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Primary and Secondary Education in Lesotho

A Country Status Report for Education

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACL	Anglican Church of Lesotho
ACL	Anglican Church of Lesotho
AGOA	African Growth Opportunity Act
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AME	African Methodist Episcopal
BED	Bachelor of Arts in Education
BOS	Bureau of Statistics
CEO	Chief Education Officer
COSC	Cambridge Overseas School Certificate
CWIQ	Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire
DEP	Diploma in Education (Primary)
DES	Diploma in Education (Secondary)
DPE	Diploma in Primary Education
DRCs	District Resource Center
DRT	District Resource Teachers
DTE	Diploma in Technological Education
DTEP	Distance Teacher Education Program
ECCD	Early Childhood Care and Development
ECOL	Examination Council of Lesotho
EFA	Education For All
EMIS	Educational Management Information System
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
FPE	Free Primary Education
FTI	Fast Track Initiative
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GNI	Gross National Income
GNP	Gross National Product
GOL	Government of Lesotho
GSER	Grade Specific Enrolment Rate
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HQ	Headquarters
IDA	International Development Association
IDM	Institute for Development Management
IIPE	International Institute of Educational Planning
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JC	Junior Certificate
LCE	Lesotho College of Education
LDTC	Lesotho Distance Teaching Center
LEC	Lesotho Evangelical Church
LHWP	Lesotho Highlands Water Project
LP	Lerotholi Polytechnic
MAED	Masters in Education
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MEFMI	Macroeconomic and Financial Management Institute
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
MOFDP	Ministry of Finance and Development Planning
MTEF	Medium-Term Expenditure Framework
NCDC	National Curriculum Development Center
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NMDS	National Manpower Development Secretariat
NTTC	National Teacher Training College
NUL	National University of Lesotho
PIEP	Primary In-Service Education Program
PRGF	Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility
PRS	Poverty Reduction Strategy
PSCU	Project Support and

	Coordination Unit
PSLE	Primary School Leaving Examination
PTC	Primary Teachers' Certificate
RCM	Roman Catholic Church
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SACMEQ	Southern African Consortium on Measuring Education Quality
SACU	Southern African Customs Union
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SSRFU	School Supply Reliance Feeding Unit
SSU	School Supply Unit
TSD	Teaching Service Department
TTI	Thaba-Tseka Training Institute
TVD	Technical and Vocational Department
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
USA	United States of America
WFP	World Food Program

CURRENCY EQUIVALENTS

(Exchange Rate Effective May, 2005)

Currency Unit	=	Maloti
Maloti 6.1	=	US$1
US$1	=	1.35 SDR

FISCAL YEAR

April 1 – March 31

Foreword

This Country Status Report on the education sector in the Kingdom of Lesotho is one of a series of reports sponsored by the World Bank in countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. Each report is researched by a team from the relevant ministries, the World Bank, and other development partners. The immediate objective is to form a solid analytic foundation to inform policy makers in the education sector. More broadly, the publication of the report provides a stimulus for an informed national debate on the education system.

Such debate is particularly appropriate at this time, as governments and the international community increasingly see education playing a central role in development. In a global economy, competitiveness depends heavily on skills. The growth of both domestic employment and inward investment depend on the availability of a labor force with appropriate skills. Education and skills development, in turn, are among the key investments which governments can make to increase competitiveness and grow the economy. There is well documented evidence that investments in education produce attractive returns. But the value of education goes far beyond its economic importance. Education is a significant health intervention, and one of the most effective weapons in the fight against HIV/AIDS. Education also contributes to social development, allows the spread of new ideas, and supports the development of an open and democratic society. The Kingdom of Lesotho has a particularly long tradition of valuing education. As a small country with limited natural resources, it has relied on the skills of its people as a source of income. More recently, the government of Lesotho has identified education as a central component of its development plans.

In recognition of the importance of education in determining the life-chances of young people, the global community has adopted an ambitious goal to ensure that all children have the benefit of a good primary education by 2015. This goal has mobilized national and international resources. Throughout Africa, new schools have been constructed, more teachers have been employed, and user charges for primary education are being dropped. These efforts have resulted in significant increases in enrollment. Throughout Africa, there are now more children in school than ever before. But much remains to be done. As education systems expand, a series of challenges are emerging.

- The first is the challenge of coverage, or "reaching the hard to reach". As participa-

tion in education has increased, most of the easy to reach children have already been enrolled. One implication of this success is that more of the remaining children will be in the categories that are difficult and more expensive to serve. These include children in remote rural areas, ethnic and linguistic minorities, nomads, and orphans.

- The second is the challenge of quality. Education is of little value unless the quality is sufficient to ensure real learning. Unfortunately, maintaining quality at a time of rapid expansion is a formidable task. In many African countries rapid growth in numbers has highlighted shortages of skilled teachers and limited capacity in inspection, support and management systems. In some cases, Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) tests show that the quality of education is actually falling.
- The third is the challenge of equality. Lesotho is one of the few countries where girls' participation is higher than boys'. But there remain significant inequalities in other areas. Rural and poor families have lower participation in education. Even more important is that in Lesotho as in many low-income countries, conditions of schooling differ widely across localities and the result is to create disparities in learning outcomes which typically put children from poor, rural families at a disadvantage with regard to access to further education and well-paying jobs.
- Secondary education presents a fourth challenge. Traditionally, participation in secondary education has been limited to a relatively small proportion of the population. Expansion of participation in primary education and the increasing demands of the labor market both provide pressures for expansion of the secondary sub-sector.

These challenges would be onerous in any country, but African countries must face them with limited resources. The government of Lesotho already devotes a very high proportion (roughly a quarter) of its national budget to education, making it unlikely that further increases in budget can be found. This suggests that Lesotho must seek to improve the efficiency of its education system, to provide its people with better value for their expenditure.

This Country Status Report aims to help Lesotho meet these challenges. As a report, it has a number of noteworthy features. It goes beyond the basic indicators of enrollment and retention that are used in monitoring systems, and offers a deeper insight into how the system is performing. In doing this it follows a structure developed by the World Bank which allows easy comparisons between countries. It is based primarily on existing data, mostly from ministry sources and from the household data surveys. Other sources, where available, are used to corroborate its findings.

Also noteworthy is the process by which a Country Status Report is prepared. In international development, it is increasingly important that governments and donors work together to coordinate their efforts. An important step in the process of coordination is the development of an agreed analysis of the situation, and a shared identification of the issues. With this in mind, a Country Status Report is conceived as a joint work, shared by the government and the donors. The report is developed with government and donor cooperation, and should not be seen as an external evaluation of the system, but rather as a shared analysis of the sector.

The aim of the Country Status Report is to inform policy making. As such, the report offers data, and an analysis of the difficulties, issues and key areas for action. It does not, however, provide solutions. Formulating appropriate policy responses comes as a subsequent step, and must be developed more slowly, to allow sufficient time for thorough consultation with the stakeholders in education, if the proposed solutions are to work effectively.

I hope and expect that this document will make a timely and useful contribution to ongo-

ing discussions on and planning for the education system by the government and its development partners. It is published at an opportune time, when the target date of 2015 is near enough to impose pressing demands, and yet far enough away to allow policies to have an impact.

The report offers a valuable and comprehensive resource for anyone interested in education in Lesotho. It is, however, a snapshot of the system at a particular time. If the report serves its purpose in supporting policy development, it will rapidly become dated, and so I look forward to revisions and updates in the years ahead.

Yaw Ansu,
Sector Director, Human Development,
Africa Region, World Bank

Acknowledgments

This report is a product of joint partnership between the Ministry of Education and Training and the World Bank. It is a stock-taking study of education in Lesotho with particular focus on primary and secondary education. Lesotho's Second Education Sector Development Project is currently in its second phase of implementation. Further, the government's Free Primary Education policy which started in 1999 to gradually abolish fees is to be rolled out completely in 2006. It was felt that such a study would provide timely input for policy dialogue regarding the post-FPE and the next phase of the education sector's development in Lesotho.

The work was led on the Lesotho side by Mrs. Ntsebe Kokome Principle Secretary for Education and Mr. Taole J. Masoabi, Director of Planning. Dr. Kinandu Muragu, Project Coordinator, provided summary description of government budget process and implementation of MTEF within the education sector; Mr. Paramente Phamotse provided inputs and feedback related to primary education; Ms. Gladys Moeketsi, Director of Human Resources, provided information related to MOET staffing and salaries; Mrs. Liteboho Maqalika-Lerotholi, Chief Inspector Secondary, and Mr. S'khulumi Ntsoaole (the former supervisor of government schools who is now inspector for school management) provided inputs on subventions for government secondary schools; Ms. Mpho Morojele, Senior Research Officer, provided inputs to school census and related calculations on enrollment ratios and facilitated overall data collection; Mrs. Liako Selokoma-Mofo provided summary descriptive comparison of various bursary and feeding programs (with support from Mrs. Mamohau Mochebelele, Scholarship Officer) and assisted in the collection of NMDS related data; Mrs. Lerato 'Matiisetso Moleko and Mr. Haleokoe Jopo assisted in the collection of data from LCE, LP, and NUL and further supported the analysis of MOET status of funds. Mrs. Lerato further assisted in the analysis of JC and COSC results and developed the acronym list for the report. Mrs. Puseletso Ntiisa-Letuka, Financial Controller of PSCU, provided assistance in the collection of status of funds and analysis of financial data related to FPE and subventions.

On the World Bank side, the work is led by Xiaoyan Liang, Senior Education Specialist (AFTH1), under the overall guidance of Jee-peng Tan, Lead Economist, and Dzingai B. Mutumbuka, Sector Manager for AFTH1. Mr. Gerard Lassibille, Consultant, provided key in-

puts on the determinants of coverage, student flow, and learning outcomes, analysis of service delivery using school census, and provided overall guidance on the report. Without Mr. Lassibille, it would not be possible to complete this report. Mr. Keiichi Ogawa, consultant, supplied information related to the benefit incidence analysis, grade-specific enrollment ratios, efficiency of education spending, and analysis of teaching allocation by school and by district. Mr. Aidan Mulkeen, Senior Education Specialist, AFTH1, is another important member of the team. He provided inputs on the teacher and teacher management section and also contributed to the Executive Summary.

Many people outside the Ministry of Education also helped by sharing with the team data and documents that would otherwise have been inaccessible. They include Mr Karabo Kenneth Mabote, Director of NMDS and Mrs Masuthang Mapitso Financial Controller of NMDS, Mr. Mafa Sejanamane, Vice Chancellor of the National University of Lesotho (NUL) and Mr. Matsobane Putsoa, Bursar of NUL, Mr. John N. Oliphant, Deputy Director Academic Affairs and Dr. James Urwick, Director Academic Planning, Research and Consultancy of Lesotho College of Education. The Bureau of Statistics was also helpful in answering questions related to household survey and population projections.

This report shares a similar structure and content with other education country status reports. It draws particularly from the recently completed report for Ethiopia, which was published in 2005 as a World Bank country study under the title "Education in Ethiopia: Strengthening the Foundation for Sustainable Progress."

The report has benefited from detailed feedback from Paud Murphy, Don Hamilton. Peer reviewers include Lianqin Wang and Harry Patrinos provided very constructive comments. Very useful comments were also received from Ms. Preeti Arora especially on the earlier conceptual framework. The draft report was first presented to the Senior Staff of the Ministry of Education and Training and then reviewed by AFTH1 internally on June 6, 2005 and by the Lesotho Country Team on June 21, 2005. Feedback from these events has helped to remove factual inaccuracies and improve our understanding of the report's findings.

The report was financed by the Government of Lesotho through contributions in staff time, the World Bank and the Government of Norway through a grant channeled via the Norwegian Education Trust Fund to support educational development in Africa.

Executive Summary

Introduction

The Kingdom of Lesotho is a small mountain country of 1.8 million people, landlocked by South Africa with very limited natural resources. It experienced relatively fast economic growth in the 1990s, driven partly by the Lesotho Highlands Water Project, and the growth of foreign investment in the garments industry. Overall economic growth in the last two decades, however, has been sluggish and impact on poverty reduction has been limited. By 2003, GNI per capita was about US$550 and approximately 48% of total population live below US$1 per day. Lesotho further faces serious economic challenges. The high HIV infection rate (29%) is having an impact on growth and poverty. The garments industry is declining following changes in the international terms of trade. Retrenchment of Basotho workers from the mining industry in South Africa is reducing income from remittances and increasing unemployment. In addition, the strength of the Rand is reducing the competitiveness of exports.

The government of Lesotho, with technical assistance from the World Bank, is beginning to adopt a broad-based, pro-poor growth and employment strategy focusing on high value commercial agricultural production and processing and higher value manufacturing exports (diversified away from low grade garments) (Country Economic Memorandum, World Bank, 2005). To improve the productivity of its abundant but low skilled labor, the GOL, primarily through its Ministry of Education and Training, needs to improve the delivery and outcomes of the education and training sector. Given the limited natural resources available, future economic growth is likely to depend heavily on human capital development.

The government of Lesotho recognizes the importance of education for the future of the country. Education and training is identified as a national priority in the recent Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP). Further, as a signatory to the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), the government aspires to achieve 100% primary education completion and gender equity in primary and secondary education by 2015. The government has also set its own ambitious goals to improve the quality of education at all levels.

This report provides an analysis of the education sector up to 2003/04 (and, on some dimensions, up to 2004/05). The report is aimed at Lesotho's policymakers and managers in the education sector. Therefore, the report is deliberately diagnostic in orientation, and aims to

assist in building a shared understanding of the education sector. The report is focused mainly on the primary and secondary sub-sectors, which constitute the bulk of the system. Within these sub-sectors, the emphasis is on those aspects most relevant in the PRSP context; costs, finance, and service delivery and their impact on schooling outcomes, especially among the poor, orphans, and other disadvantaged population.

The report does not consider in detail technical and vocational training and education (TVET), higher education, or non-formal education. These are excluded for reasons of time and availability of data, and should be examined in separate studies.

Overview and Progress in the Education Sector

Formal education in Lesotho follows a 7–3–2–4 structure with 7 years of primary, 3 years of junior secondary, 2 years of senior secondary, and 4 years of tertiary education. There is also a parallel technical vocational education and training (TVET) sector which offer certificate (primary + 3 years) and diploma (senior secondary + 2 or 3 years of TVET) programs in TVET.

For historical reasons, the majority of schools (90%) in Lesotho are owned by churches, including Roman Catholic Mission (RCM), Lesotho Evangelic Church (LEC), Anglican Church of Lesotho (ACL) and African Methodist Episcopal (AME). Church schools are under the management of their respective church authorities, but teacher salaries are paid by the government. There are a much smaller number, less than 10% of schools which are fully government owned, and also small numbers of true private schools, funded entirely from fee income.

The Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) is responsible for the management and regulation of education in Lesotho and is headed by a minister (assisted by an assistant minister). The principal secretary is the ministry's administrative head and chief accounting officer. Unlike other civil servants, PSs in Lesotho are on a two-year contract. He or she is assisted at the executive level by a staff of officers and directors. Almost all the decisions concerning education in Lesotho are made at the central office, despite the government's efforts to implement its decentralization policy. This is particularly true with regard to financial matters.

During the last decade and a half, Lesotho made progress on most quantitative measures of coverage. The Free Primary Education policy introduced in the beginning of 2000 was the most significant policy intervention adopted during this time period. Total primary enrollment increased from about 350,000 in 1990 to 430,000 in 2003/04, more than a 20% increase. Gross and net enrollment ratios in the primary education cycle (127% and 85%, respectively) now compare favorably with the regional averages. In terms of student flow, gross entry rate into Standard 1 increased from 105% in 1998–99 to 120% in 2003/04. A higher proportion of 6 year-olds are now entering grade 1 on time. About 65% of each entering cohort of first-graders in 2003/04 was expected to reach the last primary grade of Standard 7, up from 56% in 1998–99.

Secondary and tertiary education has been expanding even more rapidly. Between 1990 and 2004, lower secondary enrollment increased by 83%, while upper secondary enrollment increased by 155%. Tertiary enrollment increased from less than 2000 students in 1990 to almost 10,000 students enrolled in both Basotho and RSA tertiary institutions.

Remaining Challenges in Achieving Quality Education for All

Despite the progress outlined above, there remain serious challenges in coverage, student flow, quality, and equity:

Coverage. There remains about 15% of the primary school age population who are still out-

side of the school system. Further, overall access to secondary and tertiary levels of education remains limited. Enrollment rates at the secondary level (GER of 35% and NER of 23%, respectively) lag behind most of its neighboring countries which have achieved more than 50% of secondary GER. Only about 2% of the 18–25 year olds are enrolled in tertiary institutions. One simple index of value for money in education is a ratio of the coverage to expenditure. The lower the ratio is, the less value for money. The ratio for Lesotho is 1:8 which is much lower than that for neighboring countries such as Botswana (4:2), Mauritius (8:3), South Africa (4:7), and Zimbabwe (3:3). This means that with such a high level of public investment in education (Lesotho spends about 12% of its GDP on education), the overall coverage of the education system could have been higher in Lesotho.

Student flow indicators could be better too. Repetition and dropout are causing serious wastage of resources. On average, 20% of primary students are repeaters and this figure is 10% in secondary education. The efficiency rate in 2003 was only 57% due to both repetition and dropout.

The most concerning is the *low quality of education*. International comparisons place Lesotho in a very unfavorable situation. Between 2000 and 2003, the Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) conducted a study under the auspices of the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in 14 English-speaking African countries. In it, Standard 6 pupils in Lesotho achieved very poor results compared to their counterparts. According to the SACMEQ data, the performance of Lesotho students falls well below the average, with scores of 451 on reading, and 447 on mathematics. The average score was 500.

Disparities in service delivery and educational outcomes. A serious challenge is the distribution of service delivery. Schools in mountain areas and the Senqu River Valley tend to be more crowded, and have higher student to teacher ratios and higher proportions of unqualified and less experienced teachers, compared to those in the lowlands and foothills. Multigrade schools, primarly located in rural mountain areas tend to be less well-endowed in terms of facilities and teachers.

In terms of educational outcomes, Basotho children who live in rural poor households and whose parents are less educated, are less likely to attend school and more likely to repeat and drop-out. Boys in Lesotho are less likely to attend school and more likely to repeat and drop-out than girls. All else being equal, children in Quthing and Qacha's Neck were less likely to attend school; children in Maseru were more likely to do so. While status as an orphan did not affect the likelihood that a child would attend school, it did increase their likelihood of dropping out (5 percentage points difference). Further, children who are in more crowded classrooms and who are in multigrade classrooms tend to perform worse in the Primary School Leaving Exam (PSLE). Children in the elite "community"primary schools tend to have the highest PSLE scores.

Patterns of Spending on Education

Government spending on education is extremely high by international standards, at 12% of GDP (compared to world average of 4%). This figure includes all allocations to the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) and the bursaries under the National Manpower Development Secretariat. However Lesotho does not seem to be getting good value for this expenditure, as indicated by the challenges above.

One important reason why the value for money appears poor is that education expenditure in Lesotho is weighted strongly towards higher education, where cost per student is higher, and participation is lower. This weighting towards higher education is actually increasing. Although nominal expenditure on primary and secondary education has increased since the

introduction of FPE, their combined share of education spending fell from 59% in 1998/99 to only 54% in 2004/05, while the share of spending on higher education rose from 30% to 38.7%. In per pupil terms, in the financial year 2003/04 for example, the government of Lesotho every year spends about M747 (about US$100) on each primary student, M2,093 (about US$300) on each secondary student, and more than M36,000 (about US$5000) on each university student.

One of the implications of this weighting of expenditure is that public funding for education benefits richer families disproportionately. At the level of primary education, government subsidies are reasonably equally distributed among various income groups. At the secondary level, the poorest 20% of households receive only 12% of public spending, while the richest 20% receives 31% of public spending. The magnitude of the disparity is even larger for higher education. The poorest 20% of households receive only 7% of government spending, while the richest 20% receive 47% of government subsidies.

Further, the current pattern of spending within primary and secondary education may need to be reviewed to ensure maximum achievement of educational goals. Within primary education, the two major drivers of costs in the primary sector are teacher salary and the school feeding program. The average primary teacher salary in Lesotho is more than 5 times the GDP per capita, considerably higher than the average teacher cost in Anglophone African countries of 4.3 times GDP per capita. The average primary teacher pay, including allowances, is 1.5 times the average for public and private sector non-teachers with similar educational qualifications. The primary pupil to teacher ratio of 47:1 is reasonable compared to those in other countries.

At the secondary level, the very high average teacher salary (more than 10 times GDP per capita) combined with the low student to teacher ratio (about 23) means that the total teacher wage bill consumes almost 90% of the total secondary recurrent budget. The other significant cost items are secondary bursaries and subventions to government secondary schools. It is important that these programs be examined very carefully to ensure that the MOET can target the right population, get the most value for its money, and ensure equity among all schools. At the very minimum, schools receiving government subventions should account appropriately for the funds they receive, not just in financial terms but also in terms of student learning results. And transparent criteria are needed for determining subventions. Another area that needs close monitoring is the provision of lower secondary textbooks. The Ministry of Education and Training recently decided to include both core and non-core textbooks in the new textbook rental program. This may result in excessive payment requirements and may render the program unsustainable in the long run.

A third dimension is the manner with which the public expenditures are managed in education. Within the MOET, public expenditures on education are centrally managed. All teachers are paid directly by the Teacher Service Department, except for those in a few private schools that truly are separate from the government. The central government provides other school necessities including textbooks and stationery, meals, and even maintenance to primary schools for those grades covered by FPE (all grades will be covered by 2006). However, this centralized management leads to great inefficiency in the delivery of these services. It also forces inspectors to spend their time overseeing and signing various kinds of paperwork instead of monitoring teaching and learning in the classrooms. At both the primary and secondary level, MOET is also providing grants and subventions to government and community schools for special projects. Plans exist to channel funds directly to schools to cover school maintenance and may even include some discretionary funds at the school level. However, the lack of strong financial management and accountability remains a

constraint. Improvement in these areas will be crucial to improved efficiency.

In short, the current distribution, patterns of costs and financing of education, and the management of education are indeed affecting current levels of provision and quality and also constraining further development of the system including secondary and higher education. Therefore, Lesotho needs to consider education reforms to improve its performance, particularly because of the following two reasons:

- Public spending on education is already high and may not increase in the future. Given the macroeconomic conditions which seem to predict an even less optimistic picture than that of the 1990s, it is likely that the government will exercise more fiscal restraint in the years immediately ahead, with non-interest *recurrent* expenditure projected to decrease. In this environment, increases in the real resources devoted to the Ministry of Education and Training from the government budget can come only at the expense of other sectors.
- Better schooling outcomes are crucial to the country's efforts to increase economic diversification and growth prospects.

Teacher Qualification, Employment, Management, and Utilization

By regional standards, primary and secondary teachers in Lesotho are relatively well educated, and the majority has completed secondary school. Teaching is an attractive profession in Lesotho. However, the supply of trained teachers (having a teaching certificate or diploma) has not been adequate, and an increasing proportion of teachers are untrained. The current strategy is to train these teachers in-service, using a distance education program.

The incidence of HIV infection among teachers appears high, and is forecast to rise. Teacher deaths already account for the loss of 1% of teachers annually. Measures to strengthen the HIV awareness components in teacher education courses may be beneficial.

Local school management committees select the teachers to be employed. This system serves rural areas relatively well. However, the administration of the system is complex and could be simplified. Teacher selection is inequitable, and rural areas have fewer of the qualified and better-educated teachers. Although there is an incentive payment to encourage teachers to work in remote schools, this is not seen as effective. Consideration should be given to ways to improve the assignment of teachers to rural areas. One possible action is to reorganize the classification of schools, to ensure that the incentive is only paid in genuinely remote schools. Consideration should also be given to non-financial incentives, including accelerated promotion (which has long term financial implications), or even a requirement that newly qualified teachers work in rural areas for a period.

Teacher utilization is restricted by a shortage of classrooms in some schools, which may encourage teachers to reduce their working hours. This issue merits further examination, and may explain why classrooms seem to play a significant role in educational outcomes.

Multigrade teaching is widely practiced, particularly in mountain areas. As further expansion of primary education is likely to be in sparsely populated areas, the use of multigrade teaching is likely to play an increasing role. Despite the reliance on multigrade teaching, it is poorly supported in curriculum documents and in teacher training. Better preparation of teachers for multigrade teaching could do much to increase the quality of learning in multigrade classrooms.

Areas for Policy Development

The data and analysis presented above provide a rather comprehensive picture of the primary and secondary education systems in Lesotho, and form the basis of policy development for a

post-FPE era. To help conceptualize and categorize various areas of policy development for the education sector in Lesotho, these issues are divided into structural policies and arrangements for system management.

Issues Pertaining to Structural and Overall Policy Development

Overall Level of Spending and its Distribution Across Levels of Education

Since the overall level of education spending as a proportion of GDP is unlikely to increase, efforts must be made to ensure that the distribution of education spending across levels of education is equitable (hopefully progressive) in terms of equalizing the playing field for the poor and the rich, efficient and effective in terms of achieving policy objectives. Current distribution of education recurrent spending (37% on primary, 20% on secondary, and 36% on higher education) strongly favors the tertiary sector, especially given the much smaller student enrollment in tertiary.

The proportion of expenditure on primary education is low by international standards. The Education for All Indicative Framework recommends devoting 55% of total education recurrent spending to primary education in order to achieve goals of universal primary completion and gender equity in education. This suggests that Lesotho should review the balance of expenditure between the sub-sectors.

One of the factors in the high expenditure on tertiary education is the bursary program administered by the National Manpower Development Secretariat. This accounts for more than half of the total expenditure on tertiary education. Some increases in efficiency could be made by strengthening the management of the NMDS, and increasing its loan recovery rate. More fundamentally, a national dialogue on the future role and functions of the National Manpower Development Secretariat should be organized, with a goal to clarifying its mission.

Structure of Coverage Across Levels of Education

Lesotho has made the seven years of primary education free (the last grade of Standard 6 will be free in 2006) and has recently recommended to the Parliament that primary education should be compulsory. However, it is not clear whether the government will also abolish the fees for lower secondary and start implementing the 10-year basic education. The intention has been announced before but it was never implemented. At the same time, the expectation that lower secondary education may become free is already circulating among the public. It is important that the Government of Lesotho carefully assesses the fiscal, pedagogical, and administrative implication of such a move before committing itself.

Structure of Spending Per Student Across Levels

The current structure of public education spending per student is heavily skewed towards tertiary education. The US$5000 per tertiary student subsidy is constraining the government's ability to increase the expenditure for primary and secondary students. It is important for the government, at the macro level, to set the ceilings for per student expenditure and further to provide guidelines on the proportion of expenditures for non-teacher teaching and learning related areas. At the primary and secondary levels especially, it may be possible for Lesotho to move from an input-based education financing model towards capitation grants based on student enrollment and accompanied by strengthened accountability at the school level.

Pupil-Teacher Ratios and Implications for Organization of Service Delivery

Despite the introduction of Free Primary Education, the government of Lesotho has managed to maintain the primary pupil-teacher ratio at

about 45:47 which seems to be reasonable compared to other countries. However, there is a wide variation in the number of teachers for schools enrolling a similar number of pupils. For instance, there are between 100 and 750 pupils for 10 teachers at the school level; similarly, schools enrolling 500 pupils may have teachers numbering between 6 and 18. This wide range suggests inequitable distribution of primary teachers. Average pupil-teacher ratios tend to be higher in rural mountain areas where the practice of multigrade teaching is more pervasive. Close monitoring of the teacher allocation, development of incentives for rural teachers, and support structure for multigrade teaching will be critical to ensure quality education in rural areas.

At the secondary level, however, there are indications that existing secondary schools may not be utilized to their full potential due to the low student teacher ratio and student classroom ratio (as compared to primary education). The initial focus of secondary expansion should be improving the existing system.

Teacher Recruitment Standards and Pay Policy

Cost of teachers will inevitably increase if the current recruitment standards and pay policy remain the same. Although a full 30% of primary teachers are considered "unqualified," the overall formal qualification of Lesotho's teachers (at least 12 years of general education) is high compared to that in other developing countries. International evidence has shown very little direct relationship between teachers' formal qualification and student learning outcomes, beyond a minimum qualification around 10–12 years of schooling. At the same time, the high cost of teacher salaries constrains the government in its effort to improve coverage. The Government intends to upgrade all primary teachers to Diploma degree holders. Such upgrading will result in an increase of 60% in wages for teachers. It may be advisable for the government to review its teacher recruitments standards and pay policy.

School Construction Standards

Despite the Government's effort to construct more primary classrooms in recent years, Lesotho still suffers from an overall primary classroom shortage. The national average pupil-classroom ratio is about 7:1. In mountain and Senqu River areas, however, this ratio could be more than 8:0. The shortage of classrooms creates the necessity for multigrade teaching in these areas and further causes teachers to be utilized in a less than optimum way. Thus, construction of primary classrooms will remain a priority in the near future.

Standards for school construction represent another area of concern. School construction is costly and of high quality in Lesotho. An average 7-classroom school with associated facilities currently costs about M2 million, about US $300,000. The costs can rise even higher in remote areas where delivery of materials is difficult and the harsh terrain attracts only local contractors. Beyond issues related to Lesotho being a small and not very attractive market and the strong rand, the standards for school construction should be reviewed with the objective of bringing primary schools closer to the communities while at the same time reducing the costs and enhancing community ownership. The government has already begun to accept that it is possible to build a 4-classroom school in areas where the population is sparse. Further, the government is also piloting community-based primary construction in three districts. It must take further steps to reach the goal of bringing schools closer to the communities. Priority should also be given to provision of chairs and desks for existing schools including church schools.

Reducing Primary Repetition

Efforts should be made to reduce primary repetition. Evidence from other countries suggests

that repetition has little impact on educational outcomes, and may increase the dropout rate. Reducing repetition would decrease the gross enrollment ratio, reduce overcrowding in lower classes, and increase overall efficiency.

The above areas for policy development provide rather general guidelines. It is important for the government to develop a simulation so that the potential tradeoffs can be evaluated and policies developed and fed into the annual action plans and budgets.

Issues Pertaining to the Arrangements for System Management:

Another set of very important findings arising from the report are that the post-FPE policies need to pay more attention to improving the managerial efficiency to ensure equitable distribution of human and financial resources across schools and to ensure targeting of assistance to vulnerable groups to reduce social disparities.

Preparing for Increased Decentralization of Decision-Making to Schools (e.g. strengthened financial management and accountability)

Despite the heavy investment in education by the government of Lesotho, most of the inputs flowing to schools are in kind, rather than in cash. Indeed, the introduction of FPE further reduced the schools' autonomy in raising and spending funds. While this may have ensured short-term guarantee of some minimum services, the system is rather inefficient and in the long term this may damage school-level management capacity which has proven to be key to ultimate learning outcomes.

Strengthening accountability for results is difficult in education because many individuals are involved and the outcomes are typically multidimensional. Yet appropriate use of information can help improve performance by ensuring that resources are at least reaching schools.

Report cards for school districts and other higher levels of aggregation can also provide similar comparative information. The availability of such information may be expected to improve conditions in schools in two ways: by creating incentives for under endowed schools to seek redress; and by pinpointing specific schools in the system that warrants the attention of those in charge. In Lesotho, as in other countries, the use of information on student achievement for accountability purposes remains at an early stage. The country has already established a baseline, and this can be built on as part of the broader effort to mobilize appropriate information for better management.

Strategic Placing of New Construction to Relieve Shortage of Classrooms and Provision of School Desks and Chairs

It should be emphasized that an important finding of this report is that accessibility to schools was a major determinant of participation: 30% of rural children who never attended school lived at least 60 minutes away from a primary school. Among the other school characteristics, only the physical condition of the school—indexed by the percentage of pupils with neither seat nor desk - had significant impact on attendance. In fact, providing 10% more seats and desks could improve attendance rates by 28%. Since FPE, the government of Lesotho has focused primarily on construction, equipping, and furnishing new government schools. The strategic location of such schools is critical to ensuring education for all. Further, the government may consider renovating existing church schools which are strategically located and providing desks and chairs to the church schools as well.

Clarifying Governance Structure at School Level for Increased Focus on Results

By law, primary schools in Lesotho are managed by School Management Committees. For church schools, each management committee can be re-

sponsible for a maximum of eight schools belonging to the same proprietor. In an effort to encourage parents and community members to become involved in the management of church schools, the Education Act of 1995 also introduced School Advisory Committees in church schools. The role of these committees is to advise the management committee on all matters related to education in the relevant school. Lessons learned from the implementation of School Management Committees and School Advisory Committees indicate that these two committees overlap substantially in membership as well as in the role they play, thus creating confusion and potential lack of accountability at the school level. Recent review of the Education Act has already recommended the consolidation of the two committees into one. The recommendation has to be endorsed and the Act should be revised before implementation can begin.

Supervision and Teacher Support, Particularly Regarding Multigrade Teaching

Beyond resource mobilization at the school level, pedagogical management (administrative management and institutional structure of accountability), is to be considered a major ingredient of any policy to improve the quality of educational services. The outcomes of interest are the children's schooling careers—as reflected in entry, survival, and repetition rates—and their learning achievement. In both domains, good results will require teachers and school directors to manage the pedagogical process effectively. Indeed, the analysis in this report shows that only a very small proportion of the variation in student achievement (5.5%) can be explained by child, school, and teacher characteristics. More emphasis should be placed on support and supervision of classroom level teaching and learning. This will be particularly important to the schools currently practicing multigrade teaching and not receiving any support in this area.

Targeting the Vulnerable Groups

Fifteen percent of primary school age children in Lesotho are not yet enrolled in schools. In almost every measure of educational outcome, the remote rural and mountain areas are more disadvantaged than other areas. Orphans are more disadvantaged than non-orphans especially in repetition and dropout measures. The definition of existing "hardship" areas may have to be refined to capture the true hardship areas. It is important that for every new or existing policy, special consideration be made so that children and students in true hardship areas are not being left behind. These could include demand-side incentives for households to send their children to school.

The Education Sector Strategic Plan (2005–2015)

During the course of developing this Report, the Ministry of Education and Training finalized its Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) for 2005–2015 and submitted the ESSP to the Education Development Partners in Lesotho for assessment towards Fast Track Initiative Endorsement. The goals and strategies outlined in the ESSP are largely in line with the National Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper and the Education Millennium Development Goals. The Partners submitted the endorsement on June 29, 2005, with the following assessment to the Basic Education chapter of the ESSP:

- **Strengths**
  - Interventions for improving quality (e.g. continuing and professional development of teachers in literacy, numeracy, science and life skills)
  - Comprehensive strategies to improve access and equity for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC) and disadvantaged children
  - Priorities clearly articulated

  - Partnerships formed with other ministries e.g. Health and Social Welfare
- **Concerns**
  - Lack of clarity regarding the policy on basic education
  - Lack of a clear teacher replacement strategy in the context of HIV/AIDS
  - Data and analysis gaps (OVC, Special Education needs, the data (2004) collected using the new Education Geographic Information System still needs to be verified against the 2005 data)
  - Focus on access provision has to be balanced with improved quality
  - Sub-sectoral linkages are not adequately addressed in the objectives and strategies e.g. lifelong learning and primary education

It is clear that the ESSP policies and strategies could be re-worked in light of the findings and the suggested areas for policy development from this report. In particular, the ESSP is silent on the issues including the high tertiary expenditure and NMDS reform, reviewing teacher recruitment standards and pay policy, construction standards, support for multigrade teaching, and specific strategies to reduce primary waste. The Ministry regards the ESSP as a "living document" and has expressed willingness to work with the partners to develop annual work plans. Dissemination of this report and the subsequent development of an education financing model to simulate various policy tradeoffs and fiscal implications will support the Ministry's effort to develop annual work plans which are linked with its annual budgets.

CHAPTER 1

Demographic and Macroeconomic Setting

This chapter sets the stage for subsequent chapters. It describes the demographic and macroeconomic conditions in Lesotho, which have a direct impact on, or are closely linked with, the development of the education sector. It also points out key patterns and trends in government finance, including overall allocations of public spending on education.

As a small country with limited natural resources, Lesotho faces serious challenges to its overall development. Primarily because the Lesotho Highland Water Project (LHWP) exported water and electricity to South Africa, simultaneously creating employment opportunities in the construction sector, the 1990s witnessed an impressive average GDP growth of about 7%. The political upheaval in 1998, however, took a huge toll on the nation's economy, but peace and economic recovery ensued soon after the election in 2000. Further, the favorable trade conditions in textile exports attracted foreign investors, and, exports of garments made in Lesotho boosted the economy and brought the real GDP growth back to about 3% to 4% per annum over the past couple of years. However, significant challenges are looming on the horizon, including the significant loss of growth due to the high HIV/AIDS prevalence rate (29%), the uncertainty concerning the terms of trade for the textile industry, the strong rand which reduces the competitiveness of Lesotho's exports, and the reduction in numbers of migrant Basotho miners working in South Africa which lowered national remittances and increased both unemployment and social unrest in Lesotho. The economic benefits from the Lesotho Highland Water Project also seem to be leveling off.

Education and skills development is an integral part of Lesotho's overall strategy for future economic development and poverty reduction. Its public expenditure on education is already very high. More than 30% of total government expenditure goes to the education sector. Total education expenditure amounts to almost 12% of GDP, extremely high compared to the world average of 4% to 6%. This level of expenditure is unlikely to increase further especially when the future prospect for economic growth is uncertain. Yet the high expectations and demands put on the education sector are increasing. Some of these demands are explicitly stated in the government's most recent Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper and in the recently finalized Education Sector Strategic Plan (2005–2015). Among them are achieving equitable universal primary education, improving the quality of the

education system at all levels and training sufficient workers with skills relevant to the country's economy. The challenge for the managers of the education system is how to use existing and additional resources to deliver education services effectively and thereby fulfill these expectations.

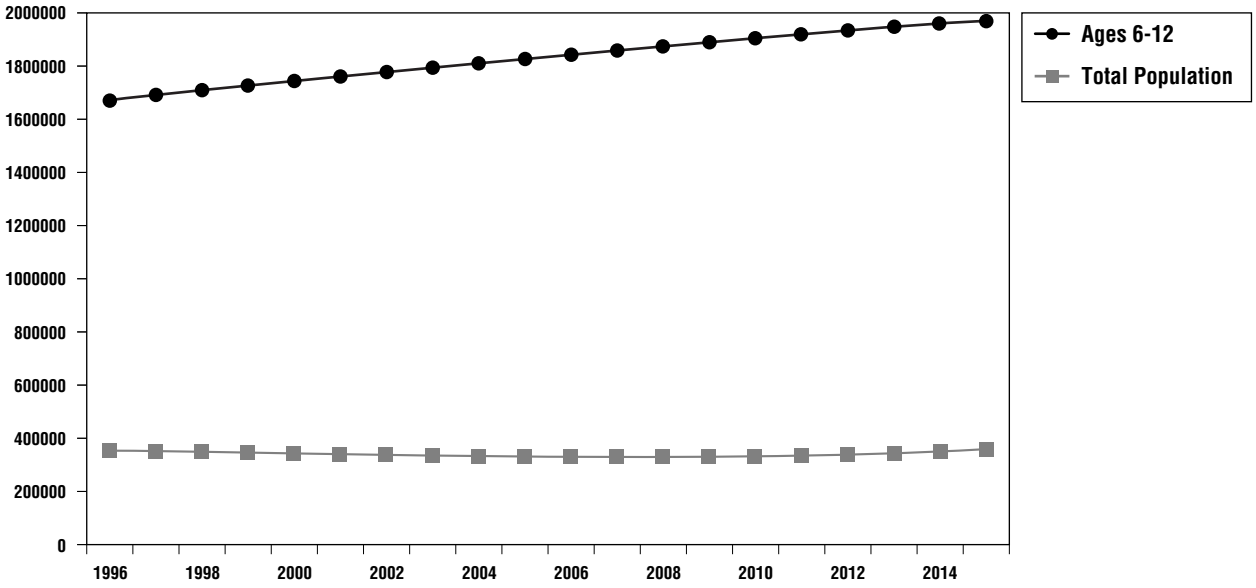
A. Demographic Profile

The Kingdom of Lesotho is a mountainous landlocked country, entirely surrounded by the Republic of South Africa (RSA). More than 99% of Lesotho's population is ethnically Basotho; other ethnic groups include Europeans and Asians. The country's population is 80% Christian, with a majority Roman Catholic. Others are Moslems, Hindus, and followers of indigenous beliefs. Sesotho and English are the official languages; Zulu and Xhosa are among the other languages spoken.

The last census for Lesotho was carried out in 1996. It established that the country's population was 1.67 million. The latest population projections are based on the 1996 census but with revised mortality rates due to HIV/AIDS. They established that the population in Lesotho in 2004 is about 1.8 million. Figure 1.1 depicts the actual evolution of the population since 1996.

The annual rate of population growth is decreasing. It increased from 2.3% between 1966 and 1976 to 2.6 % between 1976 and 1986. However, between 1986 and 1996, the population growth rate declined to 2.1% primarily due to the impact of HIV/AIDS. Further, between 1996 and 2015 it is projected to be less than 1%. As in many developing countries, young people make up a sizable share of the population, as Figure 1.1 shows. For example, children of primary school age (6 to 12 years old) accounted for almost 19% of the total population in 2004. The population of primary school-age children is also projected to decline slightly, from 336,000 in 2004 to about 332,000 in 2008. However, it is projected that recovery will start in 2008.

Figure 1.1
Lesotho Total and School-Age Population



Source: Survey Data. Missing data for one LGA (Ojoo) in 1999

Table 1.1 summarizes basic characteristics of Lesotho's population by administrative district in terms of location, gender, and age. Data are from the latest household survey: the Core Welfare Indicator Questionnaire, administered in 2002. More than three quarters of Lesotho's people reside in rural areas, and less than one quarter in urban areas. Interestingly, more than half of the population (54%) is female, compared to 45.6% male. This is most likely due to the Basotho tradition of men working in South Africa.

Lesotho has a relatively young population, with 32.4% of its population below age 15, and another 64.3% between 15 and 64.

The Basotho territory can be divided into four geographic/ecological regions: mountains, lowlands, the Senqu River Valley, and foothills. For administrative purposes, the Basotho territory is divided into 10 districts: Butha Buthe, Leribe, Berea, Maseru, Mafeteng, Mohale's Hoek, Quthing, Qacha's Neck, Mokhotlong, and Thaba Tseka. Each district is headed by a district secretary. The definition of zones and their relationship with the districts is provided in the Annex 1.2 to this chapter.

Table 1.1also indicates that the Maseru District, which includes the capitol of Lesotho, is home to more than 38% of the total population. The second most populated district is Qacha's Neck, home to 13.3% of the total Basotho population. The remaining 49% of the population are scattered among the remaining eight districts.

At almost 82%, the literacy rate in Lesotho is high compared to the average of 64% for Sub-Saharan African countries. The literacy rate is higher among women: almost 90% of women are considered literate as compared to only 73% of men. The literacy rate is improving generation by generation. While only 58% of those 60 years old and older are literate, almost 90% of the 25–29 year olds are literate, as shown in Table 1.2

Table 1.1
Population by Location, Gender, Age, and District (2002)

	Weighted percentage
Rural	76.5
Urban	23.5
Gender	
Male	45.6
Female	54.4
Age	
< 15	32.4
15–64	64.3
65+	3.3
District	
Butha Buthe	8.1
Leribe	7.7
Berea	3.6
Maseru	38.1
Mafeteng	5.6
Mohale Hoek	3.9
Quthing	3
Qacha's Neck	13.3
Mokhotlong	8.6
Thaba Tseka	8.1

Incidence of Poverty

The incidence of poverty increased in Lesotho between 1986/87 and 1994/95. Approximately 58% of the population was poor in both sur-

Table 1.2
Literacy Rate

	Male	Female	Total
Total	73.2	89.6	81.8
15–24	80.5	96.3	88.6
25–29	82.1	95.7	89.1
30–39	77.2	95	86.2
40–49	71	88.3	80.4
50–59	63.5	87.5	75.9
60+	44.6	66.9	58.1

Source: CWIQ 2002

veys, but the percentage of households that were denoted as ultra-poor increased from 35% to 39%. The poverty mapping exercise conducted in the 1990s seems to confirm this worsening trend, despite the economic growth. In Lesotho, the Gini coefficient, which is widely used to measure inequality, actually increased from 0.6 to 0.66 in the period between 1986 and 1995. This is another example of how growth alone is not sufficient to reduce poverty.

However, no recent poverty analysis has been conducted. A household budget survey, currently being conducted, should provide an update to the poverty profile in Lesotho.

Additional vital statistics for Lesotho including the progress toward achieving the Millennium Development Goals can be found in Annex 1.1. Serious challenges remain for Lesotho to achieve poverty reduction of 50%, primary net enrollment of 100%, primary completion of 100%, and complete gender parity by 2015. The health indicators are worse than those for education. Hence the journey to achieve health MDGs will be more difficult. For example, within the 12 years from 1990 to 2002, progress to reduce under-5 mortality has been very slow, dropping from 148 per 1000 in 1990 to 132 in 2002. The goal is to reduce the under-5 mortality by two thirds.

HIV/AIDS and Orphanhood

Since Lesotho's first case of AIDS in 1986, prevalence rates among adults aged 15 to 49 have skyrocketed from approximately 4% in 1993 to 29% in 2004. This is the fourth highest prevalence rate in the world, following Botswana (38.8 %); Zimbabwe (33.7 %); and Swaziland (33.4 %).

The high rate of HIV infection has had an enormous impact on Lesotho's demographics. In 1986 life expectancy in Lesotho was 55 years and the expectation was that it would rise to 60 years by 2001. As a result of HIV/AIDS, however, recent estimates of life expectancy have dropped to below 37 years and are projected to drop further.

The impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic on the education sector is significant. In 2003, the MOET carried out a campaign of voluntary testing and counseling for all its headquarters staff and teachers in seven districts; of the teachers and administrators who opted for testing, 22% were found to be HIV positive (see Table 1.4).

Table 1.4
Prevalence of HIV/AIDS among Education Sector Staff

	Total # of Staff	Tested		Negative		Positive		
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
HQ		90	260	58	226	32	34	**66**
Mohale's Hoek	1041	65	211	53	177	12	34	**46**
Thaba-Tseka	684	166	302	141	259	25	43	**68**
Berea	1053	112	185	94	139	18	46	**64**
Maseru	2810	94	266	33	170	61	96	**157**
Mafeteng	1427	11	52	8	45	3	7	**10**
Leribe	2150	18	57	16	51	2	6	**8**
Quthing	782	13	52	9	39	4	13	**17**
Total tested	1954							
Prevalence	**0.22**							

Source: MOET

It is reasonable to expect that the overall prevalence rate among non-volunteers would be higher. Indeed, the government's 2003 impact assessment study estimated that nearly 30% of teachers were affected by HIV/AIDS in 2003, with that percentage expected to increase. This translates into a death rate of approximately 1% of teachers annually.

Furthermore, based on the 2002 Core Welfare Indicator Questionnaire survey, the number of orphans in Lesotho is estimated to be around 100,000, almost one third of the total primary school-age population. The education sector faces the serious challenge of bringing these children into school and retaining them in the system.

The government of Lesotho was initially slow to recognize the scale of the HIV/AIDS crisis, and so far its efforts to combat the spread of the disease have met with limited success. In 1999, the government finalized its Strategic Plan on HIV/AIDS, a program that would address the education, prevention, counseling, and treatment needs of the populace. In late 2003, the government announced that it was forming a new National AIDS Commission to coordinate society-wide anti-AIDS activities. Also in 2003 it hosted a SADC Extraordinary Summit on HIV/AIDS. Most importantly, line ministries are required to spend about 2 percent of their recurrent budgets on HIV/AIDS related activities. In the Ministry of Education and Training, an HIV/AIDS coordination unit was established in 2003 which is staffed with one full-time coordinator and two counselors. The unit developed an HIV/AIDS Action Plan focusing on voluntary testing, counseling, and treatment for all education sector staff.

B. Macroeconomic Trends

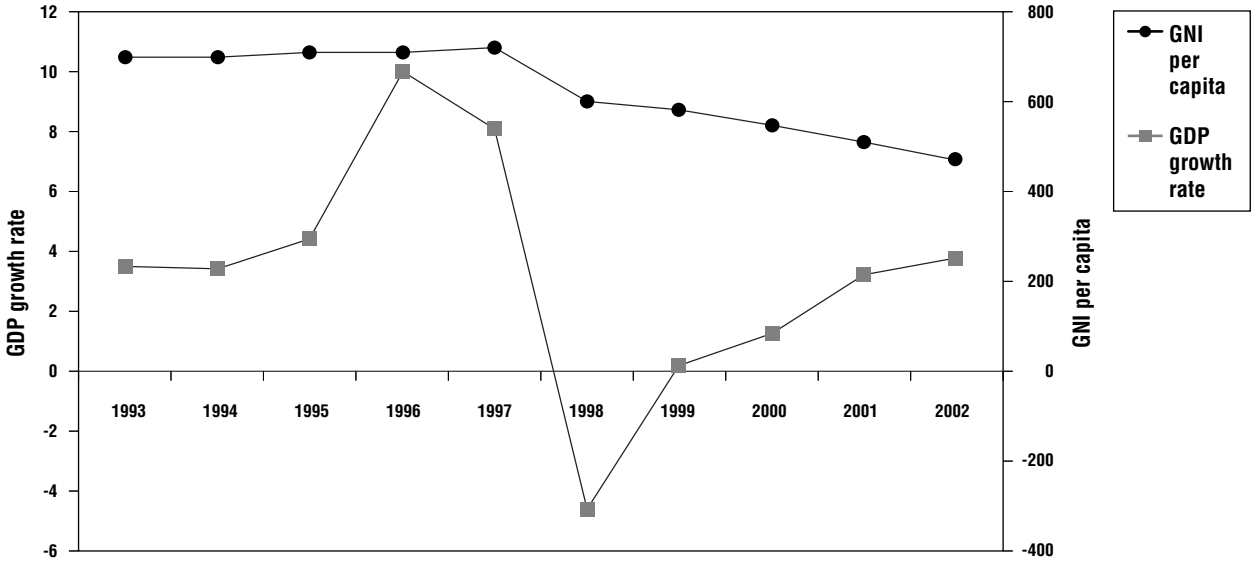
Lesotho's economy is strongly connected to that of its neighbor, the Republic of South Africa. Its currency, the maloti, is pegged to the South African rand. For most countries, the key indicator of economic performance is the Gross Domestic Product (GDP); for Lesotho, however, it is the Gross National Income or Product (GNI or GNP), which represents the real economic situation. There is usually a gap between GDP and GNI because of the remittances that migrant Basotho workers in South Africa send back to Lesotho.

Lesotho's economy is based on the water and electricity it sells to South Africa, along with manufacturing, agriculture, livestock, and earnings both from the Southern African Customs Union (SACU), and from laborers employed in South Africa. Lesotho also exports diamonds, wool, and mohair. The majority of households subsist on farming or migrant labor, primarily miners who work in South Africa for 3 to 9 months each year. The western lowlands form the main agricultural zone. Almost half the population earns some income through crop cultivation or animal husbandry, with over half the country's income coming from the agricultural sector.

Figure 1.2 traces Lesotho's real GDP growth rate and GNI per capita. It is clear that the line depicting real GDP growth rate experiences some fluctuation. Over the past decade, Lesotho's real GDP growth has been relatively high, averaging 4%. High GDP growth rates in the late 1980s to early 1990s were primarily due to the Lesotho Highland Water Project (LHWP), which started in 1987 as a collaboration between Lesotho and the RSA. The project has contributed to Lesotho's economy in two ways. First, it generated a massive demand for construction, which led to the creation of employment in the construction industry and thus contributed to the economic growth[1] in Lesotho. Second, the project enabled Lesotho to generate electricity on its own and at the same time, export water to the RSA. Once the first phase of the project

[1] Among the construction projects were a 185-meter high dam, a 45 kilometer transfer tunnel, and hydropower stations (Redeby and Makume 2001).

Figure 1.2
GDP Growth Rates in Lesotho, 1980–2003



Source: IMF Country Report (2004)

was completed, LHWP made a smaller contribution to GDP growth. Although the second phase of the LHWP was carried out during the late 1990s and the early years of the 2000s, its contribution to GDP has been minimal.

The negative GDP growth registered in 1998 was primarily due to the political unrest that resulted in massive destruction of infrastructure, especially in the Maseru area. In the late 1990s, Lesotho's economy was further weakened by reductions in the amount of Basotho labor needed in the South African mines. The total number of Basotho miners working in South Africa was almost 96,000 in 1997, but by 2002, had dropped to 62,000, according to an IMF report.

The GDP has been recovering steadily since 1999, primarily due to the boom in the textile industry. Lesotho has taken advantage of the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) to become the Sub-Saharan region's largest exporter of garments to the US. Exports totaled over $320 million in 2002. Employment reached over 50,000, marking the first time that manufacturing sector workers outnumbered government employees. Asian investors own most of the factories.

However, in late 2004, Lesotho again began to experience a significant downturn in economic performance driven largely by uncertainty in the textile sector due to several factors: uncertainty as to whether the US Congress would extend the AGOA, removal of textile quotas under the Multifibre Agreement on Textiles and Clothing, and the weak US dollar against the rand which made garments from Lesotho less competitive compared to those from Asia.

These events provide the context in which to consider the country's GNI, GDP, and GNP. The real GNI per capita has declined from $720 in 1997 to $470 in 2002, as seen in Figure 1.2. Table 1.5 lists Lesotho's gross domestic product and gross national product at current prices. These figures indicate the magnitude of Lesotho's economy and the actual gap between GDP and GNI. On average, the GNI has been over 23

Table 1.5
Trends in GDP and GNP since 1998 in Lesotho (in maloti)

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Gross Domestic Product at current prices	4920.7	5564.9	5963.7	6564.8	7370	8143.8	8851.4
Gross National Product at current prices	6305.4	7057.4	7486	8071.1	9067.7	10017.2	10938
Population (millions)	1.71	1.73	1.74	1.76	1.78	1.79	1.81
GDP per capita (current maloti)	2878	3217	3427	3730	4140	4550	4890
GNP per capita (current maloti)	3687	4079	4302	4586	5094	5596	6043

Source: Statistical Report, No. 6, 2003 National Accounts 1980–2003, Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Finance and Development Planning

percent higher than the GDP. However, the gap has been diminishing recently as the international gold price has dropped and the number of migrant laborers has decreased dramatically, from 127,400 in 1990 to 62,200 in 2002.

Table 1.6 compares Lesotho's GNI per capita (using the atlas method) with those of its neighbors and with averages for the world and for Sub-Saharan Africa in 2003. It is clear that Lesotho's GNI per capita, though higher than Mozambique's, lags significantly behind those of Swaziland and South Africa. Because of its low GNI per capita, Lesotho is classified by the World Bank as a lower-income country, one that still qualifies for loans under IDA terms.

In short, there have been ups and downs in Lesotho's economic performance during the last decade and a half. Overall growth rate has been sluggish and real GNI per capita has in fact declined as compared to the level in 1997. Further, the impact on poverty reduction has been limited (World Bank, Country Economic Memorandum (CEM): Growth and Employment Options Study, 2005). Several ominous developments in the early 2000s may lead to an even less optimistic picture for development in the near future. These factors include the high HIV/AIDS rate, uncertainty in the textile industry, the leveling off of benefits resulting from the LHWP, the retrenchment of miners from South Africa, and the strong rand against the maloti, which made Lesotho's export prices less attractive. The challenge for the GOL, as reflected in its Poverty Reduction Strategy, is to ensure strong and sustainable growth with poverty reduction.

The World Bank CEM projected that major poverty reduction in medium term for Lesotho will require much higher real growth (5–6%)

Table 1.6
GNI Per Capita in 2003 (in US$)

	Lesotho	South Africa	Swaziland	Mozambique	Sub-Saharan Africa (excl. S.A.)	World Average
GNI per capita	590	2780	1350	210	490	5500

Source: World Development Indicators 2004

Table 1.7
Central Government Budgetary Operations (% of GDP)

	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03
Revenue and Grants	45.1	42.6	43.9	44.0	45.3
Revenue	42.7	40.3	42.4	41.2	41.3
Grants	2.4	2.3	1.6	2.8	4.0
Expenditure	48.0	58.9	46.8	44.7	49.8
Recurrent	38.2	40.5	39.8	35.5	38.9
Capital	9.8	8.4	7.6	11.0	11.3
Net Lending	0.0	10.0	–0.7	–1.8	–0.4
Balance w/o grants	–5.3	–18.5	–4.4	–3.5	–8.5
Balance w/ grants	–2.9	–16.3	–2.9	–0.7	–4.5

Source: Background to the budget 2004/05

and per capita growth (at least 4%). It further recommended a two-pronged growth strategy: high-value commercial agricultural production and processing, and higher value manufactured exports (diversified away from low grade garments). Pivotal to this proposed growth strategy, among other things, is to ensure the delivery of more and better educated and qualified Basothos. To improve the productivity of its abundant but unfortunately low skilled labor, the GOL needs to improve the delivery and outcomes of both education and training.

C. Public Spending, Issues of Debt Service, and Implications for Spending in the Education Sector

One consequence of Lesotho's small size is that its international trade is large in relation to the size of the economy. Further, the fact that it's landlocked and surrounded by South Africa also forces it to do more international trade. This fact makes it relatively easy for the government to obtain revenue. It is easy to tax international trade, because, by definition, the goods (either imports or exports) must cross an international border, and there are only a limited number of border crossings. Thus it is easy to locate this trade. Other sectors like agriculture (especially crops consumed within the household, rather than marketed), domestic trade, and services, are less easy to tax from the administrative perspective, compared to international trade. The Lesotho Highlands Water Project (LHWP) has also contributed significantly to government revenue. In the average SSA country, government revenue is usually 21% of GDP; however, in Lesotho, government revenue has recently been about 42% of GDP. This revenue increase has supported the Lesotho government in spending 47% of its GDP, as compared with 27% of GDP in the average SSA country.[2] While a high government revenue performance is often considered to be a blessing, it can also raise a risk that the government will absorb too much of the national income in relation to the prospects for private sector investment and growth.

The Lesotho economy grew fairly rapidly during the middle 1990s, fueled by the LHWP. In

[2] Comparative data are from the World Bank, *African Development Indicators 2001*. If GNP rather than GDP were used as the denominator in these ratios, Lesotho would still be an "outlier" on the high side, although not to as large an extent.

1998, however, real GDP fell, inflation accelerated to 9 percent, the balance of payments weakened, and the government's fiscal deficit (as shown in Table 1.7) ballooned to unsustainable levels.

To correct the situation, in 2000 the government began to implement an economic program supported by the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Initially this was a "staff-monitored program" that did not draw upon IMF resources. Then, in early 2001, the IMF board approved access to IMF resources under the Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility (PRGF), a program that aims to reduce inflation, strengthen the

Table 1.8
Education Sector Expenditures (1998/99 to 2004/05)

	Actual	Actual	Actual	Actual	Actual	Actual	Actual
	1998/99 Actual	**1999/00 Actual**	**2000/01 Actual**	**2001/02 Actual**	**2002/03 Actual**	**2003/04 Actual**	**2004/05 Actual**
MOET Education – Recurrent	488	507	579	679	738	647	737
MOET Education – Capital	119	25	32	109	162	98	166
NMDS	65.2	77.2	80.5	120	177	217	270
Total Education Sector	672	609	692	908	1077	962	1173
GOL – Recurrent	1943	2319	2404	2312	2857	2533	3199
Of which: interest	129	183	258	203	220	216	156
Of which: non-interest Recurrent	1814	2136	2146	2109	2637	2690	3043
GOL – Capital,	496	480	554	626	802	635	756
GOL – Total, excluding interest	2310	2616	2700	2735	3439	2952	3799
Gross Domestic Product	4921	5565	5964	6565	7370	8144	8851.4
Gross National Income	6305	7057	7486	8071	9068	10017	10938
	1998/99	**1999/00**	**2000/01**	**2001/02**	**2002/03**	**2003/04**	**2004/05**
MOET Recurrent /GOL Recur., excl. interest	26.9%	23.7%	27.0%	32.2%	28.0%	24.1%	24.2%
Education Total Recur./ GOL Recur., excl. interests	30.5%	27.4%	30.7%	37.9%	34.7%	32.1%	33.1%
MOET Capital /GOL Capital	24.0%	5.2%	5.8%	17.4%	20.2%	15.5%	21.9%
Education Total/GOL Total, excl.interest	29.1%	23.3%	25.6%	33.2%	31.3%	32.6%	30.9%
Ed. Total/GDP	13.7%	10.9%	11.6%	13.8%	14.6%	11.8%	13.2%
Ed. Total/GNP	10.7%	8.6%	9.2%	11.3%	11.9%	9.6%	10.7%

balance of payments, and achieve an economic growth rate of at least 4 percent annually.

