	35.1	18.2	21.2
Repetition rate	31.5	35.4	43.4	7.4	32.7
Survival rate	82.8	85.0	69.8	88.4	82.6
Co-efficient of efficiency	77.3	82.1	69.6	85.7	80.4
Year input per graduate	6.5	6.1	7.2	5.8	6.2
n	31,455	16,611	9,811	2,244	60,121

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.16: Percentage of students completing five-year cycle of primary schooling by stratum and years taken to complete						
Stratum	Number of students	Years taken to complete the full cycle				Total
		5	6	7	8	
Rural Dhaka Division	22,282	52.2	20.1	4.6	0.7	77.6
Rural Chittagong Division	25,503	54.1	18.3	3.8	0.6	76.8
Rural Rajshahi Division	19,248	39.4	15.6	4.4	1.4	60.8
Rural Khulna Division	17,845	47.5	19.5	4.9	1.1	73.0
Rural Barisal Division	17,468	48.3	14.3	3.2	0.5	66.3
Rural Sylhet Division	17,709	30.3	19.8	7.8	2.7	60.6
Metropolitan cities	36,646	55.8	17.1	3.3	0.4	76.6
Municipalities	23,475	55.6	17.4	4.5	0.8	78.3
Rural Bangladesh	1,20,055	47.6	20.0	5.2	1.0	73.8
Urban Bangladesh	60,121	55.6	18.8	3.8	0.6	78.8
All Bangladesh	1,80,176	49.8	20.0	4.9	1.0	75.7

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.17: Hypothetical cohort analysis of students registered in various classes using the UNESCO methodology, for different stratum (1999 – 2000)				
	Rural Dhaka	Rural Chittagong	Rural Rajshahi	Rural Khulna
Completion rate	77.6	76.8	60.8	73.0
Drop-out rate	22.4	23.2	39.2	27.0
Repetition rate	38.3	32.7	50.5	41.1
Survival rate	82.0	82.6	65.0	79.5
Co-efficient of efficiency	78.0	77.9	65.6	73.5
Year input per graduate	6.4	6.4	7.6	6.8
n	22,282.0	25,503.0	19,248.0	17,845.0
<i>(Contd. Annex 4.17)</i>				
	Rural Barisal	Rural Sylhet	Metropolitan cities	Municipalities
Completion rate	66.3	60.6	76.6	78.3
Drop-out rate	33.7	39.4	23.4	17.7
Repetition rate	32.4	64.3	32.4	37.8
Survival rate	75.3	67.6	80.6	85.4
Co-efficient of efficiency	69.9	62.2	79.8	78.2
Year input per graduate	7.1	8.0	6.3	6.4
n	17,468.0	17,709.0	36,646.0	23,475.0

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.18: Percentage of students completing five-year cycle of primary schooling without interruption by school type and area			
School type	Area		All
	Rural	Urban	
Government	49.2 (48,418)	56.3 (31,455)	51.4 (79,873)
Private	43.0 (37,636)	56.6 (16,611)	45.6 (54,247)
Madrassa	37.5 (28,956)	39.8 (9,811)	37.8 (38,767)
Non-formal	82.3 (5,045)	75.8 (2,244)	81.1 (7,289)

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.19: Attendance rate by stratum and gender			
Stratum	Girls	Boys	Both
Rural Dhaka Division	54.4 (10,794)	53.8 (11,766)	54.4 (22,560)
Rural Chittagong Division	58.3 (12,609)	55.3 (14,647)	56.5 (27,256)
Rural Rajshahi Division	57.2 (8,950)	53.4 (10,360)	55.8 (19,310)
Rural Khulna Division	62.4 (8,701)	59.6 (9,312)	61.4 (18,013)
Rural Barisal Division	62.7 (8,556)	58.4 (9,329)	60.9 (17,885)
Rural Sylhet Division	58.6 (8,510)	56.8 (10,424)	57.7 (18,934)
Metropolitan cities	66.9 (9,210)	65.7 (10,827)	65.9 (20,037)
Municipalities	64.2 (10,721)	62.4 (11,412)	63.2 (22,133)

Figures in the parenthesis indicate number of students in the school register
Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.20: Attendance rate by Class and gender			
Class	Girls	Boys	Both
I	60.9 (19,044)	59.8 (21,526)	60.1 (40,570)
II	58.9 (15,964)	56.5 (18,492)	56.7 (34,456)
III	58.6 (16,182)	55.2 (18,090)	56.6 (34,272)
IV	59.1 (13,358)	55.9 (15,471)	56.8 (28,829)
V	60.7 (13,503)	57.4 (14,498)	58.5 (28,001)

Figures in the parenthesis indicate number of students in the school register
Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.21: Attendance rate by school type and gender			
School type	Area		
	Girls	Boys	Both
Government	60.1 (34,285)	58.4 (33,013)	58.8 (67,298)
Private	58.1 (25,268)	54.7 (25,951)	55.6 (51,219)
Madrassa	49.0 (14,182)	45.3 (26,340)	46.1 (40,522)
Non-formal	87.6 (4,316)	84.9 (2,773)	87.5 (7,089)

Figures in the parenthesis indicate number of students in the school register

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.22: Attendance rate by school type and area			
School type	Area		
	Rural	Urban	All
Government	57.8 (48,422)	65.2 (18,876)	58.8 (67,298)
Private	53.9 (38,781)	64.8 (12,438)	55.6 (51,219)
Madrassa	45.9 (31,428)	50.3 (9,094)	46.1 (40,522)
Non-formal	88.8 (5,327)	77.7 (1,762)	87.5 (7,089)

Figures in the parenthesis indicate number of students in the school register

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.23: Attendance rate by school type, area and gender				
School type	Area and gender			
	Rural girls	Rural boys	Urban girls	Urban boys
Government	58.4 (24,429)	57.2 (23,993)	65.7 (9,856)	64.6 (9,020)
Private	55.9 (19,056)	51.9 (19,725)	64.3 (6,212)	65.4 (6,226)
Madrassa	49.5 (11,377)	44.7 (20,051)	50.1 (2,805)	50.4 (6,289)
Non-formal	89.2 (3,256)	86.4 (2,069)	78.0 (1,058)	77.1 (704)

