



Policy Goals

Status

1. **Autonomy in Budget Planning and Management**

The non-salary operational budget is mostly managed by central or regional governments in Yemen. The government has a policy of decentralizing public basic and secondary education expenditure management to the governorate level but not to the school level. In practice, the key responsibilities of personnel and operational budgets remain at the central level. School Committees are only responsible for executing a small portion of the operational budget that is allocated to the school for supplies or incidentals.

Emerging



2. **Autonomy in Personnel Management**

Public school teachers and non-teaching staff are hired by regional governments (governorates) according to the number of new hiring needs approved by the central government in Yemen. The governorates have the authority and responsibility for school director appointments and the deployment decisions for both teachers and non-teaching staff. Teacher evaluations are conducted by governorate and local authorities (district level) although communities and parents contribute to monitoring teachers' presence.

Emerging



3. **Participation of the School Council in School Governance**

The Ministry of Education (MOE) has developed legislation and guidelines to govern and administer School Committees. The School Committees are elected and have term limits. While all schools should have School Committees, the MOE, through the support of development partners, has only been able to pilot participatory, school-based programs in a few governorates. The pilot programs have facilitated the School Committees to prepare and implement school improvement plans based on a school operational budget provided from the central level. They are responsible for executing the expenditures and coordinating with the community, and they retain the right to review the financial report and have a voice on some school inputs.

Established



4. **Assessment of School and Student Performance**

Yemen does not have school assessments, but it does have standardized student assessments that are conducted annually at grades 9 of basic education (transition to secondary) and 12 (grade 3) of secondary education (graduation). Tests scores are currently communicated at the student level on an individual basis, and no analyses or comparisons of aggregated student results are made among schools or over time. Thus, there is no basis available to judge if schools are doing well or if they can or should do better with the communities involved. Schools do not use student assessments to make pedagogical adjustments or to change school materials.

Emerging



5. **Accountability to Stakeholders**

No guidelines are in place for the use of results of student assessment, nor is the MOE required to conduct comparative analysis of student performance, leaving little room to use performance results to demand accountability for better delivery of education. Regulations have been established and implemented to increase compliance of school operation and financial management rules. Learning accountability at the school level is severely limited.

Emerging



Introduction

In 2011, the World Bank Group commenced a multiyear program designed to support countries in systematically examining and strengthening the performance of their education systems. Part of the World Bank's new Education Sector Strategy,¹ this evidence-based initiative, called SABER (Systems Approach for Better Education Results), is building a toolkit of diagnostics for examining education systems and their component policy domains against global standards, best practices, and in comparison with the policies and practices of countries around the world. By leveraging this global knowledge, the SABER tools fill a gap in the availability of data and evidence on what matters most to improve the quality of education and achievement of better results. This report discusses the results of applying the SABER School Autonomy and Accountability (SAA) tool in Republic of Yemen.

Country Overview

The Republic of Yemen occupies the southwest corner of the Arabian Peninsula between latitudes 12° and 20° and longitudes 41° and 54°. It is bounded on the north by Saudi Arabia, the Gulf of Aden on the south, Oman on the east, and the Red Sea on the west. The country is 555,000 km² in size, and it has more than 100 sizable islands scattered in the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, and the Arabian Sea, the most notable of which are Soqatra in the Indian Ocean and Hunaish, Perim, and Kamaran in the Red Sea.

The population of Yemen, estimated at 26.1 million in 2014, is growing rapidly. With a population growth rate of 3.1, Yemen still has one of the highest rates in the world. Yemen's population is expected to reach 47 million by 2040, in a context of dependence on dwindling oil reserves for national revenue. The proportion of children and youth in the population is large, presenting a continued challenge for education expansion over the next few decades: In 2014, nearly 62.8 percent of the total population was less than 25 years old and more than one-third of those were aged 6–14 years, the age of basic education. Migration, particularly of the rural population, increases the prevalence of children living or

working on the streets and other marginalized groups in the big cities.