The government intends to limit its budget deficit to levels that can be financed by external grants and concessional loans. It plans to implement a broad, long-term public sector reform program, which includes improving budgeting and expenditure control as well as civil service reform.

Implications for Spending on the Education Sector

When considering education sector budgets and expenditures, it is important to note that in Lesotho the education sector includes not only the entire Ministry of Education and Training, but also a small department called the National Manpower Development Secretariat (NMDS) within the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning. The NMDS administers bursaries and student loans for both secondary and tertiary students. Over the past few years, total budgets for NMDS have been more than 20% of the total budget of the Ministry of Education and Training.

Over the past few years, the average recurrent expenditure on the education sector (including both MOET and NMDS) constituted more than 30% of total government expenditure excluding interest. Aggregating both recurrent and capital expenditures, education sector expenditures still amount to an average of more than 25% of total government expenditures over the last five years or so, equivalent to an amount between 11% and over 14% of total GDP.

However, given the above macroeconomic conditions which seem to predict an even less optimistic picture than that of the 1990s, it is likely that the government will exercise more fiscal restraint in the years immediately ahead, with non-interest *recurrent* expenditure projected to decrease. In this environment, increases in the real resources devoted to the Ministry of Education and Training from the government budget can come only at the expense of other sectors.

On the other hand, the government has set an ambitious agenda of expanding enrollment and improving quality in primary education, which will require considerable funds. In the macroeconomic environment of fiscal restraint, it will be necessary to examine the allocation of resources *within* the education sector, to explore whether efficiency can be improved in some areas, or whether the financial burden on the government can be reduced through cost-sharing reforms.

D. Economic Structure and000 Employment Patterns

There are three types of economic sectors in Lesotho. The primary economic sector includes crops and livestock. The secondary economic sector includes manufacturing including textiles, construction, LHWP construction, electricity and water. And the tertiary economic sector includes wholesale and retail trade, public administration and education. In the year 2002/03, the primary economic sector contributed 13.7 % of GDP, while the secondary and tertiary economic sectors contributed 42.0 % and 34.4 %, respectively. As seen in Table 1.9, the share provided by agriculture declined significantly from 20.9% in the early 1980s to 13.7% in 2002/03. On the other hand, the growth of the secondary sector has been overwhelming: from only 22.6% of GDP in the early 1980s, it rose to 42.0% in 2002/03.

Employment Patterns

One of the most critical socio-economic situations in Lesotho is the large disparity in income among economic sectors. As seen in Table 1.9, the country's economy is led by the secondary and tertiary sectors, which each account for about 41% of the GDP, with the remaining 17.4% of the GDP being generated by the primary sector—which accounts for 72.8 % of the Basothos who are employed. On the other hand,

Table 1.9
Sector-Specific GDP Contributions, 1980/81–2002/03

	80/81–86/87	87/88–97/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03
Primary	20.9	16.8	15.9	15.6	15.2	14.4	13.7
Secondary	22.6	31.4	35.6	38	39.9	40.5	42.0
Tertiary	43.4	37.0	38.6	37	35.6	35	34.4
Indirect taxes	13.1	14.8	9.9	9.4	9.3	10.1	9.9
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Lesotho Growth Option Study (2003) World Bank.

as Table 1.10 shows, only 8.8% and 18.3% of Basothos work in the secondary and tertiary sectors, respectively. In rural areas, 83% of the population engages in the strictly low-yielding primary sector; the majority is subsistence farmers. On the other hand, 21% and 52% of the urban population engage in the secondary and tertiary sectors, respectively.

Unemployment

The most important aspect of employment patterns in Lesotho is the high unemployment rate, which is directly linked to poverty. It is estimated that 27.1% of the population is either unemployed or underemployed. Several factors contribute to high unemployment in Lesotho.

The first major factor is the lack of employment opportunities. Of those who answered the 2002 Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire (CWIQ), 23.0% and 3.7%, respectively, said they were unemployed or underemployed, with some regional variations. The highest rate, 33.0%, was reported in Quthing District (a rural and mountainous area) and the lowest, 16.5%, in Mefeteng District (rural but non-mountainous). Of those who reported being unemployed, 95.7% reported that no work was available.

Another factor contributing to high unemployment is the changing economic environment in Lesotho. Because demand for miners is dropping significantly and construction through LHWP is slowing down, many of those who once worked in the RSA gold mines and for LHWP are now unemployed. Even though the demand for labor in the manufacturing sector is growing, these former miners and construction workers often lack the skills needed to work in manufacturing.

A third reason for the high unemployment is low levels of investment from both local and

Table 1.10
Composition of Employment and GDP, 1999

	GDP Contribution		Composition of Employment		
Sector	Million US$	% share	Total	Urban	Rural
Primary	143.8	17.4%	72.8%	27.1%	83.0%
Secondary	339.3	41.1%	8.8%	20.8%	6.2%
Tertiary	341.6	41.4%	18.3%	52.1%	10.8%
Total	824.7	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Employment data from BOS (1999), and GDP data from Central Bank of Lesotho (2003).

foreign investors in sub-sectors other than textiles. For geographical reasons, Lesotho is generally not a very attractive country for foreign direct investment (FDI) although the LHWP generated some FDI from the RSA in the early 1990s. After LHWP, nearly 90% of FDI goes to the textile industry. The nation needs to develop a more diversified economic profile by creating other industries to attract FDI.

A compounding factor is the seeming lack of relevant skills among the Basotho labor force. It is conceivable that if people have solid basic skills in literacy, numeracy, and communication, if they are willing to be retrained, if the training is affordable and relevant, and if they have a sufficient degree of entrepreneurship, then more and more jobs will be created either by the Basothos themselves or by increased foreign investment. Indeed, the government of Lesotho clearly recognizes the importance of the education and training sector. It identified education as a priority in its recent Poverty Reduction and Strategy Paper. The very high allocation of government expenditure to education also attests to this.

This situation points to the purpose of this report: to determine how the Basotho nation, through its Ministry of Education and Training and other relevant agencies, can develop and implement proper policies and other instruments to produce a better educated and better trained Basotho labor force. Unfortunately, a lack of relevant data prevents this report from providing a full analysis of the linkages between the education and training and labor market outcomes including both the local and regional labor markets. For now, this report will assume that education and skills development is an integral part of Lesotho's overall strategy for economic growth and poverty reduction.

E. Chapter Summary

The government of Lesotho, through its Ministry of Education and Training, attaches high value to education. Education is one of the national priorities identified in the recent Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. The government has signed the MDGs which aim to achieve 100% primary education completion and gender equity in primary and secondary education by 2015. Further, the government has set ambitious goals to improve the quality of education at all levels. Consistent with its rhetoric, public expenditure on education amounts to more than 30% of total government expenditure (excluding interest payments) and nearly 12% of its GDP in 2003.

The high rates of HIV/AIDS have profoundly affected the demographic profile in Lesotho: the population growth rate is declining because of falling fertility rates and life expectancy. HIV/AIDS has also made orphans of many school-age children. The government's 2003 impact assessment estimated that nearly 30% of teachers were affected by HIV/AIDS and that figure is expected to increase. In this situation, the government will need to put more effort into training teachers in order to achieve national goals such as EFA and FPE. Educating orphans and other disadvantaged children also places a serious burden on the already over-stretched education sector.

From the macroeconomic perspective, the Lesotho Highland Water Project (LHWP) contributed significantly to government revenue, allowing the country to enjoy a relatively high rate of economic growth over the past 10 years. On the other hand, in the late 1990s, the economy was weakened by the reduced need for labor in the South African mines. In this macroeconomic context, the government has allocated a large share of public expenditure to education, quite appropriately for education and skills development; however, the government is expected to exercise fiscal restraint in the years to come. In order to achieve the national and international goals (EFA, MDGs, and FPE), the challenge for Lesotho is to seek cost-effective ways to allocate public resources within the education sector and to explore areas where efficiency can be improved.

CHAPTER 2

Overview of the Education Sector: Historical and Comparative Perspectives

In this chapter we provide an overview of the educational system in Lesotho. In particular, we trace the expansion of enrollment at different levels of education, taking a historical perspective. We examine the system's coverage, compare it with that of other countries, and discuss key indicators of student flow with a special focus on four indicators: rates of entry to first grade, grade-specific enrollment rates, cohort survival rates, and repetition rates in primary and secondary education.

A. Education Structure

Lesotho's education system is divided into three levels: 1) seven-year primary education (Standards 1 to 7); 2) five-year secondary education consisting of a three-year lower level (Forms A to C) and two-year upper level (Forms D and E); and 3) tertiary education, which takes a maximum of four years to complete. Lesotho has yet to define legally the required duration of compulsory education. Compared with other regions outside of Africa, Lesotho has more years of primary education (Table 2.1).

The official school age for primary education is between 6 and 12 years. Completing primary education is marked by passage of the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE), which measures students' basic knowledge of science, social studies, English, mathematics and Sesotho, at the end of the seven-year primary cycle. Following primary education, secondary education consists of two levels: the three-year junior secondary education level which is completed by obtaining the Junior Certificate (JC), and the two-year senior secondary education level which is completed upon attainment of the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC). The senior secondary course of study (Forms D and E) is equivalent to the British "O" level education.

Tertiary education (also called post-COSC) includes technical and vocational education (TVET), teacher training, and university education. In actual fact, the TVET in Lesotho offers a mixture of certificate and diploma programs catering to both post-JC and post-COSC students. Lesotho has only one true tertiary level TVET institution, the Lerotholic Polytechnic, which offers both certificate and diploma courses. The other TVET institutions offer mostly certificate programs for post-JC students and even some for post-PSLE students.

The Lesotho College of Education (LCE) offers teacher training courses for primary and secondary school teachers, with a Diploma in Edu-

Table 2.1
Duration of Compulsory, Primary and Secondary Education

	Duration of compulsory schooling	Duration of primary	Duration of secondary
Lesotho	7*	7	5
Neighbors			
South Africa	9	7	5
Botswana	10	7	5
Swaziland	7	7	5
Namibia	10	7	5
Mozambique	7	7	5
Other Regions			
East Asia & Pacific		6	
Europe & Central Asia		4	
Latin America & Caribbean		6	
Middle East & North Africa		6	
South Asia		5	
Sub-Saharan Africa		6	

Source: EdStats, World Bank

* Lesotho recently announced that primary education is compulsory.

cation (Primary) (DEP) for non-certified teachers, a Diploma in Primary Education (DPE) for certified teachers, a Diploma in Education (Secondary) (DES), and a Diploma in Technology Education (DTE). In January 2002, the LCE began offering a Distance Teacher Education Program (DTEP) for primary teachers who wished to improve their teaching qualifications while continuing to work. The LCE does not yet offer any degree courses for teachers. The National University of Lesotho (NUL) also offers a Bachelor of Education degree which caters to undergraduates aspiring to be secondary school teachers.

Various undergraduate and post-graduate degree programs are offered by universities. There is only one comprehensive public university in Lesotho, the National University of Lesotho, which offers programs leading to sub-degree programs (certificates and diplomas), undergraduate degrees in agriculture, education, humanities, law, social sciences and the natural sciences, and postgraduate programs. There seems to be a tradition for Basotho COSC graduates to enter tertiary institutions in the Republic of South Africa. Over the last few years, on average, more than 20% of the new tertiary student population has entered programs in RSA and other institutions overseas.

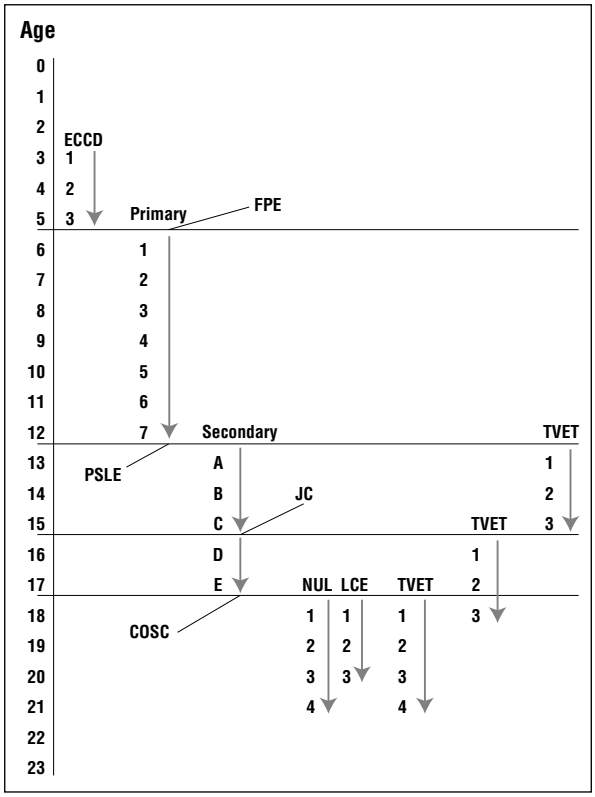
Last, but not least, is Lesotho's system of preschool education. The Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) institutes offer pre-primary schooling for children aged 3 to 5 years. All the center-based ECCD facilities are privately owned. The Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) has started piloting a home-based ECCD approach that relies primarily on volunteers for the care of children although training is provided by the MOET.

Lesotho's entire education system is depicted in Figure 2.1.

B. Education Governance and Management

Because Lesotho was a British protectorate until 1966, it inherited the British system of education. Its official languages are both Sesotho

Figure 2.1
Education System in Lesotho



Source: MOET

and English but English is currently used in schools as the compulsory language of instruction beyond primary Standard 3. While the Constitution of Lesotho is the fundamental law that lays out the legal foundation for providing education at all levels in Lesotho, the *Education Act of 1995* and the Local Government Act constitute another important legal framework that governs the management of education. Further, several laws have been enacted to guide policy and practice at different levels of education. Different legislation exists for primary and secondary education, technical and vocational education, and higher education.

Legal Context

The *Education Act* No. 10 of 1995 (amended in 1996) was enacted to regulate the provision of primary and secondary education. Because education was established by missionaries in Lesotho in 1883, the majority of primary school facilities in the country are still church-owned, even though the government pays the majority of teacher salaries and other recurrent fees. An important achievement of the 1995 Education Act was identifying the three main entities responsible for education in Lesotho: a) the government; b) community; and c) churches. The Education Act also requires that communities and parents be represented in school management or advisory committees.

The Education Act is currently under review to ensure that it addresses issues stressed in a number of other international programs—Education for All, the Convention on the Rights of a Child, and the Millennium Development Goals—as well as several national priorities: Lesotho constitutional provision of free and compulsory education, its Local Government Act, the National Vision 2020 and the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. The latter has the goal of reducing and eradicating poverty by providing basic education for all. As a result of this review, the Education Act will also regulate and set quality standards, and will foster broader social participation in the management of education, at both the school and district level, by devolving more powers to local management structures.

Lesotho recently passed a *Local Government Act* which stipulates that the districts will function as "coordinating and administrative" bodies responsible to the Ministry of Local Government. The government also developed a Strategic Plan for Decentralization which has yet to be reviewed and implemented. The general impression, however, is that the districts have yet to be made fully aware of its tenets and implications: they have not yet been given separate budget lines, nor have the line ministries really started to decentralize their functions. Local government elections were conducted on April 30, 2005. Results have been announced and councils are being established.

Several other laws have an impact on the management of education services. In 2002, the Minister of Education established the Teaching Service Regulations which guide teacher management and support, under the provisions of the Education Act and the *Teachers' Pensions Act*.

The Lesotho *Technical and Vocational Training Act* of 1984 governs programs for the development of technical and industrial skills. Under this act, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) are the responsibility of the Minister of Education and Training, acting on the advice of the Technical and Vocational Training Advisory Board on all matters relating to TVET. The law is also under review to provide for greater participation of the private sector in skills development, sustainable financing of skills development, and a more autonomous management structure.

The *Higher Education Act*, enacted in 2004, addresses the provision of higher education in Lesotho. The act seeks to a) regulate higher education through the establishment and registration of both public and private institutions; b) establish a council on higher education, whose main functions are accreditation and quality assurance of higher education institutions; and c) provide guidelines on the governance and funding of public institutions. The Higher Education Council, established by this act, is primarily advisory and still in a nascent form; its effectiveness has not been established.

A bill for the governance and functions of the Examination Council of Lesotho (*ECOL*) has been developed and is currently under review. In 2002, ECOL became a semi-autonomous agency from the MOET. The primary functions of the ECOL are, according to the draft ECOL bill:

> To arrange and control assessment for primary and secondary schools and such other bodies as the Minister may direct; and award certificates to persons who satisfy the Council that they have attained an appropriate standard in assessment or other tests of knowledge or ability or have performed other prescribed exercises in a manner regarded as satisfactory. It is expected that the Act, once passed, will provide a legal basis for the continuation of the Examinations Council of Lesotho, providing for its administration and control and related matters.

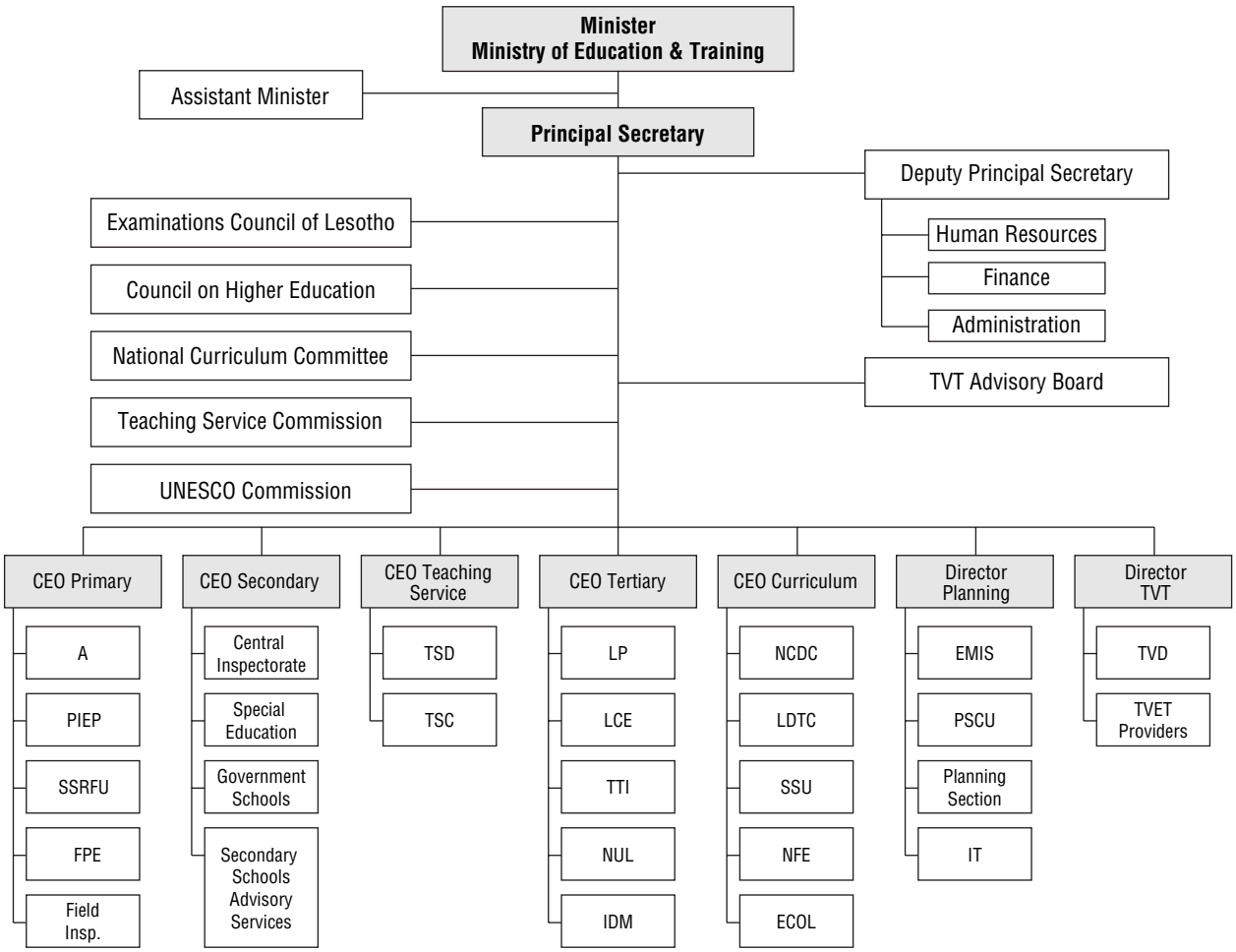
Organization of Education Management

The Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) is responsible for the management, provision and regulation of education in Lesotho and is headed by a minister (assisted by an assistant minister). The principal secretary, who is the ministry's administrative head and chief accounting officer, is assisted at the executive level by a staff of officers and directors. They include a deputy principal secretary; five chief education officers responsible for primary education, secondary education, teaching service, curriculum services, and tertiary education; a director of education planning, a director of technical and vocational education, and the secretary general of the National Commission for UNESCO. These senior managers head departments composed of programs which form operational units of sector at the headquarters level.

Almost all the decisions concerning education in Lesotho are made at the central office, despite the government's efforts to implement its decentralization policy. This is particularly true with regard to financial matters.

At the district level, education management is housed within District Resource Centers (DRCs) which are headed by senior education officers. The DRCs are a separate structure from the District Office that houses the district secretary. Several educational departments have been decentralized and relocated in the districts. These include the Teacher Services Department, the Lesotho College of Education, the National Curriculum Development Center, and offices overseeing early childhood education and non-

Table 2.2
MOET Organizational Chart



Source: Lesotho MOET.

formal education. The district education officers have no real decision-making power especially on matters related to finances and personnel; approval must be sought from the central office on every recurrent expenditure.

Primary Schools

All primary schools are headed by principals and sometimes assisted by deputies. According to the 1995 Education Act, a School Management Committee approved by the Minister of Education manages the school affairs. Each management committee consists of the following members elected from various School Advisory Committees: a) two members elected by representatives of the proprietor; b) three members elected by representatives of parents; c) one teacher elected by representatives of teachers; d) the principal elected by the principals of the schools; and e) one representative of chiefs under whose jurisdiction the eight schools which belong to one proprietor fall. This management committee supervises the schools for which it has been constituted.

The majority of primary and secondary schools in Lesotho are owned by churches of various denominations. For church schools, each

management committee can be responsible for a maximum of eight schools belonging to the same proprietor. In an effort to encourage parents and community members to become involved in the management of church schools, the Education Act of 1995 also introduced School Advisory Committees in church schools. The role of these committees is to advise the management committee on all matters related to education in the relevant school. This committee consists of the following members appointed by the proprietor: a) two representatives of the proprietor; b) one representative of the teachers; c) four members of the community served by the school who are elected by parents of that school's pupils; d) a chief of the area where the school is situated; and e) the principal of the relevant school. The appointment of members of the Advisory School Committee is subject to the approval of the minister.

However, lessons learned from the implementation of School Management Committees and School Advisory Committees indicate that these two committees overlap substantially in membership as well as in the role they play, thus creating confusion and potential lack of accountability at the school level. Recent review of the Education Act has already recommended the consolidation of the two committees into one. The recommendation has to be endorsed and the Act should be revised before implementation can begin.

Secondary Schools

Secondary schools are headed by principals, most of who are usually assisted by deputies. The 1995 Education Act stipulates that a school board appointed by the proprietor (in the case of church schools) and approved by the Minister of Education manages every post-primary school. The member's appointment to the board is subject to the minister's approval. The board should consist of: a) two representatives of the proprietor; b) three members of the community served by the school, who are elected by parents of children in that school; c) one representative of the teachers; d) a chief of the area where the school is situated; and e) the principal of the relevant school who serves as secretary of the board. The board is responsible for managing the school, and for running it properly and efficiently.

National Curriculum Committee

The National Curriculum Committee reviews the curriculum for primary and secondary schools and advises the minister through the principal secretary. The primary members of this committee are: a) the chief education officers for secondary education and curriculum management); b) the chief inspectors at headquarters and in the field services; c) the dean of the Faculty of Education of the National University of Lesotho; d) the directors of the National Curriculum Department Center, the Institute of Education, the Lesotho College of Education and the Department of Technical and Vocational Training; and e) the registrar of the National Examinations Council. Other members may be appointed or elected.

The current primary and secondary curriculum used in Lesotho schools are from the 1997 NCDC publication. Details of the curriculum and syllabus are attached in Annex 2.1.

Lesotho Teaching Service

The 1995 Education Act states that no person can be employed as a teacher or can teach in any school without being registered with the Teaching Services Department (TSD); similarly, no proprietor can allow a person to teach unless they have registered with the TSD. The power to appoint a teacher and to promote, demote, transfer, discipline or remove teachers from their positions is vested in the Teaching Service Commission (TSC); however, this does not apply to a teacher whose salary is not paid by the government.

The current MOET management structure,

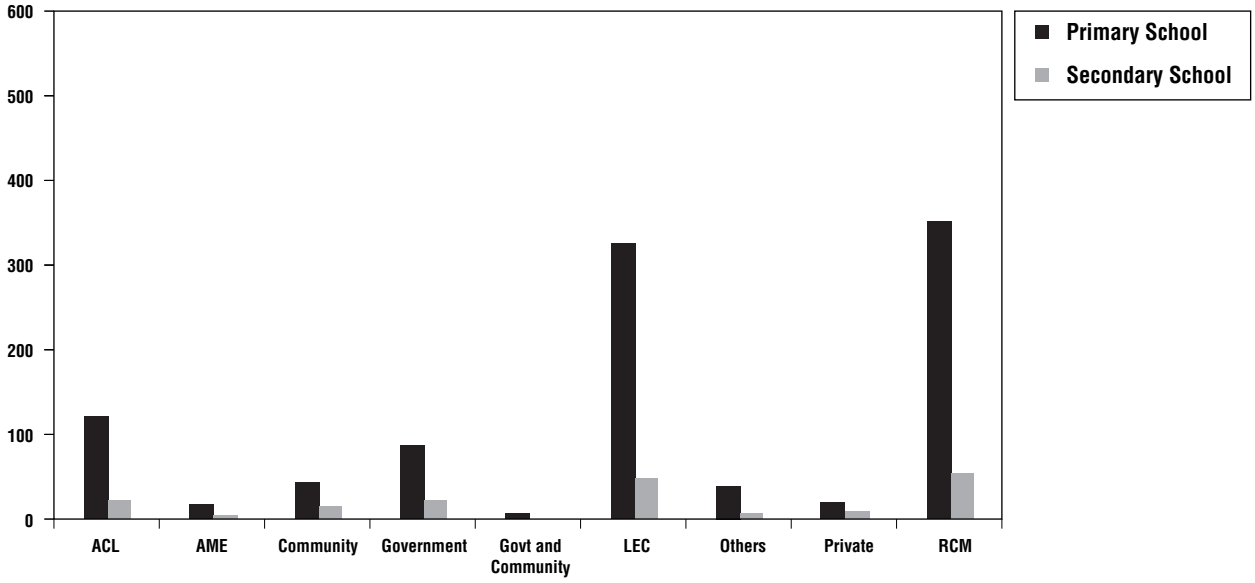
and in particular the central office, is under review, with the goal of bringing it more in line with the Public Sector Improvement and Reform Program, whose main thrust is promoting professionalism in public service. It remains a priority to decentralize management and services in education and training to improve service delivery.

C. Private and Public Partnership: The Role of Church/Community Based Schools

Primary and secondary schools in Lesotho fall into four main categories: church-owned, government, community, and private. Among church-owned schools are those affiliated with the Roman Catholic Mission (RCM), the Lesotho Evangelical Church (LEC) ACL and AME. The distinction between government and community schools lies in whether or not the government provided infrastructure, to help build the school. However, there is some vagueness in the definition of community school, since community can mean an entire community located in a certain geographic area or an elite group of community members. This vagueness has created situations where the very elite Maseru English Medium School, for example, is considered a community school. The few "private schools" are either international or were established by private entities.

Lesotho's macro economy discussed in Chapter 1 has had important implications for its education system. Shortly after their arrival in 1833, missionaries established schools in Lesotho; the various churches have continued to dominate school ownership since then. A school census in 2004 indicated that, out of a total of 1476 primary schools (both registered and unregistered), only 126 schools were government schools. Similarly, of over 264 secondary schools in the country, only 31 were entirely under government management. Figure 2.2 illustrates the ownership pattern for both primary and secondary schools as of 2004.

Figure 2.2
Primary and Secondary Schools by Ownership (2004)



Source: MOET

It is noteworthy that despite these ownership patterns, the government pays for teachers in all church-owned, community, and government schools, following agreements on staffing. All education personnel are under government purview through MOET: they are recruited through the Teaching Service and are obliged to follow the government's rules and regulations. Besides paying teachers' salaries, under the FPE, the government subsidizes school fees, and provides some teaching and learning materials.

However, the government does not pay for teachers or provide any other forms of assistance for private schools. Further, any school in Lesotho that can find the resources is free to employ additional teachers.

Thus, both the government and the churches have generally assumed that all schools are public schools, an understanding that remains in effect as long as cordial relationships continue between the government and the church. However, friction has arisen in a few instances when the government wanted to make improvements or changes that did not favor the church. Therefore, especially since independence in 1966, the government has gradually been establishing its own schools.

A public-private partnership, similar to that between the government and church organizations, exists in the Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) sector. Pre-vocational training is offered in secondary high schools, while vocational training is available at the post-junior and senior secondary school levels in Technical Training Institutes (TTIs). Of the eight TTIs, six are church or privately-owned and two publicly-owned. These schools provide vocational training in traditional skill areas (e.g. commercial, electrical, woodwork, bricklaying, etc.); no formal records of the employment success of their graduates are kept. The salaries of instructors in public and private TTIs are paid by the MOET with limited in-kind support in the form of equipment and supplies from do-

Table 2.3
Evolution of Enrollment by Level of Education in Lesotho

			General Secondary			Higher Education		
	ECCD	Primary	Lower	Upper	TVET	LCE	NUL	RSA & Others
1990	—	351,652	37,600	8,701	1,560	572	1,360	
1991	—	361,144	37,653	8,919	1,600	540	1,421	
1992	—	362,657	42,024	9,871	1,590	615	1,612	
1993	—	354,275	45,217	10,095	1,575	644	1,798	
1994	—	366,569	50,664	10,951	1,697	651	1,866	
1995	33,059	378,011	53,086	13,368	1,623	704	2,001	
1996	—	374,628	53,104	14,350	1,571	807	2,054	
1997	35,124	368,895	49,518	15,957	1,589	866	2,147	
1998	36,079	369,515	49,390	15,872	1,509	948	2,242	
1999	—	364,951	55,996	16,441	1,722	925	2,527	
2000	30,540	410,745	55,241	17,751	1,859	970	2,844	
2001	34,507	415,007	58,036	19,883	1,939	999	3,266	
2002	41,469	418,668	60,841	20,289	1,859	1,751	4,195	
2003	—	429,720	62,489	20,615	1,837	1,739	—	2000*
2004	—	428,727	68,696	22,214	1745	2326	7153	

* rough estimate from NMDS

nors like GTZ. Fees charged to students and their parents cover other costs. This public-private partnership has allowed an expanded access to skills development beyond what the public sector could provide alone.

Turning to higher education, Lesotho's sector is small. The only public university, the National University, enrolls more than 60% of tertiary students. About 20% of the total tertiary enrollment is in the Lesotho College of Education and the remaining 20% or so attend private institutions in Lesotho, South Africa, and other institutions overseas.

D. Overview of Enrollment Trends

Table 2.3 presents the overall school enrollment pattern in Lesotho. As of 2003, the education system enrolled more than 41,000 children in ECCD centers, almost 429,000 primary students, 82,000 secondary students, 1,800 students in TVET institutions, and a total of almost 6,000 students at the Lesotho College of Education and the National University of Lesotho. Another 2,000 or so tertiary students were enrolled in institutions in the Republic of South Africa and other countries. In total, about 0.6 million were enrolled in various educational institutions, out of a total population of 1.8 million.

Enrollment at all levels of education has increased steadily over the last decade although the rate of increase varies by level of education. Comparing 2004 with 1990, primary enrollment increased by 21%, lower secondary enrollment by 83%, and upper secondary enrollment by 155%. Higher education (at both LCE and NUL) more than doubled. The slowest growth was seen in the technical and vocational education sector which increased by only 17%. In fact, the TVET sector has been experiencing some decline over the last few years.

Primary enrollment was expanding until 1995, when it started to decline. Many believe that the decline was due to poverty and increased school fees. This trend reversed in 2000 when the government introduced Free Primary Education (Box 2.1).

Box 2.1

Free Primary Education in Lesotho

Education in Lesotho only became free in 2000 when the government started to implement the Free Primary Education Policy which abolished school fees for one grade a year starting in 2000 until 2006 when all the primary grades would be free.

The notion of introducing universal primary education dates back to the National Education Dialogue of 1978. While the affordability of such a venture was the main hindrance, Lesotho, as a member of the United Nations, subscribes to the objectives of Education for All as espoused at the Jomtien Conference in 1990. Lesotho went further to ratify the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1990, thereby pledging to make primary education compulsory and free to all. Section 28-b of the Constitution of Lesotho (1993) affirms the intention to adopt free primary education, stating that "primary education is compulsory and available to all." In 1999, the Education for All Assessment study revealed drastic declines in the net enrollment as a result of deepening poverty; this compelled the prime minister to announce on April 24th, 1999 that the government intended to introduce Free Primary Education beginning in January 2000.

(*continued on next page*)

Box 2.1 (*continued*)

Preparations for its implementation began soon after the announcement. Government officials visited Malawi and Uganda, which have recently introduced similar programs. In these countries, the programs cover tuition and fees, textbooks, examination fees, and school meals, and extended to all primary grades from the beginning. This resulted in a huge influx of pupils which proved difficult to handle. Therefore Lesotho's implementation of the FPE started out with only one grade, with plans to increase the coverage by one grade per year.

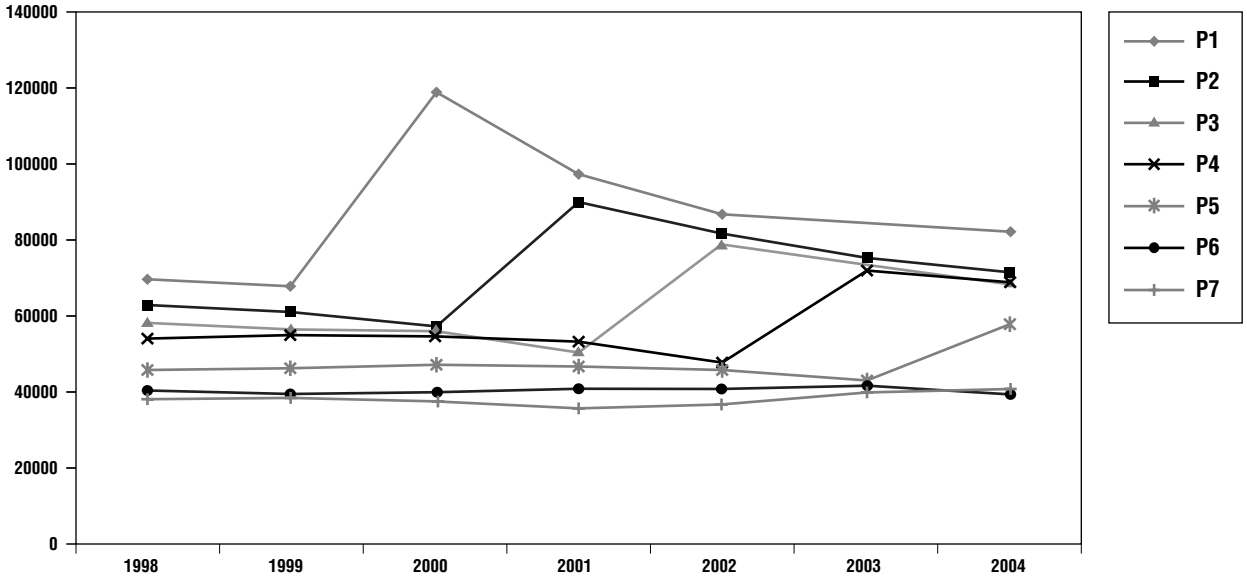
In addition to abolishing fees, under the FPE program the Lesotho government also helps schools pay for textbooks, paper supplies, meals, and maintenance. One provision in the MOET circular declaring free primary education was that the government would not pay any money directly to schools. Therefore textbooks and other supplies are procured centrally and distributed to schools. Food is provided either through existing program like the World Food Program or through a catering system: schools contract with local caterers who are paid directly by the ministry at about M2 per student per day. School maintenance is also managed and paid centrally at a nominal allocation of M5 per student directly to contractors.

Unfortunately, to date, the school maintenance component of the FPE has not been managed successfully, due to a combination of factors. These include budget constraints, the burden of signing vouchers, and individual schools' inability to account for funds received. Moreover, the maintenance expenditure categories are so rigidly set that individual school needs can not be met. In the 2005 budget, MOET introduced a primary school development grant for all government and community schools which will provide approximately M11,500 with broad guidelines on school development. There is also a proposal for the MOET to allocate some budgetary resources for school maintenance directly to schools as well, though it has not yet been approved or implemented. Even the simple step of disbursing the school development budget to government and community schools will require a considerable amount of training for school committee members so they can develop proper accounting procedures.

As a central provision of the FPE, fees for primary Standard 1 were abolished in 2000. The FPE was then expanded to Standards 1 and 2 in 2001, and to Standards 1, 2 and 3 in 2002; by 2004, students in Standards 1 through 5 were enjoying its benefits. When we compare enrollment in primary education before and after the implementation of FPE, we find that the number has increased significantly. As seen in Table 2.3, the enrollment in primary education was 365,000 in 1999 but it increased to 429,000 in 2003, an increase of nearly 20% over 4 years.

Because its implementation is occurring in phases, the impact of the FPE seems to be producing an interesting pattern. Figure 2.3 below illustrates the fluctuation of enrollment in the primary grades since 1998. Clear spikes in enrollment are associated with the cohort which entered P1 in 2000. There were 120,000 new entrants into Grade 1 that year, creating a huge spike in the enrollment pattern. However, the enrollment for Standard 2 and to some extent Standard 3 in 2000 actually declined in absolute terms. Anecdotal evidence suggests that some parents whose children were about to enter Standard 2 held them back in Standard 1 so that they could continue to enjoy the benefits of FPE. In 2001, the spike occurred in Standard 2, in 2002 in Standard 3 and so forth, until 2004 when Standard 5 enrollment began to spike. Evidently, the huge cohort of students who entered Standard 1 in 2000 is slowly passing

Figure 2.3
Lesotho Primary Enrollment 1998 to 2003



through the system; this pattern is consistent with the gradual introduction of the FPE. By 2006, we expect the spike to occur in Standard 7 and thereafter the primary enrollment pattern should stabilize, unless other dramatic policies are introduced.

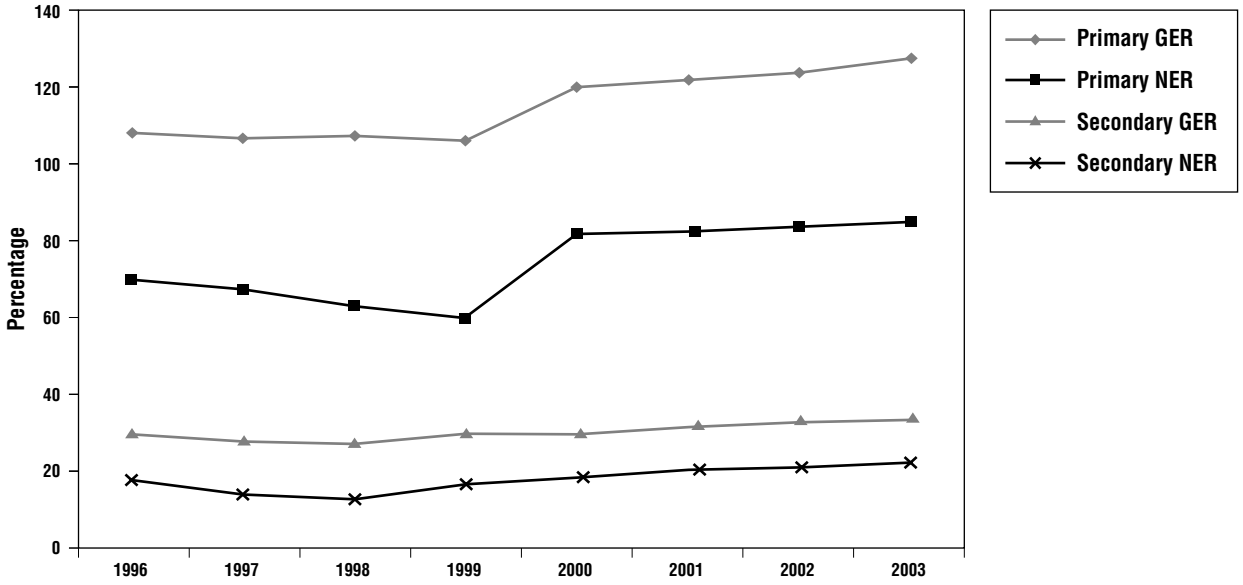
Enrollment ratios compare the educational enrollment (or the enrollment of certain groups) with the total school-age population. The gross enrollment ratio (GER) compares the total enrollment with the total school-age population and the net enrollment ratio (NER) compares the school age enrollment with the total school age population. When we look at the enrollment ratios in primary and secondary education, we see that both rates have also improved in the past eight years (see Figure 2.4). At the primary level, the GER was 109% in 1996 but it increased to 127% in 2003, mainly because FPE was introduced. When we compare the GER before and after the introduction of FPE, we see that the figure jumped 13.7 percentage points between 1999 and 2000. The magnitude of the increase in net enrollment between 1999 and 2000 is much larger—a 22% increase—even though the rates declined between 1996 and 1999.

At the secondary level, both the GER and NER declined between 1996 and 1998, but since 1998 both rates have increased steadily. However, both the GER and NER at the secondary cycle were still low in 2003–34.5% and 22.8%, respectively. In Lesotho, the GER and NER are very far apart, indicating that there are many overage children, which is the result of high rates of repetition.

Comparison with Other Countries

As the information in Table 2.4 indicates, compared to Namibia and South Africa, Lesotho has a higher primary gross enrollment rate but a lower net enrollment rate for the primary cycle. The former is mostly due to the introduction of free primary education in Lesotho, and the latter relates to many over-age primary students who are enrolled in primary schooling in Lesotho.

Figure 2.4
Gross and Net Enrollment Rates in Primary and Secondary Education



Source: Education Statistics and Projected Population by the WB

Table 2.4
GER and NER in Lesotho Compared with Other Selected Countries and Regions

	Primary		Secondary	
	GER	NER	GER	NER
Selected Countries 2003				
Botswana	108.3	84.3	93.1	69.6
Lesotho	127.4	85.0	34.5	22.8
Namibia	114.9	89.1	67.3	48.3
S. Africa	111.4	88.9	87.3	57.2
Swaziland	118.0	—	52.2	—
Groups (excluding high income countries) 2001				
East Asia & Pacific	111.4	92.2	66.4	
Europe & Central Asia	103.2		88.7	
Latin Amer. & Carib.	128.7	94.4	89.4	65.1
Middle East & North Africa	96.3	83.3	70.3	54.4
South Asia	94.8	81.8	48	
Sub-Saharan Africa	86.8			

Source: World Bank (2004)

Student Flow Profiles in Primary and Secondary Schools

In this section, we examine student flow profiles in primary and secondary school by analyzing the grade-specific enrollment rates, cohort survival rates, and repetition rates. Sources of data include the schools census, the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2000, and the Core Welfare Indicator Questionnaire (CWIQ 2002).

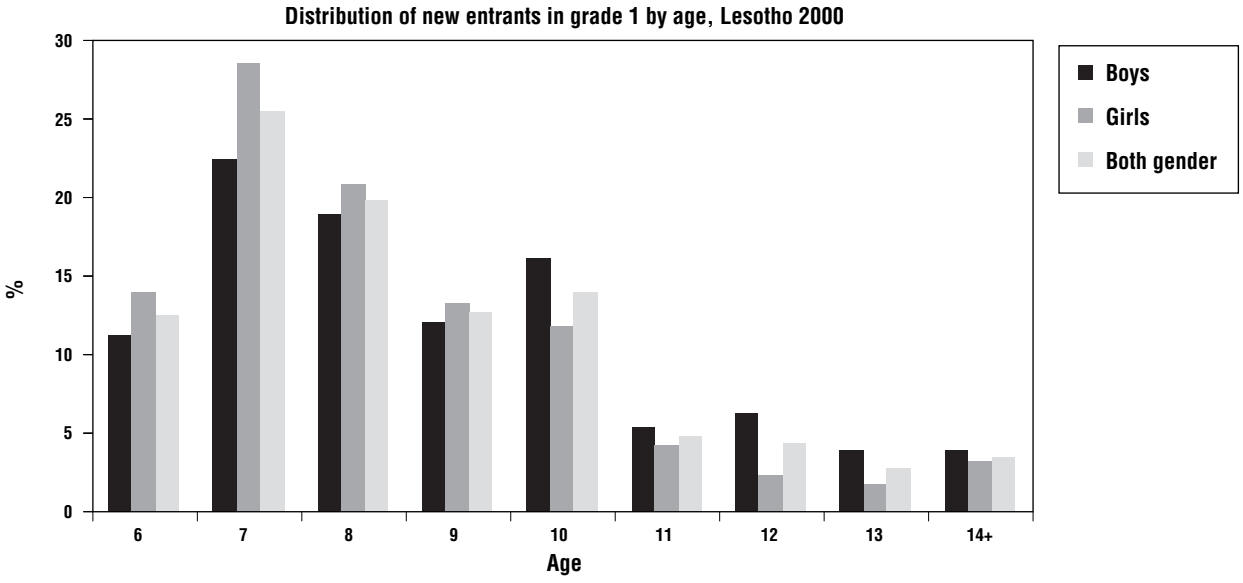
Grade-Specific Enrollment Rates

The grade-specific enrollment rate (GSER) measures the proportion of children in each age group who are enrolled in a specific grade. It is estimated by dividing the number of non-repeaters enrolled in a specific grade by the population in the age group for that grade. For instance, the GSER in Grade 3 is estimated by dividing the number of non-repeaters in Grade 3 by the total population of 8-year-olds. The GSER for Grade 1 is also called the intake or entry rate.

The primary entry rate in Lesotho has increased significantly since FPE was introduced in 2000. As indicated in Table 2.5, the entry rate in 1999, the year before FPE was started, was 105% percent; that rate doubled in size in 2000 (200%). Since then, the entry rate has stabilized somewhat at 142% in 2001, 124% in 2002, and 121% in 2003. These figures are persuasive indicators that the government's FPE policy is successful in attracting out-of-school children (regardless of age) to its schools.

Further, the FPE appears to have a positive impact on the age of entry. Based on data from the MICS 2000 and CWIQ 2002, only 13% of the new entrants in 2000 were 6 years old (the official primary school entry age) as compared with more than 42% in 2002. There was also a reduction in the proportion of new entrants who were over 10 years of age, from 30% in 2000 to only 8.8% in 2002. Figure 2.5 illustrates this shift in entry age between 2000 and 2002.

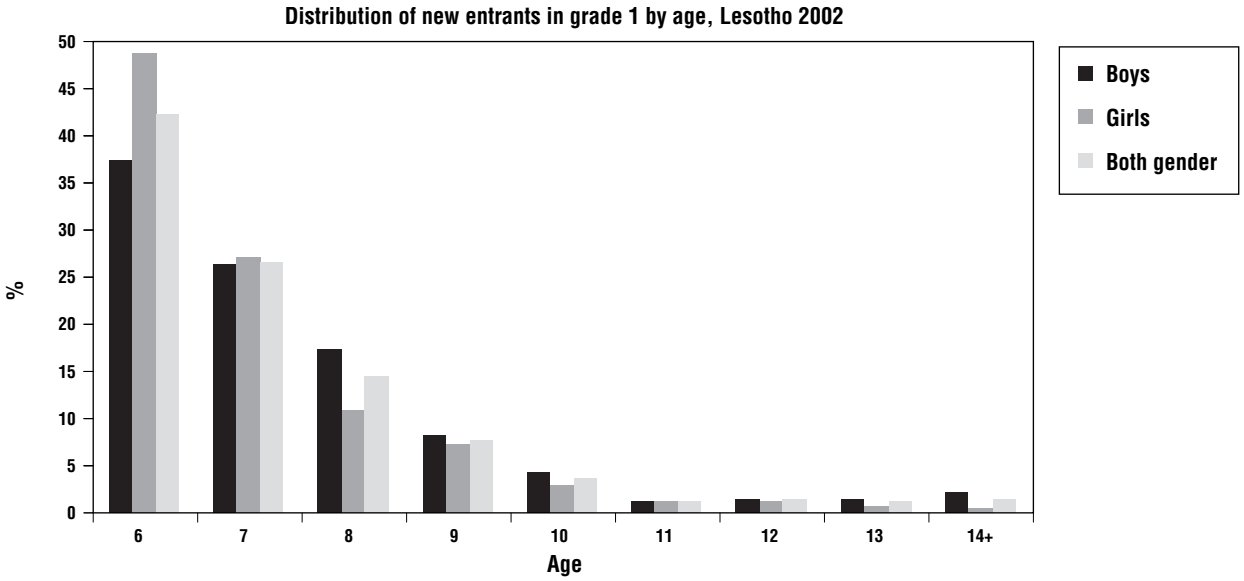
Figure 2.5
Primary Entry Age in 2000 and 2002



Source: 2002 CWIQ

(*continued on next page*)

Figure 2.5 (*continued*)



Source: 2002 CWIQ

The grade-specific enrollment rate (GSER) has also increased year by year in the other early primary grades (2, 3 and 4), as Table 2.5 shows. For instance, the GSER for Grade 4 was 77% in 2002 and increased to 125% percent in 2003. On the other hand, the improvement at the upper primary grades (5, 6, and 7) has been minimal. Since FPE will gradually extend its coverage to all levels of the primary cycle, we can expect to see improvements in the grade-specific enrollment over the next few years.

The GSER at Grade 7 increased slightly from 64% in 1999 to 69% in 2003. These rates compare favorably with the recent average of 58% for low-income countries around 2000, especially considering that Lesotho's primary cycle contains 7 years, compared with 5 or 6 years in other countries.

At the secondary level, the GSER has improved steadily over the past five years. As Table 2.5 shows, the GSER in Grade A (first year of secondary education) was 42% in 1999 and increased to 49% in 2003. The survival rate for the first level of secondary education (Grades A and B) was up to 35% in 2003, from 33% in 1999. The completion rate for the second secondary level (Grades C-E) also improved slightly, from 14% in 1999 to 17% in 2003.

Cohort Survival Rates

While the grade-specific enrollment rates measure the proportion of children in each age group who attend school, cohort survival rates refer to the schooling career of a particular cohort that had already entered the education system. More specifically, this ratio indicates the share of entrants to a given cycle of education who eventually reach a subsequent grade. In the 7–3–2 structure of Lesotho's primary and secondary education system, the relevant survival rates are between Grades 1 and 7, between Forms A and C, and between Forms D and E. In order to make comparisons with other countries, we also calculated the survival rate between Grades 1 and 5. For the purpose of this report, we used two methods of estimation for survival

Table 2.5
Grade-Specific Enrollment Rates in Lesotho

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Grade 1	105	201	142	124	121
Grade 2	96	89	151	122	114
Grade 3	92	91	82	137	120
Grade 4	89	89	87	77	125
Grade 5	79	82	81	80	74
Grade 6	71	72	74	74	74
Grade 7	64	63	66	67	69
Grade A	42	42	47	50	49
Grade B	36	35	35	38	40
Grade C	27	26	28	27	29
Grade D	19	21	22	22	22
Grade E	14	14	16	16	17

Source: School census and World Bank estimated population

rates: the UNESCO reconstructed cohort method and the composite cohort method.

The UNESCO reconstructed cohort method employs grade-wise enrollment data for two consecutive years and repeater data for the later of the two years to compute promotion, repetition, and dropout rates in the first year. These rates are then applied to a fictive cohort of 1,000 students to simulate their grade-to-grade flow through the system.

The composite cohort method uses the same data but does the calculation in two steps, first computing survival rates between adjacent grades by relating the number of non-repeaters in grade X in year Y, to those in grade X–1 the year before; and then computing survival rates to a given grade by multiplying the relevant adjacent grade-to-grade survival rates. Effectively, this method provides a simulation of the survival rate in a hypothetical cohort that exhibits the same grade-to-grade transition patterns as currently observed in a cross-section of children in the various grades.

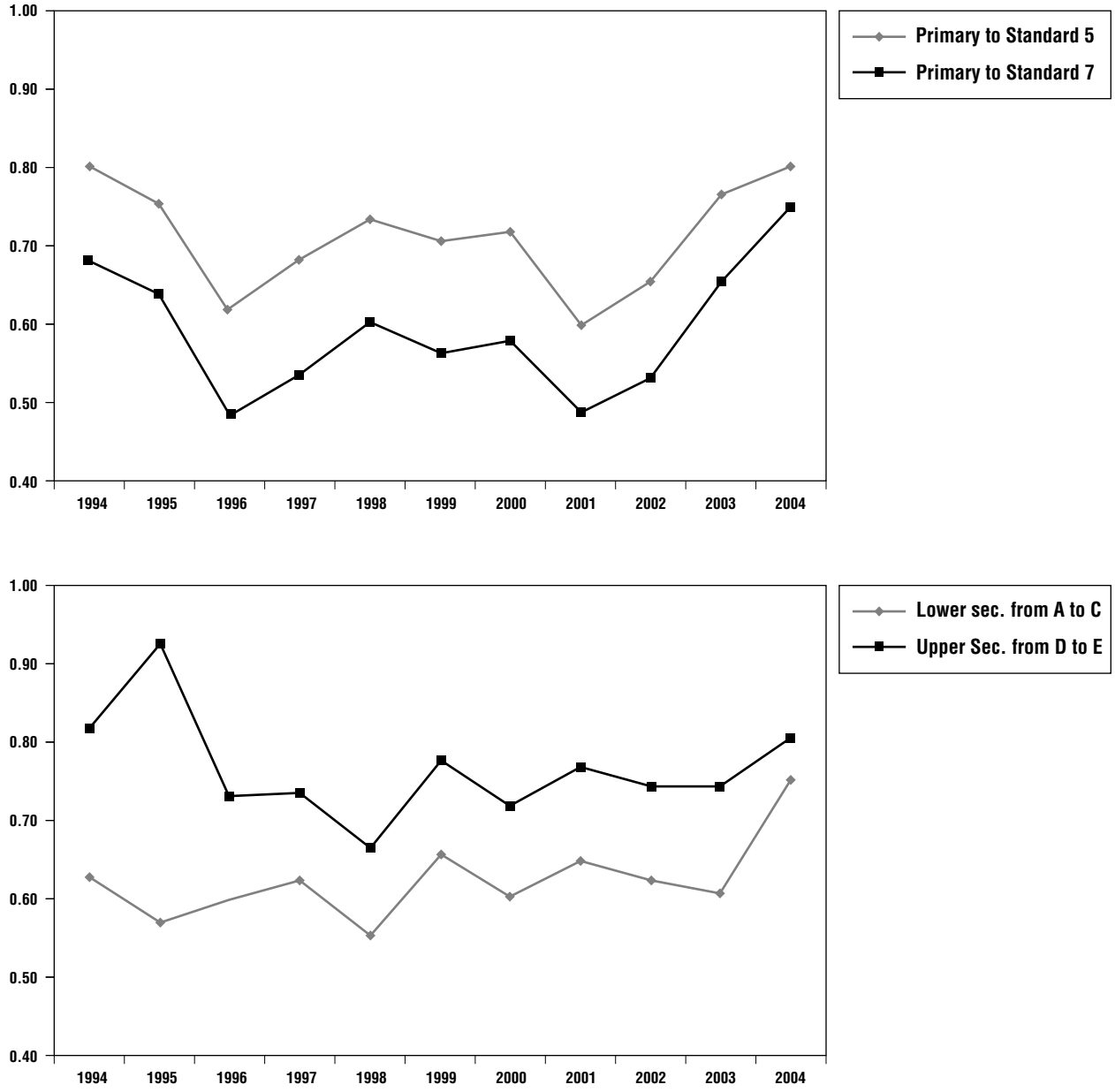
Table 2.6 presents a comparison of the overall survival rates in 1999 using both methods. The UNESCO reconstructed method yields higher survival rates than the composite method, and the gap widens as they are computed for an increasing number of grades. This is not surprising since the former method involves repeating the algorithm of repetition and promotion in each grade for as many times as it takes for all members of the cohort to exit the grade, either by being promoted to the next grade or by dropping out.

Because of the benefits of conservative estimation, we use the composite cohort method in this section to analyze the overall survival rates.

Table 2.6
Overall Survival Rates

	1999		2003	
Method	**Grade 1 to 5**	**Grade 1 to 7**	**Grade 1 to 5**	**Grade 1 to 7**
UNESCO Reconstructed Cohort Method	0.8	0.7	N/A	N/A
Composite Cohort	0.71	0.56	0.8	0.75

Figure 2.6
Survival Rates in Primary and Secondary Education



In Chapter 4 we will examine the equity issue, and will use the results from the UNESCO reconstructed cohort method, which allows us to estimate survival rates by gender, poverty and orphan status.

Panel 1 in Figure 2.6 shows the primary survival rates to Standard 5 and to Standard 7, using the composite cohort method. Panel 2 shows the secondary survival rates. It is expected that, as the students move from grade to grade, the survival rates will decline. Therefore, the survival rate to Standard 7 is always smaller than that to Standard 5. Comparing the rates in 1999 with those of 2003, we real-

ize that survival rates have improved (despite a dip in 2001), though the increases are rather modest. This is indeed very reassuring. FPE seems to have a small but positive impact on the cohort survival rates. In 2004, a few years into the implementation of the FPE, 80% of the children who entered Standard 1 survived until at least Standard 5; 75% survived until Standard 7.

In secondary education, survival rates have been rather flat over the past 10 years. And the survival rate from Form A to Form C has always been below the survival rate from Form D to Form E, though the two rates were very close to each other in 2004: 75% of the students who entered Form A survived until Form C and 80% of those who entered Form D survived until Form E, as compared with 71% and 56% in 1999 respectively.