Figures in the parenthesis indicate number of students in the school register

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.24: Attendance rate by stratum and school type				
Stratum	School type			
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal
Rural Dhaka Division	55.2 (9,229)	52.4 (6,944)	44.3 (5,505)	89.8 (884)
Rural Chittagong Division	56.5 (12,404)	54.7 (7,880)	53.8 (6,131)	85.4 (841)
Rural Rajshahi Division	58.6 (7,137)	54.0 (5,935)	40.3 (5,310)	93.3 (928)
Rural Khulna Division	62.6 (6,070)	60.3 (5,908)	50.2 (5,116)	87.9 (919)
Rural Barisal Division	63.1 (6,924)	52.6 (5,879)	45.3 (4,333)	78.6 (749)
Rural Sylhet Division	59.5 (6,660)	50.6 (6,235)	53.5 (5,033)	84.4 (1,006)
Metropolitan cities	65.5 (8,837)	69.3 (6,239)	56.6 (4,054)	67.6 (907)
Municipalities	64.9 (10,039)	59.3 (6,199)	46.0 (5,040)	88.7 (855)

Figures in the parenthesis indicate number of students in the school register

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.25: Attendance rate by school type and Class					
School type	Class				
	I	II	III	IV	V
Government	61.2 (16,042)	58.1 (13,930)	57.7 (14,190)	57.9 (12,242)	58.8 (10,894)
Private	58.7 (14,265)	54.2 (11,468)	51.5 (10,118)	54.8 (8,237)	57.9 (7,131)
Madrassa	48.2 (9,614)	44.6 (8,207)	45.7 (7,764)	45.5 (7,560)	46.7 (7,377)
Non-formal	79.8 (649)	76.0 (851)	89.3 (2,200)	87.2 (790)	88.8 (2,599)

Figures in the parenthesis indicate number of students in the school register

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.26: Attendance rate by school type, gender and Class					
Gender/School type	Class				
	I	II	III	IV	V
Girls					
Government	61.1 (7,964)	60.2 (6,982)	59.2 (7,305)	59.6 (6,302)	60.3 (5,732)
Private	61.1 (7,008)	55.6 (5,475)	54.1 (4,931)	57.8 (4,091)	61.3 (3,763)
Madrassa	52.4 (3,682)	45.3 (3,019)	49.0 (2,589)	48.2 (2,500)	49.5 (2,392)
Non-formal	81.3 (309)	76.9 (488)	89.3 (1,357)	88.5 (465)	89.8 (1,616)
Boys					
Government	61.2 (8,078)	57.9 (6,948)	54.4 (6,885)	57.1 (5,940)	58.6 (5,162)
Private	58.0 (7,257)	53.6 (5,993)	51.4 (5,187)	54.3 (4,146)	55.0 (3,368)
Madrassa	46.2 (5,932)	44.7 (5,188)	45.0 (5,175)	44.8 (5,060)	45.4 (4,985)
Non-formal	78.4 (259)	78.4 (363)	88.0 (843)	82.2 (325)	86.6 (983)

Figures in the parenthesis indicate number of students in the school register

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.27: Mean number of students registered, can seat with ease and attended in the classroom on the observation day by stratum				
Stratum	No. of classrooms surveyed	Mean number of students		
		Registered	Can seat with ease	Attended in classroom
Rural Dhaka Division	491	52.5	34.1	28.6
Rural Chittagong Division	497	67.4	37.3	38.1
Rural Rajshahi Division	483	42.7	27.1	23.8
Rural Khulna Division	460	40.7	28.9	25.0
Rural Barisal Division	472	41.7	30.1	25.4
Rural Sylhet Division	486	41.9	31.9	24.2
Metropolitan cities	404	53.9	40.1	35.5
Municipalities	489	50.0	34.7	31.6

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.28: Mean number of students registered, can seat with ease and attended in the classroom on the observation day by Class				
Class	No. of classrooms surveyed	Mean number of students		
		Registered	Can seat with ease	Attended in classroom
I	772	57.9	34.4	34.8
II	739	53.1	33.8	30.1
III	779	51.5	32.8	29.2
IV	711	47.8	33.2	27.2
V	781	41.7	31.9	24.4

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.29: Mean number of students registered, can seat with ease and attended in the classroom on the observation day by school type and area				
Area/School type	No. of classrooms surveyed	Mean number of students		
		Registered	Can seat with ease	Attended in classroom
Rural schools				
Government	954	54.0	39.6	31.2
Private	901	43.2	27.7	23.3
Madrassa	848	38.2	25.1	17.8
Non-formal	186	29.3	31.0	25.8
Urban schools				
Government	349	55.0	36.8	35.9
Private	263	48.9	36.9	31.7
Madrassa	223	40.8	65.6	20.5
Non formal	58	30.4	30.6	23.6

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.30: Percentage of Muslim teachers by stratum and type of school

Stratum	Type of school				Total
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal	
Rural Dhaka Division	79.4 (131)	91.0 (122)	100.0 (186)	83.3 (30)	86.5 (469)
Rural Chittagong Division	69.2 (133)	78.2 (119)	100.0 (181)	53.3 (30)	76.6 (463)
Rural Rajshahi Division	91.0 (122)	88.2 (119)	99.5 (204)	86.7 (30)	91.8 (475)
Rural Khulna Division	64.0 (113)	69.7 (122)	98.7 (151)	62.5 (32)	71.7 (418)
Rural Barisal Division	84.0 (131)	88.4 (129)	99.5 (186)	70.0 (30)	87.6 (476)
Rural Sylhet Division	51.0 (96)	72.4 (116)	99.1 (214)	54.5 (33)	69.0 (459)
Metropolitan cities	85.0 (287)	89.8 (322)	100.0 (222)	87.2 (39)	88.3 (870)
Municipalities	77.2 (189)	75.8 (178)	100.0 (231)	96.7 (30)	81.0 (628)
Rural Bangladesh	74.2 (726)	81.4 (727)	99.5 (1122)	68.1 (185)	80.9 (2760)
Urban Bangladesh	81.9 (476)	84.8 (500)	100.0 (453)	91.3 (69)	85.4 (1498)
All Bangladesh	77.3 (1202)	82.8 (1227)	99.6 (1575)	74.4 (254)	82.6 (4258)