Yemen is one of the poorest countries in the Arab region with a gross domestic product (GDP) per capita of US\$1,330 in 2013. Yemen is highly dependent on declining oil resources for revenue. Petroleum accounts for roughly 25 percent of GDP and 63 percent of government revenue. The Human Development Index (UNDP 2011) ranks the country 154th out of 184 countries assessed. The country faces a wide range of developmental challenges. Yemen has one of the highest population growth rates globally, at 3 percent, which increases the demand for educational and health services, drinking water, and employment opportunities, among other basic rights. Social development indicators, such as child malnutrition, maternal mortality, and educational attainment, remain discouraging. The population living below the national poverty line was 54 percent (In other words, 54 percent of the population survives on fewer than US\$2 dollars per day), with poverty more widespread and persistent in rural areas (MoPIC 2011). There are significant gender disparities, with large gaps between men and women's access to economic, social, and political opportunities. As indicated by its first and second Millennium Development Goal (MDG) reports, Yemen is not expected to meet any of the MDGs.

¹ The World Bank Education Sector Strategy 2020: Learning for All (2011), which outlines an agenda for achieving "Learning for All" in the developing world over the next decade.

I. Education in Yemen

Education in Yemen is compulsory for ages six to 14 and is presently characterized by low enrollment rates (ranging from 82 percent for preschool education to 95 percent for primary and 82 percent for secondary education) (National Statistical Institute 2013). Public schools serve the majority of Yemeni students, about 5.2 percent of students attend private schools. Yemen's public school system consists of 16,034 schools serving children in grades 1 through 12. During the 2012–2013 school year, 210,431 teachers and 5,338,408 students were in the public school system. The average student teacher ratio in Yemen is 25.4:1, varying considerably across different types of schools and types of communities.

Three ministries manage education in Yemen: the Ministry of Education (MOE) manages pre-basic, basic, and general secondary education; the Ministry of Technical and Vocational Education and Training manages post-basic Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and postsecondary TVET; and university education is under the mandate of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. Literacy is the mandate of the Literacy and Adult Education Organization, as supervised by the Minister of Education, while the Supreme Council for Motherhood and Childhood, established in 1991, has the mandate to develop country strategies and promote policies aiming to improve the situation of motherhood and childhood in Yemen. The Supreme Council for Education Planning, chaired by the Prime Minister and including eight ministers with leverage over education policies, has a coordination and oversight role and has been instrumental in consolidating education data over recent years.

The MOE statistical digest documents that the education system consists of two service providers: government schools (94.8 percent) and private schools (5.2 percent). The government's MOE is the largest provider and consists of seven sectors: General Education Sector, Curriculum and Supervision Sector, Girls Education Sector, Training and Qualification Sector, Project and Equipment Sector, Technical Office, and Literacy program.

Level of Education	Ages	Grade/Year
Early Childhood Education	3–5	Preschool
Basic Education	6–14	Grades 1–9
General Secondary Education	15–17	Grades 10–12
Vocational Secondary Training	15–16	Grades 10–11
Technical Secondary Training	15–17	Grades 10–12
Postsecondary Education and Training	18+	Technical/vocational schools, tertiary

Source: MOE Statistical Digest.

As seen in Table 1, the levels of education in Yemen include early childhood education (ECE), basic, general secondary, technical, and vocational secondary training, and tertiary education and training, such as university education and TVET, as well as informal learning after school. It is important to note that ECE is managed by the MOE and is limited to main cities; it is mainly run by the private sector, and most of the provision is private. Children with special needs are included at all levels. The basic level covers a nine-year cycle from grades 1 to 9, and is compulsory for children ages 6 to 14.

Since 2002, the government of Yemen has endorsed five major national strategies to address education issues at the various levels: Basic, Secondary, Vocational and Technical Education, and Higher Education. In addition to these five strategies, Yemen has an ongoing National Strategy for Literacy and Adult Education, which aims to eradicate illiteracy in the population aged 14–40, and has prepared a National Strategy for Early Childhood Development. Each subsector strategy is intended to increase access and equity and to improve quality and efficiency of education delivery quite independently of what is happening in other education subsectors (World Bank 2010).