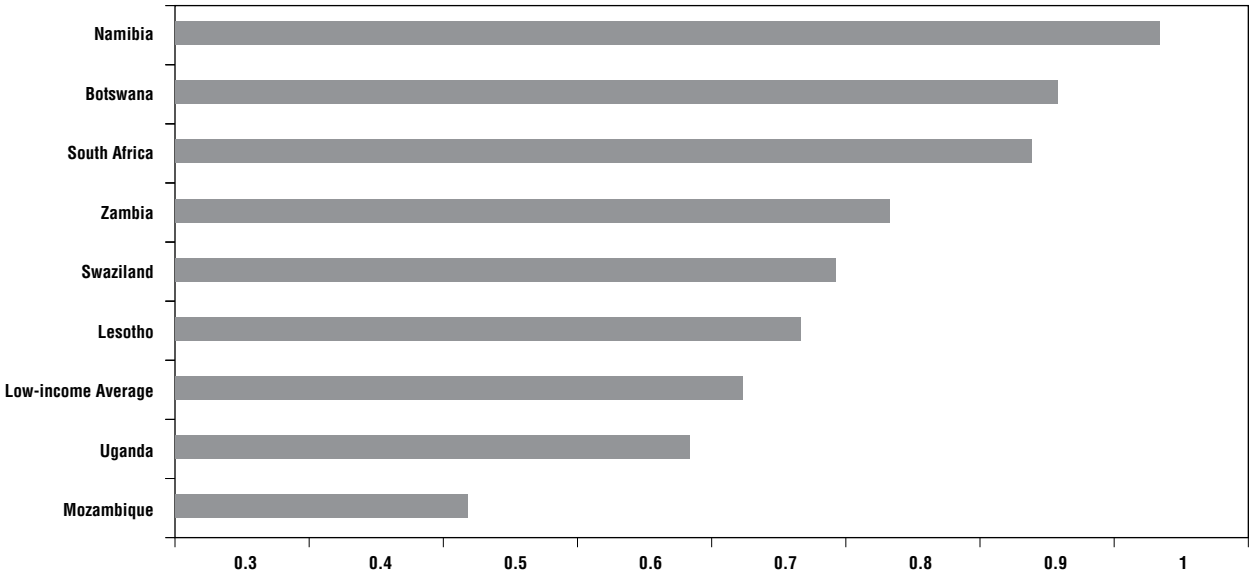
It is worthwhile to note, however, that if we disregard the selection points at Grade 7 and Form C and consider Grades 1 to 12 as a continuous system, we find that by the end of Form E, due to repetition and dropouts, only 29% of the original cohort who had entered primary Grade 1 had survived to 2004 (see Table 2.7).

Figure 2.7 provides a cross-national comparative perspective. Lesotho's cohort survival rate

Table 2.7
Cohort Survival Rates (1999 and 2004)

	1999	2004
Primary		
Standard 1	1.00	1.00
Standard 2	0.89	0.94
Standard 3	0.83	0.95
Standard 4	0.79	0.94
Standard 5	0.71	0.80
Standard 6	0.64	0.78
Standard 7	0.56	0.75
Secondary		
Form A	0.37	0.57
Form B	0.31	0.51
Form C	0.24	0.43
Form D	0.18	0.36
Form E	0.14	0.29

Figure 2.7
Cohort Survival Rate to Grade 5 in Selected Countries (2001)



Source: EdStats, World Bank

to Grade 6 (71%) is higher than the average of 67% for low-income countries worldwide. However, when compared with the neighboring countries of South Africa, Namibia, Swaziland and Botswana, Lesotho's cohort survival rate to Grade 5 is clearly the lowest.

Intercycle Transition Rates

Intercycle transition rates are survival rates that measure students' movement from the final grade of one cycle or level of education to the first grade of the next cycle or level. Because of testing requirements, movement to the next level of education is not automatic. Therefore, these rates exhibit different patterns from other grade-to-grade survival rates and are usually analyzed separately. Here we investigate the intercycle transition rates from Standard 7 to the lower secondary Form A, and from Form C to Form D.

Figure 2.8 below illustrates these two transition rates from 1994 until 2004. Despite the fluctuations, both rates show an increasing trend since 1996. The transition rate from Standard 7 to Form A ranges from 60% to about 75%. The transition rate from Form C to Form D is higher on average, ranging from 72% to about 83%.

Comparing the Lesotho inter-cycle transition rates in 1999 and 2003 with those of other countries (figures from 2001; see Table 2.8), we see that the Lesotho rates compare favorably with those of some Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries such as Mozambique, Uganda, and Zambia. However, Lesotho's transition rate from primary to lower secondary is low when compared with some its neighbors, including South Africa, Swaziland, Namibia, and Botswana, where that rate has exceeded 80%.

Repetition

The pattern of repetition is also an important measure of student flow in Lesotho. When a student repeats a grade, it increases the probability of their dropping out, by signaling to the parents that their child is not progressing academically. It also reduces the efficiency of student flow

Figure 2.8
Intercycle Transition Rates from 1994 to 2004

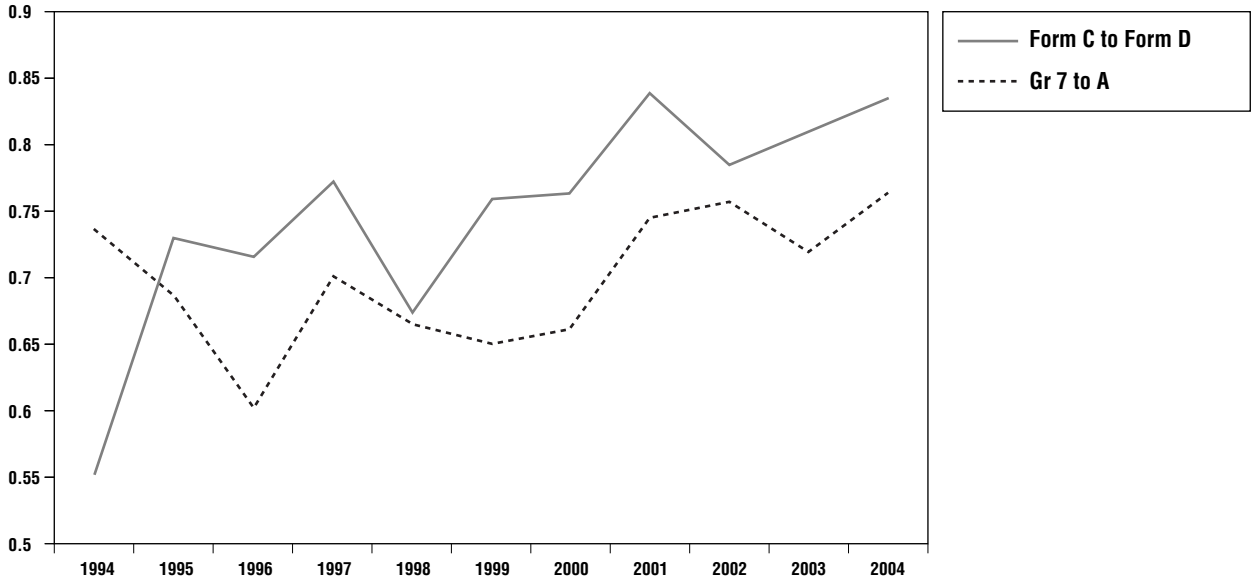


Table 2.8
Intercycle Transition Rates

	Primary to Lower Sec.	Lower Sec. to Senior Sec.
Lesotho		
1999	0.65	0.76
2003	0.72	0.81
Selected SSA Countries (2001)		
Botswana	0.94	
Mozambique	0.59	
Namibia	0.93	
South Africa	0.94	
Swaziland	0.89	
Uganda	0.42	
Zambia	0.5	

Source: MOET and World Bank EdStats

in that a repeater costs at least twice as much per grade attained as a non-repeater, while yielding only modest gains, if any, in terms of student learning.

In Lesotho, where there is no policy of automatic promotion, the repetition rate is relatively high in the primary cycle (see Table 2.9). Defining the repetition rate as the number of repeaters in Year 2 over total enrollment in Year 1, the average repetition rates in primary education have hovered around 20% over the past five years. The rate at the primary cycle has worsened slightly in recent years because of high repetition rates in Standards 1 and 2.

Repetition rates in the secondary cycle, ranging from 7.5% to 11.7% in the lower forms and from about 7% to 14% in the upper forms, are much lower than those in the primary cycle. However, the rate has also increased in the past five years. In junior secondary education, the average repetition rate was 8.8% in 1999 but rose to 11% in 2003. At the upper secondary level, the average repetition rate rose from 7.2% in 1999 to 8.4% in 2003.

Table 2.9
Repetition Rate by Grade and Education Cycle

Cycle	Grade	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
	1	23.6	30	23.4	27.1	29
	2	22.9	21.9	28.5	25.1	25.4
Primary	3	20.3	20	18.5	25.5	19.7
Cycle	4	21.2	20.4	20.3	19.7	25.4
	5	16.8	15.8	15.7	14.7	16.4
	6	12.1	12.4	12	12.6	12.9
	7	19.9	17.4	11.3	11.9	19
	Average	**19.5**	**19.7**	**18.5**	**19.5**	**21.1**
Junior	A	7.5	7.9	8.5	8.8	10.3
Secondary	B	9.7	10.2	8.9	10.9	11.7
	Average	**8.8**	**8.9**	**9.8**	**9.8**	**10.6**
Upper	C	9.3	7.4	7.5	7.5	7.3
Secondary	D	8.2	10.3	12	12	13.9
Cycle	E	4.1	3.7	4.4	3.9	3.9
	Average	**7.2**	**7.1**	**8**	**7.8**	**8.4**

Source: School census and projected population

Table 2.10
Efficiency of Student Flow in Primary Education in Lesotho, 2003
On 1000 pupils entering Grade 1

	1999			2003		
	Reach Grade	Repetition Rate[3]	Pupils Years Invested	Reach Grade	Repetition Rate	Pupils Years Invested
Gr 1	1000	0.31	1456	1000	0.42	1710
Gr 2	892	0.30	1275	905	0.35	1393
Gr 3	833	0.26	1121	885	0.23	1157
Gr 4	790	0.27	1079	802	0.33	1189
Gr 5	707	0.20	886	765	0.19	948
Gr 6	637	0.14	739	702	0.15	824
Gr 7	561	0.24	739	655	0.22	835
Total	5420		7294	5714		8055
Pupil years needed without repetition and dropout	3927			4585		
Efficiency ratio						
Due to repetition		0.74			0.71	
Due to dropout		0.72			0.80	
Total efficiency ratio		0.54			0.57	

Overall Student Flow Efficiency

What do these patterns of cohort survival and repetition imply regarding the efficiency of student flow? This question can be answered by comparing two pieces of information: the resources that the system currently uses to produce its graduates, and the resources that a system operating without drop-outs or repetition would need to produce the same number of graduates. The ratio between these two figures provides a measure of the system's student flow efficiency. The index can be further divided into two separate rates: one associated solely with dropout rates and the other with grade repetition.

Table 2.10 summarizes the calculation of the total efficiency ratio. Using the year 2003 as an example, we see that, given the 2003 rates of cohort survival and repetition and calculating for a starting cohort of 1000 students, the resources spent in Grade 1 would amount to 1710 pupil-years (1000/(1–0.42)). In Grade 2, only 905 students would be left, so the resources spent would be 1393 pupil-years (905/ (1–0.35)). Continuing in this manner to Grade 7, the cumulative resources spent would amount to 8055 pupil years (1730+1393+1157+1189+948+824+835). Given that only 835 students would reach Grade 7, the resources needed to produce them, without drop-out and repetition, would equal 4585 pupil years (835*7). Thus considering both sources of waste (repetition and drop-out), the system currently operates only 0.57 (= 4585/8055) times as efficiently as a system in which no one drops out or repeats a grade. If we conduct this calculation using repetition

[3] Repetition rate here is defined as the number of repeaters in one particular year over the NON-REPEATERS in the previous year.

alone and ignoring the drop-out rate, the efficiency ratio is 71%. If we consider dropout alone, the efficiency rate is 80%.

Comparing the efficiency ratios of 1999 with those of 2003, we see a small improvement in the overall efficiency ratio from 54% in 1999 to 57% in 2003. However, the efficiency rate has worsened with respect to repetition. An education system that operates with a 57% rate of efficiency in 2003 is fairly inefficient. In Lesotho, students repeating grades seem to put a heavier burden on the system than do those who drop out. Overall, an educational system operating at a 57% efficiency rate is not using its resources effectively.

F. Policy Perspectives on Grade Repetition and Dropout in Primary Education

Although no specific study has related Lesotho's primary repetition rate with both quantitative and qualitative dimensions of its educational outcomes, ample evidence suggests that repetition has no discernable impact on the quality of education. Indeed, a recent study by Mingat and Sosale (2003) examined the relationship between grade repetition, student learning, and survival of students in primary education from an international perspective. Using micro-level data and international comparative macro-level international data for comparison, the authors demonstrated that grade repetition has no positive impact on student learning or on the quality of education in general. However, grade repetition was shown to have a substantial negative impact on the quantity dimensions (number of students enrolled) through both direct and indirect effects.

The direct effect is easy to understand, as repeaters use twice the amount of resources. A lesser known indirect effect is also worth considering: repetition is associated with a higher drop-out rate before the end of the primary cycle. This effect is larger for girls than boys especially in countries where girls tend to marry quite young. With no positive impact on the quality side, and a substantial negative impact on the quantity side, Mingat and Sosale see no justification for using grade repetition as a policy instrument. While reducing the repetition rate would not have a negative overall impact on the quality, it would reduce waste in resources and would improve equity since it would help to diminish the gap between girls and boys in their primary completion rate.

G. Chapter Summary

The education system in Lesotho is heavily influenced by the British system. Its official languages are both Sesotho and English, although English is currently used in schools as the medium of instruction beyond Standard 3. The structure of education follows a 7–3–2–4 pattern, with 7 years of primary education, 3 years of junior secondary, 2 years of senior secondary, and 4 years of higher education. Lesotho's education structure is similar to that of its neighbors including South Africa, Botswana, Swaziland, Namibia, and even Mozambique. However, unlike its neighbors, Lesotho has not yet legally defined the duration of compulsory schooling.

Since schools were established by missionaries, the majority of primary schools in the country are church-owned. However, despite the ownership pattern, all education personnel (except for those hired by private schools) fall under the purview of the government through the Ministry of Education and Training and are obliged to follow the government's rules and regulations.. The Education Act of 1995 stipulates a tripartite government, church, and community management style for education in Lesotho.

Education is managed by a central office in Maseru, along with 10 district offices, and school-level management committees. Despite the government's efforts at decentralization, the

management of education is still very centralized, particularly in the area of finances.

Enrollment at all levels showed an increasing trend until the mid-1990s when it started to decline due to rising poverty and rising fees. The government introduced FPE as an explicit strategy to reverse this declining trend. The FPE has improved access to schooling, especially in primary education. Total primary enrollment in 2003/04 was 1.2 times that in 1990. Gross and net enrollment ratios in the primary cycle (127% and 85%) compare favorably with the regional averages, although those at the secondary level are lagging behind (35% and 23%).

However, the internal efficiency in the primary and secondary cycles has shown only slight improvement. In terms of student flow, the primary entry rate was about 120% in 2003, compared with 105% in 1998–99 before the introduction of FPE. About 65% of each entering cohort of first-graders in 2003/04 was expected to reach the last primary grade of Standard 7, up from 56% in 1998/99.

While these trends are positive, there is no room for complacency if the country is to achieve the Millennium Development Goal of universal primary school completion by 2015. Repetition and, to a lesser degree, drop-out create waste in the system and result in a low overall efficiency rate of 57% for primary education. Reaching the last 15% of the primary school-age population and retaining them in school until the last primary grade may prove to be much more difficult, particularly in a mountainous country like Lesotho. The government needs to enact decisive policies to attract all children to school and to reduce repetition and drop-out rates.

H. Areas for Policy Development

The analysis and summary in this chapter point to a number of areas where the government may contemplate further policy development. These include:

1. *Structure of Coverage Across Levels of Education*. Lesotho has made the seven years of primary education free (the last grade of Standard 6 will be free in 2006) and has recently recommended to the Parliament that primary education should be compulsory. However, it is not clear whether the Government will also abolish the fees for lower secondary and start implementing the 10-year basic education. The intention has been announced before but it was never implemented. At the same time, the expectation that lower secondary education may become free is already circulating among the public. It is important that the government of Lesotho carefully assesses the fiscal, pedagogical, and administrative implication of such a move before committing itself.
2. *Clarifying Governance Structure at School Level for Increased Focus on Results*. By law, primary schools in Lesotho are managed by School Management Committees. For church schools, each management committee can be responsible for a maximum of eight schools belonging to the same proprietor. In an effort to encourage parents and community members to become involved in the management of church schools, the Education Act of 1995 also introduced School Advisory Committees in church schools. The role of these committees is to advise the management committee on all matters related to education in the relevant school. Lessons learned from the implementation of School Management Committee and School Advisory Committee indicate that these two committees overlap substantially in membership as well as in the role they play, thus creating confusion and potential lack of accountability at the school level. Recent review of the Education Act has already recommended the consolidation of the two committees into one. The recommendation has to be endorsed and the Act should be revised before implementation can begin.
3. *Reducing Primary Repetition*. Efforts should be made to reduce primary repetition. Evi-

dence from other countries suggests that repetition has little impact on educational outcomes, and may increase dropout. Reducing repetition would decrease the gross enrollment ratio, reduce overcrowding in lower classes, and increase overall efficiency.

4. *Identifying and Targeting the Vulnerable Groups*. Fifteen percent of primary school-age children still remain outside of the formal school system. Most of these students live in rural, mountain areas and are from poor family backgrounds. It is important that for every new or existing policy, special considerations be made so that children and students in true hardship areas are not being left behind. These could include demand-side incentives for households to send their children to school.

CHAPTER 3

Patterns of Spending on Education

As Lesotho strives to universalize primary school completion, further extend even universal basic education, and foster the growth of other levels and types of education and training, financing requirements are expected to grow. The purpose of this chapter is to document the current pattern of education spending to provide insights into the financial challenges these goals pose. First, however, the government budgeting process is described, to provide necessary context. Because recurrent spending is so central to the functioning of the system, the chapter focuses on this component of education expenditures. The discussion examines the aggregate levels and trends in spending as well as the evolution of its functional composition. It presents an in-depth analysis of education expenditures in 2003–04, the most recent year for which the desired data were available at the time of data analysis. Finally, it documents the volume and nature of household spending on education. Cross-country data are used, when available and appropriate, to provide an added perspective on the patterns of education spending in Lesotho.

A. Budget Process, the Program of Expenditures, and the Flow of Funds

The National MTEF Process

The government of Lesotho undertook a major revision of its budgetary approach for the financial year 2005/06 by introducing the Medium Term Expenditure Framework. Up to this time the current budgeting system in Lesotho was based on line-item incremental budgeting which focused exclusively on the allocation of expenditure with no linkage to service delivery outputs. Over the years this approach had implications for the accountability and transparency of public management. Communication and coordination between the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning (MOFDP) and other sector ministries has been weak, and some policy priorities were not achieved. Planning appeared to take place in isolation from the budgeting process and no mechanism was in place to ensure that policy objectives were prioritized. Together with a lack of information, this situation makes it difficult to ensure that appropriate trade-offs are made between competing needs. In addition, the current financial management systems have failed to produce the information required to monitor and evaluate

the actual spending on existing programs and projects.

The government plans to address these issues by adopting the MTEF approach as the basis for its annual planning and budget process. This approach will involve the preparation of an integrated annual plan and budget covering three financial years. It will be an iterative top-down and bottom-up process which will secure explicit political endorsements on the recommended resource allocations. The objective of adopting the MTEF approach is to improve the quality of public expenditure management through four mechanisms:

- Ensure aggregate fiscal discipline by setting a realistic and achievable resource envelope.
- Allocate resources in accordance with national development objectives by identifying sectoral and intra-sectoral priorities.
- Improve operational efficiency in the implementation of all recurrent programs.
- Improve projects by setting targets and monitoring performance.

The Lesotho government's financial year runs from April 1 to March 31. The MOFDP issues a call circular in October and requires the line ministries to submit budgets in December. The circular outlines the government's policy framework and the ceilings for both recurrent and capital expenditures. Under the MTEF, the circular will provide ceilings for three consecutive financial years starting from 2005/06. A government-wide capital ceiling was also established, but this was not allocated by the ministry. Also, new forms and guidance are now included as part of the circular.

The MTEF is expected to make it easier for ministries not only to set their priorities, but to have access to objective estimates of the resource envelope. Under the previous budget system, the call circular produced by the MFDP did set budgetary ceilings, but the chief accounting officers appeared not to feel bound by these ceilings. Instead of reworking their priorities to fit within the available resources, the spending ministries tended to insist that the Ministry of Finance increase the aggregate ceiling. Ministries tended to set artificially high budgets and the budget process was a "game" of overestimation between the ministries and the MOFDP.

However, for 2005/2006, line ministries seem not to have assimilated the MTEF principles as intended. For 2005/2006, the initial bids again exceed the cabinet's recurrent budget ceilings. For example, according to a recent World Bank mission, in 2005/06, total initial ministry bids exceeded the cabinet recurrent budget ceilings by 19% for year one (budget year), 15% for year two, and 14% for year three. Of the 27 ministries submitting bids, 25 exceeded their ceiling. The average (unweighted) bid was 28% above ceiling. Initial ministry capital bids (which had no ceilings) exceeded the aggregate capital ceiling by 157% in year one (budget year), 173% in year two, and 51% in year three.

The National Budget Development Process

The MTEF annual budget cycle consists of six stages.[4]

1. Set the resource envelope and secure cabinet approval for the indicative medium-term fiscal strategy.
2. Conduct policy reviews to determine the optimal sectoral allocations to recurrent programs and capital projects and to prepare indicative cost estimates.
3. Prepare detailed expenditure ceilings within the aggregate resource envelope.
4. Secure cabinet approval and issue the call circular.
5. Prepare detailed estimate submissions, and work out agreements with line ministries.
6. Finalize the draft budget and secure legislative approval.

[4] Medium-Term Expenditure Framework Sensitization Action Plan (MOFDP—Unpublished)

Budget Implementation

The new MTEF system recognizes the challenges inherent in the existing system. According to a study by MEFMI (2003)[5] the current system is not well geared towards ensuring effective budget implementation. Budgets are released every quarter to the line ministries through the issue of warrants (in the case of recurrent expenditures) or requests to incur expenditure (in the case of capital expenditures). The released warrants are not in any way linked to the overall implementation plans of the ministries but still represent one quarter of the overall budget. Ministries are allowed to spend only in line with the released warrants, which are controlled in most cases through a manual process called vote books. Payments to the government for goods and services are centralized and handled by the MOFDP. MEFMI (2003) correctly notes that this process creates some budgetary gaps of either real or apparent under/over expenditure. Since budgets are approved by Parliament, over-expenditure by any one voter is not allowed. However, the so-called virement process allows line ministries to move expenditure items from one category to another as long as they are within the overall envelope. Virements, however, still require MOFDP approval.

Budget System in the Education Sector: The MTEF and its Implementation

The education sector has been preparing an MTEF-based budget each year since 2002. The MOET is now in its third year of implementing the MTEF in its budget process. This framework has enabled the ministry to project its funding requirements for the next three years. Under this process, the ministry's programs have been reprioritized to ensure that they match both the National Vision and the areas identified under the national Poverty Reduction Strategy (PRS). Further, the MOET has recently approved its first Education Sector Strategic Plan for 2005 to 2015. It is hoped that the budget will be more closely linked with the education sectoral goals.

Until this year (2005/06), the actual implementation of the MTEF budget in education has been hampered by the absence of a national MTEF. Up till now, the MOFDP considered the education MTEF to be "for information only." Nevertheless, within MOET, an inspection of the relationship between budgeted and actual expenditure shows that *recurrent* budget and *recurrent* expenditure have been very close compared to the situation in other countries. Except for the financial year 2002/03 when the recurrent MOET budget was overspent by 5%, the recurrent budget is usually under spent by between 4% and 11% of total budget. In the last complete financial year of 2003/04, the MOET under spent by 11%—equivalent to 85 million maloti!

There is less consistency in the relationship between capital budgets and expenditures over the same time period. In 1998/99 the capital budget was overspent by 175%. In 1999/2000 and 2000/2001, however, it was under-spent by 71% and 55% respectively. Capacity then recovered in financial year 2001/02 when the capital budget was under spent by only 21%. The nation's capacity to execute capital projects is closely related to the capacity of the Education Planning Unit and the Project Coordination and Support Unit within the MOET.

In this report, "actual expenditure" refers to the end of the year (March) Status of Funds as recorded by the MOET votebook, rather than the budget estimates, because of the recurring variances described above.

Programs of Expenditure in Education

The programs of expenditure provide important insights into Lesotho's education system and its administration. To improve the clarity

[5] Report on the Implementation of a Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) in Lesotho

Table 3.1
Comparing MOET Budgets with Actual Education Expenditures (Not including NMDS)

	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05
Recurrent Budget	439	462.2	601.2	514.8	700.8	742.3	787
Recurrent Actual Expenditure	423.4	427.7	579	489.1	738	657.9	737
Recurrent Variance	**–0.04**	**–0.07**	**–0.04**	**–0.05**	**0.05**	**–0.11**	**–0.06**
Capital Budget	43	88	71	139	90.1	98.6	166
Capital Actual Expenditure	119	25	32	109	162	98	166
Capital Variance	**1.75**	**–0.71**	**–0.55**	**–0.21**	**–79.8**	**0.61**	**0**

of its budget presentation and to tie expenditures with program implementation, the MOET carried out an exercise in 2002 and developed a new program and sub-program structure. Compared to the old budget programs, the new ones are more closely linked to the structure of the newly approved Education Sector Strategic Plan, which includes policy targets under each section. The main programs of expenditure now include administration, basic education (including the primary and junior secondary grades), secondary education, technical and vocational, teacher education, higher education and special education. Table 3.2 also lists the subprograms.

As indicated earlier, the national MTEF was instituted only in 2005/2006. Because expenditure classifications had been improved in MOET but remained static at MOFDP, recurrent expenditures had to be recorded using the MoFDP categories, a process that impacts negatively on budget monitoring and reporting. Subventions to institutions, for example, are not treated consistently when the MOFDP releases the budget. This in turn makes it difficult to aggregate educational expenditures by subsector. This problem has been minimized in 2005/06 although it has not been resolved for the capital budget where some misclassification and misdescription is still being observed.

In Lesotho, the MOET budget and expenditure do not represent total budget and expenditure on education, because the National Manpower Development Secretariat (NMDS) operates a bursary program under the Ministry of Finance and Development. Two acts established this program in 1978: the National Manpower Development Council Act and the Loan Bursary Act. A National Manpower Development (MND) Secretariat was established to manage the affairs of NMDS. To date, NMDS is involved in the administration of both tertiary and post-primary bursaries with an increasing annual budget. In 2004/05, it was allocated M270 million, more than 34% of MOET's total budget. Consequently, the discussion of education sector budgets and expenditures in this report also includes the budgets and expenditures for NMDS. When the discussion applies only to the MOET budget and expenditures, the qualifier MOET will be used to avoid confusion.

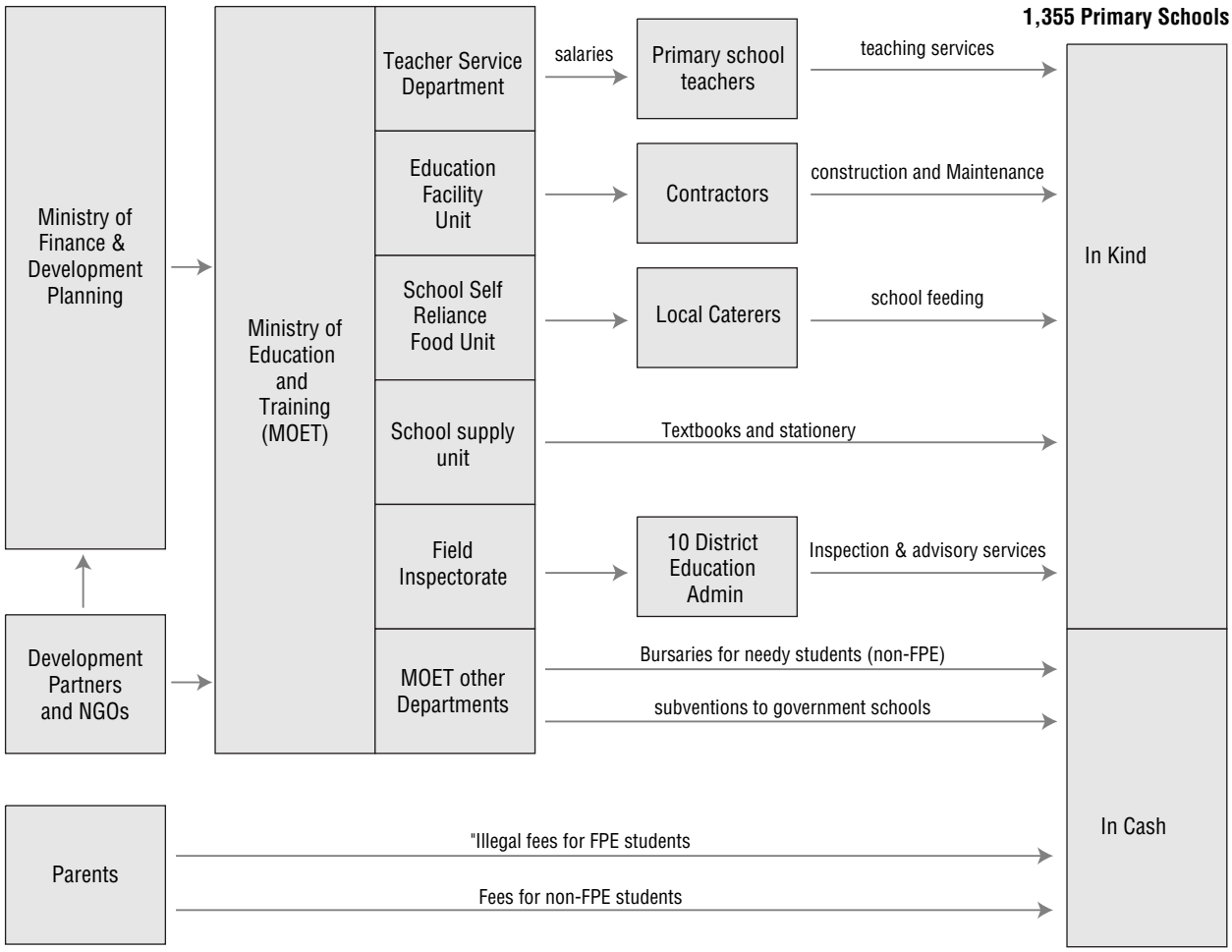
Flow of Funds

Figure 3.1 attempts to capture the flow of funds in the education sector, particularly in primary education. The MOFDP approves the budget and releases funds quarterly to the MOET. Recurrent primary expenditures include teacher salaries, administration of education in central and district offices, textbooks and other materials, meals, maintenance, and the primary sector's share of curriculum and examinations.

Table 3.2
Programs of Expenditure in MOET

Programs	Subprograms
01- Administration	Central District HIV/AIDS Coordination
02- Basic Education	Administration Primary Teachers' Salaries Bursaries Free Primary Education School Self-Reliance & Feeding Subvention to GOL Primary School
03- Secondary Education	Administration Post-Primary Teachers' Salaries Lesotho High School Subvention to Other Schools Bursaries Secondary Education Support Materials
04- TVET	Administration (TVD) Lerotholi Polytechnic Thaba-Tseka Tech. Institute
05- Teacher Edu. Support & Sup	Administration (teacher service) Teaching Service Commission Teacher Service Department Lesotho College of Education Distance Teacher Education Program School-Based Support and Advisory Services
06- Higher Education	Administration Institute of Development Management National University of Lesotho Council on Higher Education Machabeng College
07- Curricu. Assess. & Edu. Supply	Administration Curriculum Development Examination Council of Lesotho School Supply
08- Plan. Monitor. & Evaluation	Primary Inspectorate Central Inspectorate Project Support and Coordination Education Plan Policy & Research
09- Special Programs	Special Education National Commission for UNESCO Lifelong Learning Early Childhood Care&Development

Figure 3.1
Flow of Funds



Almost all of these items are provided in kind to primary schools in a variety of ways.

- Primary teachers (except for those hired and paid directly by schools) are centrally managed by the Teaching Service Department, which issues salary payments directly to the teachers.
- Administration of primary education includes the Chief Education Officer Primary and his team of inspectors. It also includes the development and administration of primary curriculum and examinations. These payments are made directly from the Human Resource Department.
- The MOET procures textbooks and other teaching and learning materials centrally, stores them in the School Supply Unit warehouse, and distributes them to schools through the district offices.
- School meals are currently provided by both MOET and WFP. WFP covers schools in the mountain areas and lowlands for non-FPE grades. WFP has its own system for administering and distributing meals to schools. The MOET covers school meals for lowland primary FPE students by paying local caterers directly, M2 per student per day.
- School maintenance was also managed and paid centrally at a nominal allocation of M5

per student per day directly to contractors. Unfortunately, to date, the school maintenance component of the FPE has not been managed successfully for a combination of reasons. In addition to budget constraints, the MOET central office is overburdened with signing vouchers, the maintenance expenditure categories are too rigid to allow for individual school needs, and many schools are not able to account for the government funds they receive.
- Inspection and advisory services are provided by the Field Inspectorate and an arm of District Resource Teachers (DRT).

Given this combination of factors, most of the inputs directed to schools have been provided in kind. Direct cash transfers to schools are rare. In fact, one provision in the MOET circular describing the FPE policy was that the government would not pay any money directly to schools (as described in Chapter 2 of this report). However, experience from the last few years of FPE implementation seems to indicate that because the non-teaching inputs to schools are now provided and managed centrally, the workload has increased for the inspectors and resource teachers whose job had been reduced to approving procurement of vendors, contractors and other paperwork. Now they have considerably less time to monitor the actual teaching and learning in schools.

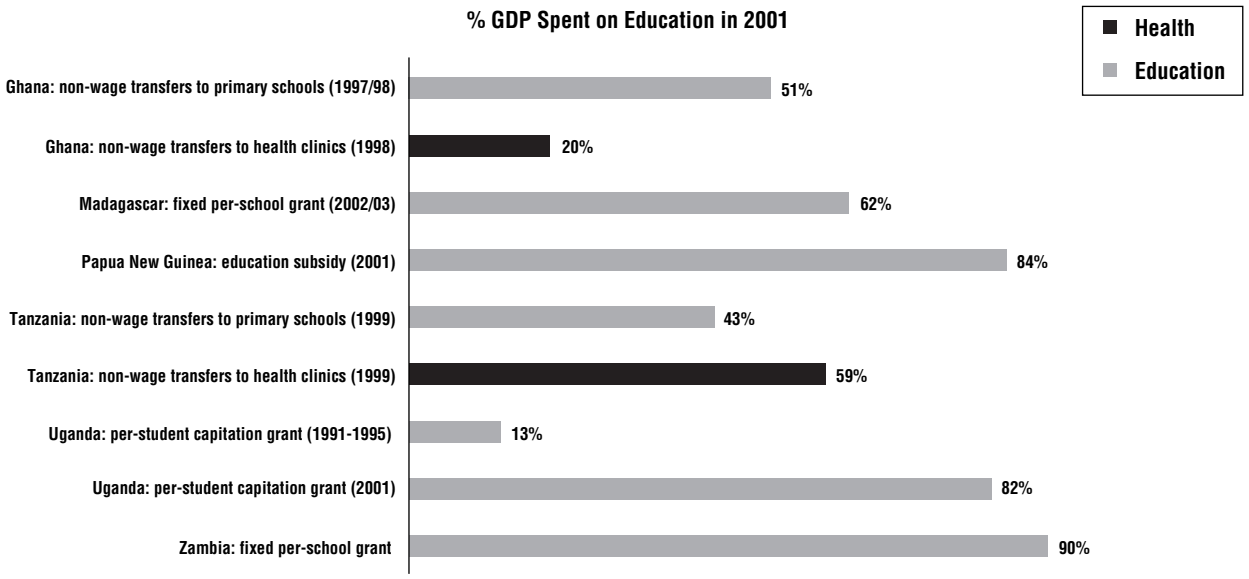
An exception to this ruling that the government will not pay any money directly to schools is the grant or subvention to government primary schools for special projects. Government primary schools indeed receive subventions from the MOET in the form of cash grants. It is not clear, however, how the amounts of these subventions were determined, and whether and how these schools accounted for them. In 2002/03, a total of nine government primary schools in Lesotho received subventions of varying amounts (from Maloti 10,000 for xxx to M105,000 for Maseru English Medium).

Schools further receive fees from students for various items including registration, books, and other fees. As of 2005, schools are still allowed to charge such fees to students who are enrolled in the non-FPE Standards including Standard 6 and Standard 7. As if to complicate the picture further, a preliminary analysis based on school census data seems to indicate that about 3% of all primary schools—including government and community schools—are in practice still charging so called "illegal fees" for the grades already covered by FPE. This will be discussed in more detail below in the section on private education expenditure.

The analysis in this section demonstrates that indeed, schools have very little revenue raising authority since the FPE, possibly have negative long term impact on school capacity and efficiency. The MOET is fully aware of this situation. Starting this year (2004/05), all schools under FPE are supposed to have receive a utilities allowance instead of the centralized maintenance arrangement. Further, the MOET is interested in transferring a small amount of discretionary funds directly to all government and community schools (a total of 150). This situation is reflected in the FY05-06 budget allocation which includes an amount of M11,500 for every such school.

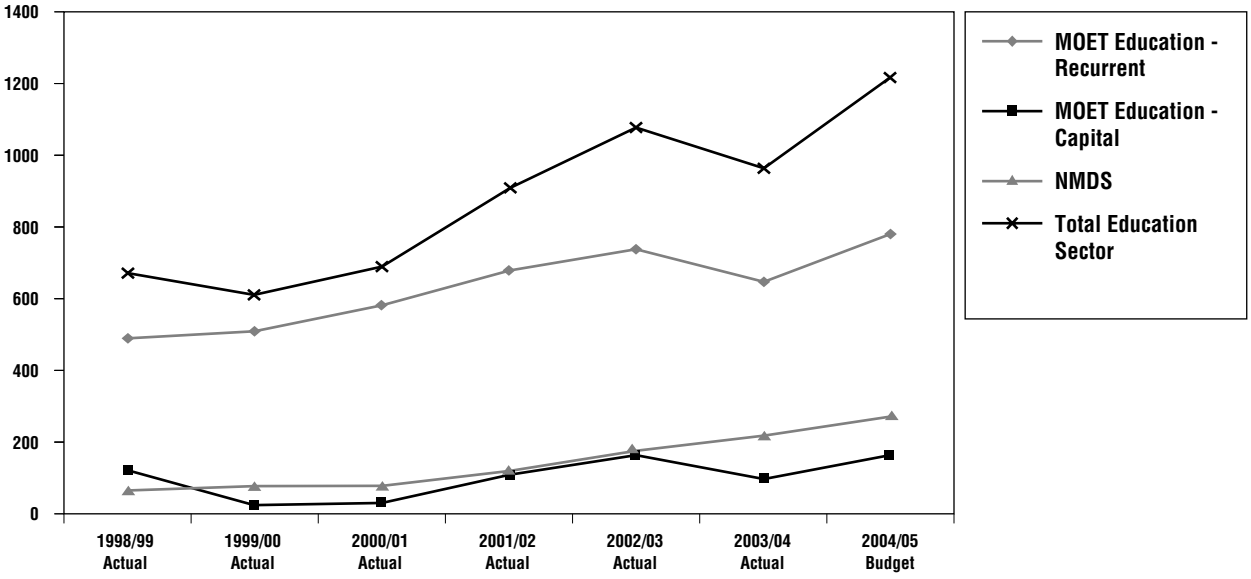
However, the MOET is greatly concerned that the schools lack strong financial management. For instance, in the case of the utility allowance in 2004/05, few schools met the government requirement to submit their financial reports from the previous year before they could be given this money. This indicates the crucial need to strengthen financial management and accountability at the school level.

Recent work on public expenditure tracking studies indicates that the GOL's concern is legitimate. There are enormous variations in the degree to which public funds intended for schools or health clinics actually reach them (Kushnarova, Inna. 2005). However the same study also concludes that even in the same country, results can vary substantially under pro-



grams with different designs. Leakage is not an inevitable feature of public expenditures. For example, in Uganda, in the early 1990s, only 13% of student capitation grants were reaching the schools. By 2001, after a prolonged period of media coverage, that percentage increased to 82%.

Figure 3.2
Lesotho Education Sector Expenditure (1998/99–2004/05)



B. Public Spending: Aggregate Trends and Distribution Across Levels

National Aggregate Trends

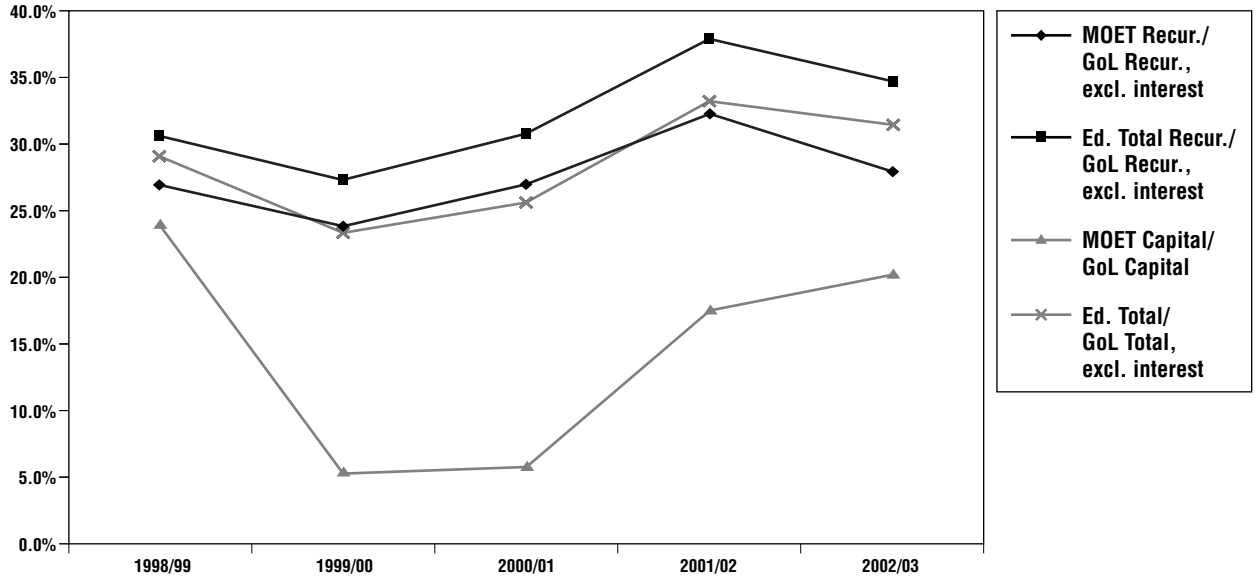
In Lesotho, overall government expenditure on education is high, consistent with the fact that education is a priority area identified in the recent Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper. Table 3.3 displays the relevant expenditure data. In nominal terms, both the MOET recurrent and NMDS expenditures show an increasing trend. MOET recurrent expenditure increased from M488 million in 1998/99 to more than M782 million in 2004/05. At the same time, actual expenditure by the NMDS rose from M65 million in 1998/99 to M270 million in 2004/05, more than a 400% increase.

Lesotho's capital expenditures for education experience more fluctuation. The total capital expenditure on education was M119 million in 1998/99, but it fell to only M25 million the following year and rose again in 2001/02 to M109 million. This fluctuation reflects the capacity of

Table 3.3
MOET and NMDS Recurrent and Capital Expenditures(current prices millions of Maloti) (1998/99–2004/05)

	Actual 1998/99 Actual	Actual 1999/00 Actual	Actual 2000/01 Actual	Actual 2001/02 Actual	Actual 2002/03 Actual	Actual 2003/04 Actual	Actual 2004/05 Actual
MOET Education – Recurrent	488	507	579	679	738	647	737
MOET Education – Capital	119	25	32	109	162	98	166
NMDS	65.2	77.2	80.5	120	177	217	270
Total Education Sector	672	609	692	908	1077	962	1173
GOL – Recurrent	1943	2319	2404	2312	2857	2533	3199
Of which: interest	129	183	258	203	220	216	156
Of which: non-interest Recurrent	1814	2136	2146	2109	2637	2690	3043
GOL – Capital	496	480	554	626	802	635	756
GOL – Total, excluding interest	2310	2616	2700	2735	3439	2952	3799
Gross Domestic Product	4921	5565	5964	6565	7370	8144	8851.4
Gross National Income	6305	7057	7486	8071	9068	10017	10938
	1998/99	**1999/00**	**2000/01**	**2001/02**	**2002/03**	**2003/04**	**2004/05**
MOET Recurrent /GOL Recur., excl. interest	**26.9%**	**23.7%**	**27.0%**	**32.2%**	**28.0%**	**24.1%**	**24.2%**
Education Total Recur./GOL Recur., excl. interests	**30.5%**	**27.4%**	**30.7%**	**37.9%**	**34.7%**	**32.1%**	**33.1%**
MOET Capital /GOL Capital	**24.0%**	**5.2%**	**5.8%**	**17.4%**	**20.2%**	**15.5%**	**21.9%**
Education Total/GOL Total, excl.interest	**29.1%**	**23.3%**	**25.6%**	**33.2%**	**31.3%**	**32.6%**	**30.9%**
Ed. Total/GDP	**13.7%**	**10.9%**	**11.6%**	**13.8%**	**14.6%**	**11.8%**	**13.2%**
Ed. Total/GNP	**10.7%**	**8.6%**	**9.2%**	**11.3%**	**11.9%**	**9.6%**	**10.7%**

Figure 3.3
Share of Lesotho's Budgets Devoted to Education



the executing units more than the availability of finances.

Over the past few years, the average recurrent expenditure on the education sector (including both MOET and NMDS) constituted more than 30% of total government expenditure excluding interest. Aggregating both recurrent and capital expenditures, the total still amounts to an average of more than 25% over the last 5 years or so, equivalent to between 11% and 14% of total GDP.

Lesotho spends a higher proportion of its national budget on education than any other nation. In 2001, worldwide, countries spent an average of about 4% of total GDP on education; the figure for Lesotho was over 11%, as Figure 3.4 shows.

Trends in the Functional Composition of Spending

This section assesses government recurrent education expenditure by function and level of education. While Lesotho spends about 11% to 14% of its GDP on the educational sector as a whole, the majority goes to recurrent expenditures, which are the focus of this analysis.

Several features characterize the composition of recurrent public spending in Lesotho and its evolution since the financial year 1998–1999. Comparing expenditures by category, it's clear that, at the aggregate level, a larger percentage has been spent on primary education (90% increase) and higher education subsectors (more than 400% increase) (see Figure 3.5.). On the other hand, the expenditure on secondary education has been very modest. Spending on the other categories seems to have remained stable.

The technical and vocational (TVET) subsector which includes the Thaba-Tseka Technical Institute (TTI) and Lerotholi Polytechnic (LP) has suffered a reduction in overall nominal expenditures, from a high of M31.1 million in 2000/01 to only M15 million the following year. The reduction was primarily due to reduced NMDS expenditures on bursaries for TVET students.

Figure 3.4
% of GDP Spent on Education in 2001 in Selected Countries and Regions

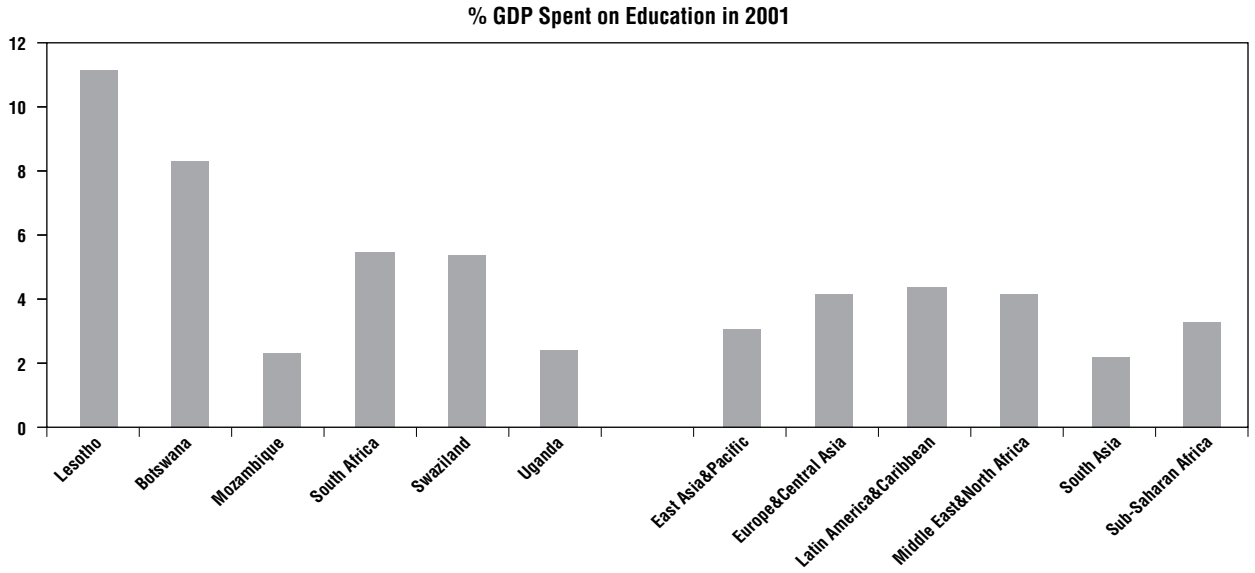


Table 3.4
Actual Education Recurrent Expenditures by Program 1998–2005
(current prices in millions of Maloti, and including NMDS)

	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05
Govt. Recur. Expend. on Education	497.6	518.4	597.5	609.07	918.7	874.49	1006.7
Of which:							
ECCD	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.4	0.7
Primary	189.9	187.2	221.3	202.7	426.8	321.2	376.8
Secondary	104.4	113.0	126.3	135.5	143.8	173.9	189.8
TVET	24.2	25.9	31.1	15.0	17.5	21.7	23.2
NFE	3.9	3.5	3.5	3.0	3.6	4.4	3.9
LCE	12.4	13.1	15.7	16.4	16.7	18.2	21.5
Higher Education	143.7	151.2	154.0	222.5	280.5	319.0	375.4
of which NUL	106.6	114.5	123.1	150.0	165.6	179.3	202.0
Administration and other	10.4	10.4	6.7	13.5	29.0	15.7	15.4
Share	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
of which							
ECCD	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Primary	0.38	0.36	0.37	0.33	0.46	0.37	0.37
Secondary	0.21	0.22	0.21	0.22	0.16	0.20	0.19

(*continued on next page*)

Table 3.4 (*continued*)
Actual Education Recurrent Expenditures by Program 1998–2005 (current prices in millions of Maloti, and including NMDS)

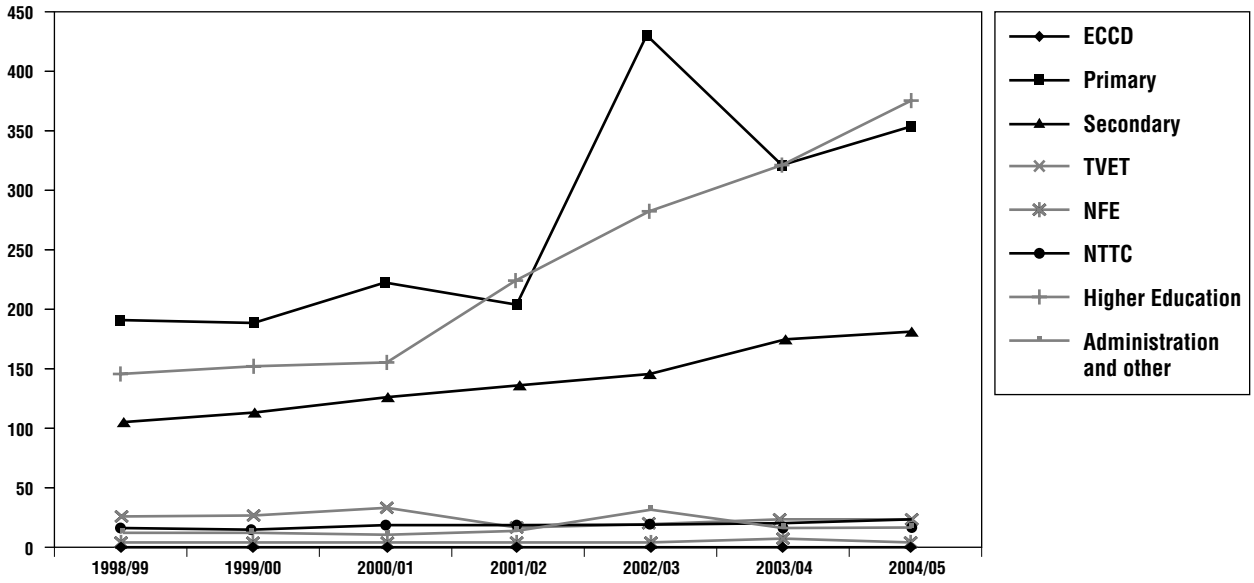
	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05
TVET	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
NFE	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
LCE	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02
Higher Education	0.29	0.29	0.26	0.37	0.31	0.36	0.37
of which NUL	0.21	0.22	0.21	0.25	0.18	0.20	0.20
Administration and other	0.02	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.02

Source: MOET End of the Year Status of Funds for relevant years.

By 2004/05, the cumulative effect of these trends had produced a noticeable shift in the share of recurrent public spending by level of education. The combined share of primary and secondary education fell from 59% in 1998/99 to 56% in 2004/05, while the share spent on higher education rose from 30% to 38.7%. The share spent on teacher education and administration remained about constant. On the other hand, the share spent on technical and vocational education declined from 5.6% to 2.3% in 2004/05, primarily because bursaries for TVET students were reduced. The share for non-formal education also declined from almost 1% to only 0.4%.

Table 3.5 shows the total recurrent expenditures by category in Lesotho and the four other SADC (South African Development Community) countries. Compared to the other countries, Lesotho allocates the smallest percentage to its primary subsector. Since primary educa-

Figure 3.5
Total Expenditures on Education by Program 1998 to 2005.



tion in Lesotho consists of 7 years, and it is very difficult to achieve the MDGs target of a 100% completion rate by 2015, the nation would benefit by spending more of its public resources on the primary subsector. The EFA FTI's indicative framework suggests that the government should allocate about 55% of recurrent spending to primary education if that sector consists of 7 years of schooling. Thus, the government may need to consider a greater financial commitment to the FPE in order to achieve the MDGs target by 2015.

It must be noted that the primary subsector receives 49% of MOET's total recurrent expenditures, and the secondary subsector receives 24%, for a total of nearly 70% of MOET recurrent expenditures. This figure is similar to those of other countries in the region. These figures do not include the NMDS, however, its administrative presence under the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning rather than Education and Training complicates both the sector spending pattern and its monitoring.

C. A Closer Look at Recurrent Expenditure on Education in 2003/04

This section focuses more closely on the allocation of recurrent public spending in 2003/04 across economic categories and subsectors, especially within central administration, primary, secondary, and higher education. Within primary and secondary education, we analyze the share of total recurrent budgets spent on teacher salaries as compared to other inputs.

Central Administration

The Ministry of Education and Training has maintained a relatively stable management structure, even as the system has expanded. This is commendable given that many countries tend

Table 3.5
Distribution of Government Recurrent Expenditure on Education

By level, in Lesotho and other Low-Income SADC Countries (percent of total)

	Lesotho Actual 2003/04	Mozambique 1998	Zambia 1999	Tanzania 1999	Malawi 1999/00	4-country Average
Years of Primary	7	6	6	6	6	6.2
Primary	37	47	54	62	60	56
Secondary	20	22	10	7	10	12
Vocational	2	6	—	—	—	—
Tertiary	36	17	18	26	19	20
Other	5	8	18	5	11	11
TOTAL	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Notes: Tertiary in Lesotho does not include Teacher Training College or Lerotholi Polytechnic. In Zambia, where another ministry is responsible for TVE, the data are for Ministry of Education only. In Tanzania and Malawi, TVE expenditures are counted under secondary and tertiary.

Sources: The percent distributions for other countries are from data made available to the World Bank by national authorities. Public Expenditure Review V1. 2002

to expand central administration as their programs expand. During the period from 1998 to 2004, actual expenditure on administration (including district education offices) has been maintained at about 13 million to 16 million maloti in nominal terms. In terms of share of total education budget, administration consumes between 1% and 3% of total recurrent expenditure.

A few features distinguish the pattern of expenditures on administration. First, the total staff salary bill remained rather stable. In 2004, MOET employed about 646 officials, including those at both the headquarters and district offices.

Transport consumes the largest share of the total administration budget: about double the total for staffing, although the allocation for transport was cut sharply in financial year 2003/04. It is not clear if the high transportation costs were due to the geography of Lesotho or some other reasons. It is suspected that the centralized vehicle operations have much to do with it. It will be interesting to examine whether this cut affected service delivery. A third noticeable feature is that, starting in 2003/04, HIV/AIDS was introduced as a new program under central administration in response to the government's call for every line ministry to devote 1% to 2% of its recurrent budget to HIV/AIDS programs.

Primary Education

At 36%, primary recurrent expenditures constituted the largest share of the total recurrent expenditures on education in 2003/04. Table 3.8 details the allocation of the primary budget within subprograms. Among the categories for primary education expenditures are teacher salaries, school feeding, teaching and learning materials, teacher support, development of primary curriculum and examinations, salaries (basic education administration and inspectors), transport, and other operational costs.

Table 3.8 also shows details on the share of each expenditure item. The largest item within the primary subsector is teacher salaries: 66% of total primary expenditure in 2003/04. The remaining 34% was spent on other inputs, including school feeding at 25%. Only 3% of total primary recurrent was spent on teaching and learning materials (not including capital expenditures).

Primary Teacher Salaries

The total bill for teacher salaries in a given year is determined by two factors: the pupil: teacher ratio (PTR) and the average teacher pay. Over the past few years, the PTR in Lesotho has been

Table 3.6
Evolution of Recurrent Budget for Central Administration

Central Administration

	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03 (Feb)	2003/04	2004/05 (Feb)
Salaries				2.4	2.6	3.1	2.6
Transport				8.7	8.9	4.8	7.1
Maintenance and operating				1.1	16.0*	1.2	1.2
Office equip & furni.				0.3	0.3	0.7	0.2
HIV/AIDS						4.9	1.1
Special, UNESCO, others				0.6	0.9	1.3	1.4
Total				13.2	28.7	16.0	13.5

* Maloti 15 million was vired to Agriculture for famine relief that year.

Table 3.7
MOET Staffing and Salary Bill

Summary	Inpost	Budget Salary	ACActual Salary	Variance
Administration	83	211,021	194246	10645
Basic Education Admin	1	3045	3045	
S.s.r.f.u.	28	70864	65800	5254
Secondary Ed. Admin	2	16205	16205	
T.v.e.t.	26	116647	116647	
T.t.s.t.c.	38	99150	108775	9625
T.s.d.	86	170622	157928.5	12693.5
T.s.c.	8	47196	48996	900
P.i.e.p.	7	17743	17743	
Higher Ed. Admin	2	7520	7520	
Curr. Serv. Supply	1	9391	9391	
N.c.d.c.	58	207325	207325	
S.s.u.	60	118027	114471	3556
Field Inspectorate	87	314023	319799	5775
Central Inspectorate	37	126180	126180	
Planning Unit	9	46010	46310	300
Special Education	11	39631	39631	
L.d.t.c.	75	227824	220364	7460
E.c.c.d.	17	47820	48645	825
Unescom	10	27044	27044	
Grand Total	646	1,923,288	1896065.5	57033.5

Table 3.8
Details of Primary Recurrent Expenditures in 2003/04

Primary Education	2003/04
Basic Education Administration	0.4
Primary Teacher Salaries	212.2
Free Primary Education	
Transport	0.9
Materials	8.9
Upkeep of Institutions (school feeding)	79.2
School Self Reliance Feeding Unit	
Salaries	0.8
Transport	0.3
Other running costs	0.6
School Supply Unit	
Salaries	1.3

(*continued on next page*)

Table 3.8 (*continued*)
Details of Primary Recurrent Expenditures in 2003/04

Primary Education	2003/04
Transport	0.3
Other Operational Costs	0.4
Field Inspectorate	
Salaries	3.5
Transport	0.5
Other Running Costs	2.4
Share of Teacher Service & Support	3.3
Share of Curriculum and Exam	7.7
TOTAL	**322.7**
% spent on teacher salaries	0.66
% spent on school feeding	0.25
% spent on teaching/learning materials	0.03
% of spent on admin and staffing (non-teacher)	0.02
% spent on curriculum and exams	0.02
% spent on transport, communications, etc.	0.02
% spent on teacher support	0.01

kept rather stable, at 44:1 to 47:1 despite the introduction of FPE in 1999. As of 2003, the primary PTR was about 46.2, slightly higher than the average for Anglophone African countries (42) but much higher than the average for Asia, Latin America, and Eastern and Central Asia (see Table 3.9).