The figures in the parenthesis indicate number of teachers surveyed

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.31: Mean years of education of the teachers by stratum and type of school

Stratum	Type of school				Total
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal	
Rural Dhaka Division	12.1 (131)	11.2 (122)	13.5 (186)	9.9 (30)	12.0 (469)
Rural Chittagong Division	11.8 (133)	11.8 (119)	13.9 (181)	10.7 (30)	12.1 (463)
Rural Rajshahi Division	11.8 (122)	11.4 (119)	13.5 (204)	10.4 (30)	12.0 (475)
Rural Khulna Division	12.0 (113)	11.5 (122)	13.2 (151)	10.2 (32)	12.0 (418)
Rural Barisal Division	12.2 (131)	11.1 (129)	13.4 (186)	10.2 (30)	12.0 (476)
Rural Sylhet Division	11.8 (96)	10.8 (116)	13.9 (214)	10.0 (33)	11.9 (459)
Metropolitan cities	12.4 (287)	14.1 (322)	14.7 (222)	11.7 (39)	13.2 (870)
Municipalities	12.3 (189)	12.6 (178)	14.2 (231)	10.6 (30)	12.7 (628)
Rural Bangladesh	12.0 (726)	11.3 (727)	13.6 (1122)	10.2 (185)	12.0 (2760)
Urban Bangladesh	12.3 (476)	13.6 (500)	14.4 (453)	11.3 (69)	13.0 (1498)
All Bangladesh	12.1 (1202)	12.2 (1227)	13.8 (1575)	10.5 (254)	12.4 (4258)

The figures in the parenthesis indicate number of teachers surveyed

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.32: Percentage of teachers having professional training by stratum and type of school					
Stratum	Type of school				Total
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal	
Rural Dhaka Division	89.1 (131)	37.1 (122)	12.7 (186)	89.3 (30)	61.8 (469)
Rural Chittagong Division	94.0 (133)	33.6 (119)	18.8 (181)	86.7 (30)	63.9 (463)
Rural Rajshahi Division	91.0 (122)	44.5 (119)	8.8 (204)	100.0 (30)	61.5 (475)
Rural Khulna Division	92.0 (113)	36.9 (122)	13.2 (151)	96.9 (32)	62.1 (418)
Rural Barisal Division	90.1 (131)	40.8 (129)	18.8 (186)	79.3 (30)	62.8 (476)
Rural Sylhet Division	87.5 (96)	37.5 (116)	6.1 (214)	90.9 (33)	53.4 (459)
Metropolitan cities	95.1 (287)	63.2 (322)	23.9 (222)	94.9 (39)	76.9 (870)
Municipalities	92.6 (189)	47.2 (178)	18.7 (231)	100.0 (30)	67.8 (628)
Rural Bangladesh	90.7 (726)	38.4 (727)	12.8 (1122)	90.7 (185)	61.1 (2760)
Urban Bangladesh	94.1 (476)	57.4 (500)	21.2 (453)	97.1 (69)	73.2 (1498)
All Bangladesh	92.1 (1202)	46.2 (1227)	15.2 (1575)	92.4 (254)	65.7 (4258)

The figures in the parenthesis indicate number of teachers surveyed

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.33: Mean length of experience (in year) of the teachers by stratum and type of school					
Stratum	Type of school				Total
	Government	Private	Madrassa	Non-formal	
Rural Dhaka Division	16.6 (131)	13.2 (122)	11.0 (186)	4.2 (30)	14.2 (469)
Rural Chittagong Division	19.1 (133)	10.7 (119)	10.0 (181)	3.9 (30)	14.7 (463)
Rural Rajshahi Division	19.7 (122)	13.1 (119)	12.2 (204)	3.4 (30)	15.8 (475)
Rural Khulna Division	20.4 (113)	12.7 (122)	9.0 (151)	5.4 (32)	15.5 (418)
Rural Barisal Division	20.2 (131)	12.9 (129)	11.2 (186)	2.6 (30)	15.9 (476)
Rural Sylhet Division	16.6 (96)	11.0 (116)	8.0 (214)	3.4 (33)	12.3 (459)
Metropolitan cities	21.3 (287)	11.8 (322)	8.4 (222)	3.7 (39)	16.6 (870)
Municipalities	18.9 (189)	12.1 (178)	11.0 (231)	4.8 (30)	15.3 (628)
Rural Bangladesh	18.8 (726)	12.3 (727)	10.3 (1122)	3.8 (185)	14.8 (2760)
Urban Bangladesh	20.4 (476)	11.9 (500)	9.7 (453)	4.2 (59)	16.1 (1498)
All Bangladesh	19.4 (1202)	12.1 (1227)	10.1 (1575)	3.9 (254)	15.2 (4258)