Despite the many strategies, Yemen is missing one coordinated vision for education. A national vision that articulates the education and skills needs of the economy and the society, as well as the choices that must be made to provide these skills, is greatly needed. The work for the development of such a vision is about to be completed by mid-2015, with support from the World

Bank and under the supervision of Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation.

Public Expenditure on Education (2012–2013)	
As % of GDP	5.6
As % of Total Government Expenditure	16.1
Distribution of Public Expenditure per Level (%) (2013)	
Early Childhood Education	0.03
Basic Education	60.9
General Secondary	17.1
Technical and Vocational Education	5.7
Tertiary and Other	16.02
Literacy Program	0.03
Net Enrollment Rate	83.6
Gender Gap for Basic Education	0.83
Pupil/Teacher Ratio in Basic and Secondary	25.4 : 1
Percentage of Repeaters in Basic	8.0
Basic to Secondary Transition Rate	77.8

Source: MOE Statistical Directorate 2012/2013, data prepared for EFA Report.

Table 2 presents select indicators on the education system. Public expenditure on education accounts for 5.6 percent of GDP and 16.1 percent of total government expenditure. Basic education receives 60.9 percent of education expenditure. The net enrollment rate for basic education is 83.6 percent, and the average pupil-teacher ratio is 25.4 to 1.

Despite the government's achievements in terms of increasing the enrollment rate and reducing the gender gap as a result of implementing basic and secondary education strategies, quality remains the area where progress has been most limited and faces major challenges. During the last few years, government efforts have focused more on responding to the social demand for expansion of education than on improving the quality of education. There is a risk that the planned expansion in enrollment could further reduce quality if not adequately planned and resourced. Only about 40 percent of basic education teachers hold a bachelor's degree, and textbooks and other learning materials often do not arrive until close to the end of the school year, leaving most teachers and students without and impacting on levels of literacy. Absenteeism is officially estimated to represent up to 19 percent on average. Total annual hours of instruction for basic education (grades 1–9) are set at 6,800, quite below international standards. Yemeni grade 4 students ranked the lowest

among 36 countries participating in the Trends in Mathematics and Science Study 2011 (EIA 2011), primarily because they could not read the narrative-based test questionnaire. In a study of learning achievements carried out in 2012, 43 percent of pupils in grade 2 and 25 percent of pupils in grade 3 could not read a single word of text. A majority of pupils in grade 3 (61 percent) could not answer one correct reading comprehension question (out of a total of six questions) (USAID-RTI 2012).

The government has now begun to focus more attention on qualitative aspects of education, through teacher training, fostering better community participation in the management, and monitoring of schools. A new school curriculum is in the process of being developed.

The political unrest since 2011 has had various negative impacts in Yemen, via a sharp contraction of economic activities, a deteriorated macroeconomic environment, and decreased public revenue collection. A deterioration in the delivery of education services includes (1) damage to and occupation of school buildings; (2) inaccessibility of some schools due to insecurity; (3) increased absenteeism of teachers and administrative staff; (4) failure to complete the curricula reform; and (5) delays in the delivery of school buildings, equipment, and materials. Overall MOE institutional capacity was affected due to conflict-generated disruptions and severe budget constraints.

II. The Case for School Autonomy and School Accountability

School autonomy and accountability are key components of an education system that ensure educational quality. The transfer of core managerial responsibilities to schools promotes local accountability; helps reflect local priorities, values, and needs; and gives teachers the opportunity to establish a personal commitment to students and their parents (Box 2). Benchmarking and monitoring indicators of school autonomy and accountability allows any country to rapidly assess its education system, setting the stage for improving policy planning and implementation.

School autonomy is a form of a decentralized education system in which school personnel are in charge of making most managerial decisions, frequently in partnership

with parents and the community. More local control helps create better conditions for improving student learning in a sustainable way, since it gives teachers and parents more opportunities to develop common goals, increase their mutual commitment to student learning, and promote more efficient use of scarce school resources.