Turning to average teacher pay, the total wage bill for 2003/04 (including allowances) was 212.2 million maloti. The school census reported a total of 9,294 teachers in 2003, making the average annual teacher salary in 2003, of 22832 maloti, which is about 5 times the GDP per capita. Compared to the regional averages shown in Table 3.9, this figure is very high, indicating that teachers are being paid relatively well.

The official primary teacher pay scale (see Table 3.10) includes many teacher categories and 16 grades, with each grade including up to 6 points. Teachers move up one point each year; when they reach the highest point within their grade, they must be promoted before they can be given a further salary increase. The official pay scale seems to be compatible with the aggregate average teacher pay, which is obtained by dividing the total teacher wage bill by the number of teachers.

A further analysis compared the pay of primary teachers with that of their non-teaching counterparts in the public, parastatal, and private sectors. Using the 1999 Labor Force Survey, we selected only female teachers, as very few male teachers were included in the survey. From this subsample, we calculated the (weighted) average of monthly earnings (including allowances) for primary teachers as well as private and public sector workers not working as teachers. We compared the earnings of teachers and non-teachers with those of workers who have secondary education (Form D and Form E) and the diploma/A level certificate only, because the other groups contained too few data

Table 3.9
Regional Averages for Teacher Wages, Pupil-Teacher Ratio, and % of Recurrent Spending on Inputs other than Teachers.

Country/Region	Number of Countries	Average Teacher Wage[a]/	Pupil–Teacher Ratio [b]/	Percentage of Recurrent spending on Inputs other than Teachers [c]/
Lesotho (2003)				
Standards 1–7	1	5.02	46.2	34[6]
Regional Averages, circa 2000				
Francophone Africa	20	4.4	51.0	26.8
Anglophone Africa	13	4.3	41.6	20.2
South & East Asia	10	2.4	36.5	23.4
Latin America	4	4.3	33.6	18.5
Eastern Europe &Central Asia	5	1.2	18.2	31.3

Source: Ethiopia CSR.

Table 3.10
Teacher Pay Scale

Average Teacher Pay			
Total Teacher Pay/# of Teachers	22832		
Official Pay Scale		**Minimum**	**Maximum**
Unqualified	Grades 1–5	9576	13980
Qualified	Grades A-E	14988	21840
Experienced	Grades F	22476	26688
Senior Teacher	Grade G	26482	32640
Deputy Head Teacher	Grade I	33624	39936
Head Teacher	Grade J	40728	43212
District Resource Teacher	Grade K	44508	46992
Senior District Resource Teacher	Grace L	48396	52620
GDP Per Capita	**4550**		
Ratio of Pay over GDP Per Capita	**5.02**		

points. This calculation showed that the average monthly earnings of Lesotho's primary school teachers in 1999 were 1.5 times more than the average earnings of public and private sector workers. To break this down by level of education: among those who have a secondary education, primary teachers are paid twice as much as their counterparts in the public and private sectors. For those primary teachers who have a diploma/A level, their average pay is similar to that of other equally educated workers in the private and public sectors.

[6] Including 25% for school feeding

Table 3.11
Comparing Salaries of Primary Teachers with those of other Public and Private Employees

	Earnings of teachers and non teachers by level of education				Earning premium of primary school teachers		
		Non teachers			Earnings of primary school teachers as a multiple of		
	Primary school teachers	Public and parastatal sector	Private sector	Total	Public and parastatal sector workers	Private sector workers	Total
Secondary education (Forms C & E)	1429	1032	549	722	1.4	2.6	2.0
Diploma/ A Level	1198	1153	1287	1213	1.0	0.9	1.0
Total	1320	1081	725	875	1.2	1.8	1.5

When broken down by sector, average primary teacher pay is 1.2 times that of the public and parastatal workers but 1.8 times that of the private sector workers with similar levels of education (see Table 3.11). Teaching apparently is an attractive profession in Lesotho.

In short, the average primary teacher is paid well, relative to the GDP per capita. The attractiveness of the teaching profession in Lesotho as compared to other professions can be further confirmed by the fact that the system has many volunteer teachers who are teaching in the schools hoping to become salaried or to gain access to the Lesotho College of Education teacher training programs. The pupil-teacher ratio is slightly higher than the average for Anglophone Africa, but most likely still within reasonable range.

Primary School Feeding

In 2003, about 25% of total education recurrent spending for the primary sector went for school feeding, which includes the feeding administered by the School Self Reliance and Food Unit as well as the Free Primary Education feeding program.

There are three school feeding programs that exist in Lesotho. Those are the World Food Program (WFP) school feeding program, the schools self-reliance program and the Free Primary Education (FPE) feeding program. The 25% of education recurrent spending for school feeding refers only to the recurrent expenditures incurred by the MOET. It does not include the WFP expenditures which are considered capital expenditures financed by donors. Detailed description and comparison of the three programs can be found in Annex 3.1.

WFP and MOET have different systems for coverage and distribution. The intention is that all children under FPE in Lesotho will be covered by the school feeding program, generally one lunch per day. WFP covers all grades in all highland primary schools and the non-FPE grades in the rest of the country. WFP imports food and has its own distribution system. MOET, on the other hand, hires local caterers and pays them directly from Maseru at 2 malotis per child per day. This system, with its many vouchers, has generated tremendous amounts of paperwork, so much that inspectors seldom go out to the schools to conduct inspections. Clearly this has a negative impact on school quality. Individuals in MOET have expressed an intention to send cash directly to schools but they worry that schools do not have

the ability to keep accounts of such public funds.

Food supplies are insecure in many areas of Lesotho, and many children get no other meal than the one provided in school. Therefore, school feeding is a crucial support. Still, the department would benefit by examining various administration and distribution systems to develop one that is cost-effective and does not divert inspectors from their vital tasks of inspecting schools and providing advice.

Primary Teaching and Learning Materials

In the financial year 2003/04, only 3% of total primary recurrent expenditures was on teaching and learning materials, namely the textbooks for pupils, teacher guides, and other stationary items. Prior to the FPE, Lesotho used to operate a relatively efficient textbook rental program for primary education. Fortunately for the country, at the time of post FPE, there still remains in school a stock of textbooks. An average primary student in Lesotho has access to about 5.7 textbooks. The 3% recurrent is spent mainly to procure stationery and to replenish some textbooks.

However, most of these books were procured in the mid-1990s. Since then, there was some revision to the primary curriculum. Annex XX details the primary curriculum and syllabus as of 1997. The National Curriculum Development Center, in collaboration with the Examination Council, is developing an integrated curriculum and assessment framework. As the current stock of textbooks will need to be replaced soon, it is important that the MOET finalizes the curriculum and assessment policy and that the MOET should have a revised curriculum which is more integrated and cost-effective, with clear specifications of the core package to be financed by the government.

Secondary Education

The term "secondary education" still causes some confusion in Lesotho. In terms of the programs on which funds are spent, the term "secondary education" includes expenditures on both junior secondary and high schools. However, in terms of rhetoric and the newly approved MOET Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP), it appears that "secondary education" should only refer to senior secondary (Forms D & E), with the lower secondary (Forms A, B, and C) subsumed as part of "basic education." This confusion continues because the curriculum, teaching assignments, and general administration make it hard to separate junior secondary education from senior secondary. In this report, the term secondary education includes both junior and senior secondary education.

In 2003/04, recurrent expenditures on secondary schools constituted 20% of the total education recurrent expenditure. Table 3.12 details the allocation of the secondary budget within subprograms. Expenditures on secondary education include teacher salaries, teacher support, development and administration of secondary curriculum and examinations, salaries for administrators and inspectors, transport, and other running costs.

As is true for primary, the largest expenditure item within the secondary sector is teacher salaries: 87% of total secondary expenditure in 2003/04. The second largest item is bursaries for needy children administered by NMDS which constituted 7% of total secondary expenditure.

Secondary Teacher Salaries

As is true for primary teachers, the secondary teacher wage bill is determined by the pupil-teacher ratio (PTR) and the average teacher pay. In Lesotho, the secondary PTR is much lower than in primary schools. Over the last few years it has been kept fairly stable at between 22.8:1 and 26:1; it was 26:1 in 2003. Compared to other countries, this ratio is quite comfortable and hence expensive.

Secondary teachers in Lesotho earn very decent wages (see Table 3.13) compared to the

Table 3.12
Details of Secondary Recurrent Expenditure in 2003/04

Secondary Education	2003/04
Secondary Administration	
Salaries	0
Other Overhead	0.7
Secondary Teacher Salaries	150.8
Subvention to Lesotho High School	2.3
Subvention to Other Schools	2.7
Secondary Inspectorate	
Salaries	1.06
Transport	0.19
Other	0.77
Share of Teacher Service & Support	1.27
Share of Curriculum and Exams	1.46
NMDS (postprimary exclu.TVET)	13.00
TOTAL	**174.23**
% spent on teacher salaries	0.87
% spent on NMDS bursaries	0.07
% spent on subventions	0.03
% spent on non-teacher staff	0.01
% spent on teacher support	0.01
% spent on curriculum & exams	0.01
% spent on transport, communication, and other	0.01

level of GDP per capita. The average pay in 2004 was 47,496 maloti, equivalent to more than 10 times the GDP per capita for that year. With this in mind, the government needs to remain mindful about the fiscal implications of secondary expansion. Most likely, it will have to provide for short-term expansion by increasing the pupil-teacher ratio and by controlling average wage growth so that teacher salaries will grow at a lower rate than GDP. It is reasonable to assume that these two actions will allow the country to reasonably accommodate the FPE influx. Nevertheless, a detailed education sector financing model should be developed and policy simulations on various input indicators and their relation to outputs should be undertaken.

Secondary Bursary Programs

The government administers a total of three bursary programs. Two are managed by the MOET and the other by the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare through the National Manpower Development Secretariat. Of the two MOET bursary programs, one is financed jointly by the World Bank and targets orphans and needy children in primary and lower secondary grades. The other is financed by the Global Fund and targets orphans at the senior secondary grades Form D and Form E. The program under the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare has provided bursaries for needy primary and secondary students. A detailed description and comparison of the three programs can be found in Annex 3.2.

Table 3.13
Secondary Average Teacher Pay and Official Pay Scale 2004

Average Teacher Pay			
Total Teacher Pay/# of Teachers	47496		
Official Pay Scale		**Minimum**	**Maximum**
Non Graduate Teacher	Grade A	22476	23269
STTC&Equivalent	Grade B	24072	24072
DIP.Ed. (1st prof.)	Grade C	24924	26688
Non Graduate Senior Teacher	Grade E	33624	46992
Degree	Grade F	48396	48396
Degree+ PTC	Grade G	49848	51348
BA Ed. Equiv., Degree+STC/Dip., BA+PGCE	Grade H	54204	59220
MAED., BED, 2nd Prof.	Grade I	60984	62508
Head of Department	Grade J	60984	65676
Deputy Headmaster (sec)	Grade K	67320	72492
Headmaster (sec)	Grade L	72492	78072
Resource Teacher	Grade M	74304	80016
Headmaster (high)	Grade N	80016	84072
Educational Secretary	Grade O	86172	90528
GDP Per Capita	**4550**		
Ratio of Pay over GDP Per Capita	**10.44**		

Since the two MOET programs are considered capital projects, they are not included in the above analysis of secondary recurrent expenditures. The 7% of expenditures on bursary refers only to the bursary program by the Ministry of Social Welfare through the NMDS. However, the MOET has decided to allocate an annual allocation of M5 million to M7 million for bursaries for needy children as part of the ongoing MOET program starting from financial year 2005/06.

The existence of these various bursary programs has created much confusion among schools and parents. In 2002, the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare and NMDS stopped covering new students, both primary and secondary. Assistance is now offered only to those who had been covered earlier, and the individual social worker has discretion to choose who is included. In some cases bursaries also cover uniforms. The programs pay all fees for each covered student, directly to the school. Total fees paid per child were kept at M300 for primary and M3,000 for secondary. Because it lacked the human resources and transport facilities to do so, the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare rarely monitored its program at the school level, but instead used each student's End-of-Year Performance Report to renew the bursaries each year.

Given Lesotho's situation of high poverty and increasing numbers of orphans, the bursary program is likely to continue. However, it is critical that the various bursary programs be consolidated to reduce inefficiency. It is also crucial to examine the current targeting criteria, the amount of bursary provided, and the chain of administration. In the future it may be possible for Lesotho to consider bursary programs that could offset the opportunity costs of attending school and bring pecuniary benefits directly to the household. To understand how various pro-

grams may work, it will be important to start piloting some optimistic programs and monitor the results carefully.

Secondary Teaching and Learning Materials

MOET's recurrent budget does not provide for any teaching and learning materials for secondary education. However, with support from the World Bank (for the stock), in 2003 MOET started a junior secondary core textbook rental program. Starting from the financial year 2005/06, MOET has included in its recurrent budget continuous support for this program, at M7 million per year. However, instead of limiting the program only to the four core subjects, the government has decided to cover both core and non-core subjects. This decision endangers the program's financial sustainability. A curriculum review is urgent to prevent it from becoming too expensive.

Subventions to Secondary Schools

Subventions to government schools consume about 3% of total recurrent spending on secondary education. Though it is not a very significant component, it carries significant policy implications. While government secondary schools also charged school fees in a manner they determine themselves, the government, through the Ministry of Education, found it necessary to provide them with small amounts of cash to begin and maintain farming projects, raising poultry, pigs, garden produce, etc. By around 1995, the first four government secondary schools were receiving subventions of M10,000 each. To monitor the use of funds, including subventions, in these schools, the MOET appointed auditors to conduct annual audits of the individual schools' books. The auditors they were paid by schools. Since then, the amount of subvention has been increased. Now all government schools are allocated a pre-determined subvention that is claimed each quarter and is only released after the school has presented a clearly written report on how it spent the previous allocation.

A few exceptional subventions should be noted. Lesotho High School started as a department of the MOET and has remained so; in 2003/04 it received a large sum of about 2.3 million maloti. Another exception is the Machabeng High School, now Machabeng College, established to educate the children of international diplomats assigned to Lesotho. It has been administered differently from the other secondary schools, with its subvention determined by the cabinet in recent years. The amount of the annual subventions given to other government secondary schools varies from M100,000 to M170,000. No clear record shows how the original subvention figures were calculated, but recent increases have resulted from higher levels of demand for funding when schools had special projects which, though justifiable, could not be met by their annual subvention allocation.

These subventions to schools must be closely monitored. Despite sporadic auditing in the past, schools are not accounting for the funds properly. Nor are they held accountable in terms of academic results. MOET must establish clear expectations for the schools that receive subventions. Further, the history of the subventions to various schools reveals an equity issue, which is detailed further in Annex 3.2.

Moreover, the MOET recurrent budget has not treated subventions consistently over the past few years. Sometimes subventions are inserted under the central administration and sometimes they are included under corresponding programs such as basic or secondary education. This makes it very difficult to conduct any investigation into subventions, including the one for this report. In the future, subventions for the primary sector must be included in the basic education program; those for secondary must be included in the secondary program; and those for tertiary institutions must be included with higher education.

Higher Education

The definition of higher education in Lesotho is still vague, particularly in the case of Lesotho College of Education (LCE) and Lerotholi Polytechnic (LP). LCE is sometimes referred to as being in the teacher education sector and LP is sometimes referred to as belonging in the technical and vocational education sector.

Recurrent expenditures on higher education accounted for 36% of total recurrent expenditures on education in 2003/04—excluding LCE (under teacher education) and LP (under TVET). If higher education is defined to include all post-secondary institutions, thus including LCE and LP, the tertiary sector will absorb a full 40% of the education budget! In this section, we include LCE and LP as part of the higher education sector.

Government support for higher education institutions is given in the form of subventions to autonomous higher institutions. The National University of Lesotho, along with LCE and LP, are Lesotho's three largest institutions of higher education. Table 3.14 details the allocation of the higher education budget by institution.

We observed that in 2003, NMDS tertiary bursaries constituted the largest component under higher education recurrent expenditure (57%). In fact this proportion increased further in 2004/05. This trend is a cause for concern. Even though this bursary is supposed to be a "loan bursary," its recovery rate is so low that it is essentially a grant. See Box 3.1 for details on loan recovery.

Table 3.14
Subventions to Higher Institutions in 2003/04

Higher Education	2003/04 (Millions of Maloti)
IDM	1.92
NUL	117
Lesotho College of Education	17
LP	14.55
NMDS Tertiary Bursaries	201.3

As mentioned earlier, the fact that NMDS is administratively under the MOFDP has made it very difficult for MOET to monitor, but it is still part of the education sector expenditure. Moreover, the amounts of the bursaries are so high that in actual practice they have almost replaced private fees for tertiary students. A very high proportion (check %) of tertiary students in Lesotho (including Basotho students studying in South Africa) receive the scholarship and as long as he or she passes exams at the end of school year, the scholarship is renewed automatically. For example, 5,247 students in NUL were provided with NMDS scholarships out of a total of about 7,000 students.

This is highly inequitable considering the situation in the other sectors. For example, pupils at secondary schools pay an average of over M2000 annually for food, lodging, and other fees. And we know that, overall, those who are able to pass the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate exams and proceed to higher education tend to be children from better-off households who are more likely to be able to afford education. And of course graduates of higher education institutions will be able to enjoy better working conditions and better pay in the future.

The government is currently introducing priority fields for consideration of scholarships to study in South Africa. These include general postgraduate studies, along with health sciences, engineering, building technology, information technology, and tourism. It is also considering strengthening the recovery of certain bursaries (as loans) from the graduates. These are certainly positive steps forward. However, more drastic actions need to be taken to transform the administration of NMDS and the allocation of tertiary bursaries. Many countries have moved towards continuing to provide need-based scholarships while also introducing a tertiary program for loans that will be repaid. The challenge is to make sure that we improve cost recovery in

Box 3.1

Repayment of Loan Bursaries from the NMDS

A June 2000 audit conducted by the office of the Auditor General found that the National Manpower Development Secretariat (NMDS) does not keep a list of students who finish their studies in either Lesotho or the Republic of South Africa. Therefore it loses track of its borrowers. Nor do the students/borrowers always inform the NMDS when they find employment. NMDS started to rectify this situation by contacting the ministries' personnel sections to collect lists of their employees. But this approach is not systematic and does not ensure effective collection of the loans. Furthermore, the NMDS makes no effort to locate those who work in the semi-state bodies or the private sector, or abroad, to get them to pay. As a result, most of those who repay their loans are those working for the government. Between 1995 and 1998, it was found that NMDS sometimes was not aware of how much it should expect to recover per year and when it recovered only 10% of the expected amount.

Source: Office of the Auditor General: Performance Audit Report on the Structures and Systems for Payment and Repayment of Loan Bursaries in Lesotho and the Republic of South Africa.

higher education where we know there will be private returns, while at the same time not jeopardizing opportunities for children who are able but who are poor.

D. Education Spending and Education Outcomes

To assess the efficiency of public resource usage, we examined public spending on education as a percentage of GDP linked with educational outcomes. Educational outcomes (based on an educational development index) are measured using the average school life expectancy (the average expected number of years of formal education). Specifically, school life expectancy is calculated as the sum of age-specific enrollment rates for primary, secondary and tertiary education. This analysis is exemplified in UNESCO's Statistics, *Education Indicators: Technical Guidelines* and is also inherent in the World Bank's country status reports for other African countries.

The educational development index [EDI] in Lesotho is estimated at 19, a relatively low figure by international standards. The EDI is 57 in South Korea, 43 in Malaysia, 36 in Argentina and Tunisia, 34 in Chile, and 30 in Brazil. Among Lesotho's neighboring countries, the estimated EDI is 28 in Botswana and South Africa, 33 in Mauritius, and 23 in Zimbabwe.

To get a sense of how efficiently resources are used to provide educational coverage, we can contrast this EDI with the amount of resources the country mobilizes for the sector. Total spending on education in Lesotho was 12% of GNP in 2003. A very straightforward way to assess efficiency is to calculate the ratio of coverage (EDI) to spending; the figure obtained for Lesotho is 1.6 (19/12). Compared to its neighbors, Lesotho's level of efficiency on this measure is quite low: this statistic is 4.2 in Botswana, 8.3 in Mauritius, 4.7 in South Africa, and 3.3 in Zimbabwe. From a wider international perspective, Lesotho's level of efficiency is much lower than those of South Korea (15.2), Malaysia (8.0), Argentina (13.7), Chile (11.3), and Brazil (9.0).

A second way to assess a country's level of efficiency in using resources for educational coverage is to plot a graph, placing the EDI on the Y axis and education expenditure (measured as

a share of GDP) on the X axis. Figure 3.5 shows the location of selected Sub-Saharan African countries on these two dimensions. It is interesting to examine where Lesotho stands in this figure: the middle right corner.

This cross-national comparison also shows that Lesotho uses public resources inefficiently. Lesotho spent 12% of its public expenditure on education as a percentage of its GNP and its index of educational development is estimated as 19. The dot representing Lesotho is far from the curve that represents the ideal. This freehand envelope curve links the most efficient public resource users among the selected countries. The most efficient countries are those whose coverage is maximum given what they spend.

E. Public Spending Per Student by Level and Type of Education

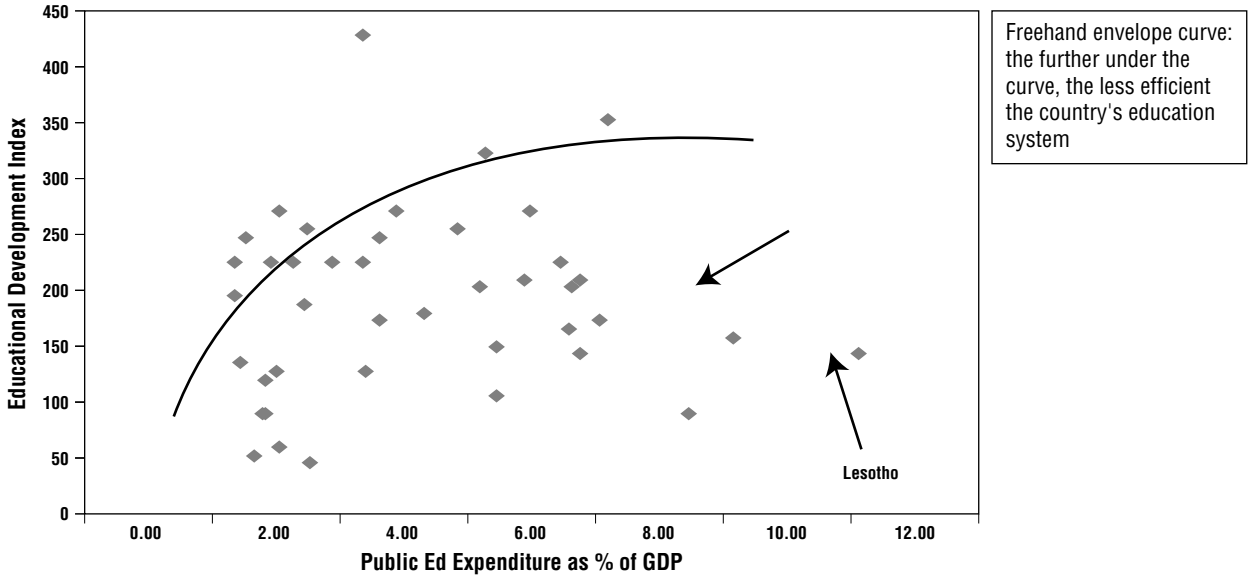
Using the information on total public expenditures on education and student enrollment, it is possible to calculate government recurrent expenditure per pupil for each level of education, and to track its evolution since 1998. Table 3.15 displays per-student government recurrent expenditure, ratios of expenditures to GDP per capita, and ratios to primary expenditure per pupil.

Primary expenditure per student rose nominally from M514 in 1998/99 to M879 in 2004/05, despite a decline when FPE was first implemented and the enrollment suddenly increased. However, as a proportion of GDP per capita, the level of public expenditure per primary student remained fairly constant at about 17% of GDP per capita in 2004. It is commendable that the government of Lesotho has managed to maintain its level of investment in primary education to keep up with the increased enrollment and economic growth.

Secondary expenditure per student also rose nominally during the period, though at a slower rate. It increased nominally from 1600 to 1993 maloti per student. As a proportion of GDP per capita, however, secondary recurrent expenditure per student actually declined from 56% in 1998/99 to only 41% in 2004/05.

Compared to other levels, expenditure per TVET student experienced more fluctuation.

Figure 3.6
Educational Development and Public Spending as % of GDP



Source: World Bank (Namibia Education Report, 2004)

Table 3.15
Government Recurrent Expenditure Per Student

	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05
Public Recurrent Exp. Per Student (Maloti)							
Primary	514	513	539	488	1,019	747	879
Secondary	1,600	1,560	1,731	1,739	1,773	2,093	2,088
TVET	16,037	15,041	16,729	7,720	9,419	11,807	13,307
LCE	13,080	14,162	16,186	16,416	9,520	10,483	9,243
NUL	47,547	45,311	43,284	45,928	39,478	N/A	28,240
Students at SA Universities/Technical				36,523			
Ratio to GDP Per Capita							
Primary	0.18	0.16	0.16	0.13	0.25	0.16	0.18
Secondary	0.56	0.48	0.50	0.47	0.43	0.46	0.43
TVET	5.57	4.68	4.88	2.07	2.27	2.60	2.72
LCE	4.55	4.40	4.72	4.40	2.30	2.30	1.89
NUL	16.52	14.09	12.63	12.31	9.53	N/A	5.77
Students at SA Universities/Technical				8.03			
Ratio to Expenditure Per Primary Student							
Primary	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Secondary	3	3	3	4	2	3	2
TVET	31	29	31	16	9	16	15
LCE	25	28	30	34	9	14	11
NUL	93	88	80	94	39	N/A	32
Students at SA Universities/Technical				49			

There was a substantial decrease in 2001/02 and 2002/03 because NMDS bursaries for TVET students were reduced. As a share of GDP per capita, investment in TVET per student declined from 5.6 to 2.6 times GDP per capita.

Public expenditures per student for those at the Lesotho College of Education and the National University declined nominally during the same period, due primarily to increases in enrollment. In 1998/99, it cost the government Maloti 13,080 every year to educate one student at LCE. By 2004/05, the cost declined to Maloti 9243 per student. The annual figures per student for the NUL dropped substantially: from Maloti 47,547 in 1998/99, to about Maloti 28,240 in 2004/05. In terms of share of the GDP per capita, expenditure per LCE student declined from 4.6 times to 1.9 times GDP per capita, and per NUL student, expenditure declined from more than 16 times to about 6 times GDP per capita.

However, when compared to other levels, the government still spends far less per student in primary education, indicating an enormous imbalance in its financial support. In 1998/99, compared to one primary school student, the government spent three times as much on a secondary school student, about 31 times as much on

a TVET student, 25 times as much on a LCE student, and 94 times as much on an NUL student.

The situation has improved slightly since then. By 2004/05, compared to a primary student, the government spent twice as much on a student in secondary school, and the multipliers for the tertiary level also fell: 15 times as much for the TVET student, 11 for one in LCE, and 35 for one in NUL.

How does Lesotho compare to other countries and regions in terms of public expenditure per student by level? While Lesotho's level of expenditure per primary student is not that different from educational systems in other neighboring countries and even other world regions, its levels of expenditure for secondary and tertiary are very high compared to other countries. As Table 3.16 shows, in 2001, the government spent more than 12 times the GDP per capita for every student enrolled in the National University, compared to only 56% of the GDP in South Africa, 88% in Botswana, and about 2.5 times GDP in both Swaziland and Kenya.

F. Private Expenditures on Education

In this section, we examine the level of private expenditure that Lesotho households incur for primary schooling and how this level has evolved over time, especially after FPE was introduced in 1999. The information used for analysis comes from the annual school census. Many types of fees must be considered, including registration fees, book fees, and fees for uniforms, meals, buildings, exams, and salaries for private teachers who are hired and paid by schools.

Primary Education

The most important finding from the fee analysis is the dramatic reduction in the proportion of schools charging fees since Free Primary Education was introduced. FPE abolished school fees for Standard 1 in 2000. At that time, an additional class was added each year, so that in 2001 no fees were charged in Standards 1 and 2; in 2002, none in Standards 1, 2, and 3; and in 2003, none in Standards 1, 2, 3, and 4. In 1999, almost half of the schools in Lesotho were charging registration fees for Standard 1, and more than 90% were charging for textbooks and other items. By 2003, only 3.3% of schools (including private schools) were still charging registration fees, with 2.3% charging book fees, and 11% charging other fees.

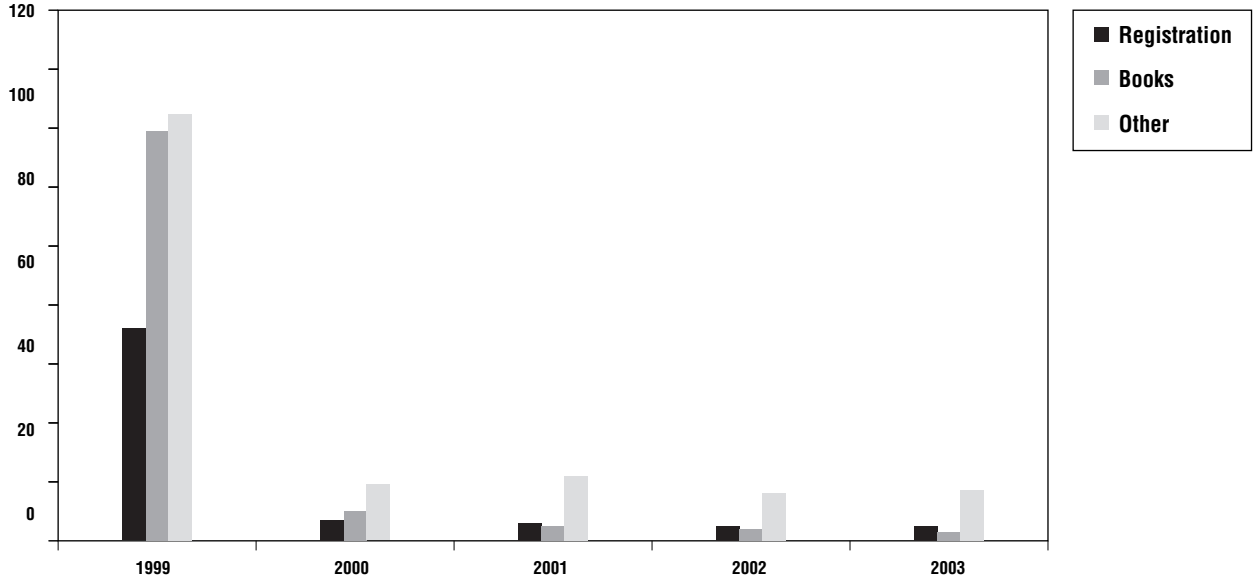
A second, related finding is surprising: although FPE stipulates that all fees charged to primary students should be abolished and no children should be denied schooling because of inability to pay, a fraction of schools still charge fees. These include government, community, and church-owned schools (see Figure 3.7). The situation seems to be the worst in the so-called "community" schools.

As of 2003, a total of 3.3% of schools continued to charge registration fees for Standard 1. This included about 24% of community

Table 3.16
Public Expenditures Per Student as % of GDP Per Capita in 2001

	Lesotho	South Africa	Botswana	Swaziland	Kenya	East Asia & Pacific	Latin America & Caribbean	South Asia
Primary	13	14.3	6	10.4	0.9	5.7	13.1	8.7
Secondary	47	18.3	5.5	29.7	2.2	10.4		10.4
Tertiary	1200	56.8	88.6	253.2	256.7		44.9	60.4

Figure 3.7
Proportion of Schools Charging Fees for Standard 1



schools and 5% of government schools, as shown in Figure 3.8. Church-owned schools, on the other hand, seem to be abiding more closely by the FPE rules: under 2% were still charging a registration fee. Indeed, the African Methodist Episcopal Church has abolished registration fees in all its schools. Of course, we expected to see 100% of private schools continue to charge fees before and after FPE was implemented.

Figure 3.8
% of Schools Charging Registration Fees by Type

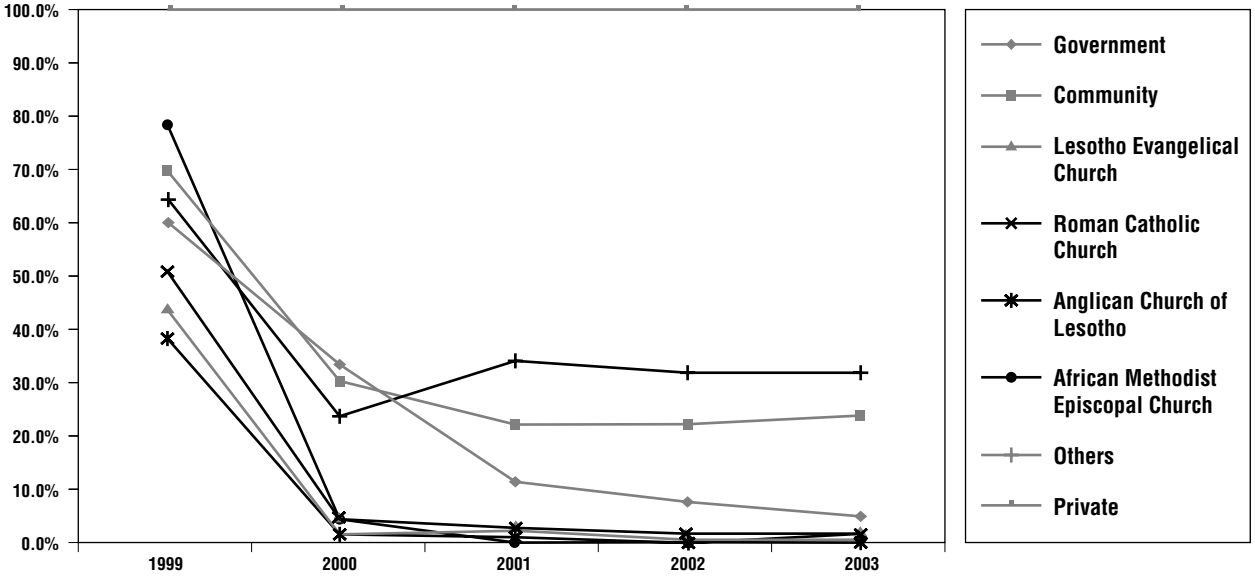
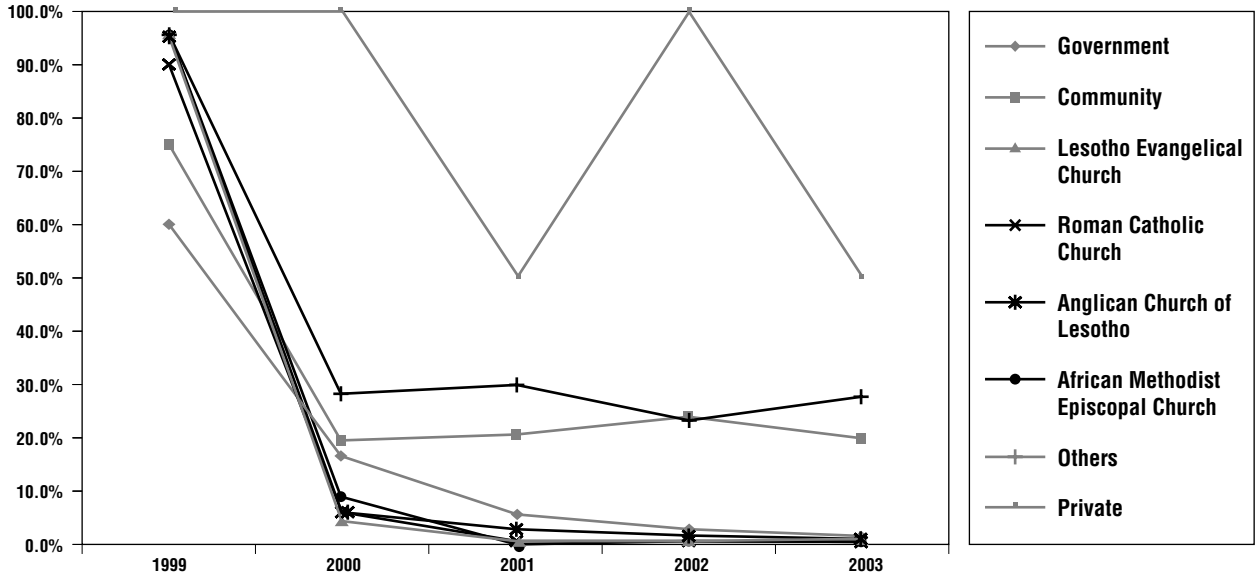


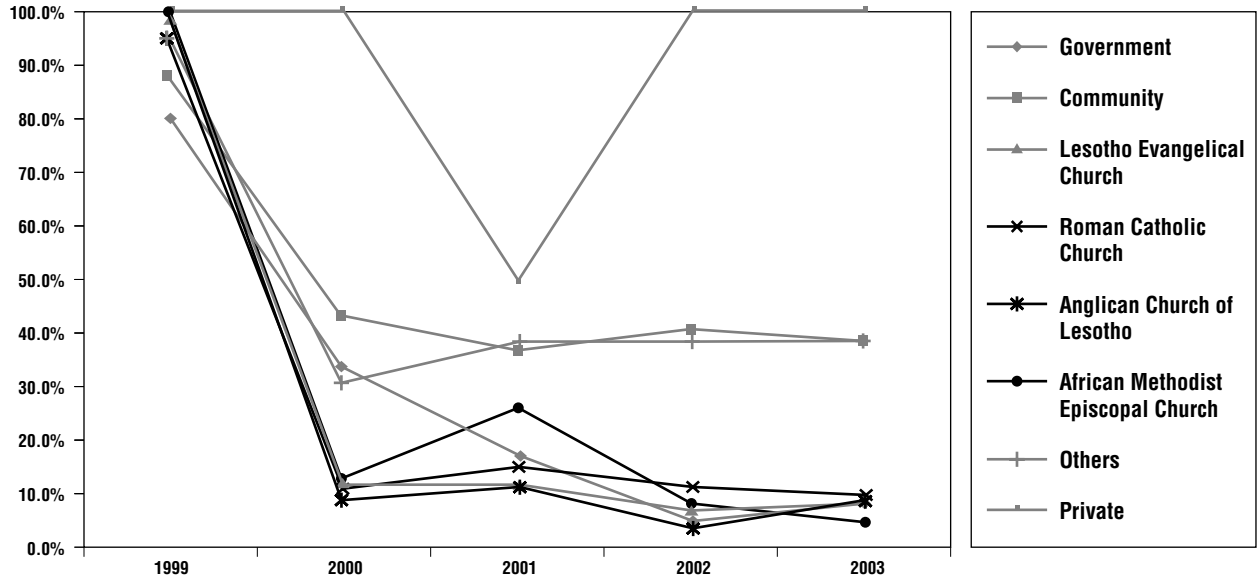
Figure 3.9
% of Schools Charging Book Fees for Standard 1 by Type



A similar pattern can be observed with regard to book fees for Standard 1 (see Figure 3.9). Overall only 2.3% of all primary schools in Lesotho were still charging book fees in 2003, but again, this figure included 20% of community schools and 1.7% of government schools. Again, the church schools seemed more responsive, with under 1% charging book fees in 2003.

For the payment of other fees—uniforms, meals, buildings, exams, and tutors—the pat-

Figure 3.10
% of Schools Charging Other Fees by Type



tern is slightly different. Overall about 10% of all primary schools in Lesotho were continuing to charge "other fees" after FPE, with the situation again the worst in community schools. Almost 40% of community schools and 8% of government schools continued to charge other fees after FPE was implemented, along with about 10% of Roman Catholic schools, 8% of Evangelical Church schools, and 4% of African Methodist Episcopal Church schools.

Average Amount of Fees

Among those schools that do still charge various fees, the amounts charged in each grade exhibit a very interesting pattern in the context of FPE. As the FPE was rolled out to a particular grade, the proportion of schools charging fees declined sharply. Among those schools that continue to charge fees, however, the average total fees charged per student increased for that particular grade. For example, in 2000 when fees for Standard 1 were supposed to be abolished, average fees for Standard 1 increased from Maloti 119 to 340, and jumped further to more than 1000 Maloti in 2001. The most striking situation occurred in 2002 when the fees for Standard 3 were supposed to be abolished, but average fees for Standard 3 jumped to over Maloti 1000!

Further, starting from 2003, the fees for Standards 1, 2, and 3 started to fall to between Maloti 400 and 500, still much higher than in pre-FPE times. Compared to the GNI per capita of US $550 in 2002, families who had to pay fees for their children in Standards 1, 2, or 3 were paying an average of 15% of their total household income for each child. And the burden is heavier for poorer households.

These data present a puzzle: why is a higher proportion of government and community schools charging fees, compared to church schools? Furthermore, among the schools that continue to charge fees since FPE, why do the community and government schools charge substantially higher fees than the church-owned or even the private schools?

To estimate the total primary fee revenue as a share of total public spending on primary education, we can aggregate the total private expen-

Figure 3.11
Average Fees by Standard 1999 to 2003 (among the schools still charging)

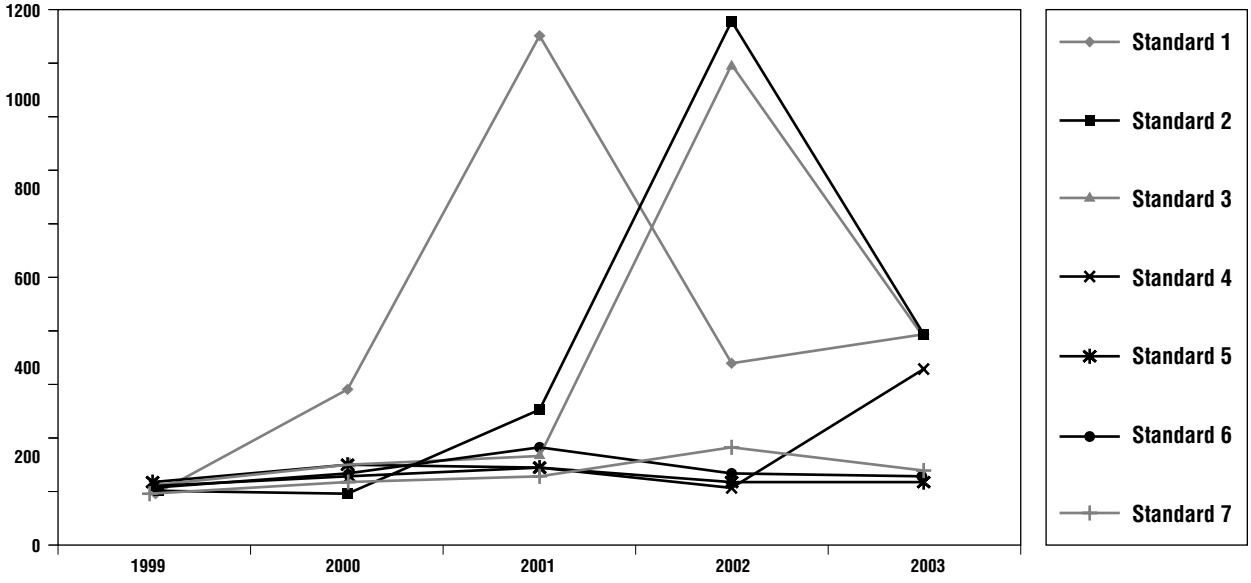
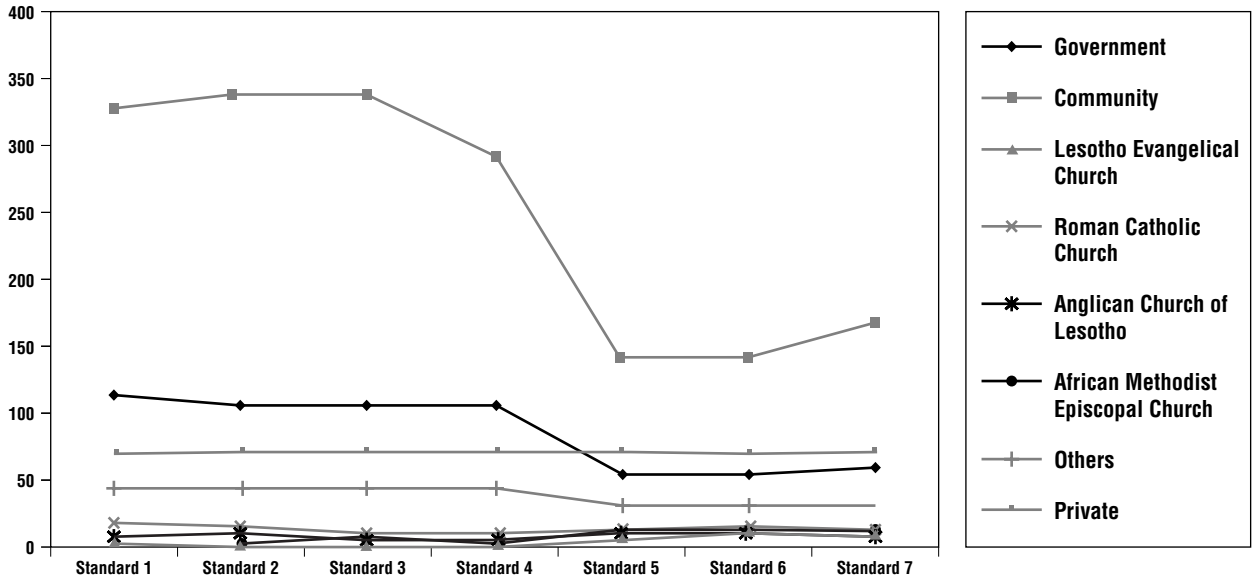


Figure 3.12
Average Registration Fees among Schools that Charged such Fees in 2003



diture on primary education among those schools that continue to charge various fees. The aggregate amount for 2003 is Maloti 44.3 million. For 2003, total primary recurrent spending was Maloti 312.2 million and total recurrent expenditure on education was Maloti 874.5million. Comparing the maloti 44.3 million to these figures, we conclude that private expenditures account for about 13.7% of total primary spending and 5% of total education spending.

Figure 3.13
Average Book Fees among Schools that Charged Book Fees in 2003

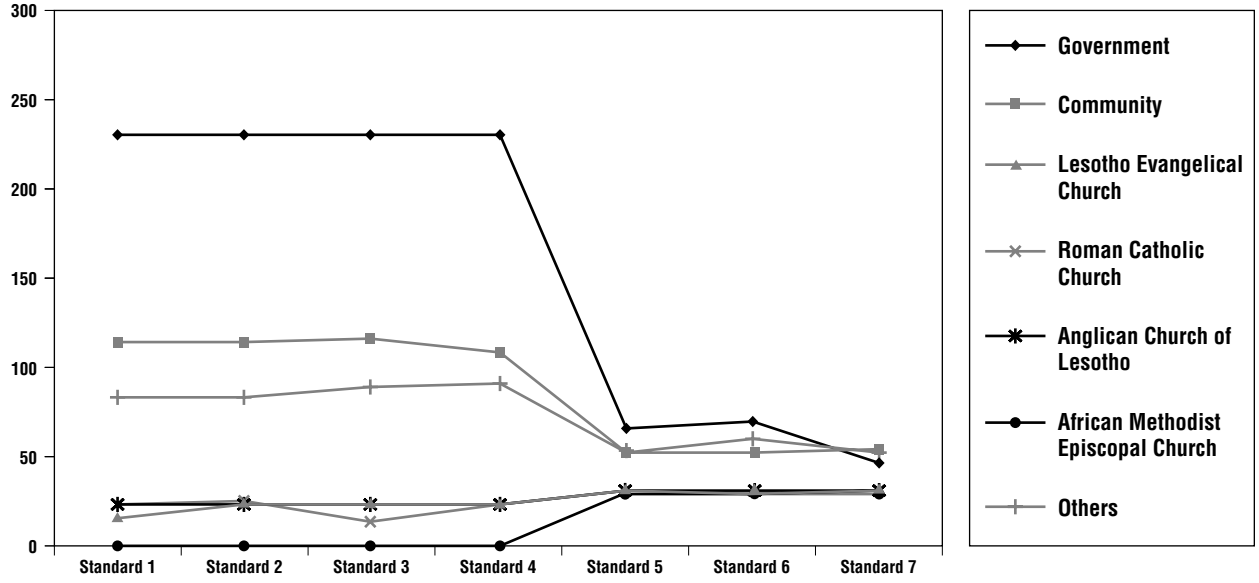
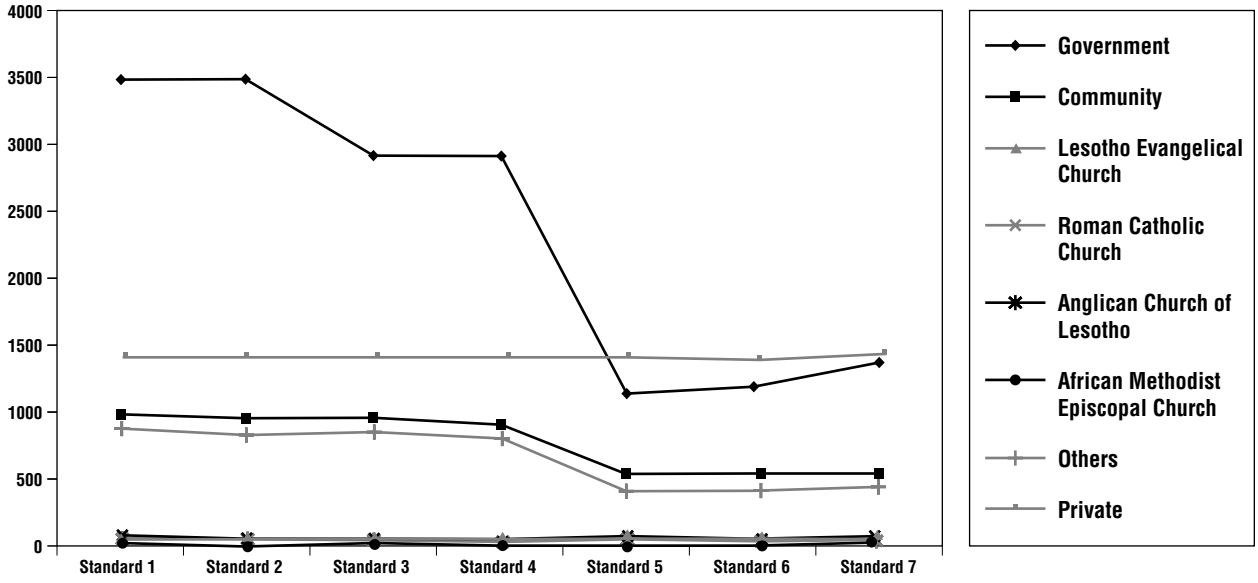


Figure 3.14
Average Other Fees among Schools that Charged Other Fees in 2003



Secondary Education

Nearly every secondary school in Lesotho charges some fees. At Lesotho High School, fees flow back into the government as revenue; otherwise secondary schools retain the fee revenue and use it at the school level. About two years ago, the MOET attempted to introduce some regulations by commissioning a study "rationalizing secondary school fees." But the attempt failed. Fees charged in secondary schools constitute a significant obstacle to secondary coverage.

Fees in secondary education can be categorized into meals, lodging, and other. Other fees include registration fees, government tuition, sports, library, and other categories of tuition, textbooks, uniforms, and maintenance and building funds. Almost three quarters of Lesotho secondary schools charge meal fees. Though they vary by school management type, the average meals fee nationwide is between 500 maloti and 600 maloti per student per year (see Table 3.17). About one third of Basotho secondary schools are boarding schools which charge lodging fees. The average lodging fees are the same for all grades but vary according to school management type. On average, Roman Catholic schools charge the highest lodging fees at M1095, while LEC schools tend to charge the lowest at only M338.

In addition, almost all schools charge other fees in amounts that vary both by grade and by school management type, but average between 773 maloti and 999 maloti (see Table 3.18). They seem to be highest in community and private schools, and lowest in LEC schools.

As was true for primary fees, we can estimate total secondary fee revenue as a share of total public spending on secondary education by aggregating the total private expenditure on secondary education. The obtained aggregate amount for 2003 is Maloti 118.6 million (meals, Maloti 33.8 million; lodging, Maloti 7.8 million; and other, Maloti 77 million). When we relate this figure to the total secondary recurrent spending of Maloti 173.9 million and total recurrent expenditure of Maloti 874.5 million, we conclude that private expenditures account for about 68% of total secondary spending and

Table 3.17
Average Fees for Meals and Lodging at Secondary Level

	2003 # of Schools	School Meals Amount	Lodging # of Schools	Amount
Government	5	310	0	
Community	4	404	1	730
Lesotho Evangelical Church	63	530	11	338
Roman Catholic Church	64	756	15	1095
Anglican Church of Lesotho	24	400	4	531
African Methodist Episcopal Church	1	200		
Others	8	762	2	350
Total	169	597	33	718

13.5% of total education spending, two figures that are very significant.

G. Chapter Summary

The government is starting to implement a three-year Medium Term Budget and Expenditure Framework in an attempt to link its priorities with budgets and expenditures in a way that improves predictability for all sectors. In practice, however, the relationship between the Poverty Reduction Strategy priorities and budget allocations needs to be much improved.

Lesotho's government spends an average of 12% of its GDP on the education sector, including the allocations to both MOET and NMDS. Though this level of expenditure is very high compared to other countries, it has not resulted in corresponding results in outcome. A very straightforward way to assess efficiency is to calculate the ratio between coverage (the index of educational development) and spending; the figure obtained for Lesotho is 1.6 (19/12). Com-

Table 3.18
Average Secondary "Other" Fees by Grade

	Form A	Form B	Form C	Form D	Form E
Government	1010	923	883	1081	918
Community	1337	1295	1335	1930	2025
LEC	709	677	678	748	754
RCM	951	791	717	991	1071
ACL	883	811	787	905	924
AME	844	828	836	850	850
Others	1184	1101	1061	1361	1266
Private	1415	1230	1230		
Total	896	806	773	974	999

pared to neighboring countries, Lesotho's level of efficiency is quite low: the comparable figures are 4.2 in Botswana, 8.3 in Mauritius, 4.7 in South Africa, and 3.3 in Zimbabwe. From an international perspective, Lesotho's level of efficiency is very low compared to South Korea (15.2), Malaysia (8.0), Argentina (13.7), Chile (11.3), and Brazil (9.0).

What is very worrisome is that Lesotho's distribution of expenditures by level of education greatly favors higher education. Although nominal expenditures for primary and secondary education have increased substantially since FPE was introduced, the combined share of expenditures on primary and secondary education actually fell from 59% in 1998/99 to only 54% in 2004/05. Meanwhile, the share for higher education rose from 30% to 38.7%. Since a substantial proportion of the expenditures on higher education went for bursaries, which are administered by the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning rather than MOET, it is difficult to monitor the total expenditures on higher education and no one is really accountable for the expensive higher education.

In per pupil terms, far less is still spent on each primary student than on those at higher levels, indicating an enormous skew in the government's financial support. In 1998/99, compared to a primary student, the government spent three times as much on a secondary school student; about 31 times as much on a TVET student; 25 times as much on a LCE student, and 94 times as much on an NUL student. The situation has improved slightly since then. By 2004/05, again taking the primary student as the unit, the multiples are 2 times as much for a secondary school student; 15 for TVET; 11 for LCE, and 35 for NUL.

The major cost drivers at the primary level are teacher salaries which average five times the GDP per capita, and the school feeding program. The average cost for a teacher in Anglophone countries is 4.3 times the GDP per capita, compared to 5 in Lesotho. The nation's primary level pupil-teacher ratio of 47:1 is reasonable compared to those in other countries. The average primary teacher pay, including allowances, is 1.5 times the average for other public and private employees with similar educational qualifications.

For secondary education, the very high average teacher salary combined with the low pupil-teacher ratio means that the total teacher wage bill consumes almost 90% of the total secondary recurrent budget. The other significant cost items are secondary bursaries and subventions to government secondary schools. It is important that these programs be examined very carefully to ensure that the MOET targets the right population, gets the most value for its money, and ensures equity among all schools. At the very minimum, schools receiving government subventions should account properly for the funds, not just in financial terms but also in terms of student learning results. Transparent criteria for determining subventions are also needed. The provision of lower secondary textbooks also needs to be closely monitored: the government recently changed its policy on the textbook rental program to include core and non-core subjects, an expensive change that may make the program unsustainable in the long run.

Within the MOET, public expenditures on education are centrally managed. All teachers are paid directly by the Teacher Service Department, except for a few true private schools. In primary education for those grades covered by FPE (all grades will be covered by 2006), other school inputs including textbooks and stationery, school meals, and even school maintenance are procured centrally. This leads to great inefficiency in the delivery of these services and also forces inspectors to spend valuable time doing paperwork instead of monitoring the teaching and learning in the classrooms. At both the primary and secondary level, the MOET is also providing grants and subventions to government and community schools for special projects. The government intends to channel funds directly to schools to cover school maintenance and may even include some discretionary expenditure at the school

level. However, the ministry's lack of strong financial management and accountability remains a constraint. Improvement in school-level management will be key to improved efficiency in the sector and should be a priority.

An interesting finding related to private expenditure on education is that compliance with FPE is neither automatic nor complete. On average, 3% of primary schools continue to charge registration fees, 2% continue to charge book fees, and 10% continue to charge other fees in FPE grades. The compliance is poorer among community schools. Also interesting is the finding that among the schools that continue to charge them, fees increased during the first two years of FPE implementation.

Even after implementation, total primary fee revenue represents a significant share of total public spending on primary education. We estimated the amount by aggregating the total private expenditure on primary education among schools which continue to charge various fees; for 2003 the figure is Maloti 44.3 million. When we relate this figure to total primary recurrent spending of Maloti 312.2 million and total education recurrent of Maloti 874.5 million, we conclude that private expenditures account for about 13.7% of total primary spending and 5% of total education spending.

In contrast, Lesotho's secondary schools are allowed to charge many kinds of fees. Almost three quarters of them charge meals fees which average between 500 maloti and 600 Maloti per student per year. The nation's boarding schools, about a third of the secondary schools, charge lodging fees that average M718 annually. The other fees charged by secondary schools vary both by grade and by school type, but average between 773 and 999 maloti, and seem to be highest in community and private schools and lowest in LEC schools.

Private expenditures are very significant at the secondary level. Comparing the total of Maloti 118.6 million to total secondary recurrent spending of Maloti 173.9 million and total education recurrent of Maloti 874.5million, we see that private expenditures account for about 68% of total secondary spending and 13.5% of total education spending.

Unfortunately data is not available on the private expenditure for higher education students, although private expenditures may be minimal given that a high proportion of students enjoy full scholarships from NMDS.