The figures in the parenthesis indicate number of teachers surveyed

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.34: Percentage of teachers kept them absents in the day of school visit by stratum and type of school					
Stratum	Type of school				Total
	Government	Private	Madrasa	Non-formal	
Rural Dhaka Division	14.5 (131)	16.4 (122)	12.4 (186)	0.0 (30)	14.2 (469)
Rural Chittagong Division	8.3 (133)	21.0 (119)	8.8 (181)	3.3 (30)	11.7 (463)
Rural Rajshahi Division	16.2 (122)	15.1 (119)	12.3 (204)	3.3 (30)	14.6 (475)
Rural Khulna Division	14.2 (113)	18.9 (122)	15.9 (151)	0.0 (32)	15.3 (418)
Rural Barisal Division	16.0 (131)	15.5 (129)	11.8 (186)	0.0 (30)	14.6 (476)
Rural Sylhet Division	17.7 (96)	25.0 (116)	12.6 (214)	0.0 (33)	17.9 (459)
Metropolitan cities	7.7 (287)	6.2 (322)	9.5 (222)	7.7 (39)	7.3 (870)
Municipalities	11.6 (189)	5.7 (178)	3.6 (231)	0.0 (30)	8.4 (628)
Rural Bangladesh	14.3 (726)	18.6 (727)	12.2 (1122)	1.1 (185)	14.6 (2760)
Urban Bangladesh	9.2 (476)	6.0 (500)	6.6 (453)	4.3 (69)	7.8 (1498)
All Bangladesh	87.7 (1202)	86.5 (1227)	89.4 (1575)	98.0 (254)	12.1 (4258)

The figures in the parenthesis indicate number of teachers surveyed

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 4.35: Teacher-student ratio by type of school and stratum					
Stratum	Type of school				All
	Government	Private	Madrasa	Non-formal	
Rural Dhaka Division	1:80	1:58	1:31	1:30	1:51
Rural Chittagong Division	1:99	1:68	1:35	1:29	1:61
Rural Rajshahi Division	1:66	1:52	1:26	1:31	1:43
Rural Khulna Division	1:59	1:50	1:36	1:29	1:46
Rural Barisal Division	1:53	1:48	1:27	1:27	1:40
Rural Sylhet Division	1:70	1:54	1:24	1:31	1:42
Metropolitan cities	1:73	1:32	1:23	1:35	1:43
Municipalities	1:62	1:40	1:25	1:31	1:40
All Bangladesh	1:70	1:47	1:28	1:31	1:46

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 5.1: Percentage of children 6-10 years old currently enrolled in school by stratum and year					
Stratum	Year				Significance
	1998		2000		
Rural Dhaka Division	75.3	(3,780)	77.9	(2,553)	p<0.05
Rural Chittagong Division	74.0	(4,952)	77.8	(3,223)	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi Division	76.9	(3,395)	80.3	(2,400)	p<0.01
Rural Khulna Division	82.6	(3,929)	90.9	(2,047)	p<0.001
Rural Barisal Division	80.1	(4,034)	79.7	(2,968)	ns
Rural Sylhet Division	78.2	(4,485)	75.7	(3,123)	p<0.01
Metropolitan cities	77.1	(3,258)	81.2	(2,120)	p<0.001
Municipalities	80.8	(3,259)	81.7	(2,252)	ns
Significance	p<0.001		p<0.001		
Rural Bangladesh	76.8	(24,575)	79.6	(16,314)	p<0.001
Urban Bangladesh	79.0	(6,517)	81.5	(4,372)	p<0.001
Significance	p<0.05		p<0.01		
All Bangladesh	77.1	(31,092)	79.8	(20,686)	p<0.001

Source: Education Watch Household Surveys (1998, 2000)

Annex 5.2: Percentage of children 6-10 years old currently enrolled in school by stratum, year and gender						
Stratum	Girls			Boys		
	1998	2000	Significance	1998	2000	Significance
Rural Dhaka Division	79.2	77.5	ns	71.7	78.3	p<0.001
Rural Chittagong Division	73.8	76.5	ns	74.2	79.3	p<0.001
Rural Rajshahi Division	78.0	81.3	p<0.05	75.8	79.3	p<0.05
Rural Khulna Division	85.8	73.5	p<0.001	79.5	88.5	p<0.001
Rural Barisal Division	82.0	81.3	ns	78.2	78.1	ns
Rural Sylhet Division	78.8	74.9	p<0.01	77.6	76.4	ns
Metropolitan cities	76.1	80.3	p<0.01	77.9	82.1	p<0.01
Municipalities	80.8	82.2	ns	80.9	81.3	ns
Significance	p<0.001	p<0.001		p<0.001	p<0.001	
Rural Bangladesh	78.7	79.7	ns	75.0	79.5	p<0.001
Urban Bangladesh	78.5	81.4	p<0.01	79.4	81.6	p<0.05
Significance	ns	ns		p<0.001	p<0.05	
All Bangladesh	78.6	79.9	p<0.05	75.5	79.8	p<0.001

Source: Education Watch Household Surveys (1998, 2000)

Annex 6.1: Percentage of students of primary classes (I to V) who had to spend money for schooling by expenditure heads and gender				
Expenditure heads	Girls	Boys	All	Significance
Admission/ readmission	31.4	30.2	30.8	ns
Monthly tuition fees	7.2	8.3	7.8	ns
Buying/ collecting textbooks	31.9	34.4	33.2	p<0.05
Buying/ collecting supplementary books	37.4	36.9	37.1	ns
Stationery	92.1	90.3	91.2	p<0.01
School dress	15.7	15.4	15.5	ns
Various fees	33.4	33.2	33.3	ns
Examination fees	76.7	74.7	75.7	ns
Transport for schooling	4.6	3.9	4.3	ns
Honorarium for private tutor	19.7	22.4	21.0	p<0.01
Transport for private tutoring	1.0	0.9	1.0	ns
Others	59.0	59.9	59.4	ns
n	3,256.0	3,276.0	6,554.0	