To be effective, school autonomy must function on the basis of compatible incentives, taking into account national education policies, including incentives for the implementation of those policies. Having more managerial responsibilities at the school level automatically implies that a school must also be accountable to local stakeholders as well as national and local authorities. The empirical evidence from education systems in which schools enjoy managerial autonomy is that autonomy is beneficial for restoring the social contract between parents and schools and instrumental in setting in motion policies to improve student learning.

The progression in school autonomy in the last two decades has led to the conceptualization of **School-Based Management (SBM)** as a form of decentralization in which the school is in charge of most managerial decisions but with the participation of parents and the community through school councils (Barrera, Fasih and Patrinos 2009). *SBM is not a set of predetermined policies and procedures, but a continuum of activities and policies put into place to improve the functioning of schools, allowing parents and teachers to focus on improvements in learning.* As such, SBM should foster a new social contract between teachers and their community in which local cooperation and local accountability drive improvements in professional and personal performance by teachers (Patrinos 2010).

The empirical evidence from SBM shows that it can take many forms or combine many activities (Barrera et al. 2009) with differing degrees of success (see Box 3). Unless SBM activities contribute to system closure, they are just a collection of isolated managerial decisions. Therefore, the indicators of SBM that relate to school quality must conform to the concept of a system, in which the presence or absence of some critical components within the system allow or preclude system closure.

Box 1: What are School Autonomy and Accountability?

School autonomy is a form of school management in which schools are given decision-making authority over their operations, including the hiring and firing of personnel, and the assessment of teachers and pedagogical practices. School management under autonomy may give an important role to the School Council, representing the interests of parents, in budget planning and approval, as well as a voice/vote in personnel decisions. By including the School Council in school management, school autonomy fosters accountability (Di Gropello 2004, 2006; Barrera, Fasih and Patrinos 2009).

In its basic form **accountability** is defined as the acceptance of responsibility and being answerable for one's actions. In school management, accountability may take other additional meanings: (i) the act of compliance with the rules and regulations of school governance; (ii) reporting to those with oversight authority over the school; and (iii) linking rewards and sanctions to expected results (Heim 1996; Rechebei 2010).

Box 2: Different paths to School-Based Management are fine as long as they allow for system closure

In many countries the implementation of SBM has increased student enrollment, student and teacher attendance, and parent involvement. However, the empirical evidence from Latin America shows very few cases in which SBM has made a significant difference in learning outcomes (Patrinos 2010), while in Europe there is substantial evidence showing a positive impact of school autonomy on learning (Eurydice 2007). Both the grassroots-based approach taken in Latin America, where the institutional structure was weak or service delivery was hampered due to internal conflict, and the operational efficiency approach taken in Europe where institutions were stronger, coincide in applying managerial principles to promote better education quality, but driven by two different modes of accountability to parents and the community. One in Latin America where schools render accounts through participatory school-based management (Di Gropello 2004) and another in Europe where accountability is based on trust in schools and their teachers, (Arcia, Patrinos, Porta and Macdonald 2011). In either case, school autonomy has begun to transform traditional education from a system based on processes and inputs into one driven by results (Hood 2001).

As components of a managerial system, SBM activities may behave as mediating variables: they produce an enabling environment for teachers and students, allowing for pedagogical variables, school inputs, and personal effort to work as intended.

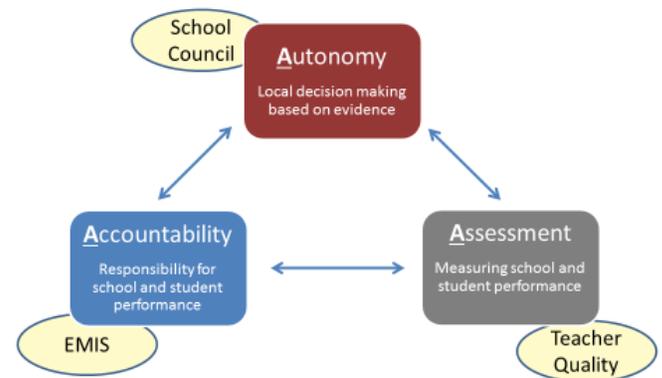
When do SBM components become critical for learning?