H. Areas for Further Policy Development

The following areas can be considered for further policy development from the above analysis.

1. Lesotho must reduce its overall expenditure on higher education. It must begin with a dialogue on NMDS and monitor its expenditures as part of the overall spending on education.
2. GOL must make efforts to clarify the mission and objectives of NMDS, strengthen its management, and increase loan recovery rate.
3. The salary structure for teachers should be reviewed, especially that of secondary teachers. Salaries for lower secondary teachers should be brought more in line with those of primary teachers, especially in the context of basic education.
4. Financing of non-salary expenditures in primary education could be reviewed so that the government moves from primarily input-based financing to capitation grants with strengthened school-level management and accountability.
5. The various bursary and school feeding programs must be harmonized to make them more efficient and cost-effective.
6. Capacity building at the school level is crucial, and would be in line with the government's overall decentralization. It is conceivable that MOET could start transferring funds directly to those schools that have some minimum capacity, but they need clear guidelines. Another issue is transparency in

the use of school fees and other funding to schools: the ministry must establish a strong financial management system with strict regulations and enforcement agencies. Special auditors should be put in place to monitor the use of funds and advise the ministry regularly.

7. The financing of secondary education must be discussed in a public forum. There is room to increase the pupil-teacher ratio from 26:1 to 30:1. Fees at secondary schools constitute the largest constraint to enrollment. The ministry must develop a clear and sustainable policy on fees. By making better use of both fees and subventions in government schools, the ministry could move toward rationalizing school fees in Lesotho in general. Equity and accountability should be the ultimate concern for public spending on secondary education.
8. A thorough review of the curriculum is another priority. This is important both for the provision of teachers and textbooks under the textbook rental program.
9. Finally, it is necessary to distinguish between schools that are truly public and private, and to establish a clear and separate strategy for the financing of the two types of schools at both the primary and secondary levels. For example, if the government indeed starts the capitation grant, should it be provided to private schools as well, and if so, how much?

CHAPTER 4

Disparities in Enrollments, Student Flow, and Benefit Incidence of Public Spending

Chapter 2 briefly documents the performance of Lesotho's education system in aggregate terms, without distinguishing outcomes across different population groups. The purpose of this chapter is to focus on disparities in education, particularly as they pertain to these issues: the participation of primary school age children in school and student flow patterns throughout the primary cycle including promotion, repetition and dropout. For each of these topics, we first address descriptive questions: in which segments of society are children less likely to attend school? How have disparities in school attendance evolved since the implementation of Free Primary Education (FPE)? And, how does the performance of Lesotho's educational system appear in comparisons cross-nationally and over time? Following that discussion, we focus on those factors that determine children's school participation and progression through the school system, using a framework which includes both demand and supply-side factors. Finally, we also analyze the disparity in access to public spending among the five income groups by using benefit incidence analysis.

We use the following data sources in investigating these issues: the 2000 Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS); and the 2002 Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire (CWIQ). These are the most up-to-date household and educational data available for Lesotho. Although they do suffer from some inevitable gaps, on the whole, they are of reasonable quality and provide the crucial documentation on educational trends that are needed for educational policy development.

A. Disparities in Enrollment Ratios

By Gender

The concept of "gender equity" takes on a new meaning in Lesotho. In most other developing countries, boys usually have higher enrollment ratios than girls. However, in Lesotho, the enrollment ratio, regardless of how it is measured, is higher for girls than boys in both primary and secondary schools. Figures 4.1 and 4.2 illustrate this gender gap in gross enrollment and net enrollment ratios for both primary and secondary schools between 1996 and 2003. Enrollment ratios of boys lag consistently behind those of girls. However, the gap seems to have narrowed since 1999. Since the gross enrollment ratios are measured by dividing the actual enrollment over the primary school age population (ages 6-12), it is possible that they exceed 100% sometimes.

Figure 4.1
Primary Enrollment Ratios by Gender

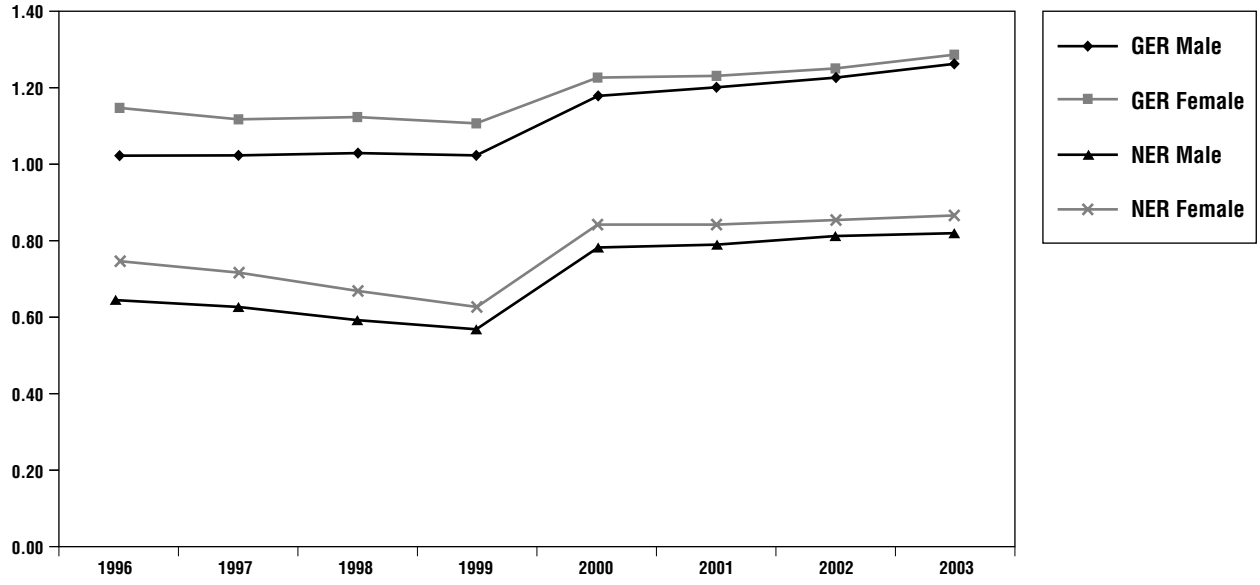
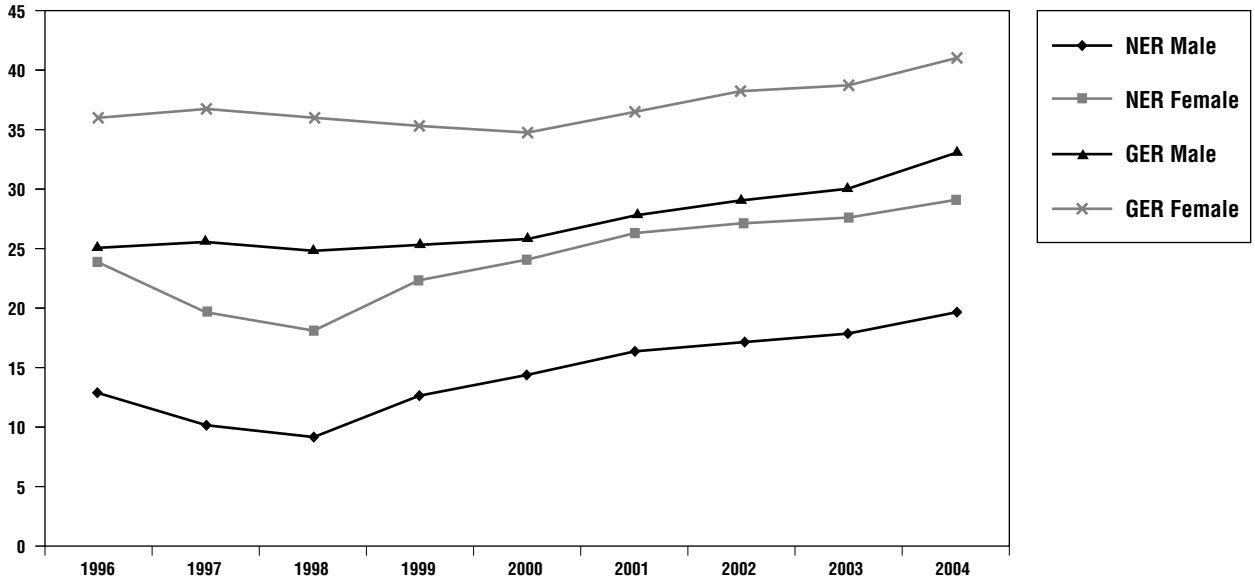
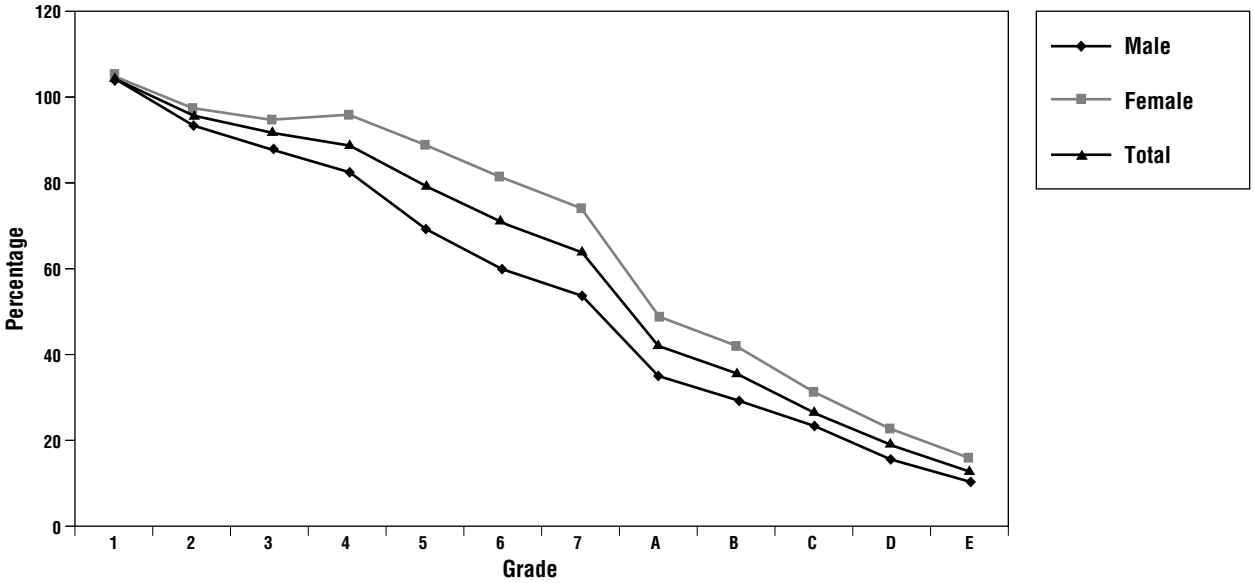


Figure 4.2
Secondary Enrollment Ratios by Gender (Forms A through E)



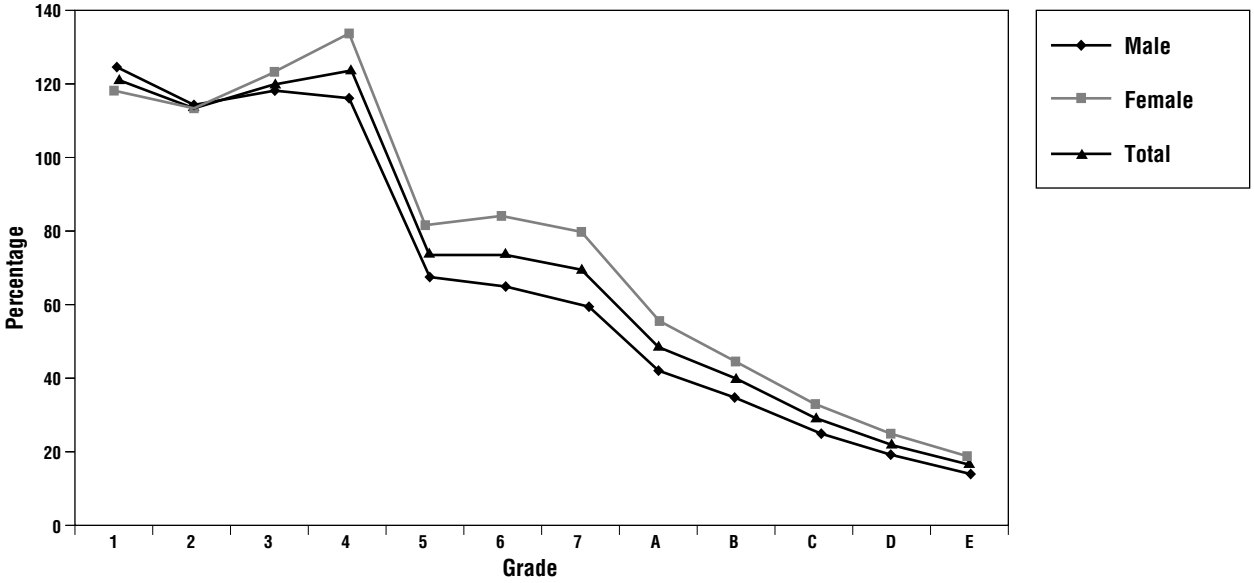
Figures 4.3 and 4.4 illustrate the grade-specific enrollment ratios by gender for 1999 and 2003, respectively. The grade-specific enrollment ratios (GSER) are measured by dividing the total enrollment of a specific grade by the population of children of that age. For example, the GSER for Standard 1 would be derived by dividing the total Standard 1 enrollment by the population of age 6. Again, it is possible for the GSERs to exceed 100%. For Lesotho, the overall trend of grade-specific enrollment in grades Standard 1 through Form E is a declining one.

Figure 4.3
Grade-Specific Enrollment Rates in Primary/Secondary Education, 1999



Source: School census and projected population

Figure 4.4
Grade-Specific Enrollment Rates in Primary/Secondary Education, 2003



Source: School census and projected population

Girls are enrolled at higher rates at all grades than are boys.

This trend reflects the reality that boys tend to drop out of school, especially after completing Standard 3, in order to engage in herding at home. Formerly, the economy of Lesotho was dependent on remittances from migrant workers in the gold mines of the Republic of South

Table 4.1
Grade-Specific Enrollment Rate by District in Primary Cycle, 2003

	G1	G2	G3	G4	G5	G6	G7
Butha Buthe	112	120	137	145	89	84	76
Leribe	112	106	115	123	77	76	73
Berea	107	104	117	122	70	72	66
Maseru	122	113	123	131	83	84	80
Mafeteng	118	114	115	122	70	71	69
Mohale's Hoek	126	118	122	128	74	68	68
Quthing	122	112	111	119	62	63	54
Qacha's Neck	138	135	128	128	74	72	68
Mokhotlong	152	126	126	118	71	73	63
Thaba Tseka	146	125	117	109	61	64	53

Source: School census and World Bank projected population

Africa. This was the most remunerative work for boys. Since work in gold mines did not require much education, boys were expected to engage in herding until they were old enough to work in the gold mines.

Comparing the grade-specific enrollments of 1999 and 2003, we see that the GSERs for Standards 1 to 4 are substantially higher in 2003 than those of 1999, most likely as a result of the introduction of Free Primary Education (FPE) in 2000. During the same time period, grade-specific enrollment has not improved from Standard 5 to Form E, which is not yet supported by FPE.

By District

Table 4.1 presents the grade-specific enrollment rates (GSER) of the primary school cycle by district in 2003.[7] While comparing by district provides important insights to the disparity, it should be noted that using the district as the geographical unit attenuates variations within districts, which may be quite significant, as will be noted in Chapter 5.

The overall trend shows that the GSER exceeded 100% in the first four grades; however, the GSER declined in Standard s 5, 6 and 7. Further, regional disparities in GSER are clearly visible: by the end of the primary cycle the GSER was around 80% in the districts of Maseru and Butha Buthe, but much lower in Thaba Tseka (53%) and Quthing (54%).

When we examine the GSER in the secondary cycle by district (Table 4.2), the magnitude of the disparity is much larger than that of primary education. The GSER in the entry grade of the secondary cycle (Form A) was around 60% in the districts of Butha-Buthe, Leribe, and Maseru. However, it was much lower in mountainous areas such as Thaba-Tseka (20%) and Mokhotling (35%). The GSER in all districts declined continuously from the beginning to the end of the secondary cycle, where it hovered at only around 20%. By the final grade (Form E), the GSERs in Butha-Buthe (22%) and Maseru (22%) were among the two highest recorded;

[7] School-aged population by district is estimated by the author. As soon as the revised projection at the district level is available, the district level analysis will be updated.

Table 4.2
Grade-Specific Enrollment Rate by District in Secondary Cycle

	A	B	C	D	E
Butha-Buthe	62	51	35	30	22
Leribe	57	48	33	27	18
Berea	39	32	24	17	13
Maseru	62	50	38	29	23
Mafeteng	52	42	32	23	18
Mohale's Hoek	38	29	21	17	13
Quthing	39	33	21	17	12
Qacha's Neck	53	42	34	22	17
Mokhotlong	35	32	21	16	9
Thaba-Tseka	20	18	11	6	4

Source: School census and World Bank projected population

the GSERs in Form E in districts like Mokhotlong (9%) and Thaba-Tseka (4% percent) were extremely low.

B. Non-Participation Among Primary School Age Children

Another measure of school participation is the proportion of children who have never attended school. This section gives an overview of the risk of non-participation in schooling among 6–14 year-old children. After discussing the incidence of non-participation and its trend over time, we focus on the demand and supply-side factors which may influence the probability of never attending school.

The empirical evidence discussed below is based on data from the 2000 MICS, the 2002 CWIQ and the 2000 primary school census. Each of these surveys contributes distinctive kinds of information. In addition to the data about school registration, the MICS provides detailed information on the grades children are attending in two consecutive school years. The CWIQ contains less complete information about school attendance; however it has the advantage of supplying information on the distance to the nearest primary school. By comparing the same indicators for 2000 and 2002 we were able to better understand the impact of FPE on these indicators.

Socio-economic Disparities over the 2000–2002 Period

Table 4.3 summarizes the socio-economic disparities in school participation for children between the ages of 6–14 over the period of 2000–2002. We begin by examining the state of children's school participation in 2002 and then discuss the trends over time.

In 2002, 10% of the children in Lesotho aged 6–14 had never attended school. This overall percentage masks wide gender differences: while13% of boys in this age group did not attend school, only 7% percent of girls did not. An even more striking disparity exists between districts. For example, 20% of the children in Quthing and Taba Tseka never attended school as compared to only 5% in Leribe and around 7% in Berea and Maseru.

Table 4.3
Children Between 6 and 14 Years Old Who Have Never Been to School, Lesotho 2000 and 2002 (Percentage)

	2000	2002	Difference	Differences with Respect to the Lowest Value in Each Category	
	(1)	(2)	(2)–(1)	2000	2002
Lesotho	10.6	10.1	–0.5	—	—
Gender					
Boys	13.6	13.3	–0.3	6.0*	6.3*
Girls	7.6	7.0	–0.6	0	0
Income group					
Poorest	20.4	17.4	–3.0*	15.8*	10.8*
Second	13.3	12.5	–0.8	8.7*	5.9*
Middle	9.5	8.3	–1.2	4.9*	1.7*
Fourth	5.8	5.4	–0.4	1.2	–1.2
Richest	4.6	6.6	2.0*	0.0	0.0
Area					
Urban	6.8	5.1	–1.7*	0	0
Rural	11.5	11.4	–0.1	4.7*	6.3*
District					
Butha Buthe	6.3	7.8	1.5	11.8*	4.1*
Leribe	6.6	5.2	–1.4	11.5*	6.7*
Berea	8.3	7.0	–1.3	9.8*	4.9*
Maseru	9.9	7.5	–2.4*	8.2*	4.4*
Mafeteng	8.4	8.2	–0.2	9.7*	3.7*
Mohale Hoek	11.6	14.5	2.9*	6.5*	–2.6*
Quthing	16.6	20.0	3.4*	1.5	–8.1*
Qacha's Nek	10.5	12.9	2.4*	7.6*	–1.0
Mokhotlong	18.1	11.9	–6.2*	0.0	0.0
Thaba Tseka	17.5	19.1	1.6	0.6	–7.2*

* = difference statistically significant at 5%.

Source: Author's calculation based on the 2000 MICS survey and the 2002 CWIQ survey

Socioeconomic differences reflected in school attendance are also large. The gap in the school participation rate in 2002 was around 10 percentage points between children from the poorest income quintile and those who belong to the richest families. Although the prevalence of orphanhood is large in Lesotho—16% of children below the age of 15 have lost one or both parents (see Annex 4.1)—results in Table 4.5 indicate that orphanhood did not prevent children from going to school. In 2000, the latest year for which information on orphans is available,

Table 4.4
Children Who Have Never Been to School by Age and Income Groups, Lesotho 2000–2002 (Percentage)

	2000 6–8 years	2002 9–14 years	Total	6–8 years	9–14 years	Total	Age of New Entrants in Standard 1 (in years) 2000	2002	Decrease (%)
Income Group									
Poorest	29.6	15.5	20.4	28.7	10.7	17.4	9.1	7.6	16.5
Second	23.6	8.6	13.3	19.6	8.9	12.5	8.8	7.2	18.2
Middle	18.6	5.7	9.5	16.1	4.6	8.3	8.7	7.3	16.1
Fourth	11.9	3.2	5.8	13.6	2.1	5.4	8.5	7.1	16.5
Richest	8.1	2.9	4.6	16.0	1.5	6.6	8	7	12.5
Total	18.2	7.0	10.6	19.0	5.7	10.1	8.6	7.3	15.1

Source: Author's calculation based on the 2000 MICS survey and the 2002 CWIQ survey.

10.6% of children who had lost at least one parent had never attended school as compared with10.4% of children with both parents alive. The difference is negligible and not significant statistically.

Did the implementation of the FPE in 2000 help reduce the socioeconomic disparities in schooling investments and attract out-of-school children to school? Although it is probably too early to answer this question conclusively, reviewing the patterns of school participation over the period 2000–2002 provides some insights.

As Table 4.3 illustrates, the percentage of pupils who never attended school remained practically unchanged during the first three years of the implementation of the FPE. Over this period, neither boys' nor girls' participation rates in school made significant progress. However, there was progress in narrowing the attendance disparity between the poor and the rich. The proportion of children from 20% of the poorest families who had never attended school decreased significantly from 20% to only 17%, while interestingly, the proportion of children from the top of the income distribution appears to have deteriorated (non-participation rate increased from 4.6% to 6.6% during the same time period).

In this regard, several points are noteworthy. Among the very poor, the increase in the school participation rate was evident among the oldest children more than the youngest. As shown in Table 4.4, in 2000, 15.5% of children aged 9 to 14 from the poorest income quintile had never attended school in 2000; this figure was 11% in 2002. For children younger than 9 years, however, these percentages remained practically unchanged at 29% to 30% at both time points. By contrast, the youngest children in other socioeconomic brackets gained more than the oldest, except for those belonging to the richest quintiles. As a result, the age of new entrants into Standard 1 decreased significantly over the 2000–2002 period, from 8.6% to 7.3% on average.[8] While the decrease benefited the rich

[8] School census data also confirm that the age of new entrants in Standard 1 has diminished since 2000; see Annex 4.2.

more than the poor, the age of new entrants in Standard 1 among the children in 20% of the poorest households decreased in a non-negligible proportion too, from 9.1 years old to 7.6 years old over the same period.

With regard to geographical disparities, Table 4.3 shows that the proportion of children from urban areas who have never attended school decreased significantly from 2000 to 2002, albeit modestly. In the same period, the participation rate of children in rural areas remained unchanged at about 11%. While the school attendance situation in Maseru and Mokhotlong districts improved in 2002 (by 2.4% and 6.2% respectively), attendance in Mohale Hoek, Quthing and Qacha's Neck appeared to worsen (by 2.9%, 3.4% and 2.4 %, respectively).

The Determinants of School Participation

This section addresses the probability of never attending school for 6–14 year old children in Lesotho, using multivariate survival analysis. A first set of regression models attempts to explain the school participation in 2000 and 2002 by adjusting the probability of never attending school using child and household characteristics and location, including the distance from the nearest primary school. In a second type of specification, we include school quality variables among the determinants of school participation. Due to inconsistencies in the data, we evaluated the impact of school quality for the year 2002 only, by merging the 2002 CWIQ survey with the corresponding school census. Because matching these two datasets is somewhat problematic, our results in this model are only speculative, as we explain in more detail below.

The Probability of Having Never Been to School as a Function of Demand-side Factors.

In estimating these probabilities, we used the whole sample of children aged 6–14. We also calculated the probabilities for 3 subgroups: children aged 6–8, 9–12 and 13–14. The regression models follow a logit specification. The results for 2000 and 2002 are presented in Table 4.5 in terms of the marginal effects of the variables. Sample means are reported in Annex 4.3.

These analyses yield interesting findings on school attendance in Lesotho. The results show that, holding all other variables constant, boys were less likely to attend school than girls. The gender gap, estimated at 4.9 percentage points in 2000, decreased slightly over time and in 2002 was estimated to be 4.6 percentage points. As discussed earlier, orphans did not have a significant risk of non-participation in school as compared with non-orphans.

The education of the head of the household proved to be a significant predictor of children's school attendance. Holding all other variables constant, the children whose father/mother had a primary-school education showed a probability of attending school that was 3.8 percentage points higher than children living with an illiterate household head. The effect was even more pronounced—4.7 percentage points—for children living with a household head who had a secondary school diploma or higher. It is especially noteworthy that the education level of a child's mother or father appears to affect the child's school participation rate at a very early age. As summarized in Table 4.5, the education level of the household head played a central role when children were 6–8 years old by reducing their non-participation rate by up to 12 percentage points.[9]

Regarding household income, results show that children from poor families were more likely not to attend school. This result is consistent with the evidence presented earlier. It is important to note, however, that the effect of poverty on attendance appears to be diminishing over time. The non-participation gap between children from the bottom and the top quintiles of

[9] In 2002.

Table 4.5
Probability of Having Never Been to School Among Children Aged 6–14, Lesotho 2000–2002 [a]

	Marginal effects							
	2000				2002			
	Whole Sample	6–8 years	9–12 years	13–14 years	Whole Sample	6–8 years	9–12 years	13–14 years
Child Characteristics								
Age	–0.017***	–0.095***	–0.006**	–0.003	–0.018***	–0.111***	–0.005*	0.003
Boy (Girl)	0.049***	0.052***	0.040***	0.065***	0.046***	0.051***	0.026***	0.053***
Orphanhood Status (both parents alive)								
Mother alive-father dead	0.014	–0.007	0.022	0.013	—	—	—	—
Father alive-mother dead	–0.015	–0.028	–0.001	–0.027*	—	—	—	—
Both parents dead	0.012	–0.050	0.034	–0.003	—	—	—	—
Household Head Characteristics								
Male (female)	–0.016	–0.024	–0.025**	0.007	–0.002	–0.027	0.012*	0.003
Age (in years)	0.001***	0.002***	0.000*	0.000	0.001**	0.001*	0.000	0.000
Education (no schooling)								
Primary education	–0.034***	–0.036**	–0.038***	–0.020*	–0.038***	–0.091***	–0.015**	–0.013*
Secondary or higher education	–0.047***	–0.073***	–0.040***	–0.024**	–0.047***	–0.117***	–0.026***	–0.003
Household Income Group (poorest)								
Second	–0.027***	–0.040**	–0.020***	–0.016**	–0.011	–0.035	–0.003	–0.005
Middle	–0.039***	–0.056**	–0.032***	–0.018**	–0.024***	–0.043*	–0.015**	–0.007
Fourth	–0.059***	–0.099***	–0.044***	–0.030***	–0.038***	–0.069***	–0.027***	–0.008
Richest	–0.067***	–0.126***	–0.038***	–0.042***	–0.021*	0.006	–0.030***	–0.021*
Household Composition								
Members less than 6 years old (%)	–0.012	–0.052	–0.003	0.038	0.084***	–0.088	0.031	0.027
Members more than 14 years old (%)	–0.063***	–0.231***	–0.032	0.013	0.067***	–0.064	0.009	0.029
Distance to Nearest Primary School (<15 minutes)								
15–29 minutes	—	—	—	—	0.004	0.011	0.003	0.004
30–44 minutes	—	—	—	—	0.029**	0.075**	0.009	0.011

(*continued on next page*)

Table 4.5 (*continued*)
Probability of having never been to school among children aged 6–14, Lesotho 2000–2002 [a]

	Marginal effects							
	2000				2002			
	Whole sample	6–8 years	9–12 years	13–14 years	Whole sample	6–8 years	9–12 years	13–14 years
45–59 minutes	—	—	—	—	0.032**	0.090**	0.011	0.014
> 59 minutes	—	—	—	—	0.048***	0.079**	0.034**	0.028
Living in Rural Area (urban)	–0.005	0.004	–0.017	0.005	0.028***	0.080***	–0.001	0.020**
District (Butha-Buthe)								
Leribe	–0.005	0.003	0.002	–0.030**	–0.010	–0.025	–0.025***	–0.004
Berea	0.012	0.036	0.017	–0.024*	–0.003	–0.012	–0.016	–0.024***
Maseru	0.047*	0.138*	0.009	–0.009	–0.005	–0.017	–0.016	–0.002
Mafeteng	0.016	–0.001	0.053	–0.028**	0.000	–0.054	0.036	–0.003
Mohale Hoek	0.034	0.040	0.051	–0.016	0.049*	0.068	0.026	0.015
Quthing	0.107***	0.167**	0.083*	0.042	0.098***	0.144**	0.072*	0.004
Qacha's Neck	0.027	0.070	0.018	–0.017	0.059**	0.075	0.050	0.018
Mokhotlong	0.047	0.085	0.045	–0.002	0.024	0.016	0.017	0.025
Thaba Tseka	0.048	0.041	0.066	–0.004	0.043*	0.027	0.034	0.038
Number of Observations	6,893	2,178	3,126	1,589	5,553	1,765	2,410	1,378
Pseudo R?	0.138	0.135	0,134	0,169	0.170	0.141	0.175	0.229

[a]/ Logit model with standard errors adjusted for clustering. Dummy variables with the omitted category indicated in parentheses. Marginal effects are computed at the sample mean for continuous variables; for dummy variables, the probability derivatives indicate the change in probability as the variable is changed from 0 to 1, while holding all other variables at their means.

*= significant at 10%; **= significant at 5%; ***=significant at 1%.

Source: Author's calculation based on the 2000 MISC Survey and the 2002 CWIQ Survey.

Table 4.6
Distribution of Children by Distance to Nearest Primary School, Lesotho 2002 (Percentage)

	<15 minutes	15–29 minutes	>30 minutes 30–44 minutes	45–59 minutes	>59 minutes	Total	Total
Area							
Urban	25.3	34.9	23.9	7.6	8.4	39.8	100.0
Rural	19.2	21.4	23.0	12.9	23.5	59.4	100.0
Total	20.8	24.9	23.2	11.5	19.7	54.4	100.0
Currently Enrolled							
Urban	25.8	35.3	23.5	7.8	7.7	38.9	100.0
Rural	20.0	22.1	22.9	12.4	22.7	57.9	100.0
Total	21.6	25.8	23.0	11.1	18.4	52.5	100.0
Have Never Been to school							
Urban	24.7	19.2	24.7	6.9	24.7	56.2	100.0
Rural	13.2	17.6	23.8	15.2	30.2	69.2	100.0
Total	14.5	17.8	23.9	14.2	29.6	67.7	100.0
District							
Butha Buthe	28.6	25.8	24.9	9.8	10.9	45.6	100.0
Leribe	17.9	27.4	22.9	10.1	21.7	54.7	100.0
Berea	17.6	24.1	24.9	13.4	20.0	58.3	100.0
Maseru	22.8	25.0	17.0	9.7	25.6	52.2	100.0
Mafeteng	21.0	19.1	22.0	16.1	21.8	59.9	100.0
Mohale Hoek	8.1	23.5	32.4	8.5	27.5	68.4	100.0
Quthing	9.0	27.9	24.2	18.0	20.9	63.1	100.0
Qacha's Nek	31.6	24.8	23.6	9.7	10.2	43.5	100.0
Mokhotlong	32.3	28.0	19.8	8.4	11.6	39.8	100.0
Thaba Tseka	17.4	22.7	20.7	11.9	27.4	59.9	100.0
Total	20.8	24.9	23.2	11.5	19.7	54.4	100.0

Source: author's calculation based on the 2002 CWIQ Survey

the income distribution was estimated at 6.7 percentage points in 2000, but dropped to 2.1 percentage points in 2002.

Accessibility to school is a major determinant of school participation. In Lesotho, in 2002, 54% of children of primary school age lived at least 30 minutes from a school (see Table 4.6). In rural areas, the percentage of children living 30 minutes or more from a school rises to around 60% on average. It is noteworthy that 30% of rural children who never attended school lived at least 60 minutes away from a primary school.

Regression results in Table 4.5 also confirm that distance had a significant impact on children's school participation rate. Reducing the time needed to reach school from one hour to less than 15 minutes reduced the probability of never attending school by 3 percentage points on average and by 9 percentage points for children in the 6–8 age group. Reducing the distance to school by building more schools makes it more attractive for families to send their children to school at a younger age and probably reduces the probability that children will drop out.

The Impact of School Supply Characteristics on School Attendance

In this section, we examine the impact of school characteristics on the probability of never having attended school. The data are from the 2002 CWIQ survey and the 2002 primary school census. These datasets were matched on the basis of the enumeration area codes. The 2002 CWIQ includes 255 enumeration areas. Unfortunately however, for many primary schools in the census, enumeration area codes are unknown or incorrect. Using only the accurate enumeration codes made it possible to merge the two datasets for 122 enumeration areas. After excluding areas with no school (because we were not absolutely sure that these areas had no school) we were left with a total of 2096 children aged 6–14 in 90 enumeration areas.

Table 4.7 shows the results of the calculations conducted on the whole sample of children as well as on the sub-samples of children living within 30 minutes of a primary school and those living farther away. We estimated a logit specification with demand-side variables identical to those considered in the previous section.[10] The supply-side variables include the averages of the following variables estimated at the enumeration area level: the percentage of pupils with no seat and no desk (which is a proxy indexing the physical condition of the school), the percentage of unqualified teachers, the pupil-teacher ratio, and the percentage of schools offering an incomplete cycle of instruction.

Focusing only on the impact of the supply-side variables, the results in Table 4.7 show that among the school characteristics included in the model, only the percentage of pupils with no seat and no desk is significant. According to our results, living in an area where schools are in bad physical condition significantly discourages families from sending their children to school. The effect of this factor is quite important in the household decision of whether or not to send a child to school, when differences across households are held constant. Improving the physical conditions of the schools by 10% increases the school participation rate up to 28%. It is noteworthy that this factor matters more to families than other factors including the teacher's qualifications, pupil-teacher ratio, or the incompleteness of the cycle of instruction offered by schools in the neighborhood. Interestingly, using distance to school as a predictor in a regression model, we found that the physical conditions of the schools have a significant negative impact on the participation rate of the children who live close to the school. For those children living farther away, the distance itself is the barrier to school attendance; factors such as school physical condition, teacher qualifications, or the pupil-teacher ratio become secondary.

C. Transition of Children Through and Out of School

In this section we examine the movement of children through or out of school and the determinants of that movement. The data for these analyses come from the 2000 MICS survey pertaining to those students who registered in school in 1999. Because the MICS survey gives

[10] Location of the household is excluded because most of the enumeration areas included in the sample pertain to rural areas.

information on the students' schooling status in two consecutive years (1999 and 2000), it is possible to identify whether children enrolled in 1999 drop out, advance, or repeat in 2000. After presenting descriptive information on children's movement through school, we examine the correlation of dropping out, repetition and promotion. Because enumeration area

Table 4.7
Estimates of the Probability of Having Never Been to School, Lesotho 2002 — Children 6–14 years old[a]— With School Characteristics—

			Distance to nearest primary school			
			Less or equal to 30 minutes		More than 30 minutes	
	Whole Sample					
	Sample Average	Marginal Effect	Sample Average	Marginal Effect	Sample Average	Marginal Effect
Child Characteristics						
Age (in years)	10.12	–0.019***	10.11	–0.015***	10.13	–0.022***
Boy (girl)	50.1	0.067***	51.7	0.026***	48.3	0.116***
Household Head Characteristics						
Male (female)	67.3	0.003	66.0	0.000	68.7	0.008
Age (in years)	50.4	0.001***	49.4	0.001***	51.5	0.001
Education (no schooling)						
Primary education	55.1	–0.024**	53.8	–0.001	56.5	–0.048**
Secondary or higher education	11.0	–0.052***	15.4	–0.029***	6.0	–0.079***
Household Income Group (poorest)						
Second	24.5	–0.009	23.5	–0.022*	25.6	0.028
Middle	20.8	–0.025*	22.1	–0.008	19.3	–0.036
Fourth	14.4	–0.057***	15.5	–0.032***	13.2	–0.069***
Richest	8.7	–0.031*	12.9	–0.018	4.0	–0.076**
Household Composition						
Members less than 6 years old (%)	15.7	0.056	15.6	0.083*	15.7	–0.043
Members more than 14 years old (%)	54.4	0.106***	54.2	0.070*	54.5	0.105
District (Butha-Buthe)						
Leribe	8.0	–0.021	6.8	0.011	9.3	–0.059
Berea	6.1	–0.002	7.5	0.064	4.4	–0.084***
Maseru	7.8	–0.045**	9.7	–0.009	5.6	–0.092
Mafeteng	7.2	0.024	8.8	0.005	5.4	0.046
Mohale Hoek	9.7	0.057	5.5	0.081	14.5	0.011
Quthing	5.3	0.137*	4.4	0.057	6.4	0.120
Qacha's Nek	16.8	0.086*	18.5	0.118**	14.8	0.020

(*continued on next page*)

Table 4.7 (*continued*)
Estimates of the Probability of Having Never Been to School, Lesotho 2002 — Children 6–14 years old[a]— With School Characteristics—

	Whole Sample		Distance to nearest primary school: Less or equal to 30 minutes		Distance to nearest primary school: More than 30 minutes	
	Sample Average	Marginal Effect	Sample Average	Marginal Effect	Sample Average	Marginal Effect
Mokhotlong	13.8	0.026	18.4	0.021	8.6	0.076
Thaba Tseka	19.6	0.040	13.0	0.060	27.2	0.031
Distance to Nearest Primary School (<15 minutes)						
15–29 minutes	24.0	0.021	—	—	—	—
30–44 minutes	21.7	0.041*	—	—	—	—
45–59 minutes	9.0	0.043	—	—	—	—
>= 60 minutes	15.9	0.072***	—	—	—	—
Quality of Education in the EA (average over schools)						
Pupils with no seat and no desk (%)	36.9	0.028*	33.5	0.044***	40.7	0.015
Unqualified teachers (%) [b]	35.3	0.020	32.5	0.003	38.5	0.032
Pupils-Teacher ratio	52.27	0.000	51.81	0.000	52.80	0.000
Schools with incomplete cycle of instruction (%) [c]	20.7	–0.002	0.16	–0.019	26.4	0.026
Average dependent variable (%)	12.7	—	9.1	—	16.9	—
Number of observations	2,096	—	1,119	—	977	—
Pseudo R?	—	0.195	—	0.234	—	0.194

[a]/ Logit model with standard errors adjusted for clustering. Dummy variables with the omitted category indicated in parentheses. Marginal effects are computed at the sample mean for continuous variables; for dummy variables, the probability derivatives indicate the change in probability as the variable is changed from 0 to 1, while holding all other variables at their means.

[b]/ Percentage of teachers with Primary School Education, Junior Certificate and Cambridge Overseas School Certificate

[c]/ Percentage of primary schools in the enumeration not offering the full 7 grades of primary schooling

*= significant at 10%; **= significant at 5%; *=significant at 1%

Source: Author's calculations based on the 2002 CWIQ survey and the 2002 primary school census

codes are not fully documented in the MICS survey, matching this survey with the school census was problematic and we could not analyze the impact of school quality on school outcomes. For this reason, we focused in these analyses only on the impact of the demand-side factors on the three school participation outcomes.

Disparities in Student Flow Patterns

Table 4.8 presents an overview of Lesotho's student flow profile through the seven-year primary cycle for those children who were registered in 1999. Overall, 84% of the 6–14 years olds enrolled in primary education advanced to the next grade, 11% repeated and 6% dropped out. However, these averages hide a more nuanced story. Grade repetition occurred most frequently in the first grade where fully 25% of the children repeated the year and 6% dropped out.

Table 4.8
Promotion, Repetition, and Dropout Rates During Two Consecutive Years in a Cohort of Children Enrolled in Primary Education in 1999, Lesotho 2000 (Percentage)

	Advance	Repeat	Drop Out
Whole Sample	83.5	10.7	5.8
Grade in Previous Year			
Standard 1	69.2	25.1	5.8
Standard 2	88.9	7.2	4.0
Standard 3	87.2	7.1	5.8
Standard 4	92.0	4.3	3.7
Standard 5	91.7	5.5	2.8
Standard 6	85.1	5.4	9.5
Standard 7	69.2	10.0	20.8
Gender			
Boys	82.5	11.9	5.7
Girls	84.5	9.5	6.0
Income group			
Poorest	82.1	10.4	7.5
Second	80.3	9.3	10.4
Middle	83.0	10.7	6.2
Fourth	82.8	12.8	4.4
Richest	88.4	9.6	2.0
Orphanhood Status[a]			
Both parents alive	84.4	12.5	3.2
Mother alive, father dead	86.3	10.2	3.5
Father alive, mother dead	82.9	11.4	5.7
Both parents dead	84.5	7.1	8.3
Area			
Urban	88.2	8.0	3.9
Rural	82.3	11.3	6.3

(*continued on next page*)

Table 4.8 (*continued*)
Promotion, repetition, and dropout rates during two consecutive years in a cohort of children enrolled in primary education in 1999, Lesotho 2000 (percentage)

	Advance	Repeat	Drop out
District			
Butha Buthe	88.2	3.8	8.0
Leribe	81.6	13.4	5.1
Berea	83.3	9.6	7.2
Maseru	84.5	9.6	5.9
Mafeteng	82.1	13.2	4.7
Mohale Hoek	84.4	10.0	5.6
Quthing	81.3	10.9	7.7
Qacha's Neck	84.2	10.3	5.4
Mokhotlong	86.2	10.1	3.7
Thaba Tseka	81.9	13.5	4.6

[a]/ Among children aged 6–14.
Source: Author's calculation based on the 2000 MISC Survey

Sixty-nine percent of first grade students moved on to Standard 2. After Standard 1, repetition and drop-out rates were generally much smaller. However a large proportion of pupils—10%—left school at the end of Standard 6. Among those children enrolled in Standard 7, around 70% continued their secondary education, 21% dropped out and 10% repeated.

When comparing boys and girls, repetition appears to be more frequent among boys than girls. On average, 12% of boys repeated as compared with 9.5% of girls. However, girls seem to be more likely to drop out than boys especially at the end of Standard 6 and Standard 7. On average, only slightly more girls than boys dropped out (5.7% as compared to 6%). However, in Standard s 6 and 7, the differences between genders are quite striking: 7% of boys drop out of school at the end of Standard 6 compared with 11% of girls; 23% of girls leave the education system at the end of Standard 7 compared with 18% of boys.[11]

The effects of socio-economic status on drop-out rates are pronounced, particularly at the beginning and end of primary education. Results reported in Annex Table A3 show, for example, that 10% of the children from the poorest families drop out of school at the end of Standard 1 compared with less than 1% of those from the richest households. Even more dramatically, while 11% of the children from the richest group left school at the end of Standard 7, more than 45% of the children from the poorest families left the education system at this stage.

Orphans are more at risk for dropping out of school than non-orphans. The differences are particularly obvious at the beginning of the primary cycle. For example, 13% of the children who have lost both parents dropped out at the end of Standard 1 as compared with 5% for non-orphans.[12]

Not surprisingly, geographic location is also an important factor in drop-out rates. As findings in Table 4.8 indicate, students in rural areas are particularly prone to drop out or repeat compared with their urban counterparts. Simi-

[11] See Annex 4.4.
[12] See Annex 4.4.

lar differences are found across districts in the patterns of student flow. While the repetition rate is low among students in Butha-Buthe (less than 4%), it varies between 10% and 14% in others. On average, drop-out rates vary between 4% and 8% depending on the district; the lowest are seen in Mokhotlong, Thaba Tseka and Mafeteng.

Regression Estimates of The Correlation of Student Flow Patterns

Table 4.9 shows the adjustment of the three school outcomes using a multinomial logit specification. Because the regressions use a sample of children who registered for school in the previous year as described in the section above, these

Table 4.9
Estimated Probabilities of Advancing, Repeating, and Dropping out in a Cohort of Children Aged 6 to14, Lesotho 2000[a]

		Marginal Effects[c]		
	Sample Average[b]	Advance	Repeat	Drop out
Child Characteristics				
Age (in years)	11.2	0.016***	–0.020***	0.004***
Boy (girl)	47.5	–0.026***	0.025*	0.001
Orphanhood status (both parents alive)				
Mother alive, father dead	13.5	0.005	–0.005	–0.001
Father alive, mother dead	2.9	0.008	–0.015	0.007
Both parents dead	2.0	–0.014	–0.022	0.036*
Grade				
Standard 2	21.9	0.097***	–0.081***	–0.015***
Standard 3	17.9	0.076***	–0.066***	–0.010***
Standard 4	13.9	0.096***	–0.078***	–0.017***
Standard 5	9.9	0.086***	–0.066***	–0.020***
Standard 6	5.5	0.048***	–0.031**	–0.017***
Standard 7	1.5	–0.071	0.075	–0.005
Household Head Characteristics				
Male (female)	72.7	–0.009	0.003	0.006
Age (in years)	51.0	0.000	0.000	0.000
Education (no schooling)				
Primary education	61.7	0.022**	–0.038***	–0.008**
Secondary or higher education	17.3	0.028*	–0.017*	–0.011*
Household Income Group (poorest)				
Second	18.4	0.005	–0.003	–0.002
Middle	21.9	0.001	0.002	–0.003

(*continued on next page*)

Table 4.9
Estimated probabilities of advancing, repeating, and dropping out in a cohort of children aged 6 to14, Lesotho 2000[a]

		Marginal effects[c]		
	Sample average[b]	Advance	Repeat	Drop out
Fourth	23.3	–0.017	0.029*	–0.012***
Richest	23.6	0.025	0.004	–0.028***
Household Composition				
Members less than 6 years old (%)	10.6	–0.032	0.010	0.023
Members more than 14 years old (%)	51.9	0.058	–0.042	–0.015
Living in rural area (urban area)	79.6	–0.033***	0.041***	–0.008
Advance	88.7	—	—	—
Repeat	9.4	—	—	—
Drop out	1.9	—	—	—
Number of observations	3,617	—	—	—
Pseudo R?	—	0.123		

[a]/ Probability of being in the indicated schooling status in 2000 among those enrolled in 1999. Multinomial logit model with standard errors adjusted for clustering. Dummy variables with the omitted category indicated in parentheses.

[b]/ Sample means of dummies variables expressed in percentage.

[c]/ Marginal effects are computed at the sample mean for continuous variables; for dummy variables, the probability derivatives indicate the change in probability as the variable is changed from 0 to 1, while holding all other variables at their means.

*= significant at 10%; **= significant at 5%; ***=significant at 1%.

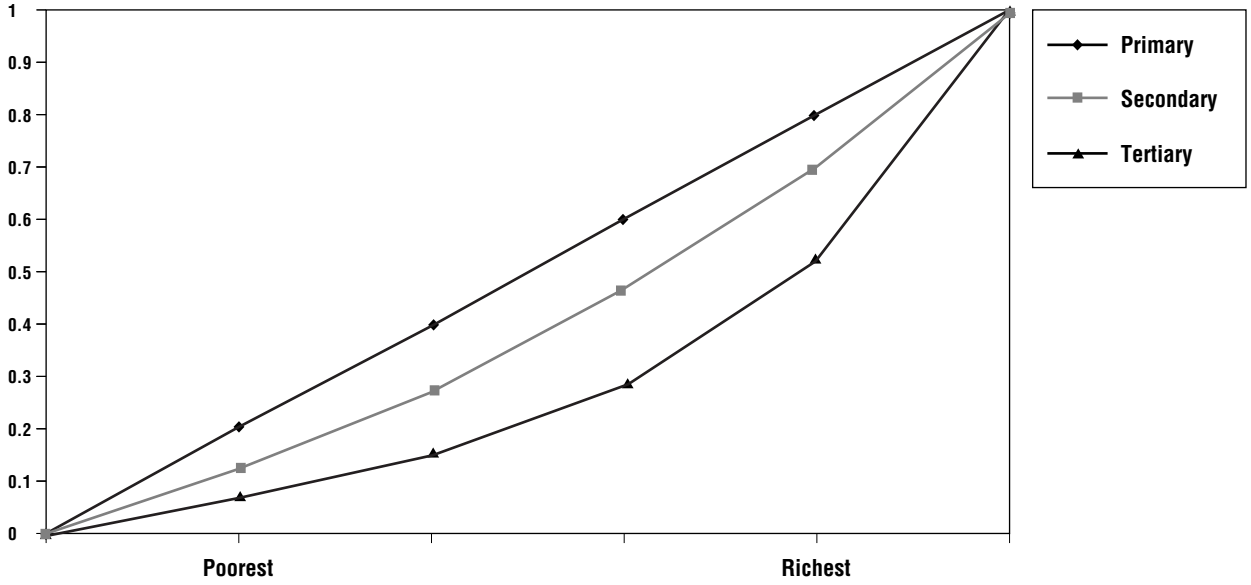
Source: Author's calculation based on the 2000 MISC Survey

regressions are endogenously selected and are not free from selectivity bias. As in the previous section, the three dependent variables are related to child and household characteristics, and are controlled for the grade where the student was enrolled in the previous year.

Many of the results summarized in Table 4.9 confirm the patterns found in the cross-tabulations presented earlier. Significant differences did exist across gender:—with the effect of all other variables held constant, boys were more prone to repeat than girls. After controlling for grade level, older students were significantly more likely to repeat or drop out than younger students. While double orphans (i.e., children who have lost both parents) and non-orphans had a similar likelihood of attending school, orphans had a higher probability of dropping out. The differential rate of dropping out between orphans and non-orphans is around 4 percentage points.

The education level of the head of a child's household had a strong effect on child outcomes. Compared to the children with household heads with primary education, children coming from households where the household head was illiterate were much more likely to repeat and slightly more likely to drop out compared with children from households where the household head had a primary school education. House-

Figure 4.5
Benefit Incidence Analysis by Income Quintiles



Source: CWIQ estimated by author

hold income made a difference too, but only between children from the richest 40% of households and the rest of the population: the chances of dropping out were 3 percentage points lower among children from the most privileged backgrounds compared with those in the rest of the distribution. Location of the residence was also a significant factor: as compared with urban children, rural children were less likely (by 3.3 percentage points) to advance in school and more likely to repeat a grade (by about 4 percentage points).

E. Incidence of Public Spending by Income Group

Does Lesotho use its public resources for education to assist the poor? We used a benefit-incidence analysis to investigate how much disadvantaged groups of the society benefit from public spending on education. In this study, the benefit-incidence analysis was conducted using the 2002 Core Welfare Indicator Questionnaire (CWIQ) data. Because there is no available information on household income, a socioeconomic index was created based on the eight poverty-indicating questions to measure the household economic level.[13] The evidence shows that, overall, public spending on education and training in Lesotho is substantially skewed in favor of the rich. Nearly 35% of public education expenditures are spent on the richest 20% of the population, while only 13% are spent on the poorest quintile. The second and third poorest quintiles receive 14% and 17% respectively, of the public education expenditures, while the second richest quintile receives 23% of public spending. Clearly, the poor are not receiving adequate benefits from the government.

Figure 4.5 shows how public funds are allocated to different income groups by level of edu-

[13] The socio-economics indicator to define the income quintile was created based on the mix of eight poverty predicting questionnaires. For example, how often in the last year did you have problems satisfying the food needs of the household? Does the household own a heater?

cation. Government subsidies are almost equally distributed among the five different income groups at the primary level. However, at the secondary level, the poorest 20% of households receive only 12% of public spending, while the richest 20% receive 31% of public allocations. The disparity is even larger for tertiary education. The two poorest quintiles receive only 7% and 8% respectively, of government spending, while the two richest quintiles receive 47% and 24% respectively, of government subsidies. It is clear, then, that nearly 50% of the tertiary education subsidies go to the richest 20% of households.

When we compare the incidence of public spending with other Anglophone African countries, it is obvious that public spending on education in Lesotho is more regressive. For instance, Kenya, Namibia, and Malawi have each spent 17% (16% in Malawi) of their total public education budget on the poorest quintile populations—this is 4 percentage points higher than the spending in Lesotho. Similarly, in Kenya and Malawi, the richest 20% of households receive 21% and 25% respectively, of the total public education subsidies while in Lesotho the richest 20% receives 33% of education funding. In primary education in particular, while Lesotho distributes public subsidies equally to each income quintile, Kenya provides extra funding to the poorest quintile (22%) while the richest 20% receives only 15% of government subsidies.

F. Chapter Summary

The bivariate and multivariate analyses reported on in this chapter indicate patterns in school participation and student flow in Lesotho's educational system which may provide directions for future educational policies.

Attracting students to school and keeping them in school throughout the primary cycle remained a priority for Lesotho in 2003. As shown in this report, up to 20% of primary school-age children never attended school in some districts despite the implementation of FPE. Controlling for all other factors, boys were less likely to attend school than girls. The head of household's level of education had a positive impact on children's school participation. Children whose father or mother had a primary school education were more likely, by 3.8 percentage points on average, to attend school than children with illiterate parents. More impor-

Table 4.10
Incidence of Public Expenditure on Education by Income Quintile

	All Education		Primary Level Only	
	Poorest Quintile	Richest Quintile	Poorest Quintile	Richest Quintile
Lesotho (2002)	**13**	**33**	**20**	**20**
Kenya (1992)	17	21	22	15
Madagascar (1993/94)	8	41	17	14
Malawi (1995)	16	25	20	16
Namibia (2003)	17	27	17	16
S. Africa (1994)	14	35	19	28
Tanzania (1993/94)	14	37	19	18
Uganda (1992/93)	13	32	19	18

Source: Lesotho – CWIQ 2002; Namibia; Deon (2003)

tantly, this effect was strongest (12 percentage points) for children 6 to 8 years old.

Poverty, location, and constraints in the school supply played an important role in explaining these patterns. Children from poor families were less likely to attend school compared with those from better-off families. All else being equal, children in Quthing and Qacha's Neck were less likely to attend school; children in Maseru were more likely to do so.

Accessibility to schools was a major determinant of participation: 30% of rural children who never attended school lived at least 60 minutes away from a primary school. Among the other school characteristics, only the physical condition of the school—indexed by the percentage of pupils with neither seat nor desk—had significant impact on attendance. In fact, providing 10% more seats and desks could improve attendance rates by 28%. This variable is more important than teacher qualifications, pupil-teacher ratio or the completeness of the education cycle offered, variables which are not significant predictors of school attendance. Indeed, for children who live close to the school, the impact is paramount. For children living farther away, the physical condition of the school had no effect on attendance. However, improving both the accessibility to schools and the physical conditions of existing schools (i.e., the availability of desks and chairs) could significantly increase children's participation rate and their progression through primary education. The impact of such measures could be more effective in improving school participation than equipping existing schools with better qualified teachers.

In terms of student flow as measured by the probability of promotion, repetition, and dropout, up to 10% of those who attended school dropped out at the end of Standard 1 and 25% repeated this year of study. All else being equal, boys were more likely to repeat than girls. While status as an orphan did not affect the likelihood that a child would attend school, it did increase their likelihood of dropping out (5 percentage point difference).Older pupils were also more likely to repeat or drop out. Again, the household head's level of education was an important factor. Children with less educated parents were more likely to repeat or drop out. Poverty also played a major role. Children from poorer households were more likely to repeat and drop out than children from wealthier households. A disparity between rural and urban areas was apparent too. Controlling for all other factors, rural children are less likely to be promoted by 3 percentage points, but more likely to repeat by 4 percentage points, as compared with their urban counterparts.

Comparison of results of the 2000 and 2002 analyses indicate that, overall, the introduction of the FPE did not significantly reduce the proportion of children who never attended school. However, some progress was made in reducing the disparity among the poor and the rich. The gap between poor and rich children in school attendance decreased from 6.7 percentage points to 2.1 percentage points in 2002: the effect of poverty on attendance is diminishing over time. Moreover, the gender gap has decreased slightly over time. Unfortunately, the 2002 data do not contain information on student flow. Therefore, trends in student flow before and after the FPE could not be established using this type of analysis. However, the analyses of student flow in Chapter 2 did indicate that repetition and dropout may have been reduced and overall efficiency improved since the FPE was implemented.

We used benefit incidence analysis to analyze the equity of education expenditures. Public spending on education in Lesotho benefits the rich disproportionately. Governments worldwide are expected to reduce educational inequities among their citizens by targeting public funds so that they provide extra benefit to the poor. However, government subsidies for primary education in Lesotho are generally equally distributed among the five different income groups. Further, at the secondary level, the poorest 20% of households receive only

12% of public spending, while the richest 20% receives 31% of public spending. The magnitude of the disparity is even larger for tertiary education. The two poorest quintiles receive only 7% and 8% respectively, of government spending, while the two richest quintiles receive 47% and 24% of government subsidies, respectively. Clearly, nearly 50% of the tertiary education subsidies go to the richest 20% of households.

G. Areas for Further Policy Development

A few general policy directions can arise from the findings in this section. Overall, in conjunction with the findings on education spending in Chapter 3, the GOL must make a conscious effort to target the public spending on education disproportionately more toward the poor and disadvantaged group. One of the important roles a democratic government must play is to redistribute society incomes. The government must make sure that the poorest 20% of the population receives overall more than 20% of total spending on education. The most effective way of achieving that is to increase the share of education spending on primary and secondary and reduce the share which goes to higher education, as very few of the poor actually proceed to higher education at all.

More specifically, a combination of **demand-side** and supply-side interventions must be devised to ensure 100% participation and completion of primary education in Lesotho. We learned from the analysis that boys from poor rural areas and those who live in Quthing and Qacha's Nek appear to have the lowest school attendance rate. Further, they are more likely to dropout. The implications of such findings should be carefully discussed and incorporated into the MOET ongoing programs such as the bursary programs. Further the MOET should start piloting various programs target to the heads of households to bring these children to school. Orphans, also, though having similar attendance rates as non-orphans, are proven to be more likely to repeat and dropout.

On the **supply side**, it is clear that bringing schools closer to the communities remains a high priority still for the GOL, bearing in mind that as the distance to schools is reduced, the overall cost and unit cost will rise. It is important that MOET has a clear policy and support for small and multigrade schools. Further, equipping the schools with sufficient desks and chairs also makes a significant impact on student participation. Thus, it is important that these items are provided to schools in an efficient way.

CHAPTER 5

Service Delivery and Learning Outcomes in Primary and Secondary Education

This chapter presents an overview of the network of primary and secondary schools and its characteristics, and documents the supply of services as reflected in urban-rural and regional differences in facilities, in provision of textbooks, in staffing patterns, and in teacher allocation across schools. It also documents the disparity in service delivery between multigrade and monograde schools. Whenever data is available, it also compares the service delivery before and after the implementation of Free Primary Education (FPE). Further, it provides a detailed analysis of student learning outcomes with particular emphasis on primary education.

A. Overview of the Network of Schools

As of 2004, Lesotho had a network of 1480 primary schools and 257 secondary schools spread all over the country. In this section we provide an overview of the institutional composition of the system, its growth over time, and the instructional services the schools offer. Since the 2004 data has not yet been finalized, we will draw on data from years up to 2003 for detailed analysis. Due to this data limitation, less detailed information is available for secondary schools than for primary schools.