Note: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

Annex 6.2: Percentage of students of primary classes (I to V) who had to spend money for schooling by expenditure heads and school type					
Expenditure heads	School type				Significance
	Government	Private	Non-formal	Madrassa	
Admission/ readmission	25.0	31.0	26.9	50.7	p<0.001
Monthly tuition fees	1.0	3.9	17.4	18.0	p<0.001
Buying/ collecting textbooks	27.1	38.9	13.2	68.2	p<0.001
Buying/ collecting supplementary books	41.4	32.8	15.6	43.6	p<0.001
Stationery	94.0	92.5	65.4	96.2	p<0.001
School dress	15.4	6.8	3.6	28.2	p<0.001
Various fees	33.4	31.3	25.4	52.5	p<0.001
Examination fees	76.5	79.4	48.1	82.4	p<0.001
Transport for schooling	3.2	3.0	1.0	5.8	p<0.001
Honorarium for private tutor	23.1	15.8	9.2	15.5	p<0.001
Transport for private tutoring	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.2	ns
Others	60.9	55.4	54.9	70.4	p<0.001
n	4,047.0	1,111.0	479.0	432.0	

Note: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

Annex 6.3: Percentage of students of primary classes (I to V) had to spend money for schooling by cost heads, residence and Class						
Cost heads	Class					Significance
	I	II	III	IV	V	
Rural areas						
Admission/ readmission	34.1	27.3	25.8	21.9	20.7	p<0.001
Monthly tuition fees	4.8	6.2	6.5	4.7	3.5	p<0.001
Buying/ collecting textbooks	36.4	32.2	30.6	33.7	28.9	p<0.01
Buying/ collecting other books	14.2	24.3	46.4	60.8	71.2	p<0.001
Stationery	88.3	92.0	89.8	93.4	93.6	p<0.001
School dress	9.3	11.1	15.1	14.7	15.5	p<0.001
Various fees	26.2	33.4	34.9	34.9	44.0	p<0.001
Examination fees	55.3	75.7	88.9	89.7	91.1	p<0.001
Transport for schooling	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.6	4.1	ns
Honorarium of private tutor	9.7	14.0	21.6	25.5	30.8	p<0.001
Transport for private tutoring	0.4	0.4	0.4	2.6	1.7	p<0.001
Others	58.8	58.3	59.5	57.0	59.6	ns
Urban areas						
Admission/ readmission	63.3	50.0	50.1	50.0	46.0	p<0.001
Monthly tuition fees	23.8	20.5	27.8	32.3	23.7	p<0.001
Buying/ collecting textbooks	39.4	30.1	36.6	30.0	30.8	p<0.05
Buying/ collecting other books	17.2	21.8	44.0	57.2	73.2	p<0.001
Stationery	90.2	95.1	92.7	93.7	98.5	p<0.01
School dress	34.9	34.9	37.5	40.5	40.2	ns
Various fees	28.7	31.2	35.6	41.4	41.3	p<0.01
Examination fees	54.2	73.0	84.8	89.1	93.6	p<0.001
Transport for schooling	10.4	10.9	10.9	12.9	17.1	ns
Honorarium of private tutor	30.0	37.1	42.8	50.9	58.6	p<0.001
Transport for private tutoring	1.7	0.8	0.9	1.4	2.8	ns
Others	63.0	58.9	65.0	66.2	69.5	ns

Note: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

Annex 6.4: Mean private cost of primary schooling (in Taka) by school type and residence						
School type	Residence					
	Rural		Urban		All	
Government	522	(3,254)	1262	(793)	614	(4,047)
Private	391	(974)	1671	(137)	484	(1,111)
Non-formal	294	(369)	267	(110)	290	(479)
Satellite/ Community	309	(129)	783	(11)	328	(140)
Ebtedayee	582	(142)	118	(24)	655	(176)
Kamil/Fazil/Alim/Dakhil	849	(235)	2182	(21)	910	(256)
Kindergarten	3444	(51)	6220	(121)	4899	(172)
Secondary attached	472	(16)	6821	(135)	5711	(151)
All	524	(5,170)	2181	(1,362)	736	(6,532)

Figures in the parentheses indicate number of students in the sample

Note: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

Annex 6.5: Percentage of total private costs shared by various items by school type				
Items	Government	Private	Non-formal	Community/ Satellite
Admission/ readmission, monthly tuition fees	1.3	5.5	8.5	19.9
Buying/ collecting textbooks/ other books	5.1	5.8	4.5	4.8
Stationery	43.6	46.8	57.9	42.1
School dress	5.1	2.6	2.1	3.7
Examination and other fees	4.3	5.2	3.6	4.4
Transport cost	2.4	2.9	2.2	1.4
Private tutor	28.3	22.2	15.4	16.5
Others	9.9	9.0	5.8	7.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

(Contd. Annex 6.5)

Items	Ebtedayee madrassa	Higher madrassa	Kinder- garten	Secondary attached
Admission/ readmission, monthly tuition fees	13.5	8.7	30.5	21.2
Buying/ collecting textbooks/ other books	11.7	12.7	7.9	4.9
Stationery	41.2	35.3	13.3	11.9
School dress	7.5	8.4	6.3	4.3
Examination and other fees	6.1	5.3	3.4	2.2
Transport cost	1.2	7.8	7.5	15.9
Private tutor	6.7	11.7	23.7	32.2
Others	12.1	10.1	7.4	7.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

Annex 6.6: Percentage distribution of students by total expenditure (in Taka) for schooling			
Total expenditure (Tk.)	Percentage of students	Total expenditure (Tk.)	Percentage of students
0 – 100	12.4	1201 – 1300	1.3
101 – 200	16.8	1301 – 1400	1.0
201 – 300	16.1	1401 – 1500	1.1
301 – 400	11.3	1501 – 1700	1.9
401 – 500	8.1	1701 – 1900	1.5
501 – 600	6.2	1901 – 2200	1.3
601 – 700	4.0	2201 – 2500	0.9
701 – 800	3.3	2501 – 3000	1.2
801 – 900	2.7	3001 – 4000	1.3
901 – 1000	2.2	4001 – 5000	0.6
1001 – 1100	1.7	5001 +	1.8
1101 – 1200	1.6	Total	100.0

Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

Annex 6.7: Some basic statistics on expenditure for schooling eliminating data with higher values						
Data taken for analysis	Sample size	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Median	S.d
100%	6,554	0	42,550	736	340	1,578
99.5%	6521	0	10,405	662	340	1,035
99%	6489	0	7,460	620	335	859
98%	6423	0	4,740	566	330	672
97%	6357	0	3,525	632	325	578
96%	6292	0	2,855	504	320	513
95%	6226	0	2,415	482	320	467

Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

Annex 6.8: Some basic statistics on expenditure for schooling by groups of students							
Groups of students	No. of students	All data			Eliminating upper 5% data		
		Mean	Median	S.d	Mean	Median	S.d
Class							
I	2,072	509	214	1441	315	210	355
II	1,348	616	290	1447	412	280	407
III	1,242	839	422	1654	555	389	499
IV	960	914	502	1392	637	470	503
V	932	1100	620	1971	721	570	526
School type							
Government	4,047	614	365	826	513	350	478
Private	1,111	484	283	871	383	275	382
Non-formal	479	290	180	445	264	180	316
Community/satellite	140	328		323	328		323
Ebtedavee madrassa	176	655		614	592		462
High madrassa	256	909		1007	696		486
Kindergarten	172	4900		4270	1446		627
Secondary attached	151	5711		7055	955		716
Residence							
Rural	5,190	524	310	740	449	305	434
Urban	1,364	2181	890	3651	767	570	628
Sex							
Girls	3,265	705	340	1464	478	321	466
Boys	3,289	765	340	1681	485	315	468
All	6,554	736	340	1578	481	320	467

Source: Education Watch Private Expenditure for Education Survey (2000)

Annex 7.1: Percentage of schools having income during January to September 2000 by area, school type and income sources							
School type	Monthly fees	Other fees	Govt. grant	Non-govt. donation	Rent out something	Selling products	Others sources
Rural							
Government	0.0	97.2	100.0	33.5	0.7	8.9	17.4
Private	0.7	98.4	96.4	47.7	1.6	8.1	24.0
Madrassa	30.4	97.7	80.0	83.1	9.4	65.7	32.2
Non-formal	93.5	96.0	0.2	99.6	0.0	0.0	2.9
Urban							
Government	0.0	100.0	100.0	32.8	2.8	9.1	14.3
Private	55.3	94.8	74.4	58.2	16.7	10.2	23.3
Madrassa	66.6	93.4	73.5	74.3	15.3	39.0	39.1
Non-formal	78.1	79.8	0.0	98.3	0.0	0.0	1.6

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 7.2: Average income per school during January to September 2000 by school type and income heads								
School type	Monthly fees	Other fees	Govt. grant	Non-govt. donation	Rent out something	Selling products	Others	All
Government	0 (0.0)	4,241 (1.7)	2,41,945 (96.3)	3,871 (1.5)	19 (0.0)	81 (0.1)	1,100 (0.4)	2,51,257 (100.0)
Private	35,169 (20.6)	15,962 (9.4)	92,194 (54.1)	18,010 (10.6)	549 (0.3)	411 (0.2)	8,214 (4.8)	1,70,509 (100.0)
Madrassa	15,351 (3.7)	17,417 (4.2)	3,03,447 (73.2)	60,550 (14.6)	3,043 (0.7)	7,733 (1.9)	7,023 (1.7)	4,14,564 (100.0)
Non-formal	1,238 (9.5)	337 (2.6)	13 (0.2)	11,346 (87.4)	- (0.0)	- (0.0)	54 (0.3)	12,988 (100.0)

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 7.3: Average income per school during January to September 2000 by area, school type and income heads								
Area/ school type	Monthly fees	Other fees	Govt. grant	Non-govt. donation	Rent out something	Selling products	Others	All
Rural								
Government	0 (0.0)	2,957 (1.4)	2,11,136 (96.6)	3,469 (1.6)	5 (0.0)	87 (0.01)	964 (0.4)	2,18,618 (100.0)
Private	522 (0.7)	1,897 (2.5)	67,161 (88.5)	2,742 (3.6)	16 (0.0)	72 (0.1)	3,486 (4.6)	75,896 (100.0)
Madrassa	5,530 (1.6)	9,855 (2.8)	2,84,530 (80.4)	40,175 (11.4)	1,582 (0.5)	6,821 (1.9)	5,482 (1.6)	353,975 (100.0)
Non-formal	1,263 (9.8)	347 (2.7)	14 (0.1)	1,121 (87.0)	- (0.0)	- (0.0)	58 (0.4)	12,903 (100.0)
Urban								
Government	0 (0.0)	10,983 (2.6)	4,03,557 (95.6)	5,969 (1.4)	94 (0.0)	53 (0.0)	1,826 (0.4)	4,22,482 (100.0)
Private	2,36,178 (32.9)	97,357 (13.5)	2,37,129 (33.0)	1,06,680 (14.8)	3,632 (0.5)	2,381 (0.3)	35,732 (5.0)	7,19,089 (100.0)
Madrassa	62,332 (8.9)	53,597 (7.6)	3,93,727 (55.9)	1,57,974 (22.4)	10,023 (1.4)	12,092 (17.0)	14,402 (2.1)	7,04,147 (100.0)
Non-formal	1,005 (7.3)	242 (1.8)	- (0.0)	12,537 (90.8)	- (0.0)	- (0.0)	21 (0.1)	13,805 (100.0)

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 7.4: Percentage of schools having expenditure during January to September 2000 by area, school type and sources of expenditure						
Area/ school type	Teachers and others salary	Construction work	Buying stationery	Rent in something	Other expenditure	Buying fixed asset
Rural						
Government	96.1	45.4	98.9	13.0	59.9	25.0
Private	97.0	47.7	98.2	10.9	75.4	14.1
Madrassa	96.9	74.2	98.8	18.5	68.1	21.9
Non-formal	99.8	16.7	99.6	95.9	26.7	10.3
Urban						
Government	97.2	57.1	98.6	13.8	65.7	19.5
Private	98.2	67.3	98.2	25.8	76.2	29.0
Madrassa	94.3	84.6	98.5	39.5	78.6	28.2
Non-formal	100.0	13.2	94.9	96.7	28.2	13.2