The improper functioning of a school or a school system can be a substantial barrier to success. The managerial component of a school system is a necessary but insufficient condition for learning. One can fix some managerial components and obtain no results or alter some other components and obtain good results. What combination of components is crucial for success are still under study, but the emerging body of practice point to a set of variables that foster managerial **autonomy**, the **assessment** of results, and the use of the assessment to promote **accountability** among all stakeholders (Bruns, Filmer and Patrinos 2011). When these three components are in balance with each other, they form a “closed system.”

Defining a managerial system that can achieve closure is conceptually important for school based management, since it transforms its components from a list of managerial activities to a set of interconnected variables that when working together can improve system performance. If an SBM system is unable to close, are partial solutions effective? Yes, in a broad sense, in which schools can still function but their degree of effectiveness and efficiency would be lower than if the system closes. In this regard, **SBM can achieve closure when it enforces enough autonomy to evaluate its results and use those results to hold someone accountable.**

This last conclusion is very important because it means that *SBM can achieve system closure when autonomy, student assessment, and accountability, are operationally interrelated through the functions of the school councils, the policies for improving teacher quality, and Education Management Information Systems* (see Figure 1).

Figure 1: The 3 A'S of School Autonomy and Accountability
School Autonomy & Accountability
The 3 A'S



Source: Demas and Arcia 2015.

Note: EMIS – education management information system.

In managerial terms it is clear that the point of contact between autonomous schools and their clients is primarily through the school council (Corrales, 2006). Similarly, school assessments are the vehicles used by schools to determine their needs for changes in pedagogical practices and to determine the training needs of their teachers. Both, pedagogical changes and teacher training are determinant factors of teacher quality (Vegas 2001). Finally, the role of EMIS on accountability has been well established and it is bound to increase as technology makes it easier to report on indicators of internal efficiency and on standardized test scores (Bruns, Filmer, and Patrinos 2011).

Results on the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) suggest that, when autonomy and accountability are intelligently combined, they tend to be associated with better student performance (OECD, 2011). The experience of high-performing countries² on PISA indicates that:

- Education systems in which schools have more autonomy over teaching content and student assessment tend to perform better.
- Education systems in which schools have more autonomy over resource allocation and that

² Examples of high-performing countries that have implemented school-based management policies and frameworks include Canada, the Netherlands, and New Zealand among others.

publish test results perform better than schools with less autonomy.

- Education systems in which many schools compete for students do not systematically score higher on PISA.
- Education systems with standardized student assessment tend to do better than those without such assessments.
- PISA scores among schools with students from different social backgrounds differ less in education systems that use standardized student assessments than in systems that do not.

As of now, the empirical evidence from countries that have implemented school autonomy suggests that a certain set of policies and practices are effective in fostering managerial autonomy, assessment of results, and the use of assessments to promote accountability. Benchmarking the policy intent of these variables using SABER can be very useful for any country interested in improving the performance of its education system.

SABER School Autonomy and Accountability: Analyzing Performance

The SABER School Autonomy and Accountability tool assists in analyzing how well developed the set of policies are in a given country to foster managerial autonomy, assess results, and use information from assessments to promote accountability. There are five policy goals for school autonomy and accountability. Below are the main indicators that can help benchmark an education system’s policies that enable school autonomy and accountability:

1. School autonomy in the planning and management of the school budget
2. School autonomy in personnel management
3. Role of the School Council in school governance
4. School and student assessments
5. Accountability

Each of these policy goals has a set of policy actions that make it possible to judge how far along an education system’s policies are in enabling school autonomy and accountability. Each policy goal and policy action is scored on the basis of its status and the results classified as Latent, Emerging, Established, or Advanced:

Latent ●○○○	Emerging ●●○○	Established ●●●○	Advanced ●●●●
Reflects policy not in place or limited engagement	Reflects some good practice; policy work still in progress	Reflects good practice, with some limitations	Reflects international best practice

A Latent score signifies that the policy behind the indicator is not yet in place or that there is limited engagement in developing the related education policy. An *Emerging* score indicates that the policy in place reflects some good practice but that policy development is still in progress. An *Established* score indicates that the program or policy reflects good practice and meets the minimum standards but there may be some limitations in its content and scope. An *Advanced* score indicates that the program or policy reflects best practice and it can be considered on par with international standards.