As briefly explained in Chapter 2, the system at both the primary and secondary levels is composed predominately of church schools, with about 87% of all primary schools owned by various denominations. As of 2003, 37.6% of primary schools were Roman Catholic, 35.5% were LEC schools, and another 13% were ACL schools. The remaining 12.3% are secular schools, with roughly 4% each being government schools, community schools, and private and other schools. The situation is similar at the secondary level where close to 90% of the secondary schools were owned and managed by the churches in 2003.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the Basotho territory can be divided into four ecological regions: mountains, lowlands, the Senqu River Valley, and foothills; 40% of primary schools are located in mountain areas and 36% in lowlands. Government, LEC, and Roman Catholic primary schools are more likely to be in mountain areas (more than 40%) compared to the community and other schools, which are most likely to be in lower areas. The Senqu River Valley has few primary schools, a total of only 45.

The distribution of secondary schools is skewed much more in favor of the lowlands area, where 64% of all secondary schools are located. By comparison, 17% are located in the mountain areas, 16% in the foothills, and 3% in the

Table 5.1
Distribution of Primary and Secondary Schools by Location and Management Type in 2003

Primary	Government	Community	LEC	RCM	ACL	AME	Other	Private	Total
Number of Schools	61	55	481	509	176	24	47	2	1.355
Percentage	4.5	4.1	35.5	37.6	13.0	1.8	3.5	0.2	100.0
Distribution of Schools by Location (%)									
Mountains	42.6	10.9	41.0	47.0	35.2	33.3	17.0	50.0	40.4
Lowlands	39.3	74.6	33.9	28.1	39.2	58.3	66.0	50.0	35.9
Senqu River Valley	4.9	0.0	3.5	3.9	2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.3
Foothills	6.6	14.6	21.6	21.0	22.7	8.3	14.9	0.0	20.1
Unknown	6.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.1	0.0	0.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Secondary	**Government**	**Community**	**LEC**	**RCM**	**ACL**	**AME**	**Other**	**Private**	**Total**
Number of Schools	21	12	68	78	29	5	8	2	223
Percentage	9	5	30	35	13	2	4	1	100
Distribution of Schools by Location (%)									
Mountains	14	8	19	22	14	0	0	50	17
Lowlands	76	75	59	54	76	100	88	50	64
Senqu River Valley	5	0	6	3	0	0	0	0	3
Foothills	5	17	16	22	10	0	13	0	16
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Senqu River Valley. The Roman Catholic Church runs 35% of the nation's secondary schools and LEC runs another 30%.

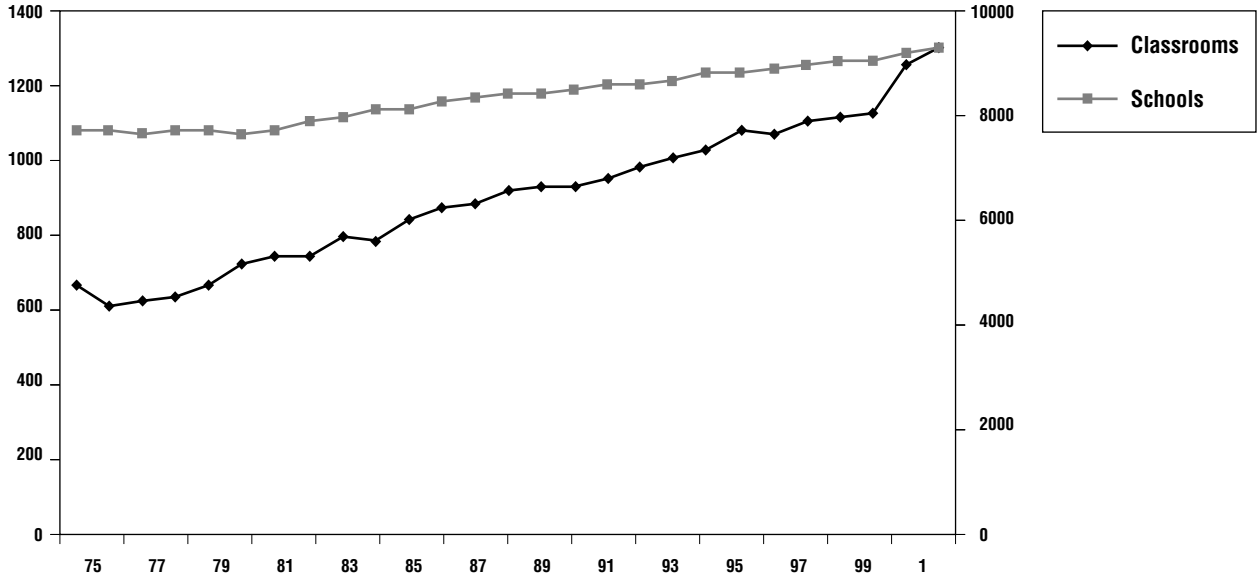
B. Growth of the System

The Basotho school system has grown over time. With the government's commitment to propagate education, the number of primary schools and classrooms has risen steadily since 1974 (see Figure 5.1), and particularly over the last few years. Since 1999, both the number of primary schools and the average school size has been growing. The number of primary schools grew by 7% between 1999 and 2003, largely because new government and community primary schools were set up. In 1999, there were only 5 non-denominational government and 40 community primary schools. By 2003, these numbers had grown to 61 and 55 respectively. Indeed, information from the 2004 school census indicates that there are now 126 government and almost 70 community primary schools.

The numbers of secondary schools is also growing steadily but less quickly; 20 were set up and registered between 1999 and 2004, along with another 23 unregistered secondary schools.

This growth is a direct result of a conscious government effort and policy, starting in 1999, to increase primary and secondary enrollment by establishing new non-denominational government and community schools. Before 1999, the government, with support from other part-

Figure 5.1
Number of Primary Schools and Classrooms



ners including the IDA, was also providing additional classrooms to church-owned schools. Indeed the balancing of power between the government and church-based organizations is crucial to recent policy making in the education sector. The Education Act stipulates a tripartite management of Basotho schools: though schools may be owned by church organizations or communities, the government pays for all the teachers (though schools may hire additional private teachers using their own funds). Tension has grown between the church and the government. The government feels the churches are not as responsive as they could be and are not sufficiently accountable for educational outcomes.

The average school size appears to be increasing in Lesotho for both primary and secondary schools (see Table 5.2). As of 2003, an average Lesotho primary school had about 317 students. The government (and private) schools seem to be smaller on average than the community and church schools. Interestingly, even though average school size is increasing, the size of the average government school actually decreased from 307 in 1999 to 218 in 2003. On the other hand, all other types of primary schools have grown larger over the same time period.

The average school size for secondary schools also increased slightly, from about 338 in 1999 to 365 in 2003. As shown in Table 5.3, secondary schools in the mountain areas tend to be the smallest, averaging 253 students. By agency, the community schools tend to be the smallest. Therefore, the community schools located in the mountain areas are the smallest, with an average enrollment of 91 students, raising the issue of how efficient such small schools can be.

C. Selected Characteristics of Schools

In this section, we discuss in detail the provision of educational services as defined by the prevalence of multigrade teaching, the extent of "incomplete" schools, average class size, availability of desks and chairs, average number of books per pupil, distance to school, and staffing (non-teacher) patterns. Teachers and teacher management will be discussed in Section D. Whenever possible, we compare multi-

Table 5.2
Average Size of Primary Schools

	1999		2000		2001		2002		2003	
	Schools	Average School Size	Schools	Average School Size	Schools	Average School Size	Schools	Average School Size	Schools	Average School Size
Government	5	307	6	322	18	169	39	194	61	218
Community	40	280	46	281	49	281	54	295	55	326
LEC	478	291	479	328	480	330	481	328	481	330
RCM	508	283	508	318	508	318	509	313	509	316
ACL	176	300	176	333	176	333	176	329	176	333
AME	23	192	23	216	23	215	24	222	24	227
Others	42	278	42	311	47	309	47	306	47	311
Private	1	57	1	50	2	136	2	146	2	245
Total	1.273	287	1.281	320	1.303	318	1.332	314	1.355	317

Table 5.3
Average Size of Secondary Schools 2003

Agency	Foothills	Lowlands	Mountain	Senqu River Valley	Total
ACL	332	419	183	0	377
AME	0	363	0	0	363
Community	65	343	91	0	281
Government	98	516	231	97	420
LEC	300	368	202	576	337
Other	171	389	0	0	361
Private	0	293	508	0	364
RCM	378	412	303	525	383
Total	317	403	253	443	364

grade schools with monograde schools in terms of the equity of various inputs. More information is available for primary than for secondary schools.

Multigrade Teaching

The majority of primary schools in Lesotho use multi-grade teaching for at least some grades (Table 5.4). Nationally, 62.4% of all primary schools practice multigrade teaching. The proportion is highest among government and AME schools where more than 70% of schools use multigrade. As might be expected, multigrade is most common in remote areas, which may have the greatest difficulty in attracting trained teachers. Eighty-five percent of mountain schools and 69% of Senqu River schools prac-

Table 5.4
Percentage of Schools Using Multigrade Teaching

	Government	Community	LEC	RCM	ACL	AME	Other	Private	Total
Mountains	73.1%	100.0%	85.8%	86.6%	83.9%	100.0%	62.5%	100.0%	85.4%
Lowlands	66.7%	61.0%	39.3%	34.3%	40.6%	57.1%	64.5%	100.0%	43.4%
Senqu River Valley	100.0%		64.7%	65.0%	80.0%				68.9%
Foothills	75.0%	50.0%	51.9%	43.9%	52.5%	50.0%	42.9%		48.9%
Unknown	50.0%						100.0%		60.0%
Total	70.5%	63.6%	62.0%	62.1%	59.7%	70.8%	61.7%	100.0%	62.4%

tice multigrade, as compared to 49% of foothill schools and 43% of lowland schools.

This is consistent with the government's policy that the number of classrooms constructed is determined by the school-age population in the catchment area. The Education Facility Unit in the MOET has standard designs for 4-classroom and 7-classroom schools to cater to the varying populations. Indeed, this policy is also encouraged by the development partners as a cost-effective strategy for school construction. The smaller school size allows schools to be located closer to remote communities, which is particularly important in view of the impact of distance on attendance.

Multigrade teaching is also found in some incomplete schools (schools which teach Grade 1-6). Some incomplete schools offer an "illegal" Grade 7, in response to parent dislike of incomplete schools. Where an unauthorized Grade 7 is added, this is almost always done using a multigrade approach.

In most of the cases where multigrade is practiced, the teacher teaches 2 grades at the same time (Table 5.5). However, 21% of multigrade teachers teach 3 grades, and over 9% teach 4 or more grades.

Despite the widespread use of multigrade teaching, there is little support or training provided for multigrade teachers. The MOET commissioned a study on multigrade teaching in primary schools in November 2004 (Moshapane, 2004). This study reported that:

- There was no official policy on multigrade teaching and very little support is provided.

Table 5.5
Proportion of Multigrade Teachers by Number of Grades Taught

	Government	Community	LEC	RCM	ACL	AME	Other	Private	Total
2 grades	70.0	54.9	71.6	70.4	72.9	68.3	66.7	62.5	69.9
3 grades	13.0	23.8	21.6	21.1	23.5	14.6	14.8	37.5	21.0
4 grades	11.0	8.2	3.2	5.5	2.0	9.8	9.9	0.0	4.9
5 grades	2.0	1.6	1.1	0.8	0.8	2.4	6.2	0.0	1.3
6 grades	0.0	2.5	1.1	0.8	0.0	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.9
7 grades	4.0	9.0	1.4	1.5	0.8	2.4	2.5	0.0	2.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

- The National Curriculum Development Center had no provision for multigrade teaching in the development of curriculum materials.
- The Lesotho College of Education does not train teachers for multigrade teaching.
- Professional support to teachers did not distinguish between multigrade and mono-grade teaching.

This means that multigrade teachers also rely on the support from District Resource Teachers who help the teams with record keeping, programs of work, lesson plans, time-tables, and school administration. Some multigrade schools in remote areas are also assisted by the Peace Corp Volunteers from the USA in an ad hoc way.

"Incomplete Schools"

The primary school cycle in Lesotho is seven years, but various constraints keep schools from being able to offer the complete cycle. Because they are trying to keep up with the government's general commitment to improve the delivery of educational services, a rising percentage of primary schools are offering the full seven years of schooling; this percentage has risen from 35% in 1974 to 78% in 2002. However, as of 2003, more than 20% of schools nationwide still were not offering the entire seven years of instruction.

As Table 5.6 reveals, there are strong regional disparities in this situation. While only 9% of schools in the lowlands are still offering incomplete cycles, over a third of those in the mountain areas do so (35%), followed by the Senqu River Valley (22%). These disparities also extend to type of school: 75% of government schools do not offer complete cycles, though most offer up to the fourth grade. The majority of community schools (27% incomplete) and church schools (below 20% incomplete) offer classes through sixth grade. All private schools offer the complete cycle.

Table 5.6
Proportion of Schools Offering an Incomplete Cycle of Instruction

Schools Offering Incomplete Cycle of Instruction	Government	Community	LEC	RCM	ACL	AME	Other	Private	Total
Mountains	73.1%	66.7%	36.5%	31.8%	29.0%	12.5%	37.5%	0.0%	35.3%
Lowlands	70.8%	17.1%	5.5%	2.1%	8.7%	7.1%	6.5%	0.0%	9.3%
Senqu River Valley	100.0%		5.9%	20.0%	40.0%				22.2%
Foothills	75.0%	50.0%	10.6%	11.2%	15.0%	50.0%	0.0%		13.6%
Unknown	100.0%						0.0%		80.0%
Total	75.4%	27.3%	19.3%	18.7%	18.2%	12.5%	10.6%	0.0%	21.3%
Distribution of Schools According to Highest Grade Offered									
Grade 3	4.9	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.1	0.0	0.4
Grade 4	60.7	9.1	1.5	1.6	1.1	0.0	2.1	0.0	4.4
Grade 5	3.3	5.5	2.7	3.5	4.0	4.2	4.3	0.0	3.4
Grade 6	6.6	12.7	15.0	13.6	13.1	8.3	2.1	0.0	13.1
Grade 7	24.6	72.7	80.7	81.3	81.8	87.5	89.4	100.0	78.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

This situation may have evolved because of the government's policy of constructing a number of classrooms that is consistent with the number of school-age children in the catchment area. The Education Facility Unit in the MOET has standard designs for 4-classroom and 7-classroom schools to cater to the variations in population. Indeed, development partners also endorse this policy as being more cost-effective. The smaller school size allows additional classrooms to be added in the future and to bring education closer to the remote communities.

Students Per Classroom or Average Class Size

The number of students per classroom provides another important indicator for evaluating school and learning characteristics. Overall, despite the government's recent efforts to build classrooms, the average number of pupils per primary classroom remains too high, at 71. Table 5.7 also reveals a large disparity across the regions. Schools in the mountain and Senqu River Valley zones are most crowded, with an average of more than 80 students per classroom as

Table 5.7
Average Number of Pupils Per Primary Classroom

Pupils Per Classroom	Government	Community	LEC	RCM	ACL	AME	Other	Private	Total
All schools									
Mountains	53	107	83	84	84	72	75	21	82
Lowlands	41	51	65	59	68	52	55	31	60
Senqu River Valley	167		69	81	60				80
Foothills	39	44	68	78	59	60	54		69
Unknown	42						76		49
Total	52	57	73	75	71	59	59	26	71
Schools with multigrade teaching									
Mountains	45	107	84	86	88	72	82	21	84
Lowlands	34	51	56	62	64	43	55	31	56
Senqu River Valley	167		60	74	67				77
Foothills	44	38	67	80	46	87	51		67
Unknown	37						76		50
Total	50	60	74	80	72	59	60	26	73
Schools with monograde teaching									
Mountains	71		72	76	64		63		73
Lowlands	54	52	70	57	70	64	55		64
Senqu River Valley			87	93	40				86
Foothills	22	49	69	76	75	33	56		72
Unknown	48								48
Total	57	52	71	68	70	60	56		68

compared to 69 in the foothills and only 60 in the lowlands.

Private schools have the lowest pupil per classroom ratio, at only 26. Among the other types, government schools fare the best with about 52 pupils per classroom (except for the government schools in the Senqu River Valley which average 167 pupils per classroom). The more crowded classrooms can also be found in the RCM, LEC and ACL schools which average more than 70 pupils per classroom.

Comparing multigrade with monograde schools, on average the multigrade schools have more crowded classrooms (73 vs. 68). As shown in Table 5.7, multigrade schools in mountain areas and monograde schools in the Senqu River Valley have the most crowded classrooms (86 and 84 per classroom, respectively).

At the secondary level, the national average class size is a very reasonable 40 students. However, secondary schools located in the mountain areas tend to have fewer students per classroom (average 37). Community schools located in the foothills and mountain areas have the lowest class sizes, at about 22 or 23, indicating that the capacity of some secondary schools may be underutilized (see Table 5.8)

Percentage of Students without Seats and Desks

Another challenge to the delivery of adequate education is the widespread lack of seats and desks for students (see Table 5.9). In 2003, 32.6% of pupils in primary schools had neither a seat nor a desk. This situation is particularly severe in the mountain areas where it is true of almost half the students (46.5%), as compared to 32.8% in the Senqu River Valley, 28% in the foothills, and only 20% in the lowlands.

Looking at types of schools, the AME schools tend to have the highest proportion of students with no seat or desk (40%) and the government schools have the lowest proportion, at 28%. Comparing multigrade and monograde schools, we find a huge a disparity in the provision of desks and seats: 40.7% of pupils in multigrade schools have neither seats nor desks, compared to only 19.3% in monograde schools.

Number of Books Per Primary Pupil

In the past, Lesotho implemented a relatively successful primary textbook rental program. In effect, however, the introduction of FPE abolished this scheme since FPE promises to provide

Table 5.8
Average Number of Pupils per Secondary Classroom

Agency	Foothills	Lowlands	Mountain	Senqu River Valley	Total
ACL	40	40	30	0	39
AME	0	35	0	0	35
Community	22	39	23	0	38
Government	25	41	41	64	41
LEC	43	41	42	52	42
Other	21	39	0	0	37
Private	0	37	46	0	40
RCM	37	39	35	44	38
Total	38	40	37	50	40

Table 5.9
Proportion of Primary Pupils with no Seat or Desk

Pupils with no Seat or Desk (%)	Government	Community	LEC	RCM	ACL	AME	Other	Private	Total
All schools									
Mountain	41.6%	51.0%	44.2%	46.5%	55.0%	62.2%	40.5%	0.0%	46.5%
Lowlands	13.3%	23.0%	19.3%	18.0%	20.0%	33.4%	28.1%	0.0%	20.0%
Senqu River Valley	66.7%		29.6%	25.9%	51.1%				32.8%
Foothills	25.0%	47.9%	26.2%	26.9%	31.4%	0.0%	38.3%		28.0%
Unknown	2.5%						0.0%		2.0%
Total	28.0%	29.7%	31.4%	33.6%	35.8%	40.2%	31.1%	0.0%	32.6%
Schools with multigrade teaching									
Mountain	46.0%	51.0%	47.2%	50.2%	60.2%	62.2%	48.3%	0.0%	50.1%
Lowlands	12.6%	23.9%	24.6%	28.9%	27.9%	39.3%	27.0%	0.0%	25.7%
Senqu River Valley	66.7%		30.9%	34.5%	57.3%				39.3%
Foothills	0.0%	61.0%	29.0%	33.7%	38.7%	0.0%	42.9%		32.6%
Unknown	5.1%						0.0%		3.4%
Total	29.9%	32.8%	38.5%	43.8%	47.2%	47.8%	31.4%	0.0%	40.7%
Schools with monograde teaching									
Mountain	29.6%		25.7%	22.3%	28.4%		27.6%		25.1%
Lowlands	14.7%	21.5%	16.0%	12.4%	14.6%	25.6%	30.1%		15.6%
Senqu River Valley			27.3%	9.9%	26.4%				18.5%
Foothills	100.0%	34.7%	23.2%	21.6%	23.4%	0.0%	34.9%		23.6%
Unknown	0.0%								0.0%
Total	23.6%	24.1%	19.8%	16.8%	19.1%	21.9%	30.7%		19.3%

free textbooks and stationery for classroom work as part of the package. Overall, compared to other developing countries where several children tend to share one textbook, the provision of textbooks looks very good in Lesotho and the situation has improved since FPE was introduced. In 1999 the average pupil had 4.9 books; this number rose to 5.7 in 2003.

Evaluating schools by management type, the government, community, and private schools average fewer books per pupil (3.6, 4.7, and 3.7) compared to church-owned schools which average more than 5 books per pupil (see Table 5.10).

At the secondary level, the availability of books has also improved markedly since 1999, when it was only 0.2 per student, to 1.9 in 2004. Obviously, 2004 saw a significant increase, as the government introduced a textbook rental program for lower secondary students. With support from the World Bank, the program provides for a stock of core textbooks. The rental fee, set at M220 per packet of books, was meant to allow schools to replenish their book supplies and to cater to increased enrollment. According to the consultancy report, the program is expected to be self-sustainable. However, the

Table 5.10
Average Number of Books Per Primary Pupil

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Primary						
Government	3.7	8.1	3.2	3.1	3.6	
Community	3.6	4.7	4.7	4.0	4.7	
LEC	5.0	5.1	5.3	5.7	6.1	
RCM	4.9	5.3	5.0	5.7	5.8	
ACL	5.5	5.5	4.9	5.6	5.4	
AME	3.4	5.6	3.7	4.7	5.9	
Others	4.8	5.8	4.8	5.0	4.7	
Private	0.0	6.6	0.0	0.5	3.7	
Total	4.9	5.2	5.0	5.5	5.7	
Secondary						
Government	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	2.1	1.9
Community	0.2	0.1	0.9	0.3	0.2	2.0
LEC	0.2	0.2	1.9	0.9	1.4	1.9
RCM	0.2	0.2	1.5	0.4	1.1	2.1
ACL	0.2	0.2	2.1	1.1	1.4	2.2
AME	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Other	0.2	0.2	2.9	0.2	0.2	0.5
Private	0.5	0.5	4.1	0.2	0.1	1.0
Total	0.2	0.2	1.6	0.6	1.2	1.9

unit cost of textbooks did not fall as much as expected, because Lesotho's relatively small market for textbooks prevents it from attracting a sufficient number of publishers to bid. Furthermore, instead of focusing on the core textbooks for lower secondary, the government decided to include all the subjects in the rental program, resulting in about 14 core textbooks and another *3 to 5* non-core books. The situation must be carefully monitored and the program reworked if necessary.

Distance to Schools

Table 5.11 shows the average walking distance to the nearest primary and secondary school for each district. According to the findings from the 2002 CWIQ, nearly 60% of primary school students in rural areas take more than 30 minutes to get to school, compared to 40% of urban primary students. The situation is considerably more difficult at the secondary level: about 85% of rural students take longer than a half hour to get to school, and nearly 60% need over an hour. On the other hand, 14% of the urban secondary students say it takes them over an hour.

Schools in the districts of Qucha's Neck, Butha-Buthe, Leribe, and Maseru recorded relatively short distances from households to the nearest schools. On the other hand, in Mohale's Hoek, Thaba-Tseka, Brea, Quthing, and Mafeteng, more than 20% of households are

Table 5.11
Percent Distribution of Households by Time (in minutes) to Reach Nearest Primary and Secondary School 2002

	Primary				Secondary			
(minutes)	15<	15–29	30–59	60+	15<	15–29	30–59	60+
Districts								
Butha-Buthe	23.3	32.9	32.1	11.7	11.9	23	33.2	31.8
Leribe	20.8	27	33.4	18.8	14	19.2	29	37.8
Berea	16.2	19.7	39.9	24.2	5.7	9.9	35.7	48.8
Maseru	20	31.9	31.5	16.6	9.2	22.3	35.1	33.4
Mafeteng	18	21.8	39.2	21.1	5.7	9.6	22.4	62.4
Mohale's Hoek	11.2	22.1	37.5	29.1	2.9	9.2	18.1	69.8
Quthing	8.3	27.4	41.2	23.1	3.2	11.6	35.9	49.3
Qacha's Nek	35.5	28.5	28.8	7.3	13	23.8	26.4	36.8
Mokhotlong	35	26.7	26	12.2	7.3	16.1	26.4	50.3
Thaba-Tseka	21	21	31.1	27	9.8	13.7	17.6	58.9
Rural	**18.3**	**22.9**	**34.7**	**24.1**	**5.4**	**10.8**	**25.2**	**58.6**
Urban	**25.4**	**35.5**	**31.8**	**7.2**	**16.7**	**31.3**	**38.3**	**13.7**

Source: CWIQ 2002

located over an hour's walk from the nearest primary school.

Staffing Pattern (non-teacher)

As described in Chapter 2, the education system is managed by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) at the central, district, and school levels. At the central level, MOET is headed by a minister (assisted by an assistant minister). The principal secretary, who is the ministry's administrative head and chief accounting officer, is assisted at the executive level by a staff that includes the deputy principal secretary; five chief education officers responsible for primary, secondary, teaching service, curriculum services, and tertiary education; the directors of education planning and technical and vocational education; and the secretary general of the national commission for UNESCO.

At the district level, education management is housed within district resource centers which are headed by senior education officers. In an effort to decentralize, several educational departments now operate in the districts. These include the field inspectorate, the Teacher Service Department, the Lesotho College of Education, the National Curriculum Development Center, and services in early childhood education and non-formal education. District resource teachers (DRTs) and senior resource teachers (SRTs) are responsible for providing school-level support. The DRTs and SRTs were appointed in the mid 1980s as part of a larger project, but have since been mainstreamed into the ministry's activities. A DRT or SRT is a support person, usually a former principal of a primary school, appointed to look after a small number of isolated rural schools. Not all schools have a resource teacher assigned, as the number is lim-

ited, and the aim is to support the most remote schools.

Chapter 3, on education spending, documented that less than 5% of total education spending goes to administration, including both central and district levels. However, the DRTs and the SRTs continued to be counted as teachers, rather than administrators. Lesotho has a total of about 85 resource teachers.

At the school level, administrative staff account for a very small share of government spending on education. In fact, while all primary schools are headed by principals—sometimes assisted by deputies—the principals and their deputies continue to share teaching with other teachers and they continue to be categorized as teachers. In most schools the principal teaches one class. The ministry guidelines state that the principal should teach unless the school has more than 800 pupils.

D. Teachers and Teacher Management

In this section, we will focus on teacher and teacher management issues. Teachers are the single most important item of public spending on education. They are the main resource that schools, particularly at the lower levels, have at their disposal to organize the delivery of education services, and they are the front-line workers with direct responsibility for managing teaching and learning processes in the classroom. Thus the profiles of teachers, and of their deployment in the system across schools, are highly pertinent aspects of the education system.

Primary Teachers

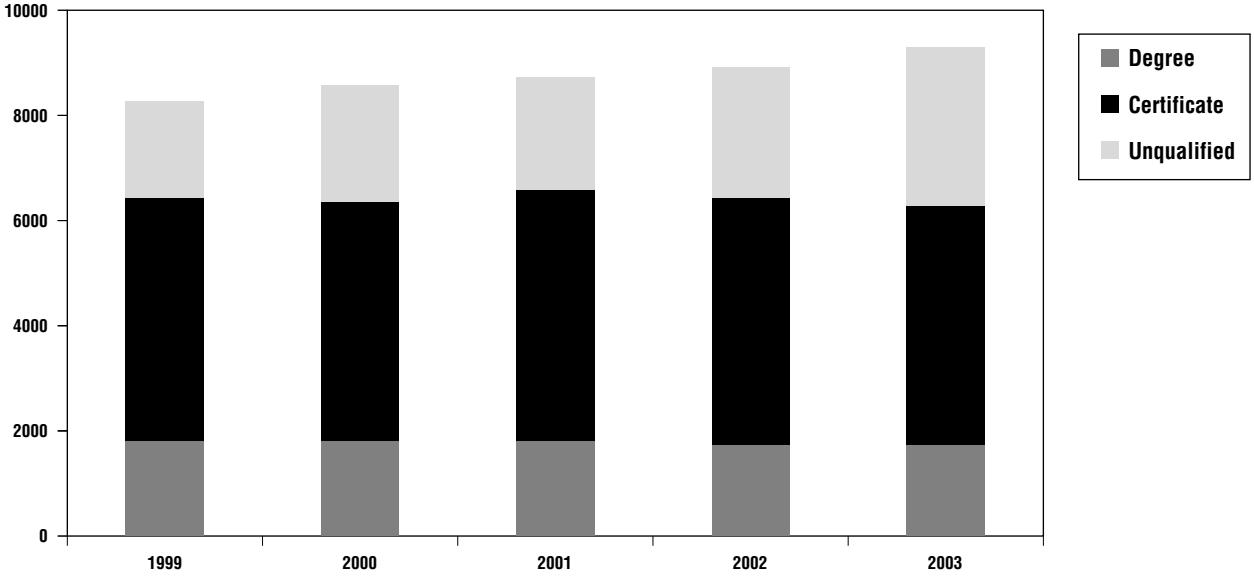
Lesotho has a teaching force of 9,294 primary teachers (2003 data), of whom approximately one third are untrained. The expansion of the system following the introduction of FPE has resulted in a shortage of teachers, and the number of untrained primary teachers has increased rapidly, rising from 1,809 in 1999 to 3,035 by 2003. Teachers are considered untrained if they do not have a formal qualification in teaching. However, many of the untrained teachers do have a secondary education and a Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC). Indeed in Lesotho, almost 90% of primary teachers (Table 5.12) have at least a COSC qualification which is equivalent to more than 12 years of formal education. And yet, more than 30% are still considered "unqualified" because of the lack of teaching qualification.

Across school types, the distribution of teacher qualifications remains similar and a majority of teachers have at least a COSC. However, it is

Table 5.12
Primary Teacher Qualifications and Level of Education, 2003

Teacher Qualifications	% of Primary Teachers
Primary school (7 years of formal education)	0.4
Junior Certificate (10 years of formal education)	11.1
COSC (12 years of formal education)	21.1
COSC and pre-service training	36.0
COSC and in-service training	24.0
Higher education and pre-service training	0.2
Higher education and in-service training	0.8
Unknown	6.5

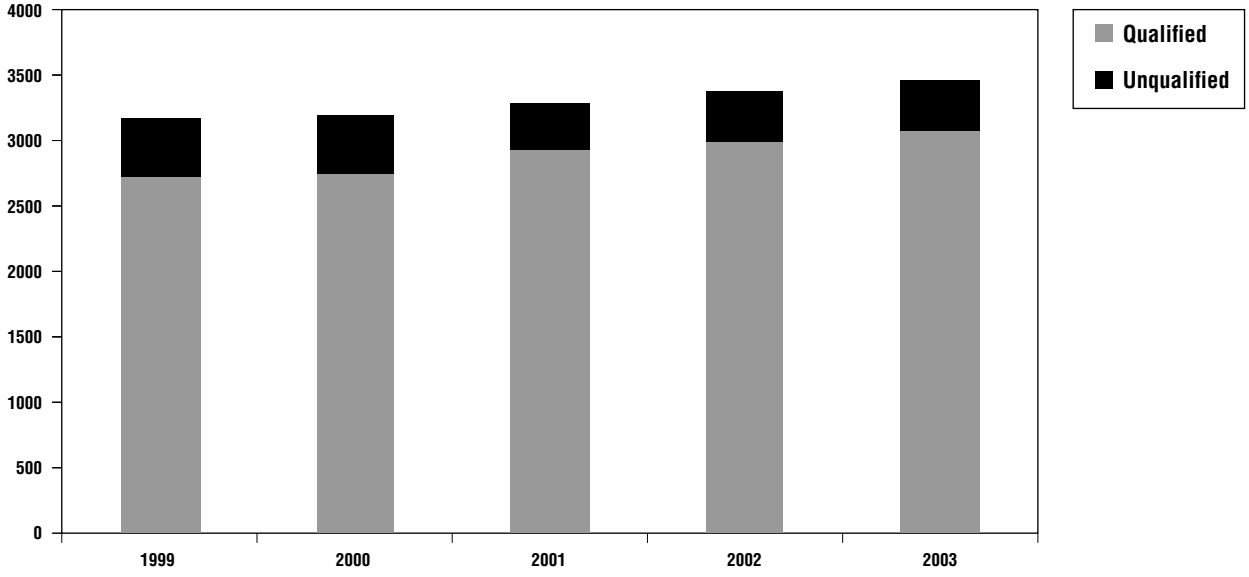
Figure 5.2
Primary Teachers: Number and Qualification



Source: MOET

worth noting that there are no unqualified teachers in the private schools. Government schools have the highest proportion of unqualified teachers since more than 51% of their teachers do not have teaching-specific certificates (See Appendix 5.1). This may reflect the recent increase in the number of government schools, coinciding with the shortage of qualified teachers.

Figure 5.2
Secondary Teachers: Number and Qualification



Source: MOET

Table 5.13
Secondary Teacher Qualifications

	% of Secondary Teachers
Masters Degree	4
Bachelors Degree	50
Diploma	13
Advanced Certificates	1
Secondary Teachers Certificate	17
Secondary Technical Teachers Certificate	2
Teachers Certificate	1
Cambridge Overseas School Certificate	8
Joint Matriculation Board Certificate	0
Primary Teachers Certificate	1
Other Certificates	1
COSC & JC Plus In-Service Education	0
Associate of the College of Preceptors	3
Unknown	1

Comparing teachers in multigrade classrooms with those in mongrade classrooms, 43% of multigrade teachers are unqualified, compared with 29% of mono-grade teachers. Further, among unqualified teachers, a higher proportion of the multigrade teachers have junior certificates or below qualifications (15% versus 10%). See Appendix 5.1.

An unusual feature of the system is the presence of "volunteer" teachers in some schools. These volunteer teachers, who typically leave school at a young age, and who cannot find a job, volunteer to teach in the local schools in the hopes of getting employed if a vacancy arises.

Secondary Teachers

Lesotho has 3,470 secondary teachers (2003 data). Although there are some unqualified secondary teachers, the proportion has been decreasing slowly in recent years, and in 2003 only 11% of secondary teachers were unqualified.

Table 5.13 indicates that over 50% of secondary teachers in Lesotho are graduates, and 4% hold masters degrees. Many of the non-graduate teachers have a diploma or advanced certificate (14%), while others hold either a Secondary Teachers Certificate or Secondary Technical Teachers Certificate (19%). However there remain teachers with only a COSC (8%) or other school-level qualifications.

Table 5.14
Primary Teachers: Gender and Location

	% Female Teachers
Foothills	79
Lowlands	83
Mountain	71
Senqu River Valley	74
Total	79

Teacher Gender

Most of the primary teachers are female. Overall, almost 80% of teachers are female. In mountain areas there are slightly more male teachers, but even there, females account for more than 70% of the teacher population. Gender is more balanced for secondary teachers where only 55% of secondary teachers are female and 45% are male. For both primary and secondary teachers, the gender balance has remained fairly constant over recent years.

Figure 5.3
Primary Teachers and Gender 1999–2003.

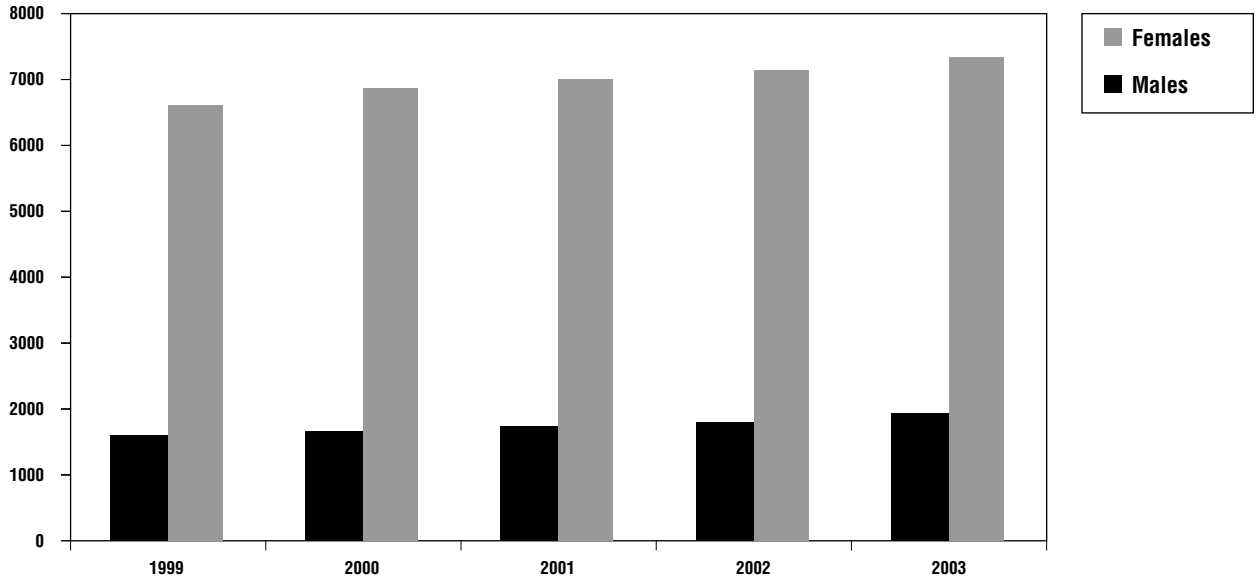
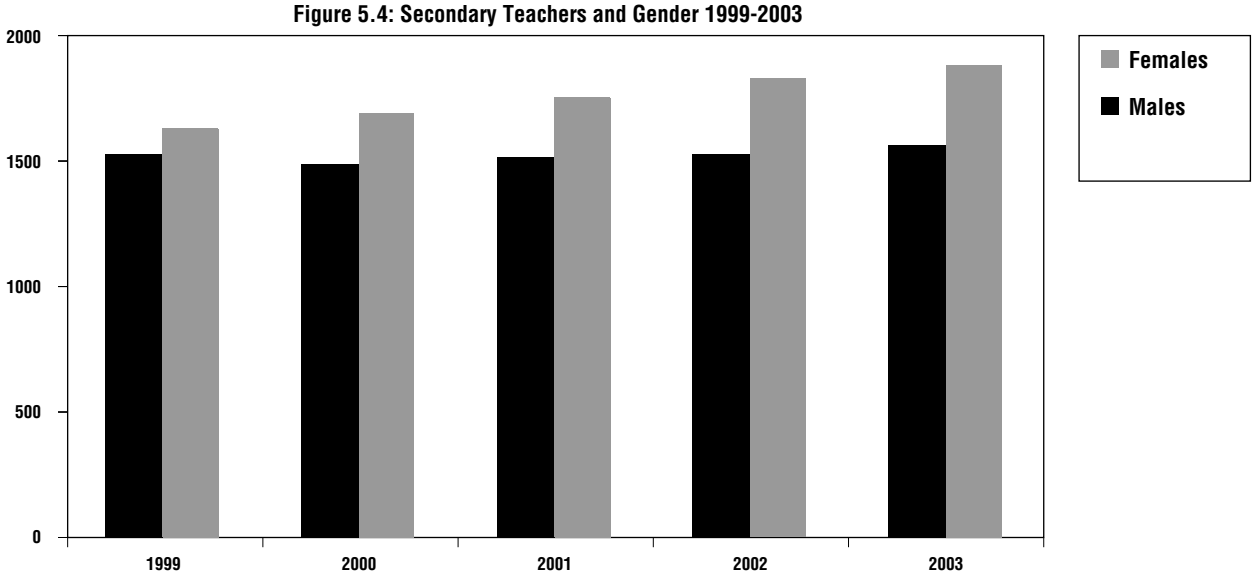


Figure 5.4
Secondary Teachers and Gender 1999–2003



Teacher Attrition

Primary teaching is a relatively stable profession in Lesotho. Many teachers remain in the service until retirement age. Retirement is compulsory at 65, but some teachers even request extensions of service after that date. Current teachers have an average of 14.2 years of teaching service, which, given the recent expansion of the number of teachers, is an indication of the stability of the profession. Female teachers have, on average, 2.5 years more service than males.

In 2004, 380 teachers left the profession (Table 5.15), making an attrition rate of 3%. Attrition can be divided into three main causes. Teachers reaching retirement accounted for 27% of attrition. A further 39% was attributed to teacher resignation before retirement, possibly moving to other employment. And death accounted for 31%.

Table 5.15
Attrition of Primary Teachers, 2004

Cause	Number	% of a Attrition
Retirement	104	27
Death	117	31
Dismissal	10	3
Resignation	149	39
Total	**380**	

HIV/AIDS and the Teaching Force

The HIV/AIDS epidemic has a significant impact on the teaching force. Lesotho has an estimated HIV prevalence rate of 29% (World Bank Edstats, 2003). Some indication of teacher-specific infection rates are provided by a 2003 campaign of voluntary testing and counseling carried out by MOET. Voluntary testing was offered to headquarters staff and teachers in seven districts. Only 6% of the staff was tested, but the results showed that 22% of them were HIV positive. Infection rates were higher among males than females and higher in Maseru than in other districts.

The infection rate is expected to increase in the coming years. The impact of this high infection rate can be seen directly in teacher attrition. Teacher deaths, many of which are attributable to HIV, amount to 1% of the total teacher force each year. In addition, HIV is responsible for increased teacher illness and loss of productivity in the system.

Table 5.16
Prevalence of HIV/Aids among Education Sector Staff

		Tested		% HIV Positive	
Location	Total # of Staff	Male	Female	Male	Female
HQ		90	260	35.6	13.1
Mohale's Hoek	1,041	65	211	18.5	16.1
Thaba-Tseka	684	166	302	15.1	14.2
Berea	1,053	112	185	16.1	24.9
Maseru	2,810	94	266	64.9	36.1
Mafeteng	1,427	11	52	27.3	13.5
Leribe	2,150	18	57	11.1	10.5
Quthing	782	13	52	30.8	25.0
Total	**9,947**	**569**	**1,385**	**27.6**	**20.1**

Teacher Training

The main source of qualified primary teachers is the Lesotho College of Education (LCE). LCE operates a full time, three year course for school leavers known as the Diploma in Education, Primary (DEP). This is intended to have 250 students per year, but because of limited capacity at LCE, it has not reached that number. In 2004 there were 183 graduates.

At present the pre-service course is not training enough new primary teachers each year to replace the numbers lost through attrition. This is creating a shortage of qualified primary teachers, which is likely to be exacerbated by reductions in the pupil-teacher ratio. As a result, increasing numbers of untrained teachers have been recruited. In addition to the pre-service course, LCE offers two programs aimed at providing training for unqualified primary teachers:

1. Diploma in Primary Education (DPE) is a 2 year full time course for teachers with some experience, usually unqualified teachers, or teachers with lower level qualifications. Last year there were 60 graduates from this course.
2. In January 2002, the LCE started to offer the Distance Teacher Education Program (DTEP). This is a part time course for in-service teachers. It is offered by distance education, using a mix of residential sessions, meetings with tutors in locations around the country, and text materials. In its first year the program took in 500 teachers. A further 100 teachers with COSC started at the beginning of year 2. This pattern has been continuing since, with unqualified teachers starting at year 1 and others joining at year 2. As the course is fairly new, the first graduates will not emerge until 2006. There has been some dropout, but at present, there are 536 in year 3, from the 600 taken in. Although the academic requirements for entry were lower than for the conventional course, the curriculum was designed to parallel the full time course.

The government policy is to require all primary teachers to have at least COSC plus pre- or in-service training in Diploma of Education programs. The old primary teaching certificate programs are being phased out both in pre-service as well as in in-service programs. The upgrading of unqualified teachers is currently being provided by programs at the Lesotho College of Education in its pre and in-service programs. An important consideration is that once teachers move from unqualified to qualified teachers, their annual salary automatically increases by more than 60%, raising questions on the cost and the fiscal sustainability of school expansion.

Secondary teachers are trained in two institutions. Lesotho College of Education provides a Diploma in Education (Secondary) (DES), and a Diploma in Technology Education (DTE). The National University of Lesotho (NUL) offers a Bachelor of Education degree which caters to undergraduates aspiring to be secondary school teachers. (**need information on # of graduates**).

Teacher Deployment and Allocation

Teacher deployment is based on local hiring of teachers. The Ministry "grants" teachers to schools in response to school population and budget considerations. Once the school is granted a post, the school management committee can select the teacher. When the teacher is identified, the papers are sent to the Teacher Service Commission for approval.

This local hiring system has a number of implications. First, teachers apply directly to schools where they would be willing to work. There is therefore no pattern of teachers refusing postings—individuals unwilling to work in a particular area do not apply for posts in that area. Second, the ability to select teachers locally makes it more likely that local people will be appointed, and encourages the volunteer teachers, who may be more likely to get a post if they are known in the school.

On the other hand, the local hiring system is open to local influence. The ministry perception is that, although posts are advertised, many schools have a person in mind before they begin the selection process. In some cases this results in a local person being appointed in preference to an outsider. There have even been cases of qualified teachers being rejected by communities wishing to hire a local unqualified teacher. In schools where there are volunteer teachers, there may be expectations of getting a paid position when one becomes available. In some cases where these expectations have not been satisfied, there have been tensions within the community. Further, strong local control may also cause uneven deployment within schools. Teachers in powerful positions may be assigned to the smallest classes, leaving the largest classes to the least experienced teachers.

In addition, the local recruitment system makes the rational distribution of teachers difficult, for a number of reasons:

- First, the process of appointing a teacher is fairly long, and involves different parts of the ministry, church authorities and local management committees. Inefficiency, poor communication and bureaucratic delays mean that some schools do not take up the posts granted to them, or that there may be long delays before a teacher is in place.
- Second, the ministry finds it difficult to transfer teachers from schools where numbers are falling. The construction of new schools in rural areas is causing a fall in numbers in some of the older schools. In addition, in some cases schools were built quite close to each other (often schools of different religious denominations) and now that these accept students of any denomination they compete for students. Where a school is perceived to be of poor quality, parents may move their children to nearby schools, or withdraw them altogether, causing falling enrolment in some schools. School authorities are reluctant to allow a teacher to be transferred out of a school. In particular, church authorities may be sensitive about erosion of their schools and resist teacher transfer.

As Sesotho is the first language for the majority of the population, language is not normally a constraint on teacher deployment. However, a small number of the population does speak minority languages, and finding competent teachers for them also presents challenges.

To encourage teachers to locate in rural areas, there is a hardship allowance paid as a flat fee of 275M per month. This is generally acknowledged to be too small to encourage the more highly qualified teachers to locate in remote areas. As it is a flat fee, it is proportionally more significant for the lowest paid teachers. The hardship allowance is determined by very general classifications of schools. Teachers in remote schools in the lowlands do not receive the allowance, while teachers in town in mountain districts do.

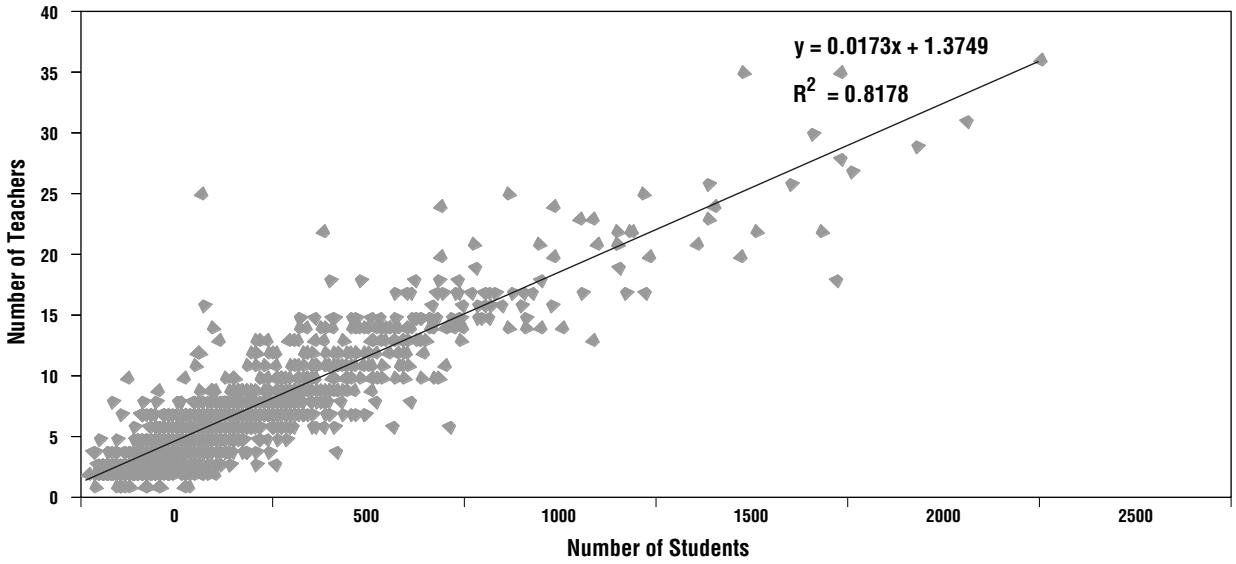
Overall, analysis of the school census confirms that, across about 1,355 primary schools that existed in 2003, there is a general correlation between enrollment size and the number of teachers (R^2 = 81.8%), but there is also a wide variation in the number of teachers for schools enrolling a similar number of pupils (Figure 5.5). For instance, there are between 100 and 750 pupils for 10 teachers at the school level; similarly, schools enrolling 500 pupils may have teachers numbering between 6 and 18. This wide range suggests inequitable distribution of primary teachers. The random of teacher allocation can be indicated by a randomness measure which is equal to 100 minus the R-square, which is about 18 in Lesotho.

Analysis of teacher deployment by region indicates that the relationship between pupil and teacher numbers is weakest in the mountain areas (See appendix 5.4).

Rural Teachers

There are particular problems in rural areas. Lesotho has some very mountainous areas where

Figure 5.5
Relationship Between Numbers of Teachers and Students in Primary School, 2003



Source: School Census (2003)

travel is difficult and infrastructure is poor. The ministry is trying to reach the children in these remote areas, using a sophisticated school mapping exercise. The aim is to provide a school within 3km of every child, on the assumption that 3km is the equivalent of about one hour's walk. Given the dispersed population, schools in rural areas are generally smaller than those in urban areas.

Accurate data on the rural-urban disparities is difficult to obtain, as this is not tracked and recorded in routine reports. The lack of facilities makes rural areas unattractive to many people, and the rural schools may find it more difficult to attract qualified teachers. As a result, 51% of the teachers in mountain areas are unqualified, compared with only 24% in lowland areas. Even these figures may mask greater teacher shortages in the most isolated schools. In rural areas it is not uncommon to find schools with only one qualified teacher.

Table 5.17
Percentage of Teachers who are Unqualified by Location

% Unqualified	Female	Male	
Total			
Foothills	35	58	39
Lowlands	21	39	24
Mountain	47	60	51
Senqu River Valley	26	59	35

Teacher absenteeism is also reported to be a problem in rural areas. These schools are very remote, and it can take a day's travel to reach a town. Most teachers leave the school to collect their checks, which can involve an absence of three days. Other factors also cause absenteeism. Even a visit to a doctor can take three or four days. Where a teacher's home is some distance away from the school, travel home on weekends is difficult, and may result in teacher absenteeism on Monday or Friday. Teacher absenteeism is compounded by pupil absenteeism, as pupils are withdrawn by their families for domestic tasks and minding cattle.

Teacher Utilization

All primary teachers have the same official working hours. Schools work from 8am to 2:30pm, with some local variations. All teachers are trained to teach the entire curriculum without subject specialization. Within some schools there may be subject specialization arrangements, at the discretion of the management. In most schools the principal also teaches a class. The ministry guidelines require that the principal should teach unless the school has more than 800 pupils. Multi-shift teaching is not practiced, although mentioned in the original plan for FPE. The ministry guidelines suggest that the qualified teachers be assigned to the lowest grades, but this is not always followed in practice.

Impact of Classroom Shortage

While the official working hours involve 6.5 hours of teaching per day for each teacher, this may be considerably reduced in some schools. In many schools there are more teachers than classrooms. Nationally the average pupil-teacher ratio is 4:7, while the average pupil-classroom ratio is 7:1. As there is not provision for multi-shift teaching, it is likely that the real teaching hours are reduced, as teachers share the time in the available classrooms.

An indicator of the scale of teacher under-utilization caused by classroom shortage can be calculated from the relationship between pupil-teacher ratio and pupil-classroom ratio. If teachers share the available classroom time, then the national average workload is really 4.3 hours per day instead of the official 6.5 hours ((46/71) * 6.5=4.2 hours).

The under-utilization of teachers resulting from classroom shortage is greatest in mountain areas. Using the theoretical teaching load calculation, teachers teach only 3.9 hours per day in mountain areas, compared with 4.8 hours in lowlands.

Table 5.18
Theoretical Average Teaching Load Per Day, Based On Pupil-Classroom Ratio

Teaching Load	Total
Mountains	3.9
Lowlands	4.8
Senqu River Valley	3.8
Foothills	4.5
Unknown	5.5
Total	4.2

Note: Average daily teaching load is calculated based on (pupil-teacher ratio-pupil: classroom ratio, multiplied by official hours of instruction per day)

Teacher Management—Quality Assurance

There are a series of measures in place to manage teachers and ensure educational quality. These include, school principals, school management structures, a school inspection service, and a network of District Resource Teachers who provide support to rural schools.

Inspection

The school inspection service is organized at two levels: a central inspection service with 14 staff, and a district level inspection staff with an intended staff of 5 inspectors in each district (50 in total). An external review of the inspectorate in 2002 revealed that the level of actual inspections was low. The central inspectorate had completed no inspections in 2001 and only 15 in 2000. The district level inspectorate had an actual staff of 39 (78% of the intended level), giving a ratio of 26 schools per inspector. However, it had performed only 74 inspections in 2001.

Inspections were limited by lack of transport, and by the involvement of inspectors in other activities, such as serving on curriculum review panels. Further, the report raised questions about the expertise of the inspectors, and their ability to provide valuable feedback to schools. The

report concluded that the inspectorate was "most unlikely to be contributing in any way to the quality of education provided in Lesotho's schools" (Multiserve, 2002, Review of the Schools Inspectorates of the Kingdom of Lesotho).

Support

Support is provided to some rural schools through a network of support staff known as District Resource Teachers (DRT). Eighty DRTs were recruited in 1988 as part of a project supported by USAID. Each was assigned to a cluster of between 7 and 16 schools, and charged with providing pedagogical support and in-service training for teachers.

The DRTs were well trained for their role and had good credibility, as many were previously head teachers. In general, visits by DRTs were welcome at schools. However, delays in reimbursement of travel costs (of up to 2 years) and other management issues lowered morale in the team, and restricted school visits.

An evaluation of the program in 2002 noted that the results were "most disappointing" and the schools served by DRTs showed little gain in performance. Moreover, the DRTs served only a limited number of schools. While initially it had been the intention that they would move to different clusters after a period, many DRTs stayed working with the same schools from 1988. The report recommended transforming the DRT system into an education advisory service (Multiserve, 2002).[14]

School Principals

Immediate daily supervision of teachers is the responsibility of the school principals. Most primary school principals teach a class as well as carrying administrative responsibilities. The ministry guidelines are that the principal should teach unless the school has more than 800 pupils. Principals are required to have a qualification in school leadership, but in rural schools, many of the principals do not have this qualification and so serve as acting principals, sometimes for long periods.

The role of school principals in supervision of other teachers is unclear. Where the principal teaches a full timetable, monitoring of other teachers may be limited to monitoring teacher attendance. More proactive principals may offer guidance and support, particularly to untrained teachers.

School head teachers or principals are selected by the school management committees. The process of selection is not always transparent. While this process may ensure a good relationship between the principal and the community, it may also limit the principal's ability to take disciplinary action against teachers who are from the community.

Local School Management

Primary schools have local management committees. These serve to increase the involvement of the local community in the school. The committees have considerable power. They select the teachers to be appointed, and select the school principal.

The details of the structure vary slightly with school type. In government schools there is one School Management Committee for each school. This committee is comprised of eight people, including two representatives of the ministry, three representatives of parents, one teacher representative, the principal and a representative of the traditional leader/chief.

In church schools, the School Management Committee is usually responsible for a cluster of up to eight schools belonging to the same church. Each individual school has a School

[14] Multiserve, Newth, Ash and Whalley, David (2002). Evaluation of the Primary In-service Education Programme (PIEP) of the Kingdom of Lesotho, Report to the Ministry of Education and Training.

Advisory Committee, which provides advice to the School Management Committee, but the decision making power resides with the School Management Committee.

Post-primary schools have a School Board appointed by the proprietor (in the case of church schools) and approved by the Minister of Education. The School Board consists of: a) two representatives of the proprietor; b) three members of the community served by the school, who are elected by parents of pupils admitted in that school; c) one representative of teachers; d) a chief of the area where the school is situated; and e) one principal of the relevant school who is the secretary of the School Board.

Teacher Discipline

In the case of teacher absenteeism or misbehavior, a complaint from a principal of a church school would be passed in sequence to the management committee, the church authorities, the ministry and the inspectorate, before any action would be taken. Where the misbehaving teacher is popular or well connected locally (as may easily happen given the local hiring system), the principal and management committee may be reluctant to take action, causing even greater delays before the difficulty comes to the attention of the ministry. The number of teachers dismissed for misbehavior is very small, totaling only 10 teachers (of 9,000) in 2004.

In short, schools are managed by a school principal, who reports to a local management committee or school board. There are two system-level quality assurance services. The school inspectorate, is intended to inspect schools, but has limited ability in practice, and has been criticized for both the number and quality of inspections. The District Resource Teachers are intended as a support service for rural schools. They serve a limited number of rural schools, and although they provide pedagogical support, their impact on teaching quality has yet to be demonstrated. The limited number of inspections means that, for a teacher not served by a DRT, the chances of having any support or observation from outside the school are small. In effect, the system relies on school principals to monitor and support their teachers. It is unclear to what extent they are prepared for, or fulfill, that role.

E. Student Learning Outcomes in Primary Schools in Lesotho

The above sections in this chapter detail the service delivery and its disparities across the country and across various types of schools. In this section, we try to relate the school inputs to the children's learning outcomes.

In Lesotho, as in many other poor countries, primary education absorbs a major share of public resources. In such a context, how much students learn and how efficiently resources are transformed into learning outcomes become key issues.

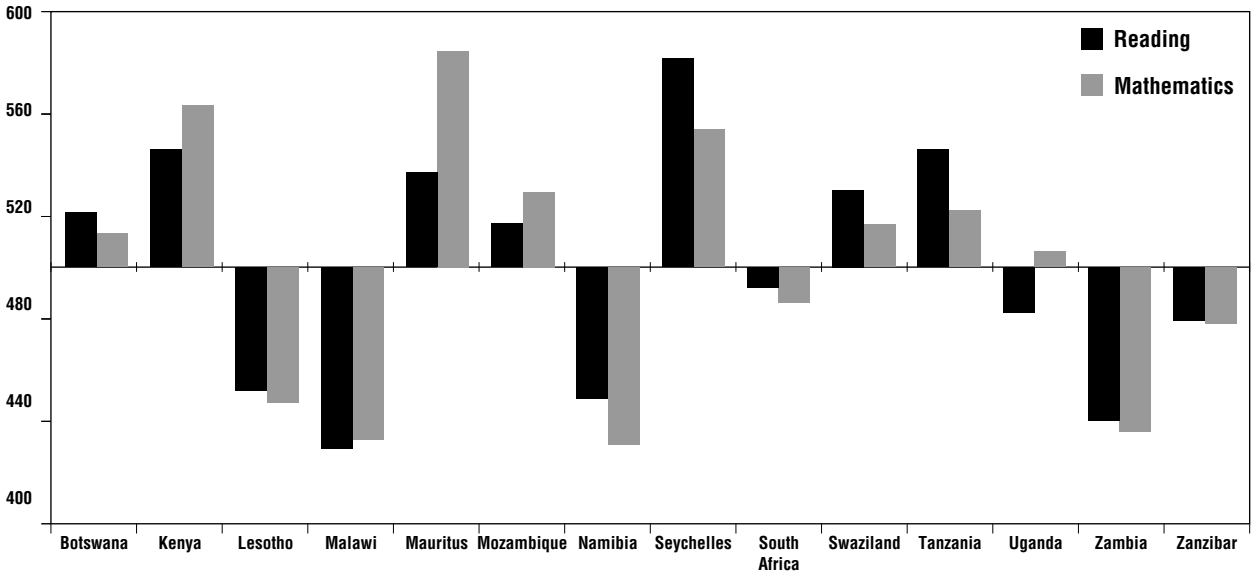
After documenting student achievement from a cross-national perspective, we address these issues by using data from the Primary School Leaving Exam that Grade 7 pupils must complete to graduate. Based on this information, we give an overview of the national examination results, compare the performance of primary education in Lesotho over time, and examine the correlation of student learning in this country.