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 7.5: Average expenditure per school during January to September 2000 by school type and expenditure heads							
School type	Teachers and others salary	Construction work	Buying stationery	Rent in something	Other expenditure	Buying fixed asset	Total
Government	2,05,365 (81.8)	31,158 (12.4)	3,540 (1.4)	1,333 (0.5)	7,004 (2.8)	2,833 (1.1)	2,51,233 (100.0)
Private	1,10,412 (61.3)	49,578 (27.5)	5,674 (3.2)	512 (0.3)	9,474 (5.3)	4,371 (2.4)	1,80,021 (100.0)
Madrassa	3,06,851 (81.5)	44,620 (11.8)	6,628 (1.8)	1,942 (0.5)	11,238 (3.0)	5,458 (1.4)	3,76,737 (100.0)
Non-formal	6,272 (49.6)	123 (0.9)	3,905 (30.9)	1,929 (15.3)	252 (2.0)	170 (1.3)	12,651 (100.0)

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 7.6: Average expenditure per school during January to September 2000 by area, school type and expenditure heads							
Area/school type	Teachers and others salary	Construction work	Buying stationery	Rent in something	Other expenditure	Buying fixed asset	Total
Rural							
Government	1,70,918 (82.4)	21,118 (10.2)	3,088 (1.5)	1,537 (0.7)	7,619 (3.7)	3,120 (1.5)	2,07,400 (100.0)
Private	43,275 (45.5)	39,754 (41.8)	1,164 (1.2)	123 (0.1)	6,765 (7.1)	4,120 (4.3)	95,201 (100.0)
Madrassa	2,73,874 (83.2)	42,787 (13.0)	4,967 (1.5)	600 (0.2)	4,722 (1.4)	2,277 (0.7)	3,29,227 (100.0)
Non-formal	6,103 (49.5)	91 (0.7)	3,950 (32.1)	1,764 (14.3)	250 (2.0)	166 (1.4)	12,324 (100.0)
Urban							
Government	3,86,076 (80.2)	84,003 (17.4)	5,902 (1.2)	243 (0.1)	3,793 (0.8)	1,321 (0.3)	4,81,338 (100.0)
Private	4,99,707 (74.4)	1,06,694 (15.9)	31,835 (4.7)	2,773 (0.4)	25,126 (3.7)	5,880 (0.9)	6,72,014 (100.0)
Madrassa	4,64,677 (76.9)	53,411 (8.9)	14,587 (2.4)	8,362 (1.4)	42,384 (7.0)	20,694 (3.4)	6,04,115 (100.0)
Non-formal	7,862 (50.1)	414 (2.6)	3,500 (22.3)	3,465 (22.0)	270 (1.7)	209 (1.3)	15,720 (100.0)

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 7.7: Percentage of schools having fixed assets by area, school type and heads of fixed asset					
Area/ school type	Land and school building	Furniture	Educational materials	Tube well/ trees	Other fixed assets
Rural					
Government	98.9	100.0	88.1	94.6	42.9
Private	99.1	99.4	87.9	88.0	38.2
Madrassa	100.0	98.7	96.5	96.4	60.2
Non-formal	2.3	99.6	99.3	4.8	26.4
Urban					
Government	100.0	96.7	88.2	73.0	71.9
Private	98.2	100.0	98.4	87.5	70.3
Madrassa	98.4	100.0	100.0	87.8	73.4
Non-formal	3.3	94.9	98.3	5.0	25.0

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 7.8: Average value of fixed assets per school by school type and heads of fixed asset						
School type	Land and school building	Furniture	Educational materials	Tube well/ trees	Other fixed assets	Total
Government	17,23,518 (97.2)	32,693 (1.9)	4,054 (0.2)	9,634 (0.5)	3,682 (0.2)	17,73,581 (100.0)
Private	19,71,565 (95.1)	67,750 (3.3)	23,343 (1.1)	6,049 (0.3)	5,452 (0.2)	20,74,159 (100.0)
Madrassa	31,17,277 (94.1)	78,829 (2.4)	45,389 (1.4)	36,725 (1.1)	31,502 (1.0)	33,09,722 (100.0)
Non-formal	1,822 (60.3)	540 (17.9)	508 (16.8)	41 (1.4)	109 (3.6)	3,020 (100.0)

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 7.9: Average value of fixed assets per school by area, school type and heads of fixed asset						
Area/ school type	Land and school building	Furniture	Educational materials	Tube well/ trees	Other fixed assets	Total
Rural						
Government	7,34,972 (94.5)	28,892 (3.7)	2,555 (0.3)	9,741 (1.3)	1,705 (0.2)	7,77,865 (100.0)
Private	6,65,612 (95.1)	24,823 (3.6)	3,140 (0.4)	3,433 (0.5)	2,829 (0.4)	6,99,837 (100.0)
Madrasa	16,06,845 (91.5)	55,774 (3.2)	30,599 (1.8)	35,815 (2.0)	26,954 (1.5)	17,55,987 (100.0)
Non-formal	1,189 (55.1)	391 (18.1)	438 (20.3)	39 (1.8)	102 (4.7)	2,159 (100.0)
Urban						
Government	69,15,241 (98.8)	52,688 (0.7)	11,931 (0.2)	9,103 (0.1)	14,051 (0.2)	70,03,014 (100.0)
Private	95,35,977 (95.0)	3,17,064 (3.2)	1,40,569 (1.4)	21,159 (0.2)	20,634 (0.2)	1,00,35,403 (100.0)
Madrasa	1,04,98,565 (96.3)	1,89,359 (1.7)	1,16,305 (1.1)	41,103 (0.4)	53,357 (0.5)	1,08,98,689 (100.0)
Non-formal	7,704 (69.8)	1,928 (17.5)	1,171 (10.6)	60 (0.5)	170 (1.5)	11,033 (100.0)

Source: Education Watch School Survey (2000)