III. Yemen Performance: A Summary of Results

A summary of the results of the benchmarking exercise for Yemen are shown below, followed by a breakdown by policy goal.

Summary. The education system in Yemen comprises four levels of governance: central authority (Ministry of Education [MOE]), governorate level, district level, and school level. Budgetary autonomy is Emerging. The MOE is responsible for allocating resources to schools. Schools have the authority to raise additional financial resources. Policies guiding personnel management are Emerging. Recruitment, deployment, transfer, and salaries for all teaching and non-teaching staff are fixed and administered by the governorate level based on the central guidelines. Overall, policies supporting participation by parents and the community at the school level are rated as Established. Where they are functional, the School Committee, which comprises the school principal and local community members, plays a role in setting the school plans and in ongoing school operations. The MOE provides support to equip committee members with the requisite skills and competencies to perform their duties effectively and efficiently. Policies that guide school and student assessment are Emerging. Although no criteria are established by the MOE to assess schools, Yemen has standardized student assessments, which are

conducted annually. No analyses or comparison of aggregated student results are made among schools or over time. Thus, no basis exists on which to judge whether schools are doing well or if they can or should do better with the communities involved. Accountability to stakeholders is Emerging as there are regulations in place for complying with rules for accountability in school operations and finance. However, mechanisms are not established to disseminate and use information such as assessment results to hold schools and the education system accountable for their performance to parents, communities, and the public.

1. Autonomy in the planning and management of the school budget is Emerging

This policy goal focuses on the degree of autonomy that schools have in planning and managing their budgets. In order to evaluate policy intent, the scoring rubric makes clear which areas should be backed by laws, regulations, and/or official rules in the public record. School autonomy in the planning and management of the school budget is considered desirable because it can increase the efficiency of financial resources, give schools more flexibility in budget management, and give parents the opportunity to have more voice on budget planning and execution.

The government has a policy of decentralizing basic and secondary education expenditure management to the governorate level but not to the school level. In practice, the key responsibilities of personnel or operational budgets remain at the central level. The operational budget for schools is decided and approved at the central level. Management of operational budget takes place at the regional level. District education offices also have some authority to execute operational budget relating to infrastructure. The district level concentrates on building new schools or adding classrooms or other non-classrooms to existing schools in addition to conducting renovations of existing schools within the district. The district level has no authority over budget activities related to general operational costs or educational materials to improve the quality of education. Schools rely on contributions from parents to cover operational costs such as small maintenance activities. Parents with daughters in grades 7–12 and sons in grades 5–12 are required to pay up to US\$1 per year to contribute to this operational fund. No consultation process has been set

up with parents and community members mandated to prepare the operational budget of schools.

In 2008, by cabinet decree, Yemen initiated a per capita financing mechanism for schools. This order from the Vice Prime Minister calculates the budget for all schools in Yemen based on the number of students and level of education of school. Based on the number of students, schools throughout Yemen are categorized into four groups in terms of operational budget. Furthermore, in 2013 the Ministry of Finance (MOF) and Ministry of Local Authority approved the principles and criteria to distribute additional budget to the local authority. This provides an additional YR 12,000 (about US\$60) for basic education and YR 14,000 (about US\$70) for basic and secondary schools and secondary schools in remote rural areas. Up to now both the orders from the Vice Prime Minister in 2008 and the Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Local Authority proposals have not been implemented because of challenges related to the public budget in Yemen and the need for more discussion between the MOE and MOF to agree on the process of transfer, monitoring, and auditing the schools' budget.