International Comparisons

With regard to student learning, international comparisons place Lesotho in a very unfavorable situation. Between 2000 and 2003, the Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) conducted a study under the auspices of the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIPE) in 14 English-speaking African countries. In it, Standard 6 pupils in Lesotho achieved very poor results compared to their counterparts.

Figure 5.6 below presents the means for the reading and mathematics test scores of pupils in

Figure 5.6
Country differences in reading and mathematics achievement



Source: SACMEQ II data

each country included in the survey. In this figure, test scores are standardized around a mean equal to 500.[15] According to the SACMEQ data, the performance of Lesotho students falls well below the average, with scores of 451 on reading, and 447 on mathematics. Compared to Seychelles, one of the highest-performing countries in the sample, students from Lesotho had an absolute disadvantage of around 40 points in both subjects, followed only by Malawi, Namibia and Zambia.

Trends and Disparities in Student Achievement: An Analysis of the Primary School Leaving Exam (PSLE) Results

In this section we present empirical evidence on the performance of the students who took the 1999 and 2003 PSLE[16]. In both years, students took the examination on five subjects: English, Sesotho, mathematics, science and social studies. Here, however, we focus mainly on students' overall performance by considering the simple average of their raw scores in each subject. Put

[15] See Annex 5.6 for scores by countries.

[16] The Primary School Leaving Exam (PSLE) is a national test. It is administered by the Lesotho Examination Council and marked centrally in Maseru. Its scores are criteria based, rather than nom-based. It is true that no systematic information is availiable regarding the quality of the PSLE over the years. This Report holds that the comparision of PSLE results before and after FPE still provides important insights, though readers are cautioned not to make too much out of the comparison. Further, several reports in the literature which compare the PSLE results across time, including the following:

IBE, The EFA 2000 assessment: Lesotho country report in "*http://www2.unesco.org/wef/countryreports/lesotho/rapport_2.html*"

PSLE 2003, Administrative Report, Examination Council of Lesotho, Maseru 2005

Muster (Multi-Site Teacher Education Research Project), Lesotho, Discussion Paper 8, Centre for International Education, University of Sussex, 2000, in "*www.sussex.ec.uk/usie/muster/pdf/mpd_8_11_02.pdf*"

another way, this overall performance indicator corresponds to the average percentage of correct answers for the five subjects and varies between 0 and 100.

Table 5.19 summarizes the data on the PSLE results for 1999 and 2003. During this period, the students' overall performance remained practically unchanged: in 1999, Grade 7 students scored 49.4% on average for the five subjects included in the examination, compared with 50.7% in 2003. However, these averages mask wide differences between subjects: where their performance on English, Sesotho and science fell by up to 8% over time, they got better results in mathematics and social studies compared with 1999, increasing their scores in these two subjects by 9 and 11 percentage points respectively.

Looking more closely at the distribution of performance between students, several features become clear. First, the variance in scores has increased slightly over time, implying that students' performances became more heterogeneous. Second, a large proportion of the students are failing to meet the curriculum objectives. According to Table 5.24, 50% of pupils answered less than half of the test questions correctly in 2003. The best students achieved modest scores in absolute terms: around 65% on average in 2003 and 62% in 1999.

Table 5.20 contains some relevant information on social disparities in learning for the two years under consideration. It shows that boys and girls achieved very similar results on average, with a modest rising trend over time, and older students did less well. For example, those who registered to take PSLE at age 12 in 2003 scored 11 percentage points higher than those who registered at age 17. When the data is disaggregated by district it shows that students in Butha-Buthe, Maseru, and Leribe outperform their peers. Students attending community schools in 2003 obtained noticeably higher

Table 5.19
Primary School Leaving Examination Results, Lesotho 1999 and 2003

	1999		2003	
	Average	**Standard Deviation**	**Average**	**Standard Deviation**
Number of students who sat for PSLE	37,856	—	40,146	—
Scores by Subject				
English	45.6	12.3	43.3	15.2
Sesotho	69.5	9.0	61.2	10.6
Mathematics	43.7	12.8	53.1	13.2
Science	47.3	12.4	43.6	11.8
Social studies	41.1	11.3	52.2	13.6
Average	49.4	9.4	50.7	10.5
Average Score by Quartiles of Score				
Worst students	38.4	5.8	37.7	5.2
2	46.5	1.7	47.1	2.0
3	52.3	1.7	54.3	2.3
Best students	61.6	4.9	65.0	5.2

Source: Author's calculations based on the 1999 and 2003 PSLE data.

Table 5.20
Disparities in Primary School Leaving Examination Results, Lesotho 1999 and 2003

	1999			2003		
	Number of Candidates	Average	Standard Deviation	Number of Candidates	Average	Standard Deviation
Gender						
Girl	21,628	49.2	9.2	22,417	50.6	10.3
Boy	16,059	49.7	9.6	16,541	50.8	10.8
Age						
12 yrs	2,946	54.7	9.6	2,812	57.5	10.8
13 yrs	6,155	52.0	9.0	6,517	54.7	10.3
14 yrs	7,722	50.1	8.6	7,601	52.0	9.6
15 yrs	7,459	48.8	8.7	8,438	49.7	9.7
16 yrs	5,751	47.3	8.7	5,815	48.4	9.8
17 yrs	3,778	46.4	8.9	3940	46.8	9.9
Location						
Mountains	7,085	47.7	8.6	7,978	48.3	10.0
Lowlands	21,595	50.4	9.5	22,327	52.0	10.7
Senq River Valley	1,092	48.2	8.7	1,041	49.2	9.9
Foothills	8,084	48.6	9.6	8,299	49.6	10.0
District						
Thaba Tseka	1,680	50.7	8.8	2,102	49.0	10.9
Butha-Buthe	2,284	51.5	8.9	2,510	53.1	9.7
Leribe	6,865	49.2	9.2	6,950	51.2	10.9
Berea	5,421	49.7	9.6	5,315	50.7	10.4
Maseru	8,475	50.4	9.7	8,990	52.0	11.0
Mafeteng	4,653	47.8	9.2	4,696	48.9	9.8
Mohale's Hoek	3,300	50.4	9.8	3,707	50.8	10.5
Quthing	2,199	47.2	8.9	2,126	49.1	9.2
Qacha's Nek	1,546	47.8	8.5	1,556	48.8	9.8
Mokhotlong	1,433	47.3	8.3	1,699	48.3	9.7
Owner						
Anglican Church of Lesotho	5,625	49.8	9.5	5992	49.9	10.0
African Methodist Episcopal Church	255	46.1	7.4	490	48.5	9.8
Community	1,030	55.0	12.1	1,638	58.1	11.8
Government	119	61.3	8.0	416	50.8	12.0
Lesotho Evangelical Church	14,267	49.1	9.0	14,534	50.3	10.1
Roman Catholic Church	15,146	48.8	9.1	15,018	49.7	10.3
Other	1,351	53.9	10.5	1,520	58.7	10.7

Source: Author's calculations based on the 1999 and 2003 PSLE data

scores compared to their counterparts, and were 8 percentage points above the average among students in schools run by the Roman Catholic Church and the Lesotho Evangelical Church, which enroll more students. It is noteworthy that the achievement gaps between these various types of schools increased by around 6 percentage points between 1999 and 2003.

Correlates of Learning

What factors explain the disparities captured in the broad-brush picture above? We address this issue by merging individual data from the 2003 PSLE with the 2003 school census. In order to evaluate the impact of individual teacher characteristics on student performance, we focus only on the students who enrolled in schools that have only one teacher in Grade 7. Doing so reduces the sample size to 14,997 candidates who were enrolled in 521 schools out of the total of 971 schools that had Grade 7 in 2003. Because of data limitations, the students enrolled in government schools are excluded from the analysis.

Following common practice in the economics of education, students' performance is modeled as a function of three factors: students' personal characteristics; the conditions in schools and classrooms, including teacher characteristics; and the type of school attended. It should be noted that the data we use have several shortcomings for the analysis attempted here. First, they do not provide information on the pupils' socioeconomic backgrounds. Second, because students are not tested at the beginning of the school year, it is not possible to model the determinants of learning as a dynamic process over the course of a school year.

Table 5.21 displays the variables employed in the analysis and presents the summary statistics for our dataset, with means and standard deviations. Overall, students gave an average of 49% correct answers for the five subjects, which is very close to the results reported at the national level.

Turning to student and teacher characteristics, 40% of the candidates are boys, and both boys and girls who sit for the PSLE are 15 years old on average. Of the teachers, 62% are female, with about 16 years of professional experience. The sample teacher characteristics are consistent with the average teachers in Lesotho as reported above.

Regarding classroom characteristics, 15% of the teachers are teaching multi-grade classes, and 28 students are in the average Grade 7 classroom. School conditions are measured as the percentage of pupils who have no desk or seat: on average 28% of the 521 schools in the sample. Finally, the great majority of these schools are run by churches—Roman Catholic, Evangelical, or Anglican—with only 3% community schools. Their geographical distribution is reasonably similar to that of the nation's primary schools.

We now turn to the regression analysis of the correlates of the 2003 PLSE results. Table 5.22 reports ordinary least squares estimates of the year-end test scores in two different ways: with and without using school inputs as separate regressors. The comparison of the two ways allows us to understand the additional impact of school inputs on student learning.

The results reported in Table 5.22 indicate that student characteristics alone (age and gender) explain a very small part of the performance variation in the sample (around 1%). Adding class- and school-level variables increases the explanatory power of the model by 4.5 percentage points. This result suggests that schooling inputs matter somewhat more than other personal characteristics in explaining variation in the PSLE results. However, the overall impact of these factors is apparently limited.

With regard to influences on students' progress in learning, the regression results indicate that, with everything else kept the same, older students perform significantly worse. For example, pupils who participated in PSLE at age 12 have a score about 0.6 higher than those aged 15.

Table 5.21
Sample Characteristics of Pupils and Schools, Lesotho 2003

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Average score[a]	48.9	10.1
Student Characteristics		
Age (in years)	15.4	4.9
Boy (%)	40.4	49.1
Teacher Characteristics[b]		
Female (%)	62.2	48.5
Length of service (in years)	16.1	10.4
Qualification (%)		
Primary education or JC	7.2	25.9
Secondary education		
COSC	16.7	37.3
Secondary education with pre-service training	41.7	49.4
Secondary education with in-service training	29.7	45.7
Classrooms Characteristics [b]		
Pupils in Grade 7	28.0	14.8
Multi-grade teaching in Grade 7 (%)	15.4	36.1
School characteristics [b]		
Pupils with no seat no desk (%)	27.6	32.9
Type of school (%)		
Community schools	3.2	17.7
Lesotho Evangelical Church	36.9	48.3
Roman Catholic Church	41.4	49.3
Anglican Church of Lesotho	13.6	34.3
African Methodist Episcopal Church	1.3	11.5
Other	3.6	18.8
Location (%)		
Mountains	37.4	46.3
Lowlands	34.9	47.7
Senqu River Valley	3.1	17.3
Foothills	24.6	43.1
Number of Students	14,997	—
Number of Teachers/Schools	521	—

[a]/ Average scores on the following five subjects: English, Sesotho, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies.
[b]/ Sample means and standard deviations correspond to the sample distribution at the school level.

Source: Author' calculations based on the 2003 PSLE data and the 2003 primary school census

Table 5.22
Correlates of PSLE Results, Lesotho 2003[a]

	Excluding School Inputs as Regressors		Including School Inputs as Regressors	
	Coefficient	t	Coefficient	t
Student Characteristics				
Age (in years)	–0.224	8.12	–0.191	7.57
Boy (girl)	0.436	2.56	0.244	1.46
Teacher Characteristics				
Female (male)	—	—	0.520	2.91
Length of service (in years)	—	—	–0.051	5.66
Qualification (primary education or JC)				
COSC	—	—	1.092	3.17
Secondary education with pre-service training	—	—	1.608	5.80
Secondary education with in-service training	—	—	2.446	8.57
Classrooms Characteristics				
Pupils in Grade 7	—	—	–0.092	–5.53
Pupils in Grade 7 (square)	—	—	0.001	6.24
Multi-grade teaching (mono-grade teaching)	—	—	–2.247	–7.61
School Characteristics				
% Pupils with no seat no desk	—	—	0.414	1.46
Type of School (Community Schools)				
Lesotho Evangelical Church	—	—	–3.935	–7.41
Roman Catholic Church	—	—	–4.374	–8.20
Anglican Church of Lesotho	—	—	–3.789	–6.82
African Methodist Episcopal Church	—	—	–5.869	–7.22
Others	—	—	1.828	2.64
Location (Mountains)				
Lowlands	—	—	1.253	5.96
Senqu River Valley	—	—	0.811	1.66
Foothills	—	—	1.471	6.76
Intercept	52.206	123.4	55.269	68.22
Number of Students	14,997	—	14,997	—
Number of Teachers/Schools	521	—	521	—
R_	0.012	—	0.053	—

[a]/ Regressions with robust standard errors; dummy variables with the omitted category indicated in parentheses.

Source: Author's calculations based on the 2003 PSLE data and the 2003 primary school census

Contrary to what one might expect, teachers with more years of experience tend to be less effective; that is, their students score less well on the exam. One possible explanation for this finding is that without continuous in-service teacher training, the senior teachers may not keep up with changes in the curriculum and thus are less effective than their younger colleagues. The results also suggest that teachers with a COSC are significantly more effective than teachers with a primary education diploma or a Junior Certificate. The amount of teachers' pre- and in-service training has a positive and significant impact on student performance. However, pre-service training adds less value than in-service training. One possible explanation is that existing pre-service training programs are less effective in preparing teachers. This finding probably indicates some scope for improving the design of these programs.

With regard to classroom characteristics, the results in Table 5.27 indicate that class size has a significant negative effect on student performance. One possible reason may be that teachers do not adapt their pedagogy in response to the size of the class they teach. A second classroom characteristic is multi-grade teaching: controlling for all other factors, in Grade 7 it seems to negatively and significantly influence examination results on the PSLE. Therefore, the way that teachers handle multi-grade teaching is a key issue in improving the performance of primary education. Given that multigrade teaching is practiced by a high proportion of unqualified teachers, and that little support is provided, it is not surprising that pupils from multigrade classes perform significantly less well in the (PSLE).

Focusing now on school characteristics, we note that, all else being the same, students in community schools perform significantly better than their counterparts. Schools run by the African Methodist Episcopal Church and the Roman Catholic Church are among the less efficient schools in Lesotho, with performances around 5 points lower than those of community school students.[17] The finding that community schools are more efficient underlines the importance of community ownership in school functioning—a finding that is consistent with experience and expectations throughout the developing world.

F. Policy Perspectives on Service Delivery

Lesotho faces several challenges in managing its delivery of educational services. The analysis presented in this chapter highlights two issues that warrant special attention. The first is the structural policies, particularly those pertaining to standards for teacher recruitment and deployment, and teacher salaries and school construction that help define the tangible characteristics of the supply of services. The second has to do with management weaknesses in the system that show up in the poor allocation of human and financial resources across schools, and apparently also in the schools' disparate effectiveness in using their resources to deliver learning outcomes. Adding further complexity, the majority of schools are run by church organizations. Below we discuss policy options pertaining to these issues, drawing on international experience for an added perspective.

Setting Appropriate Standards for Teacher Recruitment and Deployment, Teacher Remuneration, and School Construction

In Lesotho, as in other countries, these standards create a network of schools with some key commonalities. While they are intended to help schools function well, the opposite effect may in fact occur when budget constraints are ignored in the choice of standards. If standards exceed what the country can afford, schools

[17] This gap is equivalent to one standard deviation from the mean.

may meet requirements in the areas explicitly specified, but do so through cutbacks elsewhere that eventually compromise their ability to provide effective services. That this has indeed happened in the Lesotho system can be seen from two key findings: the shortage of "qualified" primary teachers, especially in rural mountain areas; and the shortage of classrooms, especially in the mountain areas and the Senqu River Valley.

These areas have responded to the situation by introducing volunteer teachers or unqualified teachers to relieve the teacher shortage, and encouraged the emergence and growth of lower-cost alternatives, like tents, to serve as classrooms for remote rural populations. Multigrade teaching is also a common reality in these schools but schools receive neither policy guidance nor practical pedagogical support in this practice.

While Lesotho's system for hiring teachers locally is considered to be a good model for maintaining a stable supply of teachers for remote areas, its disadvantages are also clear. These include the tendency for rural teachers to have lower average qualifications and less experience and the difficulty in re-deploying teachers once they are involved with a particular type of school management, especially a church.

This report is the first to point out that the high level of teacher remuneration in both primary and secondary education potentially poses a fiscal risk to the government of Lesotho. Although a full 30% of primary teachers are considered "unqualified," the overall formal qualification of Lesotho's teachers (at least 12 years of general education) is high compared to that in other developing countries. International evidence has shown very little direct relationship between teachers' formal qualification and student learning outcomes. At the same time, the high cost of teacher salaries constrains the government in its effort to improve coverage.

Standards for school construction represent another area of concern. School construction is costly and of high quality in Lesotho. An average 7-classroom school with associated facilities currently costs about M2 million, about US $300,000. The costs can rise even higher in remote areas where delivery of materials is difficult and the harsh terrain attracts only local contractors. However, it seems obvious that the government will find it hard to improve access to primary schools for remote populations if it maintains such high standards. The government has already begun to accept that it is possible to build a 4-classroom school in areas where the population is sparse. It must take further steps to reach the goal of bringing schools closer to the communities.

Improving the whole system will require a systematic review of national recruitment and deployment, teacher remuneration, and construction standards. Such a review can be facilitated by using simulation models to test the impact of alternative options.

Taking Advantage of Decentralization Based on Lessons from International Experience

Apart from the system-wide structural issues mentioned above, managerial weakness is also responsible for the disparity in service delivery across the nation. Here two major challenges loom large: improving discipline in the allocation of resources across schools, so that human and financial resources are effectively channeled to the front lines (i.e., the school); and reducing the disconnect between resources and learning outcomes.

Despite the government's heavy investment in education, most of the inputs flowing to schools are in kind, rather than in cash. Indeed, the introduction of FPE further reduced the schools' autonomy to raise and spend funds. While this may have guaranteed the delivery of some minimum services in the short term, in the long term this may damage the school-level management capacity which has proven key to ultimate learning outcomes.

Although the process of decentralization is at an early stage, and roles, responsibilities, and

governance frameworks are still being defined and refined, Lesotho might well note the accumulated experience of other countries that are further along in education decentralization. Winkler and Gershberg (2003, p. X) distill the following lessons based mostly on experiences in Latin America and Eastern Europe:

- Efficiency and effectiveness are most likely to improve under decentralization when service providers—schools, local governments, or regional governments—are held *accountable for results*.
- Accountability requires clear delineation of authority and responsibility and *understandable information* on results (both educational and financial).
- Decentralization of real decision making power to schools or school councils can significantly increase *parental participation* in the school, and high levels of parental and community participation are associated with improved school performance.
- Decentralization of education to sub-national governments does not in and of itself empower parents and improve *school performance*. Further decentralization to schools (school councils or school boards) or local communities does empower parents and can improve school performance.
- For decentralization to schools to be successful, *principals* must acquire new skills in leadership and management—financial, with teachers, and with the community.
- The d*esign of financial transfers* to sub-national governments or schools has powerful effects on both efficiency and equity.
- Decentralization requires that national and/or regional *ministries of education* be restructured; failure to restructure ministries is a serious obstacle to realizing the benefits of decentralization.
- The decentralization of *teacher management* is critical to creating accountability and realizing the potential benefits of decentralization.
- National education ministries frequently resist decentralization on the grounds that sub-national governments, communities, and/or schools lack the *capacity to manage* education. In practice, this is seldom true.
- Real decentralization is a long, evolutionary process.

Bearing this last point in mind, it is clear that decentralization in Lesotho will also take time to produce the expected results. While not all aspects of other countries' experiences are applicable—or indeed, even useful—the concepts are highly relevant and the lessons from international experience can already be incorporated to cultivate the key characteristics and behavior patterns that characterize high-performance systems: clarity of mission, roles, and responsibilities; effective empowerment of relevant individuals; greater parent participation in schools; and, above all, an emphasis on accountability for results.

Mobilizing and Using Information to Enhance Accountability for Results

Strengthening accountability for results is difficult in education because many individuals are involved and the outcomes are typically multidimensional. Yet appropriate use of information can help improve performance by ensuring that resources are at least reaching schools. In Uganda a large-scale public dissemination of information on grants for education gave schools and parents the information they needed to monitor the grants. Over just six years, the leakage of funds fell from 80% to 20%, and schools were able to use the resources they now had available to purchase textbooks and other pedagogical inputs (World Bank 2004a). Information flow can of course be channeled in other ways too. Report cards such as those used in Parana State in Brazil are an interesting example (Servilla and Winkler 2003). They provide schools with information that compares indicators for the school (e.g.,

pupil-teacher ratios, examination results, and parent feedback) with reference averages at the national and relevant subnational levels. Report cards for school districts and other higher levels of aggregation can also provide similar comparative information.

The availability of such information may be expected to improve conditions in schools in two ways: by creating incentives for underendowed schools to seek redress; and by pinpointing specific schools in the system that warrant the attention of those in charge. In Lesotho, as in other countries, the use of information on student achievement for accountability purposes remains at an early stage. The country has already established a baseline, and this can be built on as part of the broader effort to mobilize appropriate information for better management.

G. Chapter Summary

The analysis in this chapter demonstrates that nationwide, the government of Lesotho has improved service delivery or at least managed to maintain it. Despite the FPE, Lesotho has managed to expand its primary teaching force in keeping with the expansion of enrollment with FPE even though the average school size increased somewhat from an average of 287 to 317 in 2003. Although the proportion of "unqualified" teachers seems to have increased, 89% of all primary teachers possess qualifications of COSC or above, equivalent to more than 12 years of formal education. The average number of books per primary pupil increased from 4.7 in 2009 to 5.7 in 2003, and the percentage of primary schools that offer the full 7 years of schooling rose from 35% in 1974 to 78% in 2002.

However, physical constraints in classrooms and facilities still present major challenges. Despite the government's recent efforts to construct classrooms, the average number of students per primary classroom remains at 71, which is high. In addition, 32.6% of primary pupils still do not have seats or desks. And 70% of all primary schools practice multigrade teaching.

A serious concern is the distribution of service delivery. Schools in mountain areas and the Senqu River Valley tend to be more crowded, and have higher student to teacher ratios and higher proportions of unqualified and less experienced teachers, compared to those in the lowlands and foothills. Multigrade schools which are mostly located in rural mountain areas tend to be less well endowed in terms of facilities and teachers.

In terms of teachers, by regional standards, primary teachers in Lesotho are relatively well educated, and the majority have completed secondary school. However, the supply of trained teachers has not been adequate, and an increasing proportion of teachers are untrained. The current strategy is to train these teachers in-service, using a distance education program.

The incidence of HIV infection among teachers appears high, and is forecast to rise. Teacher deaths already account for the loss of 1% of teachers annually. Measures to strengthen the HIV awareness components in teacher education courses may be beneficial.

The teacher deployment system allows local school management committees to select the teachers that are employed. This system serves rural areas relatively well. However, the administration of the system is complex and could be simplified. Teacher deployment is inequitable, and rural areas have fewer of the qualified and better-educated teachers. Although there is an incentive payment to encourage teachers to work in remote schools, this is not seen as effective. Consideration should be given to ways to improve the deployment of teachers to rural areas. One possible action is to reorganize the classification of schools to ensure that the incentive is only paid in genuinely remote schools. Consideration should also be given to non-financial incentives, including accelerated promotion (which has long term financial implications), or even a requirement that newly qualified teachers work in rural areas for a period.

Teacher utilization is restricted by a shortage of classrooms in some schools, which may encourage teachers to reduce their working hours. This issue merits further examination, and may explain why classrooms seem to play a significant role in educational outcomes.

Multigrade teaching is widely practiced, particularly in mountain areas. As further expansion of primary education is likely to be in sparsely populated areas, the use of multigrade is likely to play an increasing role. Despite the reliance on multigrade teaching, it is poorly supported in curriculum documents and in teacher training. Better preparation of teachers for multigrade teaching could do much to increase the quality of learning in multigrade classrooms.

In terms of learning outcomes, Basotho students exhibit poor reading and math skills, as reflected in the results of the SACMEQ study. The overall score on the national PSLE remained unchanged since 1999; despite increases in math and social studies, scores fell in English, Sesotho, and science. While student age and gender explain a very small part of the performance variation (1%), we found that class and school variables explains another 5.5%. Holding all other factors constant, older students perform less well than younger ones. Teachers with longer experience tend to be less effective, and those who have a COSC are significantly more effective than those with a primary education diploma or JC. Pre-service and in-service training both have a significant impact on student performance, but in-service has a larger impact. Large classes have a significant negative effect on student performance, as does multigrade teaching in Grade 7.

Interestingly, keeping all other factors constant, we find that community schools are more efficient than other types, perhaps underlining the importance of community ownership. This finding is consistent with experience and expectations throughout the developing world. In Lesotho, however, community schools include some English-medium schools and an elite American International school, so these characteristics may skew the overall results.

These findings suggest that room for improvement does exist. On one hand, increasing the comparative effectiveness of pre-service training could significantly boost student performance. Similar gains could probably be obtained by improving the implementation of multi-grade teaching. Our results found poorer performance when schools combine several levels of instruction in the same classroom. On the other hand, we found that, keeping all other factors constant, community schools are significantly more efficient than their counterparts. Thus it is crucial to understand how these schools manage the educational process in order to transfer their experience to other existing schools, and to increase community participation in managing the system.

Finally, as noted in Chapter 3, which analyzed patterns of educational spending, service delivery in Lesotho's educational system is rather centralized. While the centralized system has to some degree ensured that services are provided, it is not yet ensuring equity in either the distribution of human and financial resources, or in the delivery of educational results.

Some lessons about decentralization and using information to enhance accountability for results were introduced to provide some policy directions to the MOET. It is time for some elements of service delivery to be further decentralized to the school level. At the same time, schools should be held accountable, both financially and for their educational results.

Annexes

Lesotho Country Profile

Lesotho Country Profile

Click on the indicator to view a definition	1990	1995	2001	2002
1 Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger	*2015 target = halve 1990 $1 a day poverty and malnutrition rates*			
Population below $1 a day (%)	..	36.4	..	..
Poverty gap at $1 a day (%)	..	19.0	..	..
Percentage share of income or consumption held by poorest 20%	..	1.5	..	..
Prevalence of child malnutrition (% of children under 5)	15.8	21.4	17.8	..
Population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption (%)	27.0	26.0	25.0	..
2 Achieve universal primary education	*2015 target = net enrollment to 100*			
Net primary enrollment ratio (% of relevant age group)	72.8	70.5	84.4	..
Percentage of cohort reaching grade 5 (%)	70.6	63.1	66.8	..
Youth literacy rate (% ages 15–24)	87.2	89.0	90.5	..
3 Promote gender equality	*2005 target = education ratio to 100*			
Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education (%)	125.6	117.5	105.0	..
Ratio of young literate females to males (% ages 15–24)	125.8	122.1	119.1	..
Share of women employed in the nonagricultural sector (%)	40.4	..	..	..
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament (%)	..	5.0	..	..

(*continued on next page*)

Lesotho Country Profile

Click on the indicator to view a definition	1990	1995	2001	2002
4 Reduce child mortality	*2015 target = reduce 1990 under 5 mortality by two-thirds*			
Under 5 mortality rate (per 1,000)	148.0	140.0	133.0	132.0
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	102.0	97.0	92.0	91.0
Immunization, measles (% of children under 12 months)	80.0	83.0	70.0	70.0
5 Improve maternal health	*2015 target = reduce 1990 maternal mortality by three-fourths*			
Maternal mortality ratio (modeled estimate, per 100,000 live births)	..	..	550.0	..
Births attended by skilled health staff (% of total)	..	49.6	59.8	..
6 Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	*2015 target = halt, and begin to reverse, AIDS, etc.*			
Prevalence of HIV, female (% ages 15–24)	..	..	38.1	..
Contraceptive prevalence rate (% of women ages 15–49)	23.2	..	..	..
Number of children orphaned by HIV/AIDS	..	..	73,000.0	..
Incidence of tuberculosis (per 100,000 people)	..	..	655.0	725.5
Tuberculosis cases detected under DOTS (%)	..	47.0	64.0	60.9
7 Ensure environmental sustainability	*2015 target = various (see notes)*			
Forest area (% of total land area)	0.5	..	0.5	..
Nationally protected areas (% of total land area)	..	0.3	0.2	0.2
GDP per unit of energy use (PPP $ per kg oil equivalent)	..	..	..	..
CO2 emissions (metric tons per capita)	..	..	..	..
Access to an improved water source (% of population)	..	..	78.0	..
Access to improved sanitation (% of population)	..	..	49.0	..
Access to secure tenure (% of population)	..	..	..	..
8 Develop a Global Partnership for Development	*2015 target = various (see notes)*			
Youth unemployment rate (% of total labor force ages 15–24)	..	47.4	..	..
Fixed line and mobile telephones (per 1,000 people)	7.2	8.8	36.3	55.7
Personal computers (per 1,000 people)	..	..	..	..
General indicators				
Population	1.6 million	1.7 million	1.8 million	1.8 million
Gross national income ($)	1.0 billion	1.3 billion	1.1 billion	972.6 million
GNI per capita ($)	650.0	800.0	600.0	550.0
Adult literacy rate (% of people ages 15 and over)	78.0	80.9	81.4	..
Total fertility rate (births per woman)	5.1	4.9	4.5	4.3

(*continued on next page*)

Lesotho Country Profile

Click on the indicator to view a definition	1990	1995	2001	2002
Life expectancy at birth (years)	57.6	51.3	41.4	37.9
Aid (% of GNI)	13.9	8.6	6.0	8.7
External debt (% of GNI)	38.7	51.8	63.0	72.7
Investment (% of GDP)	49.3	60.1	44.9	40.0
Trade (% of GDP)	125.2	133.4	141.0	157.9

Source: World Development Indicators database, April 2004

Lesotho's Zones and Districts

From the Southern Africa Humanitarian and Disaster GIS Library and Lesotho Meteorological Services.
http://www.sahims.net/gis/Gis%20Input/lesotho_gis.asp
http://www.lesmet.org.ls/

Ecological Regions of Lesotho

Variations in geomorphology and topography, including micro-climatological influences, have a significant impact on the ecology of a region. Based on these factors Lesotho has four distinct ecological zones: the lowlands, the foothills, the Senqu River Valley, and the highlands.

The country consists of a high-altitude plateau, which intrudes from the western parts of the country at an altitude of roughly 1,500m, forming a narrow strip known as the lowlands. The altitude then increases through the foothills to an elevation of 2,000–2,300m, and then finally rises to the highlands. The highlands extend to the eastern escarpment where substantial areas have altitudes of over 3,000m.

The Lowlands: The lowlands cover the western part of the country and occupy about 5,200 km^2, or 17% of the total surface area. At some points, this narrow strip of land extends just 10 km inland from the border; in other places it is 60 km wide, and lies between 1,400 m and 1,800 m. The northern and central lowlands have large deposits of rich volcanic soils; the southern or border lowlands have poor soils and low rainfall. In the foothills, on the other hand, the land is very fertile and very productive agriculturally.

The Foothills: In the foothills, on the other hand, the land is very fertile and very productive agriculturally. The foothills are defined as the area between the lowlands and the highlands; at 15% of the total land area, they occupy an estimated 4, 600 km^2 which lies between 1,800 and 2,000m above sea level.

The Senqu River Valle: This narrow strip of land flanks the banks of the Senqu River and penetrates deep into the highlands, reaching lower parts of the river's main tributaries. This region covers 9% of the total surface area. The valley's soils vary from rich to very poor, making this the country's least productive region.

The Highlands: The largest ecological area, the Maluti Mountains, cover 18,047 km^{2}of the

Drakensberg range. This region is extensively dissected by the headwaters of the Senqu River and its tributaries which drain in a north-south direction; together with an extensive network of mountain wetlands, they form an important segment of the Southern African region's water resources. The drainage pattern of the highlands region has produced deep river valleys, gorges, and gullies that, in general, make human life very difficult. The highlands region forms the main livestock grazing area in the country.

Primary Syllabus in Lesotho Standards 1 through Standard 7 (1997)

The responsibility for curriculum development lies within the National Curriculum Development Center (NCDC). The current curriculum and syllabus used was officially published in 1997. Based on the published 1997 Primary Syllabus, the curriculum aims for primary education in Lesotho are:

At the completion of seven years of primary education, pupils should:

1. Have acquired communication skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in Sesotho and English and numeracy skills of counting, adding, subtracting, multiplying and dividing.
2. Communicate effectively in all learning situations and in everyday life
3. Have acquired survival and self-reliance skills to improve their living
4. Have developed creative skills in arts and entrepreneurial skills for personal development in their daily lives
5. know their natural and technological environment
6. Be able to demonstrate awareness and appreciation of interdependence existing between man and his environment
7. Be able to initiate and participate consciously in activities aimed at managing and improving the environment, health and standard of living
8. Understand and appreciate their culture
9. Have developed positive attitude and aesthetic awareness towards cultural heritage and humanity
10. Be able to demonstrate awareness and appreciate cultures of other people
11. Have acquired scientific and technological concepts and prinviples for further learning and everyday living
12. Have developed and be able to apply scientific and technological methods in learning, solving problems and improving health and standards of living
13. Have acquired knowledge and understanding of the civil human rights
14. Be able to utilize the acquired knowledge of their civil and human rights as well as their obligations and responsibilities for effective participation in their society
15. have developed awareness and appreciation of various religious beliefs
16. Be able to react positively to scientific, technological and socioeconomic situations which contribute to expected change of behaviour.

Lesotho primary school calendar:

Primary and secondary schools in Lesotho has two semesters: One from January to June and the other from July to December.

Language Policy.

The policy states that in Standards 1 to 3, Sesotho should be used as a medium and at Standards higher than 3, English would be used as a medium of sinstruction.

	Standard 1		Standard 2		Standard 3		Standards 4 & 5		Standards 6 & 7	
Subject	**Periods/ week**	**Periods/ week**	**Periods/ week**	**Periods/ week**	**Periods/ week**	**Periods/ week**	**Periods/ week**	**Periods/ week**	**Periods/ week**	**Periods/ week**
Sesotho	6	192	6	192	6	192	6	192/156	6	192/156
English	9	288	9	288	8	256	6	192/156	6	192/156
Mathematics	6	192	6	192	6	192	6	192/156	6	192/156
Science	5	160	5	160	4	128	4	128/104	4	128/104
Agriculture	3	96	3	96	3	96	3	96/78	3	96/78
Home Economics	3	96	3	96	3	96	3	96/78	3	96/78
Health/P.E.	2	64	2	64	3	96	3	96/78	3	96/78
Social Studies	2	64	2	64	3	96	4	128/104	4	128/104
Religious Ed.	1	32	1	32	2	64	1	32/26	1	32/26
Fine Arts	2	64	2	64	2	64	2	64/52	2	64/52

One period is ?? minutes

Summary of Primary School Feeding Programs in Lesotho

By Liako Selokoma

School Feeding Programmes

Introduction

This summary provides an insight about primary school feeding in Lesotho. It is informed by the two studies that were carried out by Roy Carr-Hill, Molapi Sebatane and Martin Caraher in 2002 on the Evaluation of the Feeding Scheme in Lesotho and the School Feeding Baseline Survey that was carried out by Dikokole Maqutu, Maletela Tuoane and Veronique Sainte-Luce in 2003. Other information was acquired from interviews with SSRFU and WFP. The summary takes account of the three school feeding programmes that exist in Lesotho. Those are the World Food Programme (WFP) schools feeding programme, the schools self-reliance programme and the Free Primary Education (FPE) feeding programme.

School Feeding in Lesotho

Primary school feeding in Lesotho started in 1961 with assistance from Save the Children's Fund in the 10 schools in the lowlands. WFP took over in 1965 covering all the schools in the lowlands, highlands and foothills. The objectives of WFP feeding programme was to alleviate short-term hunger, to improve concentration span and to increase attendance of primary school children. WFP started phasing out its assistance to schools in the lowlands in 1990/91 assisting schools in the highlands and foothills. It was substituted with self-reliance project. With the self-reliance project, schools were given small-scale agricultural inputs in order to promote self-sufficiency and to promote what was called "education for production." The third school feeding programme was that which came with the government of Lesotho's introduction of Free Primary Education in 2000. It was phased in annually and by grade. It currently covers standards 1–6 in 2005. With the FPE feeding the aim was to increase enrolment and to alleviate poverty. However, the two main feeding programmes are the WFP and the FPE feeding programme. The self-reliance programme is complimentary to the two programmes because it runs concurrently with those in schools where it exists. Another complimentary project is the Secure the Child (STC) project initiated by CARE Lesotho-South Africa. It is also of a self-reliance nature.

WFP Feeding Programme

WFP currently implements a feeding project called "Support to Free Primary Education," which started in March 2004 and will end in December 2007. This project has replaced the previous projects; the Country Programme 10151 that served the highlands and the Regional EMOP 10200 that responded to the food shortage crisis in the lowlands and foothills. Support to Free Primary Education feeding project covers 1325 primary schools, which includes all the classes that are not covered by FPE in the lowlands and foothills.

Distribution of food is done in collaboration with the Food Management Unit and the Ministry of Education and Training quarterly. In order to improve its operations, WFP established a School Feeding Unit, where it increased its staffing to monitor implementation of the project, to provide training to teachers, cooks and feeding managers on issues around hygiene, nutrition, food storage and report writing. In addition, the project also provides support to parents and communities who take part in the improvement of infrastructure facilities such as kitchens, storerooms and latrines as well as starting up the gardens in schools.

Free Primary Education Feeding Programme

The Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) covers the following fees; book rental fee, stationery, feeding and maintenance under FPE. Through the FPE feeding scheme food is brought into the schools by private caterers who are contracted to prepare and serve meals to the pupils. They are paid M2.00 per child per day. The meals consist of a morning snack of soft porridge during the morning hours and the main meal in the afternoon. The scheme does not cover all the schools in the highlands that are catered for by WFP schools feeding programme, but pays wages to cooks for preparing and serving meals to children in the WFP schools at a rate of 70 cents per child per day in those schools.

Self-Reliance Programme

The self-reliance programme started when WFP feeding was faced out in the lowlands. Recently, about 20 schools, 5 from each district of Mokhotlong, Thaba-Tseka, Qacha's Nek and Quthing were piloted with the self-reliance feeding running concurrently with the WFP feeding. Under the programme, schools were provided with agricultural inputs such as poultry that were provided at point of lay and seeds, so that schools could start their own agricultural production to feed the children and sell the remainder of the produce for sustainability of the project. Implementation of the programme is such that children produce food themselves and schools invite parents to assist in the production of food in order to promote community participation.

The self-reliance programme used to serve one main meal between 1100hrs and 1300hrs, with the suggested menus for different days given in a manual. This feeding programme however, failed in many respects that included lack of close monitoring of the programme by SSRFU officers and no financial accountability by Principals for the agricultural produce that was sold out. Schools under the programme were then forced to buy local food rather than produce it. It was due to these problems that the self-reliance element was based on the fact that local produce was being used as per prescribed menus. Parents were also required to contribute some feeding fee in order to fund feeding in the self-reliant schools.

A guide is also given to schools on the selection criteria for caterers and cooks, which recognizes unemployed women as priority. The Schools Self Reliance and Feeding Unit District officers monitor the programme, although this is not done regularly due to shortage of staff.

The self reliance project is overshadowed by FPE feeding and the WFP feeding. One would think of a problem being that food is brought

into the schools either by caters under the FPE feeding or by WFP and schools do not understand the need to push their own production to sustain feeding. Even if schools do not produce on their own, they would still get food from FPE and WFP.

The Secure the Child project which was initiated by CARE Lesotho-South Africa operates in 21 schools in the districts of Mokhotlong and Mohale's Hoek. It is in the form of a self-reliance project. Its overall objective is to promote sustainable food safety nets for orphans and vulnerable children that protect and uphold their basic right to food. CARE Lesotho-South Africa is executes STC with WFP, MOET, GROW and Rural Self Help Development Association (RSDA). According to the project document, two local NGOs, GROW and RSDA are implementing STC under a sub grant arrangement. GROW covers 9 schools in Mokhotlong while RSDA covers 12 schools in Mohale's Hoek. MOET implements STC at national level and houses the STC offices within the ministry.

CARE Lesotho-South Africa funds the project for starting up gardens in schools for production. It provides schools with agricultural inputs. Parents are invited to work and are paid with food for the work they have done by WFP.

The table below summarizes the operations of the feeding programmes in Lesotho showing the objectives, types of food provided, cost, impact and problems of the programmes.

Reaction to the recommendations

In order to address some of the recommendations which have been made by the studies;

- MOET is going to develop the School Health policy to address issues around hygiene and sanitation.
- Pit latrines and borehole water supplies are being built in new schools and in some existing schools.
- WFP has increased in staff in order to regularize its monitoring of the school feeding.
- The use of fuel-saving stoves is being piloted in about 30 schools. This aims at improving food preparation and reducing by 50% fuel wood consumption in schools.

Current Operations of the school feeding programmes in Lesotho

Free Primary Education (FPE) FEEDING	World Food Programme	Self-Reliance Projects	Secure the Child Project
Objectives: • To increase enrolment. • To alleviate poverty.	• To provide nutritional support to children. • Provide meals in the morning hours to improve children's concentration in class. • To overcome short-term hunger.	• To encourage self-sufficiency. • To encourage education for production.	• To develop 21 schools gardens in Mohale's Hoek and Mokhotlong that are worst affected by food crisis and insecurity. • Improve awareness in Lesotho of the rights of children and the development of appropriate safety nets that promote sustainable food security.

(*continued on next page*)

Current Operations of the school feeding programmes in Lesotho (*continued*)

Free Primary Education (FPE) FEEDING	World Food Programme	Self-Reliance Projects	Secure the Child Project
Distribution: Local caterers are hired to provide stipulated meals. Caterers are paid M2.00/child/day.	Distributed by FMU at the beginning of every quarter, two weeks before schools re-open. Cooks are paid M0.70 in the highlands including Std 7 cooks in the lowlands and foothills. Cooks buy sugar, salt and fuel, repayment of which is covered in the M0.70.	Agricultural inputs are distributed to schools, so that they could start their own production.	Agricultural inputs are distributed to schools, so that they could start their own production.
Types of food provided: Every day: Children are given mid-morning snack in the form of porridge. Mon: *Mealie pap* and *moroho* (green leafy vegetables). Tue: Bread with soup (bean or peas soup). Wed: *Mealie pap, moroho* and boiled egg. Thurs: Samp and beans. Fri: Mealie pap and boiled milk. **Note**: This kind of food is provided to classes that are under FPE coverage in the lowlands and foothills only. For Std 7 pupils, the menu is that of WFP.	Maize meal, pulse (peas and beans), cooking oil. Non-food materials are also provided in conjunction with GTZ: pots, plates, cutlery (serving spoons), buckets fuel-saving stoves (in selected pilot schools), construction of kitchens and stores.	Seeds and poultry are provided	Seeds are provided.
Cost: M101,213,907 (actual expenditure for FY 04/05).	The total cost of the project is: $14,452,294.	The cost was M2,000,000 in 2002. The project was expected to be sustainable afterwards. No allocations of the capital nature are given for the self-reliance project. The recurrent budget is available.	Funds held and disbursed directly from CARE -Lesotho-South Africa.

(*continued on next page*)

Current Operations of the school feeding programmes in Lesotho (*continued*)

Free Primary Education (FPE) FEEDING	World Food Programme	Self-Reliance Projects	Secure the Child Project
Impact:			
Positive • Alleviate poverty.	**Positive** • Improvement in children's diet. • Increased attendance. • Increased community participation including parents. • Facilitates productive activities.	**Positive** • Encouraged self-sufficiency and self-reliance.	**Positive** Encouraged self-sufficiency and self-reliance.
Negative • Promotes dependency syndrome.	**Negative** • Promotes dependency syndrome.	**Negative** • Does not address the immediate problem of poverty.	
Problems • Payment of caterers takes a long time to process, which delays the purchase of food and the activities of school feeding in general. • Some foodstuffs are not available locally, so the caterers have to travel to buy them, this may be costly. • Some schools serve mid-morning snack, some do not. In some schools, the mid-morning snack is served as the main meal.	• WFP food scheme lacked variation and therefore other important nutrients.	• Monitoring of the project is not regular. • There is no financial accountability by school principals on food sold. • In some schools vegetables from gardens are exhausted before the end of the year. • Some schools have terminated the feeding scheme because parents are reluctant to pay the fees.	• The project is still new, its problems have not been identified yet.

Summary of Bursary Programs in Lesotho

By Liako Selokoma and Mrs. 'Mamohau Mochebelele

Comparison between Moet Bursary Scheme and Social Welfare Public Assistance

Moet Bursary Scheme

Introduction

The Ministry of Education and Training has two bursary schemes at the levels of basic (seven years of primary and the first three years of secondary) and secondary education. Both the Government of Lesotho (GOL) and the World Bank fund the basic education bursaries under what is known as the Targeted Equity Based Programme (TEBP). The Global Fund funds the secondary (Forms D and E) bursaries.

1. Targeted Equity Based Programme

Targeted Equity Based Programme, component 2.5 of the Education Sector Development Project, Phase II is a poverty reduction programme whose main aim is to increase access to basic education. The scheme provides bursaries to orphans and vulnerable children.

1.1. Objective

The main objective of the bursary scheme is to reduce the number of children who drop out of school due to failure to pay fees, which is a requirement of all schools in the country. Secondly, the scheme is geared to retain children who enroll into schools despite the poor economic status of their families lest they drop out of school.

1.2. Eligible groups

Eligible groups of children covered by the scheme arranged by order of priority are:

- Double orphans.
- Single orphans whose remaining parents are chronically ill.
- Children with disabilities /or children whose parents have severe disabilities that hinder them from earning a living.
- Abandoned children whose parents' whereabouts are not known and are living with grand parents.
- Out-of-school children.

1.3. Coverage

GOL has introduced Free Primary Education (FPE) that is incremental by standards and which is up to standard six in 2005. As a result, standard 7 and junior secondary levels of education are covered by the scheme. Since poverty is rife countrywide, the scheme assists children in both rural and urban areas in the ten districts. While the scheme does not differentiate between rural and urban children, it does not cover children who attend private schools and children who go to schools that are not registered with the Ministry of Education and Training and are therefore considered 'illegal' schools.

1.4. Fees

The scheme pays

- Registration fee
- Tuition fee
- Book fee
- Examinations fee
- Stationery
- Practical/special subject fee
- Boarding fee

There is no differentiation regarding the amount of fees paid for students in rural and urban areas. The only factor, which determines the difference in fees, is fees that are charged by respective schools.

Payment of fees

Initially disbursement of bursaries to schools was made by cheques. However, it was decided that fees should be paid through the bank. While this system has proven quick and more efficient, many primary schools do not have bank accounts and are still paid by cheques. This is problematic because a significant number of cheques expire before they are cashed.

1.5. Administration and management of the scheme

The Scholarship Officer who is accountable to the Chairman of the Bursary Scheme Committee (HQ) manages the Bursary Scheme on a daily basis and reports progress to the Projects Coordinator who reports directly to Director of Planning.

The Bursary Office is manned by 13 officers of whom ten are based in the districts and three at the headquarters. Among other responsibilities the Bursary Office liaises with stakeholders, designs and processes applications; provides guidance to District Bursary Committees (DBCs) and Advisory School Committees (ASCs) and reports to relevant ministerial authorities.

1.6. Composition of bursary committees

There are three levels to determine if candidates qualify for support. Committees have been established to perform this duty. School Committees operate at the school level and District Bursary Committees operate at the district level and the MOET Bursary Committee serves as a Nation Bursary Committee.

1.6.1. Advisory School Committee — Village based

- Village chief
- School principal
- Teacher representative
- Proprietor—church representative or MOET representative in a case of a community school.
- Parents' representative.

Role of the Advisory School Committee

- Identifies children who need support
- Assesses bursary applications and recommends qualifying candidates for award of bursaries.
- Can apply for bursary on behalf of an out-of-school child who is in an exceptionally dif-

ficult circumstance e.g. a family head child, an abandoned child etc.

1.6.2. District Bursary Committee — District based

- Senior Education Officer
- Bursary Field Officer
- A Principal Chief
- A member of the Urban Board
- School principals, representative
- A member from World Vision or Red Cross
- Representative from the Department of Social Welfare

Role of the District Bursary Committee

- Selects candidates for award of bursaries
- Recommends suitable candidates to the MOET Bursary Committee.
- Writes a report to inform future selection processes and procedures.

1.6.3. MOET Bursary Committee — Based at the MOET headquarters

- Chief Education Officer—Secondary (Chairman)
- Director of Planning
- Chief Inspector—Central Inspectorate
- Chief Inspector Field Services
- Financial Controller—PSCU
- Financial Controller—MOET
- Scholarship Officer

Role of the MOET Bursary Committee

- Assesses and moderates all recommended applications.
- Ensures that the District Bursaries Committee's selection processes and procedures comply with those of the scheme.
- Upon completion, the MOET Bursary Committee recommends and forwards the lists to the Principal Secretary for approval.

1.7. Letters to chiefs; school principals; parents and members of parliament.

Once disbursement of fees to schools is completed letters to parents and school principals are drafted and signed by the Principal Secretary. Blank copies of letters together with beneficiary lists are sent to the districts to be forwarded to the chiefs.

Lists of children who benefit from the scheme are forwarded to the Principal Secretaries office as well as the Assistant Minister's office.

1.8. Application procedures

Currently, the Bursary Scheme has structures at the school level. Advisory School Committees and School Boards at schools recommend candidates for award of bursaries. These bodies are representatives of all stakeholders; parent, proprietors, local authorities and teachers.

Family Level

In child headed households, children are allowed to write application letters for themselves. However, for children whose parent/guardians are still alive parents/guardian are expected to apply on behalf of their children. People of goodwill and authorities such as principals, District Secretaries, chiefs etc can apply for bursaries on behalf of Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) who are in exceptionally difficult positions.

School Level

The application procedures at school level are two tiered. Firstly, the principal of the school has to ensure that all deserving children in his school have and fill in bursary application forms. Thereafter, the principal fills in relevant information in the application form and invites the school committee to evaluate applications and recommend qualifying applicants for award of bursaries.

1.9. The selection process

The selection of worthy children is community based with chiefs recommending children for award of bursaries. ASCs further recommend children while the DBC performs the actual selection of children to be awarded bursaries. The rationale behind the above arrangement is to ensure participation of the communities and transparency to the selection process.

1.10. Budget

The bilateral credit agreement between the GOL and the International Development Association indicates that the partners will each contribute 50% of the total sum required to pay bursaries.

The budget allocation by district

The bursary allocation model is based on the district population of school going age that dropped out of school. Again, the budget allocation is determined by the primary and secondary distribution per district. Each district has a budget and will award bursaries on the basis of the budget. Thus, the DBC will only award new bursaries if the budget permits.

1.11. Linkages with other Organisations

The Bursary Office collaborates with international as well as local organizations. It works closely with Lesotho AIDS Programme Coordinating Agency, Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, UNICEF, Office of the First Lady, Office of the Master of the High Court, Lesotho Save the Children etc, which are government bodies; Non- governmental organizations such as Save the Children (UK), World Vision etc. It also works hand in hand with United Nations agencies such as UNICEF and WFP.

2. Global fund

2.1. Objective

The objective of the education component of the Global Fund project in Lesotho is to ensure that education and learning opportunities are provided to HIV and AIDS orphans.

2.2. Eligible children and schools

Unlike the bursary scheme for primary and secondary students, only orphans benefit. This scheme supports double orphans and single orphans in Forms D and E. Secondly, only high schools benefit from this arrangement for it is realized that organizations that used to support vulnerable children with school fees have either closed down or have stopped supporting orphans e.g. NMDS, the Department of Social Welfare; Save the Children Fund; etc. It was also realized that children currently benefiting from the MOET Bursary Scheme would not continue schooling after Form C if an opportunity is not created for them. Only registered high schools benefit from this programme.

2.3. Application process and procedures

In January 2004, the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare approached the MOET to assist to process bursary applications for HIV and AIDS orphans to be supported under the Global Fund. It was decided that charity institutions should submit lists of orphans seeking assistance. Many institutions that submitted applications operate in villages and this was deemed advantageous because most of them would bring in out-of-school children. Applications in the form of letters were received from

- The Office of the First Lady
- AIDS District Task Forces
- World Vision
- Department of Social Welfare
- Office of the Master of the High Court

- Ministry of Education and Training (applications only)

The Scholarship Officer- MoET, the then Economic Planner LAPCA and an officer from the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning compiled lists from other institutions jointly. Since the lists did not match funds available, MOET sent forms to secondary and high schools to fill for both double and single orphans. After compilation, a report was written and submitted to the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare for approval and disbursement of bursaries.

Social Welfare

Introduction

New intakes into the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare and the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning in the National Manpower Development Secretariat (NMDS) bursary assistance were stopped in 2002. Assistance exists with the on-going pupils in Primary and Secondary Schools. As a result, the explanation below shows what used to happen when new intakes were selected into the bursary scheme which is to some extent still used when reassessing the existing pupils.

Social Welfare administers Public Assistance (PA) which is the monthly allowance of M100 targeted to the destitute and poor people who fall under orphans, the severely disabled, the severely ill or the very elderly. In to be eligible for PA, one must be in a household without regular income, or the monthly income within the household should be less than M150; or within a household with livestock or assets which can generate a monthly income of less than M150.

Assessment for eligibility into the PA assistance is based on the applicant's situation at the time of application. The same method of assessment is used for eligibility of pupils into the bursary assistance for primary grades which are not covered by Free Primary Education and for secondary levels. However, the budget and funds come from NMDS while Social Welfare makes the selection.

Selection Procedure

A needy child can apply for bursary him/herself or a parent/guardian/relative/people of good will can apply on behalf of the child. The applicant obtains a letter from the chief that certifies that he/she is needy. The applicant takes the application letter to Offices of the Social Welfare. Upon submission of the application, a Social Worker interviews the applicant and fills the assessment form about the applicant. As a follow-up assessment, the social worker then goes to visit the family which the child lives in. If on the basis of the selection criteria the Social Worker is satisfied that the child is needy he/she approves the application and lets the applicant know immediately that they will be awarded bursary. The Social Worker then writes a letters to the Principals showing a list of pupils that will be awarded bursaries. The Social Workers from the ten districts send lists of needy children to the Social Welfare Headquarters. A list is then compiled and sent to NMDS to process payment. No queries are made from the Headquarters when the District Social Workers have recommended the children for award of bursaries.

Fees

All the fees are paid for (books, tuition, examination and other fees) according to the individual child's need. In some cases uniforms are bought for the child, while in other cases parents or relatives can afford to buy uniform or some items of the uniform and do not require Social Welfare's assistance in that regard.

Payment Process

In order to process payment to schools, Principals fill in three (3) Claim Forms. One form is

submitted to Social Welfare, the other is submitted NMDS and the last form is submitted to the Treasury Department of the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning for payment.

Budget

Social Welfare does not budget for the bursaries and therefore does not have a limited number of children to select. However, they put a budget limit of M300 and M3,000 per assisted primary and secondary pupil respectively, per year. Bursaries are budgeted for by NMDS and the Social Welfare is not informed of how much the budget amount is for the bursaries each year.

Monitoring

Social Workers have to visit schools regularly to ensure that the beneficiaries of the bursaries are still in school. However, due to lack of human resource and transport, this kind of monitoring is not carried out regularly. The only monitoring that is in place is the use of pupils' End-of-year Performance Reports, which are used for renewal of the bursaries each year. If the child fails, he/she is not considered for bursary the following year.

Since the Social Welfare is concerned about the situation of the child at a period in question, reassessments are made even for children who have passed their exams, to check if they are still eligible for the bursary. If their situation has improved, they are not assisted.

Subvention for Government Secondary Schools

Ms. Liteboho L. Maqalika-Lerotholi and Mr. S'khulumi Ntsoaole

Preamble:

The history of Education in Lesotho bears its origin from the Christian Missionaries (1833). For more than 100 years the British Colonial Government left education entirely in the hands of the churches, namely, the Paris Evangelical Missionary Society (PEMS) now Lesotho Evangelical Church, the Roman Catholic Church and the Anglican Church in Lesotho. Recently the smaller other churches own a few schools.

The only government school which was established in the pre-independent Lesotho was Basutoland High School (50 years) now known as Lesotho High School. This was started as a department of the Ministry of Education and has remained so to date. Though the principal and teachers at Lesotho High School are remunerated by the Teaching Service, the school itself remains a government department, with its bursar directly responsible to the Treasury cadre.

In recent years, mainly after independence, the government of Lesotho has gradually established its own schools, not because there was any pressure because the common assumption from both the government and the church was that all schools assumed the status of public schools. This understanding remained as long as there were cordial relationships between government and the church, but in some instances, when government wanted to make some improvements or changes that were not in the church's favour, some scuffles ensued.

For many years, at least from 1970s, government secondary schools with status not similar to Lesotho High School were:

1. Hlotse High School in Leribe
2. Mohale's Hoek High School in Mohale's Hoek
3. Maseru High School in Maseru, and
4. Maseru Day High School in Maseru.

From mid 1980s new ones were added, namely

5. Mafeteng High School in Mafeteng
6. Qacha's Nek High School in Qacha's Nek
7. Sechaba High School in Leribe
8. Thetsane High School in Maseru
9. Sekonyalela Secondary School in Mokhotlong

Machabeng High School, now Machabeng College is another government school established mainly to meet the needs of the children of international diplomats assigned to Lesotho. The Administration of this school has been dif-

ferent from the rest of the other schools. Machabeng High School Subvention has been determined by Cabinet in recent years.

The Origin of Subventions

While government secondary schools also charged school fees in a manner determined by them, the government, through the Ministry of Education found it necessary to provide them with small cash for starting and maintaining projects such as poultry, piggery, garden produce, etc. Around 1995 the subvention given to the first 4 government secondary school was M10 000 each. To monitor the use of funds including subvention in these schools, the Ministry of Education appointed auditors who were paid by the individual schools to audit the books annually.

When the new schools were established, their subvention differed from the old schools. Mafeteng, Qacha's Nek, Thetsane and Sechaba High schools' subvention started with M60 000 each per annum. No specific reason for the decision was made expect that the schools were new and would need more money to meet their needs. So, all schools that received subvention were now required to make annual subvention budgets on the fixed amounts given to them. In other words, the subvention budget was driven by the fixed allocation while in ideal financial situations the school requirements would determine the subvention required by each school.