Annex 8.1: Village/mahallah level analysis of literacy rate by stratum						
Stratum	Literacy (7+ years)			Adult literacy (15+ years)		
	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Range
Rural Dhaka Division	9.9	60.0	50.1	12.5	64.9	52.4
Rural Chittagong Division	8.0	61.7	53.7	10.4	69.1	58.7
Rural Rajshahi Division	4.3	58.2	53.9	3.5	59.9	56.4
Rural Khulna Division	22.6	63.0	40.4	27.0	68.2	41.2
Rural Barisal Division	2.8	67.9	65.1	4.2	76.7	72.5
Rural Sylhet Division	2.2	57.5	55.3	2.5	63.1	60.6
Metropolitan cities	24.5	88.0	63.5	28.8	94.6	65.8
Municipalities	16.1	78.2	62.1	18.0	86.0	68.0
Rural Bangladesh	2.2	67.9	65.7	2.5	76.7	74.2
Urban Bangladesh	16.1	88.0	71.9	18.0	94.6	76.6
All Bangladesh	2.2	88.0	85.8	2.5	94.6	92.1

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 8.2: Age specific literacy rates by area and gender								
Age group	Rural areas				Urban areas			
	Female	Male	Both	Diff. (F-M)	Female	Male	Both	Diff. (F-M)
0 - 4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 - 9	1.7	1.3	1.5	0.4	3.5	3.2	3.4	0.3
10 - 14	38.6	31.6	35.0	7.0	49.2	45.3	47.3	3.9
15 - 19	64.8	59.3	62.0	5.5	74.9	74.3	74.6	0.6
20 - 24	47.4	57.3	51.7	-9.9	68.9	75.5	71.9	-6.6
25 - 29	34.2	41.8	37.8	-7.6	58.3	70.7	64.4	-12.4
30 - 34	27.0	40.7	33.8	-13.7	53.2	69.8	62.0	-16.6
35 - 39	24.6	38.3	31.7	-13.7	50.3	64.4	57.8	-14.1
40 - 44	20.3	36.5	29.1	-16.2	46.3	65.0	56.6	-18.7
45 - 49	17.0	42.3	30.2	-25.3	42.8	68.3	57.5	-25.5
50 - 54	11.6	37.3	25.4	-25.7	36.0	64.2	52.7	-28.2
55 - 59	10.5	35.6	24.3	-25.1	34.2	62.7	51.4	-28.5
60 - 64	7.1	31.0	19.5	-23.9	18.9	58.2	40.4	-39.3
65 - 69	6.3	31.8	20.2	-25.5	21.2	53.6	40.4	-32.4
70 - 74	2.7	27.3	16.2	-24.6	19.4	43.0	32.7	-23.6
75 - 79	6.0	28.2	18.7	-22.2	15.1	52.4	34.7	-37.3
80 +	1.9	12.2	7.5	-10.3	9.7	50.7	25.9	-41.0

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 8.3: Distribution of village/ mahallahs under study by percent of households 'educationally in dark'			
Percentage of households 'educationally in dark'	Number of villages/ mahallahas	Percentage of villages/ mahallahs	Cumulative percentage
Nil	20	8.3	8.3
< 1.0	28	11.7	20.0
1.0 - 5.0	114	47.5	67.5
6.0 - 10.0	41	17.1	84.6
11.0 - 20.0	26	10.8	95.4
21.0 +	11	4.6	100.0
Total	240	100.0	

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 8.4: Some basic statistics on 'educationally in dark' households by strata				
Strata	No. of village/ mahallah	Minimum	Maximum	Range
Rural Dhaka Division	30	0.8	24.8	24.0
Rural Chittagong Division	30	0.0	36.0	36.0
Rural Rajshahi Division	30	0.8	56.0	55.2
Rural Khulna Division	30	0.0	8.0	8.0
Rural Barisal Division	30	0.0	41.6	41.6
Rural Sylhet Division	30	0.0	42.4	42.4
Metropolitan cities	30	0.0	13.6	13.6
Municipalities	30	0.0	15.9	15.9

Source: Education Watch Household Survey (2000)

Annex 9.1: Performance of government primary school, madrassa and non-formal schools in selected internal efficiency indicators			
Indicators	Government Primary School	Madrassah	Non-formal
Share of primary students (%)	61.0	7.0	7.1
Cycle completion (%)	76.1	63.4	82.6
Dropout (%)	23.9	36.6	17.4
Coefficient of efficiency	77.1	67.6	87.2
Years of input per graduate	6.5	7.4	5.7
Attendance (%)	58.8	46.1	87.5
Female teacher (%)	47.8	7.6	92.9
Teacher-student ratio	1: 70	1: 28	1: 31
Private expenditure per student (Tk.)	614	655	290
Average income of school (rural) (Tk.)	218, 618	353, 975	12,988
Gov't grant (% of expenditure) (Tk.)	96.3	73.2	0.2
Average expenditure per student by school (Tk.) (Rural)	621	880	398
Av. value of fixed assets/school (Tk.)	1,773,581	3,309,722	3,020
Achievement on ABC* by currently enrolled children aged 11-12 years (%)	21.5	15.2 (for Ebtedayee)	38.3

▪ Assessment of basic competency. This figure is from watch 1999 but others are from the present report.

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Education is the key to any sustainable development programme. The maximum potential of a nation can better be realised through investment in education. Bangladesh has made commendable progress in various aspects of educational development at primary level most of which, however, are limited to quantitative expansions only. Quality education for all is still a dream.

Education Watch is a civil society initiative to monitor progress in primary education in the country. The first two *Watch* reports covered internal efficiency and quality of primary education in Bangladesh. This third report from the *Watch* revisited selected parameters of internal efficiency and included two new issues, viz., educational expenditure and literacy. Findings of the *Education Watch* have both short and long term policy implications. Bangladesh has to strive hard to ensure quality education for all by 2015. There is hope but the challenges may be daunting.

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