In 2000 the then Principal Secretary increased subvention for new secondary schools to M100 000 while the old schools subvention came to M60 000 per year. Although the subvention was meant specifically for projects, some schools' projects have been very poor and they decided to use their subventions to cover certain areas which could not be covered by the school fees. The schools' projects have ranged from rearing animals to building teachers' quarters and new classrooms. Some schools have used subvention for renovation and maintenance, thus ignoring critical financial practices of including maintenance in their regular annual budgets.

It can not be justified why government schools receive subvention because even their mode of collecting school fees differs and charge different fees.

Way forward and recommendations

The way forward with fees and subventions in government schools could be a starting point for rationalizing school fees in Lesotho in general. Putting all government schools at par with Lesotho High School where fees are low and are paid into the Ministry's Accounts department could bring equity and address the seeming imbalances in enrolments. Coupled with the envisaged amendments of the 1995 Education Act, the leadership in rationalizing fees in government schools would provoke debate to follow suit in the proposed public schools.

To address the question of transparency in the use of school fees and any funding in the schools, a strong financial management system should be established with strict regulations and enforcement agencies. Special auditors should be put in place to monitor the use and advice the Ministry regularly.

Table:
Incidence of orphanhood among children below 15 years, Lesotho and other African countries circa 2000 (percentage)

			Orphans				
	Sample size	Non-orphans	Father dead	Mother dead	Both parents dead	Total	Total
Lesotho, 2000	12,004	84.2	12.1	2.1	1.6	15.8	100.0
Age group							
0–5 years	4,438	91.0	7.7	0.8	0.5	9.0	100.0
6–14 years	7,566	80.2	14.7	2.9	2.2	19.8	100.0
Location							
Urban	2,261	85.7	11.1	2.1	1.1	14.3	100.0
Rural	9,733	83.9	12.3	2.1	1.7	16.2	100.0
District							
Butha-Buthe	753	84.2	11.7	1.9	2.2	15.8	100.0
Leribe	1,686	84.6	11.4	2.1	1.8	15.3	100.0
Berea	1,511	86.0	9.7	2.4	1.7	13.9	100.0
Maseru	2,470	83.3	13.4	1.6	1.6	16.6	100.0
Mafeteng	1,480	84.9	11.7	2.5	0.9	15.1	100.0
Mohale's Hoek	1,136	78.6	14.9	2.9	3.5	21.3	100.0
Quthing	809	85.9	11.0	2.4	0.7	14.1	100.0
Qacha's Nek	442	85.3	13.8	0.7	0.2	14.7	100.0
Mokhotlong	705	85.5	11.3	2.3	0.8	14.4	100.0
Thaba-Tseka	1,002	85.4	11.7	2.1	0.8	14.5	100.0
Other African countries							
Ghana, 1998	9,783	93.7	3.6	1.9	0.8	6.3	100.0
Kenya, 1998	16,881	89.8	6.5	1.8	1.9	10.2	100.0
Malawi, 2000	28,888	88.3	6.5	2.9	2.3	11.7	100.0
Mozambique, 1997	19,891	86.6	6.7	4.2	2.5	13.5	100.1
Namibia, 1992	11,123	90.5	5	1.5	3	9.5	100.0

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Table: (*continued*)
Incidence of orphanhood among children below 15 years, Lesotho and other African countries circa 2000 (percentage)

			Orphans				
	Sample size	Non-orphans	Father dead	Mother dead	Both parents dead	Total	Total
Niger, 1998	17,701	93.4	3.3	2	1.3	6.6	100.0
Tanzania, 1999	8,339	90.9	5.3	2.2	1.6	9.1	100.0
Uganda, 2000	18,449	87.2	7.2	2.9	2.7	12.7	99.9
Zambia, 1996	18,107	87.4	7.4	2.9	2.3	12.6	100.0
Zimbabwe, 1999	11,999	84.7	9.3	2.6	3.4	15.3	100.0

Sources: author's calculation for Lesotho based on the 2000 MICS Survey; for all other countries: World Bank 2005, Education in Ethiopia: Strengthening the Foundation for Sustainable Progress, Washington DC.

Table: Distribution of new entrants in Standard 1 by age in the school census, Lesotho 1999–2003 (percentage)

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Age					
<6 years	5.9	5.0	7.8	7.6	7.1
6 years	34.2	29.8	38.4	42.3	44.6
7 years	27.2	24.9	26.3	27.0	28.4
8 years	14.2	14.1	11.2	11.0	10.2
9 years	8.4	8.7	5.7	4.9	4.4
10 years	4.8	6.7	3.9	2.7	2.2
11 years	2.5	4.1	2.5	1.6	1.2
12 years and more	2.9	6.8	4.3	2.8	1.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of new entrants	51,778	98,517	69,597	60,250	59,390

Source: author's calculation based on the 1999-2003 school censuses.

Table:
Means of variables in the logit model of nonparticipation to school

	2000				2002			
	Whole sample	6–8 years	9–12 years	13–14 years	Total	6–8 years	9–12 years	13–14 years
Child characteristics								
Age	10.1	6.96	10.5	13.5	10.2	6.9	10.6	13.5
Boy (girl)	50.1	49.4	51.7	47.8	49.7	50.8	50.0	47.9
Orphanhood status (both parents alive)								
Mother alive-father dead	13.6	11.2	14.0	16.1	-	-	-	-
Father alive-mother dead	2.7	2.0	2.9	3.4	-	-	-	-
Both parents dead	2.1	1.4	2.1	3.0	-	-	-	-
Household head characteristics								
Male (female)	1.280	1.271	1.286	1.279	66.6	67.8	66.5	65.2
Age (in years)	51.1	49.6	51.3	52.6	49.9	48.9	50.2	50.7
Education (no schooling)								
Primary education	60.3	60.3	60.1	60.9	54.3	53.5	55.1	53.8
Secondary or higher education	14.8	16.4	13.9	14.2	16.2	16.3	16.0	16.5
Household income group (poorest)								
Second	21.1	20.9	21.8	19.9	20.3	19.2	20.3	21.6
Middle	21.3	20.3	21.2	22.7	20.0	20.2	20.0	19.9
Fourth	20.0	20.1	19.8	20.1	17.6	17.5	18.0	17.2
Richest	19.7	19.7	19.7	19.6	19.0	18.6	18.6	20.1
Household composition								
Members less than 6 years old (%)	11.5	12.9	11.2	10.0	15.0	20.1	13.3	11.2
Members more than 14 years old (%)	50.7	48.8	51.1	52.8	55.6	52.0	53.9	63.4

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Table: (*continued*)
Means of variables in the logit model of nonparticipation to school

	2000				2002			
	Whole sample	6–8 years	9–12 years	13–14 years	Total	6–8 years	9–12 years	13–14 years
Distance to nearest primary school (<15 minutes)								
15–29 minutes	—	—	—	—	24.9	24.5	24.6	25.7
30–44 minutes	—	—	—	—	23.2	23.2	22.8	23.9
45–59 minutes	—	—	—	—	11.5	11.0	11.5	12.3
>= 60 minutes	—	—	—	—	19.6	19.3	20.0	19.4
Living in rural area (in urban area)	81.5	81.3	81.5	81.9	74.4	75.2	74.4	73.2
District (Butha-Buthe)								
Leribe	13.3	13.9	13.2	12.8	10.1	10.0	9.5	11.5
Berea	12.7	12.7	12.4	13.0	9.9	10.9	9.1	10.2
Maseru	20.7	21.0	20.4	20.8	9.9	9.6	9.6	10.7
Mafeteng	13.0	12.4	13.5	12.6	9.6	9.6	9.8	9.3
Mohale Hoek	9.8	9.5	9.4	11.0	9.6	8.2	10.3	9.9
Quthing	6.8	7.7	6.2	6.7	9.8	10.0	10.0	9.3
Qacha's Nek	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.4	10.6	10.1	10.9	10.6
Mokhotlong	5.7	6.1	5.6	5.5	10.1	10.4	10.2	9.5
Thaba Tseka	8.0	7.5	8.4	7.7	10.3	11.5	10.1	9.2
Has never been to school	11.7	18.6	6.9	7.0	11.5	20.9	6.6	6.6
Number of observations	6,893	2,178	3,126	1,589	5,553	1,765	2,410	1,378

[a]/ Omitted category of dummy variables in parentheses. Means of dummies variables expressed in percentage.

Source: author's calculation based on the 2000 MISC Survey and the 2002 CWIQ survey

ANNEX 4.4

Table:
Promotion, repetition and dropping out rates by grade, Lesotho 2000 (percentage) [a]

	Standard 1			Standard 2			Standard 3			Standard 4		
	Advance	Repeat	Drop	Advance	Repeat	Drop	Advance	Repeat	Drop	Advance	Repeat	Drop
Gender												
Boys	67.2	27.0	5.7	88.8	6.8	4.4	85.7	8.4	5.9	90.3	5.6	4.1
Girls	71.4	22.8	5.9	88.9	7.6	3.5	88.7	5.7	5.7	93.4	3.2	3.4
Wealth index												
Poorest	69.7	20.2	10.1	87.9	8.5	3.5	86.2	6.5	7.3	92.5	4.3	3.2
Second	67.9	23.5	8.6	86.5	4.3	9.1	85.6	5.2	9.2	88.5	3.1	8.5
Middle	68.9	25.2	5.9	88.7	7.5	3.8	86.4	6.3	7.3	90.7	6.2	3.1
Fourth	66.9	28.9	4.2	88.3	9.3	2.4	86.4	9.2	4.4	92.5	4.6	2.9
Richest	73.6	25.9	0.5	92.8	6.7	0.5	91.2	7.6	1.2	94.8	3.1	2.1
Orphanhood status												
Both parents alive	69.0	26.4	4.6	89.7	7.9	2.4	89.2	7.1	3.7	92.9	4.5	2.6
Mother alive-father dead	71.5	22.8	5.7	91.3	6.3	2.4	87.1	6.9	6.0	95.8	4.2	0.0
Father alive-mother dead	77.8	20.0	2.2	86.4	9.1	4.5	84.6	0.0	15.4	92.9	7.1	0.0
Both parents dead	60.0	26.7	13.3	90.9	0.0	9.1	73.3	6.7	20.0	92.9	7.1	0.0
Total orphans	72.0	22.5	5.5	90.6	5.8	3.5	85.4	5.7	8.9	95.0	5.0	0.0
Location												
Urban	70.9	25.1	4.3	93.9	3.7	2.2	92.5	3.7	3.8	95.6	3.1	1.3
Rural	68.7	25.6	6.1	87.7	8.0	4.4	86.0	7.9	6.2	91.0	4.6	4.4
District												
Butha-Buthe	85.9	6.3	7.8	88.2	5.9	5.9	91.0	1.6	7.5	92.6	1.5	5.9
Leribe	64.3	30.4	5.5	88.9	9.6	1.5	88.6	7.9	3.5	92.9	4.4	2.7
Berea	68.3	25.5	6.2	90.2	3.9	5.7	89.8	6.1	4.1	89.8	3.8	6.5
Maseru	70.2	24.0	6.7	88.8	6.1	5.1	84.0	9.0	7.2	96.5	2.0	1.4
Mafeteng	65.6	30.2	4.8	87.4	9.7	3.1	87.2	5.7	7.2	87.3	9.8	2.9
Mohale's hoek	67.5	26.2	7.9	87.7	5.9	6.2	93.5	4.2	2.2	90.3	4.9	4.8
Quthing	73.8	21.0	6.0	89.5	8.0	2.6	76.5	10.9	13.2	86.4	9.4	4.5
Qacha's nek	72.9	24.0	2.1	97.4	0.0	2.6	88.2	5.9	5.9	96.0	0.0	4.0
Mokhotlong	73.5	24.5	2.0	84.9	11.5	3.8	97.2	2.7	0.0	92.0	0.0	8.0
Thaba-tseka	65.9	28.2	4.9	88.5	9.0	2.6	79.6	16.0	4.1	100.0	0.0	0.0
Lesotho	69.2	25.1	5.8	88.9	7.2	4.0	87.2	7.1	5.8	92.0	4.3	3.7

[a]/ Cells are left empty where the number of observations is too small to calculate reliable promotion, repetition and dropping out rates.
Source: author's calculation based on the 2000 MISC Survey

Standard 5			Standard 6			Standard 7			Total		
Advance	Repeat	Drop	Advance	Repeat	Drop	Advance	Repeat	Drop	Advance	Repeat	Drop
89.3	6.6	4.1	89.9	3.2	6.9	72.1	9.5	18.3	82.5	11.9	5.7
93.9	4.5	1.7	82.0	6.8	11.2	67.1	11.5	22.6	84.5	9.5	6.0
87.3	5.6	7.0	87.9	6.1	6.1	46.7	6.7	46.7	82.1	10.4	7.5
90.4	3.0	6.7	71.2	6.8	21.9	56.7	3.3	40.0	80.3	9.3	10.4
92.1	6.0	2.0	87.0	3.7	9.3	61.7	11.7	26.7	83.0	10.7	6.2
92.0	6.7	1.3	85.5	5.6	8.9	72.9	14.3	12.9	82.8	12.8	4.4
94.1	5.9	0.0	89.7	5.5	4.8	81.3	8.0	10.7	88.4	9.6	2.0
94.5	4.5	1.0	90.7	7.6	1.7	78.0	18.0	4.0	84.40	12.50	3.20
96.2	3.8	0.0	91.7	5.6	2.8	81.8	9.1	9.1	86.30	10.20	3.50
75.0	16.7	8.3	100.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	82.90	11.40	5.70
100.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0				84.50	7.10	8.30
94.2	4.9	1.0	93.3	4.4	2.2	83.3	8.3	8.3	85.60	10.10	4.30
97.9	2.0	0.0	91.1	1.7	7.3	76.7	6.2	16.7	88.2	7.8	3.9
90.0	6.3	3.6	83.1	7.0	10.3	66.8	12.3	22.1	82.3	11.5	6.3
85.5	7.8	7.3	88.6	3.0	8.6	80.0	0.0	20.0	88.2	4.0	7.9
88.8	8.3	2.8	76.0	12.9	12.0	75.0	7.7	18.2	81.6	13.5	5.1
91.0	6.3	2.2	87.0	2.6	10.4	50.0	14.3	36.7	83.3	9.5	7.2
94.4	2.8	2.8	82.5	5.2	12.7	83.3	8.8	4.8	84.5	9.6	5.9
94.6	4.3	1.1	94.5	3.6	1.8	65.7	15.6	20.0	82.1	13.3	4.7
91.8	5.3	2.7	93.5	2.1	4.3	66.7	16.7	18.5	84.4	10.0	5.6
88.1	5.1	7.1	81.0	10.0	9.5	66.7	7.7	27.8	81.3	11.5	7.7
88.2	10.5	0.0	60.0	25.0	20.0	63.6	9.1	27.3	84.2	9.9	5.4
96.4	3.2	0.0	94.4	0.0	5.6	55.6	28.6	22.2	86.2	10.1	3.7
96.6	3.2	0.0	85.0	5.3	10.0	55.6	0.0	44.4	81.9	13.4	4.6
91.7	5.5	2.8	85.1	5.4	9.5	69.2	10.0	20.8	83.5	10.7	5.8

Primary teacher qualifications by school type (2003)

Qualification	Gov.	Community	LEC	RCM	ACL	AME	Others	Private	Total
Primary school	0.4	2.0	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.4
Junior Certificate	7.0	7.4	13.8	9.1	12.0	8.3	13.4	0.0	11.1
COSC	43.9	18.7	21.1	18.5	20.0	29.3	31.3	21.4	21.1
COSC and pre-service	30.3	50.5	35.2	37.5	32.3	25.6	29.6	71.4	36.0
COSC and in-service	14.3	14.0	22.5	26.1	28.3	28.6	21.0	7.1	24.0
Higher and pre-service	1.7	2.5	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Higher and in-service	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.7	1.3	0.8	1.1	0.0	0.8
Unknown	2.1	4.5	6.2	7.7	6.1	7.5	3.1	0.0	6.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Teachers teaching multigrade									
Primary school	1.0	0.0	0.1	0.9	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5
Junior Certificate	6.0	9.0	17.9	12.6	15.5	17.1	12.4	0.0	14.3
COSC	41.0	17.2	30.4	25.3	27.1	36.6	39.5	25.0	28.4
Secondary and pre-service	34.0	49.2	28.3	31.0	27.1	12.2	27.2	75.0	30.5
Secondary and in-service	13.0	14.8	17.3	21.2	22.7	26.8	17.3	0.0	19.1
Higher and pre-service	1.0	2.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Higher and in-service	1.0	0.8	0.1	0.5	0.8	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.5
Unknown	3.0	6.6	5.9	8.5	6.4	7.3	2.5	0.0	6.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Teachers teaching monograde									
Primary school	0.0	2.8	0.5	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.4
Junior Certificate	7.5	6.8	12.6	8.1	11.1	4.4	13.7	0.0	10.2
COSC	45.5	19.3	18.5	16.6	18.2	26.1	28.9	16.7	19.0
Secondary and pre-service	28.3	50.9	37.2	39.3	33.6	31.5	30.3	66.7	37.5
Secondary and in-service	15.0	13.7	23.9	27.4	29.6	29.4	22.0	16.7	25.4
Higher and pre-service	2.1	2.5	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Higher and in-service	0.0	0.3	0.9	0.7	1.4	1.1	1.1	0.0	0.9
Unknown	1.6	3.7	6.3	7.5	6.1	7.6	3.3	0.0	6.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Secondary teacher qualifications by school type (2003)

	ACL	AME	Community	Government	LEC	Others	Private	RCM	Total
Masters Degree	4	8	7	4	3	3	26	4	4
Bachelors Degree	53	40	53	55	46	61	50	48	50
Diploma	12	7	15	13	12	13	9	13	13
Advanced Certificates	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Secondary Teachers Certificate	14	11	10	11	21	15	7	18	17
Secondary Technical Teachers Certificate	3	1	0	3	2	0	0	2	2
Teachers Certificate	1	0	1	3	1	0	0	1	1
Cambridge Overseas School Certificate	8	23	9	4	10	2	5	7	8
Joint Matriculation Board Certificate	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
Primary Teachers Certificate	1	0	2	1	1	1	0	1	1
Other Certificates	1	7	1	2	1	2	0	2	1
COSC & JC Plus In-Service Education	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Associate of the College of Preceptors	2	10	2	4	3	4	3	4	3
Unknown	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1

Average years of experience for current teachers.

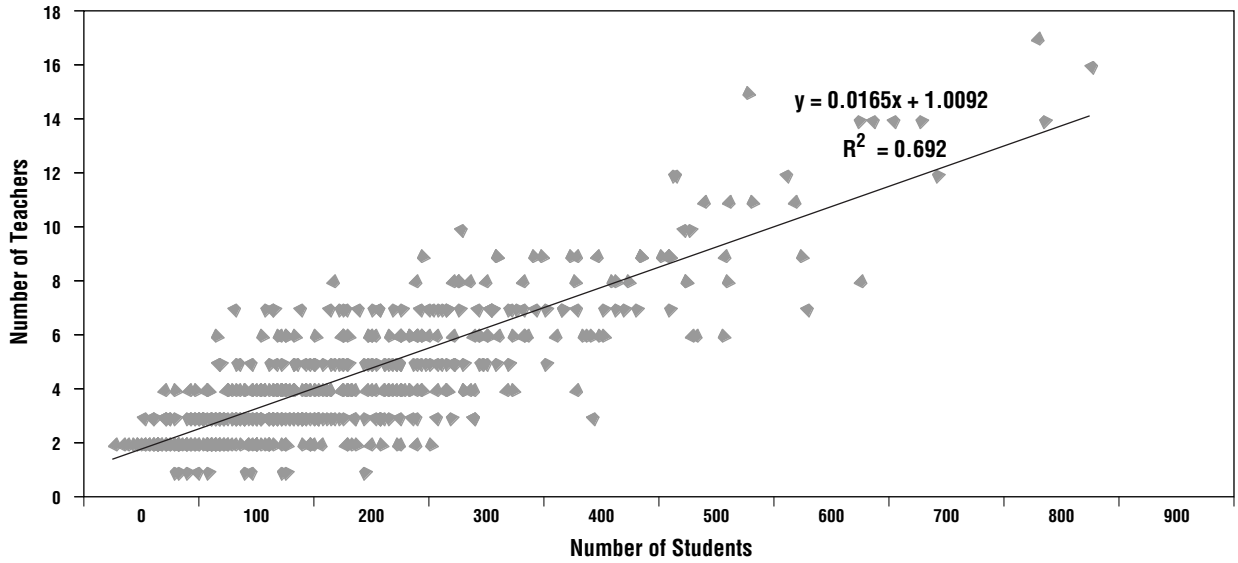
All teachers	Government	Community	LEC	RCM	ACL	AME	Others	Private	Total
Mountains	5	10.4	11.6	14.3	11.6	10.2	10	4.7	12.5
Lowlands	10.8	12.7	15.3	18.3	15.9	15.8	10.8	11.3	15.7
Senqu River Valley	4.9		13	15.7	12.9				13.8
Foothills	8.4	10.2	14.1	15.3	13	10.1	8		14.2
Unknown	6.7						5.1		6.3
Total	8.3	12.3	14	16.3	14.4	14.1	10.2	9.9	14.5
Male teachers									
Mountains	6.2	7	10.3	14.6	10.2	8.3	9		12.1
Lowlands	8.1	11.6	13.1	14.7	13.1	9.2	9	10	12.9
Senqu River Valley	1		11	18.2	17				14.1
Foothills	9	7.8	13.1	13.2	9.8		4.8		12.3
Unknown	2.7						3.3		3
Total	7.1	10.4	12	14.5	11.6	8.8	8	10	12.5
Female teachers									
Mountains	4.7	11.5	12.1	14.2	12.1	11.2	10.4	4.7	12.6
Lowlands	11.7	12.9	15.7	19	16.5	17.1	11.1	11.6	16.3
Senqu River Valley	5.5		13.6	14.7	12.4				13.7
Foothills	8.2	11.1	14.5	15.7	13.8	10.1	9.2		14.7
Unknown	7.6						6.5		7.3
Total	8.7	12.7	14.5	16.8	15	15.3	10.8	9.8	15

Randomness of Teacher Deployment

By Zone

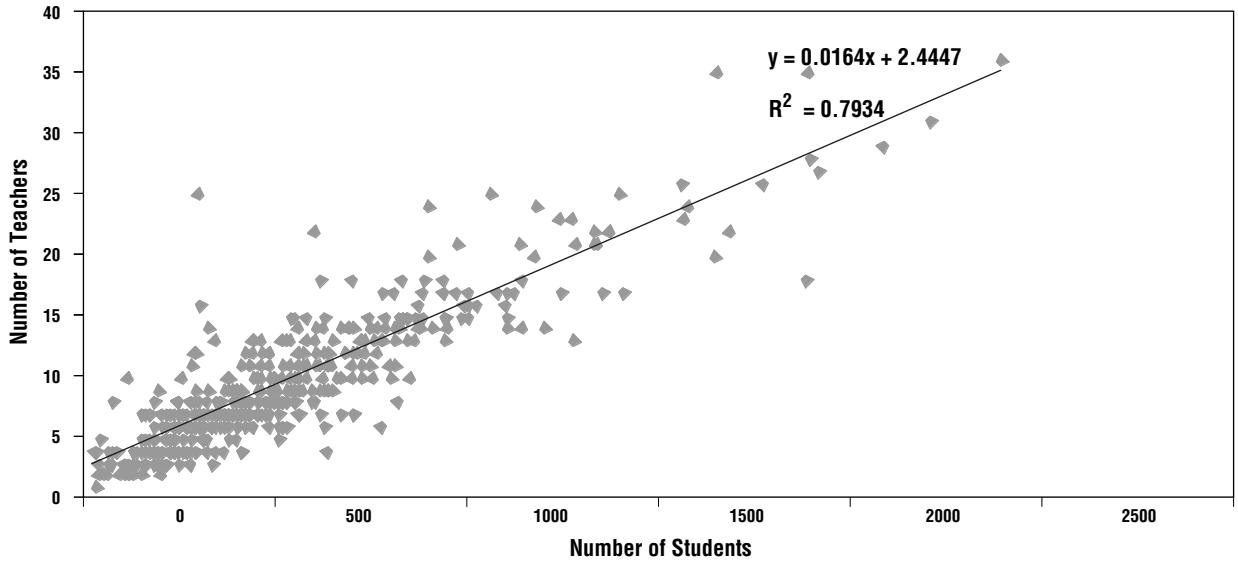
Analysis of teacher deployment by geographical region reveals that teacher distribution is more random in mountain areas. In Mountain areas, Lowland, and Senqu River Valley, even though there is a positive correlation between the number of students and teachers, the magnitude of the disparities is wider than that for the whole country as documented by the lower value of R2 (Figures 4.6, 4.7, and 4.8). On the other hand, in the Foothills area, the magnitude of disparities is less conspicuous as documented by R2 (Figure 5.9).

Figure 1
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Mountain Areas, 2003



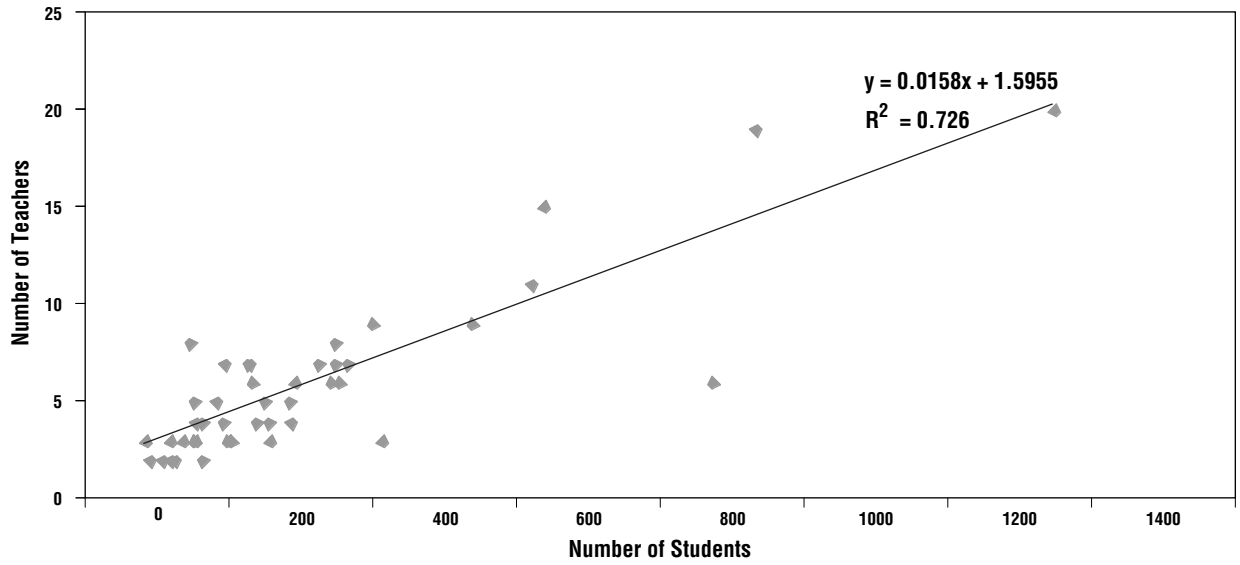
Source: School Census (2003)

Figure 2
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Lowlands, 2003



Source: School Census (2003)

Figure 3
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Senqu River, 2003

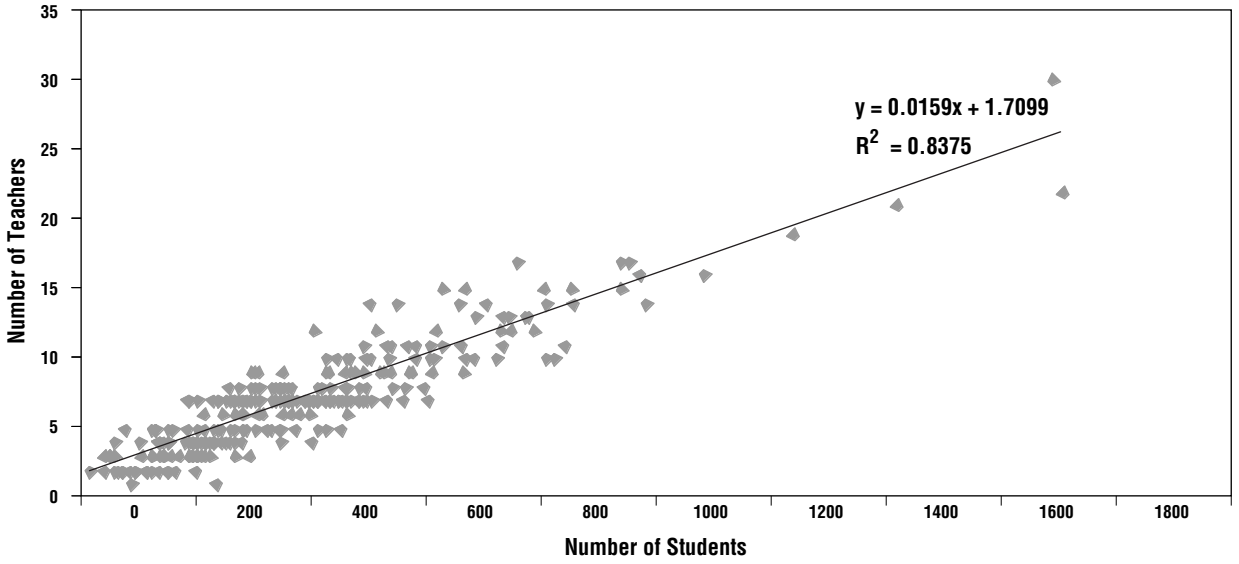


Source: School Census (2003)

By District

To determine whether the issue lies with between or within districts, a relatively straightforward solution consists of using a set of dummy variables for the different districts. Table 5.10 shows the variations existing between districts in the allocation of teachers at the primary level. While

Figure 4
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Foothill, 2003



Source: School Census (2003)

Model 1 represents the variance within a district, Model 2 represents the variance between the districts.

The study first considers the total number of pupils and teachers at the district level. It appears very clearly that some districts benefit from a similar number of teachers although they may be servicing distinctly different numbers of pupils. This is the case of Thaba-Tseka and Butha-Buthe: although they each have about 620 teachers, Thaba-Tseka has an enrolment of 31,000 pupils whereas Butha-Buthe has 28,000 pupils (3,000 pupils fewer than Thaba-Tseka). Inversely, Quthing and Butha-Buthe each has about 28,000 pupils in enrollment; Butha-Buthe, however, has 630 teachers while Quthing has only 570 teachers. These figures suggest that there is inconsistency in teacher allocation to the provinces and some provinces benefit more than others. For instance, Butha-Buthe and Mokhotlong appear to benefit from relatively generous endowments of teachers given the number of pupils currently enrolled (the teacher-student ratios in these two provinces is 44). On the other hand, Thaba-Tseka and Quthing reap lesser benefits (the ratio is 50 and 49, respectively).

With regards to the results of the two models, it appears that allowing variations between provinces helps to reduce the residual variability of the model (R2 increases from 81.8% to 82.6%). Model 1 shows that inconsistency in teacher allocation to individual schools represents 18.2 percent (100%-81.8%) of the total variability in the number of teachers at the school level. Model 2 indicates that by allowing disparities in teacher allocation between districts, the inconsistency (or variance) within each province accounts for 17.6 percent (100%–82.4%). This means that of the 18.2 percentage points of total inconsistency (or variance in the distribution of teacher resources), 17.6 percentage points correspond to inconsistency in the distribution of resources within the districts. In relative terms, this indicates that 80 percent of total inconsistency is found within the provinces in the allocation of teachers to individual schools, and that only 20 percent stems from variations

between the district's allocations of teachers.

This does not imply that the allocation of resources between the districts is adequate and efficient or that all districts are characterized by an equal degree of inconsistency in allocating teachers to individual schools. To analyze the first point, a possibility consists of using the coefficients of the dummy variables for districts in Model 2 as presented in Table 5.10. (Following this method, we would flag Thaba-Tseka and Mohale as districts that are under-endowed in teachers given the number of pupils enrolled, while Butha-Buthe and Qacha's Nek would be identified, in relative terms, as over-endowed). A second and preferred analysis (as it provides a better description of reality) consists of conducting the estimation of the relationship between teachers and pupils at the school level separately for each of the 9 provinces. Table 5.11 provides these estimates.

Based on the estimates, it is possible to simulate the average number of teachers in schools of a given size. Table 5.12 provides these simulations for schools of 300 pupils, a number that is close to the average size of primary public schools in the country. Inter-province disparities appear to be quite substantial; Thaba-Tseka and Mokhotlong are under-endowed in relative terms as schools of 300 pupils have on average around 6 teachers. On the other hand, Butha-Buthe and Berea have more than 7 teachers for the same enrollment size. This means that it may be necessary to increase the number of teachers in the three under-endowed districts.

By Management Type

A similar analysis of teacher deployment was conducted by the type of school management: 1) government schools; 2) community schools; 3) church schools; and 4) private schools, among others. As seen from the figures below, the magnitude of disparities is wider in government

Table 1
Relation between the Number of Teachers and Pupils in Primary Schools, by District, 2003

Districts	Number of pupils	Number of teachers	Model 1 coefficient	Model 1 t- value	Model 2 coefficient	Model 2 t-value
Student			0.0173	77.940	0.017	71.9
Maseru	89058	1919			Reference	
Thaba-Tseka	30845	615			–1.135	–5.2
Butha-Buthe	27770	629			0.319	1.2
Leribe	69433	1478			–0.045	–0.2
Berea	55381	1175			0.266	1.2
Mafeteng	47981	1060			–0.156	–0.7
Mohale's Hoek	41134	899			–0.568	–2.8
Quthing	27937	569			–0.970	–4.2
Qacha's Nek	18515	456			–0.419	–1.7
Mokhotlong	21666	494			–0.566	–2.4
			intercept	1.375	Intercept	1.861
			R2	81.8	R2	82.4

Source: School Census (2003)

Table 2
Relationship between the Number of Teachers and Students at the School Level by District (Primary Education)

	Number of Schools (n)	Intercept	coefficient*	R2	N300**	t-value
Lesotho	1,355	1.375	0.0173	81.8	6.6	77.940
Region						
Thaba-Tseka	135	0.747	0.0167	74.0	5.7	19.481
Butha-Buthe	75	2.096	0.0170	79.8	7.2	16.968
Leribe	173	2.184	0.0158	74.4	6.9	22.315
Berea	116	2.394	0.0162	81.0	7.3	22.012
Maseru	229	1.761	0.0170	79.0	6.9	29.189
Mafeteng	150	1.812	0.0164	85.8	6.7	29.876
Mohale's Hoek	162	0.866	0.0184	87.4	6.4	33.376
Quthing	113	1.069	0.0160	83.7	5.9	23.838
Qacha's Nek	101	1.195	0.0181	72.6	6.6	16.214
Mokhotlong	101	1.483	0.0159	57.0	6.2	11.457

Source: School Census (2003)

*: all coefficients are significant at the 0.001 level

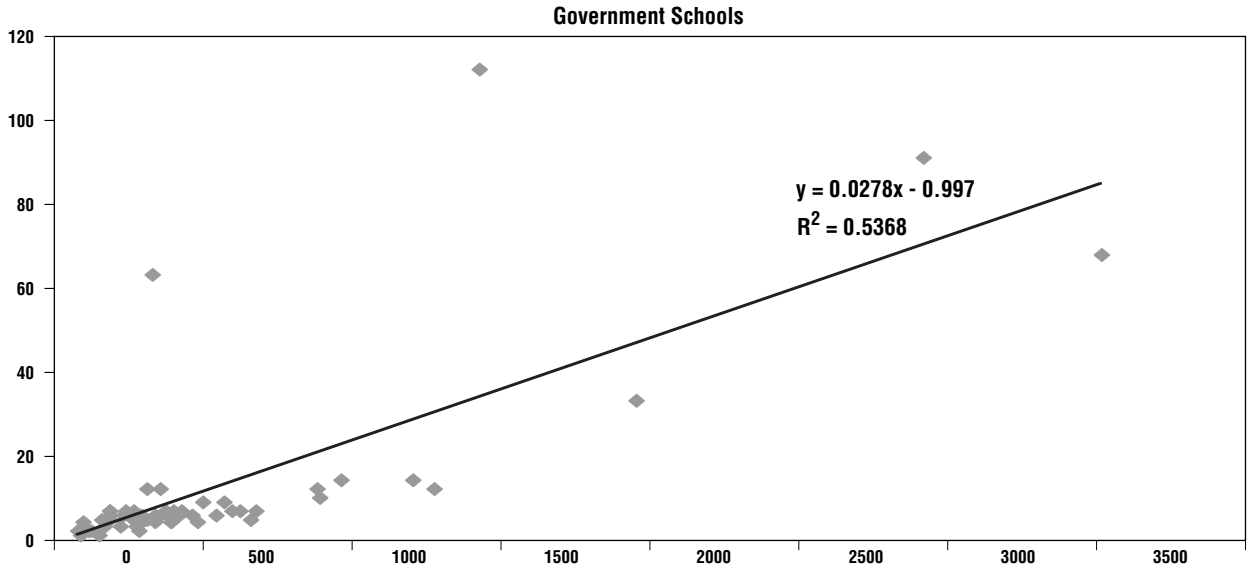
**: N 300 is the estimated number of teachers in a 300 pupil school (country average)

schools, community schools, African Methodist Episcopal Church schools, and private schools (others), compared to the whole country as documented by the lower value of R2 (Figures, 5.10, 5.11, 5.15 and 5.16). On the other hand, the magnitude of disparities is lesser among schools owned by Lesotho Evangelical Church, Roman Catholic Church, Anglican Church of Lesotho (Figures 5.12, 5.13, and 5.14).

The study also examined the resource allocation of teachers by type of school management. Model 1 represents the variance within schools of management type, while Model 2 represents the variance among schools of different types of management. As seen from Table 3, the magnitude of disparities is slightly wider within type of school management (R2=87.5) compared to between management type (R2=87.9).

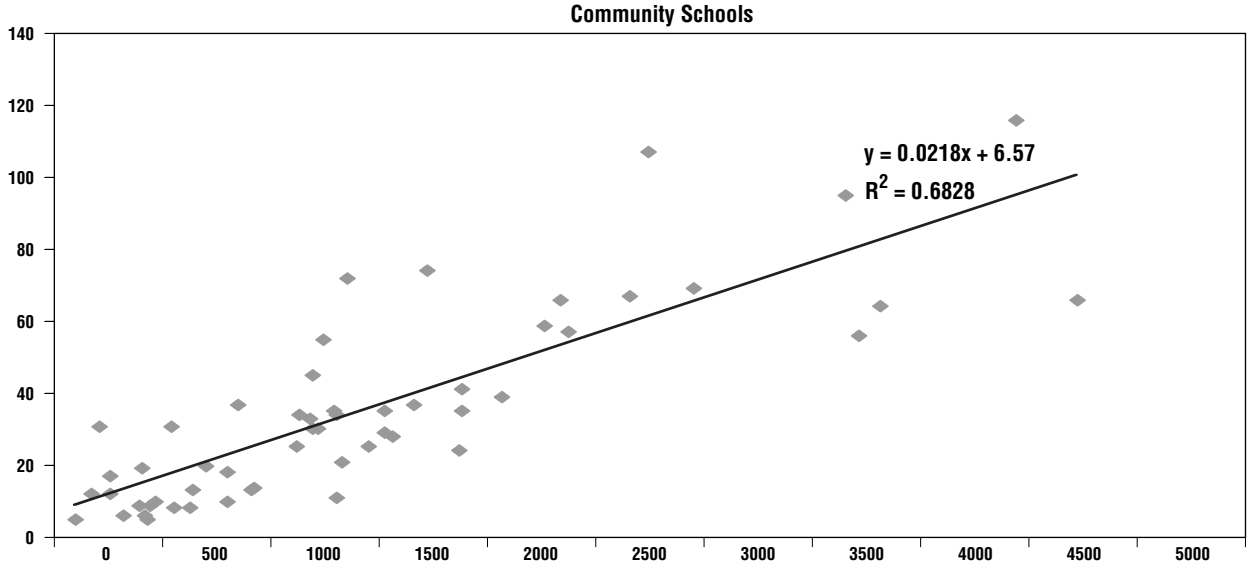
Simulation of the average number of teachers in school of a given size reveals that there are disparities among management type of schools. As seen from Table 4, government-owned schools clearly do not have sufficient teachers to the number of students (the average teacher-student ratio is 1:41). On the other hand, schools owned by the community and churches have more teachers relative to the number of students.

Figure 5
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Government schools 2003



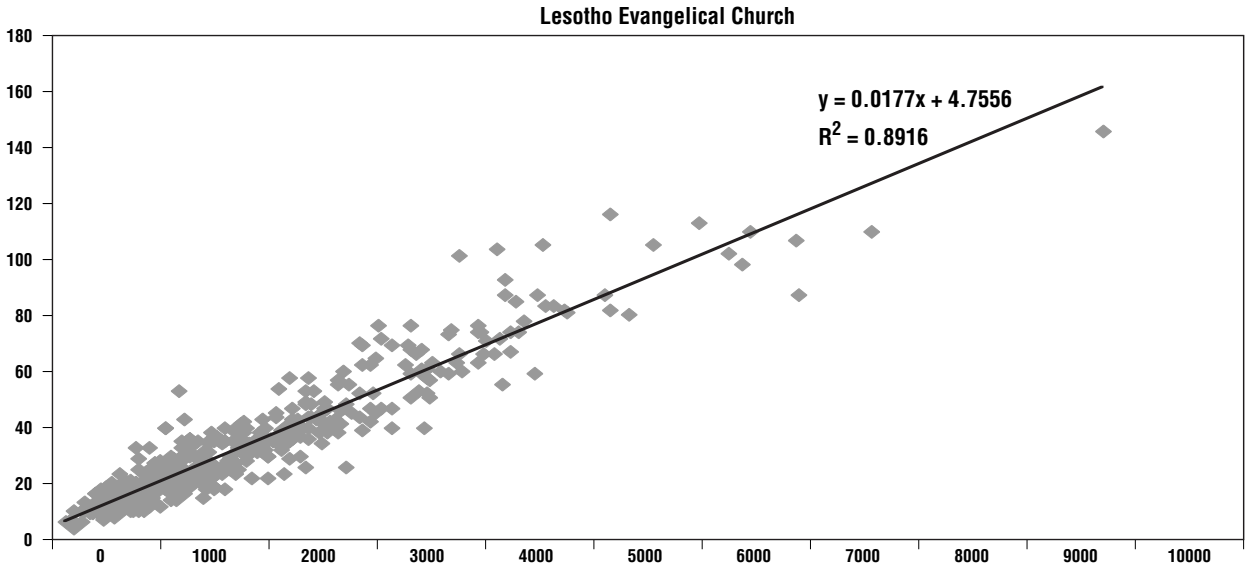
Source: School Census (2003)

Figure 6
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Community Schools, 2003



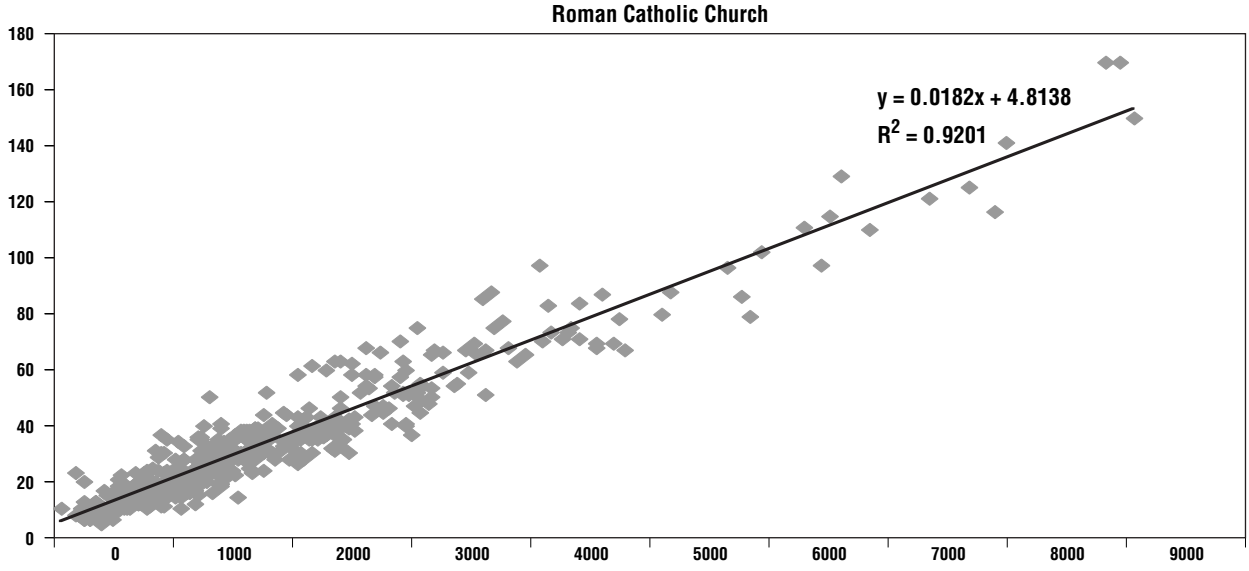
Source: School Census (2003)

Figure 7
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Schools Governed by Lesotho Evangelical Church, 2003



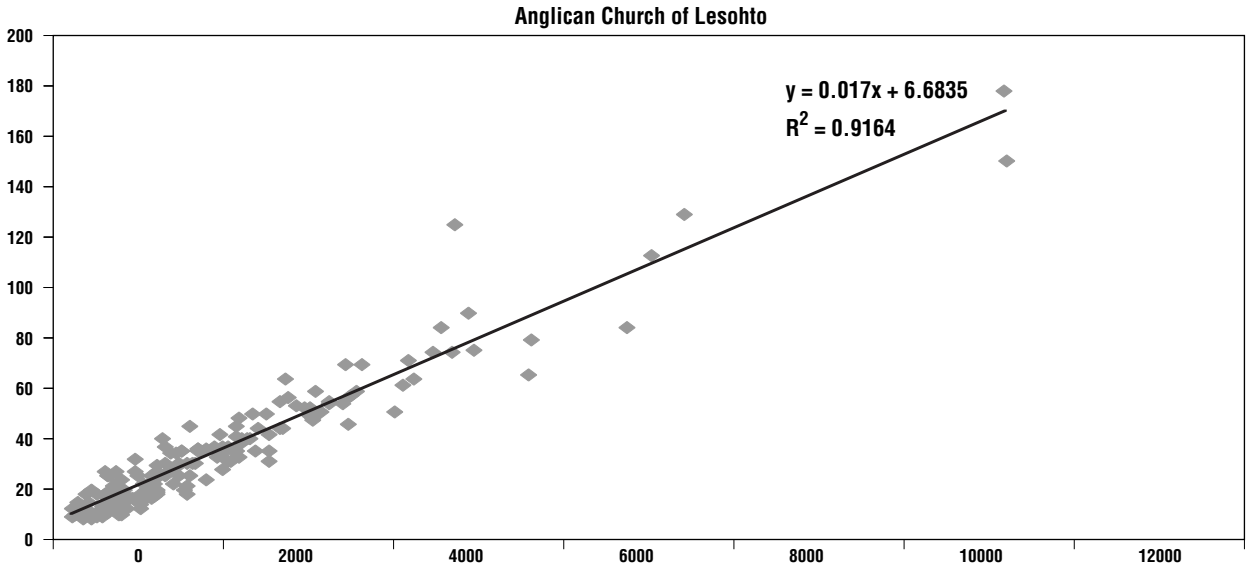
Source: School Census (2003)

Figure 8
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Schools Governed by Roman Catholic Church, 2003



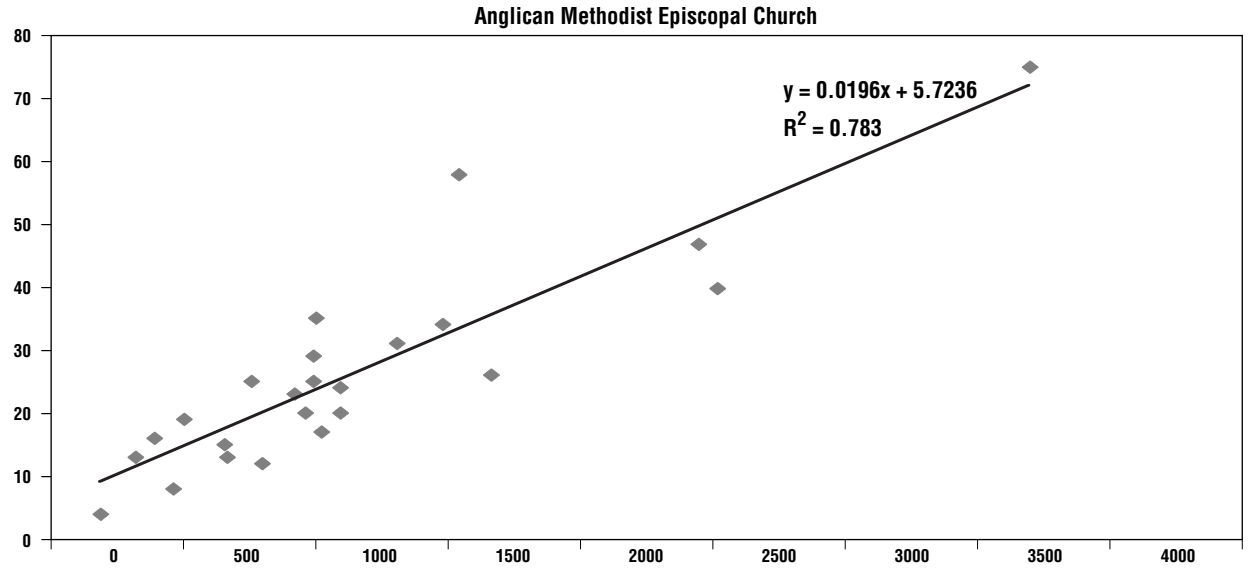
Source: School Census (2003)

Figure 9
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Schools Governed by Anglican Church of Lesotho, 2003



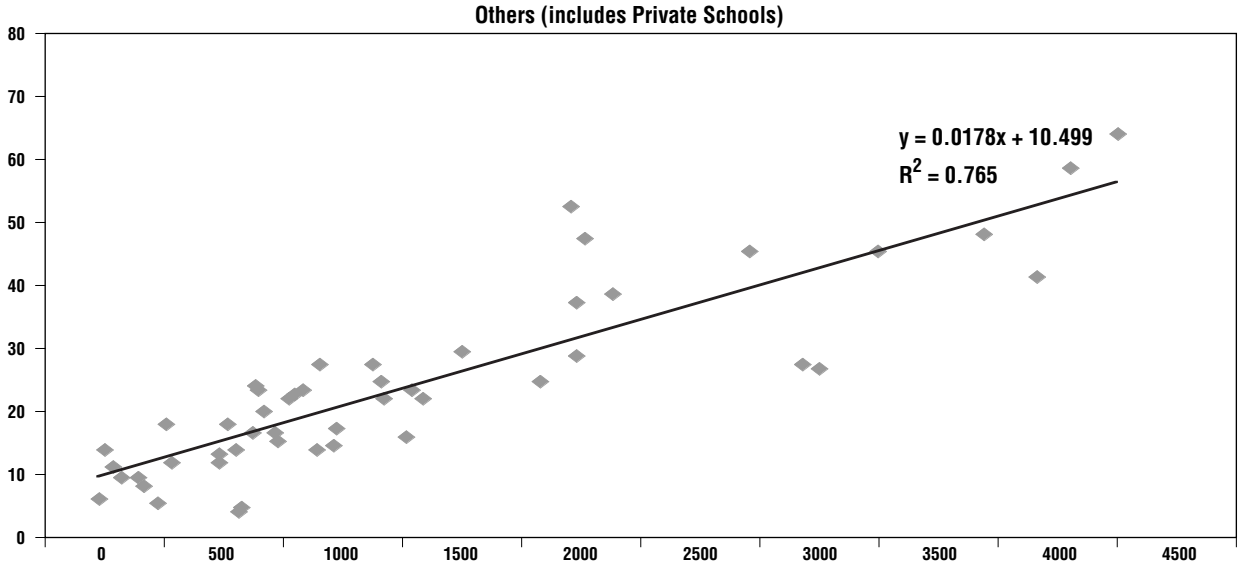
Source: School Census (2003)

Figure 10
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Schools Governed by African Methodist Church, 2003



Source: School Census (2003)

Figure 11
Relationship between Number of Teachers and Students in Schools Governed by Private Schools and Other Schools, 2003



Source: School Census (2003)

Table 3
Relation between the Number of Teachers and Pupils in Primary Schools, by Management Type, 2003

Districts	Number of pupils	Number of teachers	Model 1 coefficient	Model 1 t- value	Model 2 coefficient	Model 2 t-value
Student			0.018	97.14	0.018	97.22
Government	27,372	701			(ref)	
Community	71,754	1927			8.128	5.27
Lesotho Evangelical Church	771,844	15,944			0.835	0.73
Roman Catholic Church	786,762	16,766			1.688	1.49
Anglican Church	286,584	6,044			1.602	1.29
African Methodist	25,087	629			3.971	2.00
Others	69,467	1,751			6.790	4.27
			intercept	5.232	intercept	3.409
			R2	87.5	R2	87.9

Source: School Census (2003)

Table 4
Relationship between the Number of Teachers and Students at the School Level by Management Type (Primary Education)

	Number of Schools (n)	Intercept	coefficient*	R2	N300**	t-value
Lesotho	1,355	1.375	0.0173	81.8	6.6	77.94
Proprietor						
Government	61	–0.997	0.028	53.7	7.4	8.269
Community	55	6.570	0.022	68.3	13.1	10.682
Lesotho Evangelical Church	481	4.610	0.018	89.2	9.9	62.744
Roman Catholic Church	509	4.814	0.018	92.0	10.3	76.414
Anglican Church	176	6.684	0.017	91.6	11.8	43.660
African Methodist	24	5.724	0.020	78.3	11.6	8.909
Others	49	10.499	0.018	76.5	15.8	12.369

Source: School Census (2003)

*: all coefficients are significant at the 0.001 level

**: N 300 is the estimated number of teachers in a 300 pupil school (country average)

Evolution of Teacher-Student Ratio from 1998 to 2003

Table 1 below presents the evolution of primary teacher-student ratios in Lesotho. Overall the ratio as remained stable at between 45 to 47 despite the introduction of Free Primary Education in 1999. As seen, the ratio has increased 2.2. Percent from 45.2 in 1988 to 46.2 in 2003. The magnitude of ratios differs from district to district but in the past six years, the ratio has increased significantly in Mokhotlong (11.8 percent), Maseru (7.2 percent), and Mohale's Hoek (5.3 percent). On the other hand, the teacher-student ratios in districts such as Qacha's Nek (–8.4 percent) and Mafeteng (–2.1 percent), and Leribe (–0.7 percent) have declined. In other words, the num-

Table 1
Evolution of Teacher/student Ratio at Primary Schools by District

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	% changes
Butha-Buthe	43.6	41.4	45.1	44.9	42.2	44.1	1.3%
Leribe	47.3	47.3	48.5	47.0	47.3	47.0	–0.7%
Berea	46.5	45.1	49.0	49.5	48.0	47.1	1.4%
Maseru	43.3	43.5	46.6	46.4	45.6	46.4	7.2%
Mafeteng	46.2	44.0	47.5	47.5	47.1	45.3	–2.1%
Mohale's Hoek	43.4	42.0	45.7	46.3	45.4	45.8	5.3%
Quthing	49.0	47.0	50.4	50.8	50.4	49.1	0.3%
Qacha's Nek	44.3	43.9	45.8	43.9	45.8	40.6	–8.4%
Mokhotlong	39.2	39.4	47.0	43.7	45.8	43.9	11.8%
Thaba-Tseka	48.7	47.7	55.7	54.0	55.6	50.2	3.1%
Total	45.2	44.4	47.9	47.4	47.0	46.2	2.2%

Source: MOE Education Statistics

ber of students as well as teachers has increased significantly in these three districts.

Examination of teacher-student ratios by type of school management reveals that the ratio among government and community primary schools has increased significantly (35.7 percent) in the past six years (see Table 2). During the same period, the ratios in schools owned by the African Methodist church (10.3 percent) and private schools (84.2 percent) have also increased. In the case of private schools, there are only two primary schools in Lesotho. On the other hand, the teacher-student ratio in schools owned by Anglican Church has declined (–0.8 percent).

In the year 2003 (Table 3, government primary schools had the highest average pupil teacher ratio of 56. The ratio was especially high at the mountain areas (60) and at the Senqu River Valley (more than 80). On the other hand, primary schools in the lowlands area had the lowest pupil teacher ratio.

At the secondary level, average pupil teacher ratio was about 24 which is low compared to other countries, indicating that there is much room for the efficiency gain in secondary teacher utilization. Community and government secondary schools tend to have lower pupil teacher ratio (22 and 21) compared to schools under other types of management. In fact, government schools in the foothills and Senqu River Valley as well as the community secondary schools in the mountain areas had pupil teacher ratio of only 14 and 18. Private schools in the lowlands areas had the lowest ratio of 12.

Table 2.
Evolution of Teacher/student Ratio at Primary Schools by Management Type

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	% changes
Government and Community	31.4	32.2		35.4	40.0	42.6	35.7%
Lesotho Evangelical Church	47.5	45.7		49.4	49.2	48.1	1.3%
Roman Catholic Church	44.9	44.8		48.0	47.1	46.0	2.5%
Anglican Church	46.8	46.3		47.9	47.3	46.4	–0.8%
African Methodist Church	37.2	36.8		39.2	42.9	41.0	10.3%
Other Churches	39.5	37.8		40.6	38.8	40.4	2.4%
Private		19.0		30.1	26.5	35.0	84.2%
Total	45.2	44.4	47.9	47.4	47	46.2	2.2%

Source: Education Statistics 1997–2003

Note: Number of private schools are only 2; % change in private schools is from 1999 to 2003.

Table 3
Pupil: TEACHER ratio by zone and by management type in 2003

	Government	Community	LEC	RCM	ACL	AME	Others	Private	Total
Primary									
Mountains	67.4	66.7	49.1	46.4	46.3	61.9	56.7	50	49
Lowlands	42.2	41.7	46.7	45.4	45.1	39.2	39.5	30.9	44.7
Senqu River Valley	80.8		47.7	44.5	34.9				47.1
Foothills	47.9	42.6	48.4	48.5	44.7	60.2	44.1		47.7
Unknown	48.6						10.9		41.1
Total	55.7	44.6	48.1	46.5	45.1	48.5	42.5	40.5	47.1
Secondary									
Mountains	24	18	25	22	21	0	0	28	23
Lowlands	23	21	25	24	26	25	24	12	24
Senqu River Valley	18	0	29	28	0	0	21	0	28
Foothills	14	22	26	24	24	0	0	0	25
Total	22	21	26	24	25	25	24	17	24

Mean and standard error of students test scores by subject and country in the 2000–2003 SACMEQ survey

	Reading		Mathematics	
	Mean	**SE**	**Mean**	**SE**
Botswana	521,1	3,47	512,9	3,15
Kenya	546,5	4,97	563,3	4,64
Lesotho	451,2	2,93	447,2	3,24
Malawi	428,9	2,37	432,9	2,25
Mauritius	536,4	5,51	584,6	6,32
Mozambique	516,7	2,29	530	2,08
Namibia	448,8	3,13	430,9	2,94
Seychelles	582	3,1	554,3	2,68
South Africa	492,3	9	486,1	7,19
Swaziland	529,6	3,74	516,5	3,41
Tanzania	545,9	5,03	522,4	4,2
Uganda	482,4	6,12	506,3	8,17
Zambia	440,1	4,47	435,2	3,54
Zanzibar	478,2	1,49	478,1	1,26
All countries	500,0	11,6	500,0	11,2

Source: SACMEQ II data

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