Yemen has piloted a grant transfer to schools assisted by donor funds. Based on the pilot experience by BEDP1, JICA, and UNICEF, the MOE prepared the School Development Program Reference Framework (SDPRF), which was presented in the Joint Annual Education Review (JAR) in 2013. The document outlines the proposed process for school-based development. These processes are (a) transfer of the school budget directly from the MOF to the school account, (b) preparation and implementation of the school plan by Schools Committees with support on school-based development from the District Education Office (DEO), (c) supervision and auditing of school budget expenses by the DEO and Governorate Education Offices as part of internal auditing duties, and (d) external auditing of all school expenses by the MOF office and Central Organization for Control and Accounting Office (COCA) in the district. The school budget and plans are not included in the process of budget preparation for the district and governorate plan.

In the pilot schools in Yemen, the School Committee has the legal authority to execute the school's operational budget according to the SDPRF. Each school is required to develop and implement an annual plan, which reflects

priority activities and includes how operational budget and other resources are to be used. To ensure collaboration and include active engagement with parents, the community, and other stakeholders, the school committee is responsible for the preparation and implementation of the school plan.

In pilot schools, the School Committee oversees the management of the financial system and the annual operational budget expenses, reviews and authenticates monthly financial reports and accounts, and sends financial reports and accounts to parents’ councils for approval, according to the mechanism described in the Reference Framework, which considers the guidelines for execution of the operational budget of schools. Parents and community members, represented by the Father and Mother Council, participate in all processes of planning, implementation, and monitoring, and evaluation of operational budget execution in pilot schools.

In Yemen, the regional level has legal authority over both teaching and non-teaching staff salaries. The governorate level uses central guidelines to set the salary for staff based on the jobs, wages, and salaries system and its executive regulation, which organizes the system of jobs, wages, and salaries in Yemen. Based on this regulation, the salary of both teachers and non-teachers is decided according to qualifications and number of years of service. No consultation process takes place with parents and community members over non-teacher salaries.

Schools can request additional funds from the following sources: parents/community members, private business, and/or non-government organization. The Father and Mother Council Regulations provide legal authority to the Father and Mother Council to raise additional funds for the school. Fundraising is considered to be one of their primary tasks as stated in Father and Mother Council Regulations article 22, tasks 4 and 7. Task number 4 requires the Father and Mother Council to support the educational and teaching process in the school, developing and providing it with diverse funding sources through encouraging self-efforts of individual institutions and charitable associations and those who can provide support. Task 7 of the Regulations requires the council to provide financial and moral support for school activities (scientific, cultural, social, and the like)

to help improve scientific assimilation of children, pupils, and students.

Currently, no provision exists to allow for the school level to propose a school budget to the national or subnational level as a request for funding. So national and/or subnational authorities are not mandated to use the proposed budget submitted by the school level.

1. Legal authority over planning and management of the school budget is Emerging		
Indicator	Score	Justification
Legal authority over management of the operational budget	Latent ⊙○○○	Operational budget is prepared and managed by central government for nonpilot schools.
Legal authority over the management of non-teaching staff salaries	Emerging ⊙⊙○○	Regional level sets non-teaching staff salaries using central guidelines.
Legal authority over the management of teacher’s salaries	Emerging ⊙⊙○○	Regional level sets teaching staff salaries using central guidelines.
Legal authority to raise additional funds for the school	Established ⊙⊙⊙○	Father and Mother Councils can raise funds from parents/community members, private business, and/or nongovernment organization.
Collaborative budget planning and preparation	Latent ⊙○○○	Budget planning and preparation remains centralized in nonpilot schools.

2. School autonomy in personnel management is Emerging

This policy goal measures policy intent in the management of school personnel, which includes the principal, teachers, and non-teaching staff. Appointing and deploying principals and teachers can be centralized at the level of the MoE or it can be the responsibility of regional or municipal governments. In decentralized education systems schools have autonomy in teacher hiring and firing decisions. Budgetary autonomy includes giving schools responsibility for negotiating and setting

the salaries of its teaching and non-teaching staff and using monetary and non-monetary bonuses as rewards for good performance. In centralized systems, teachers are paid directly by the MoE or the MoF under union or civil service agreements. As a result, in centralized systems schools have less influence over teacher performance because they have no financial leverage over teachers. Inversely, if a school negotiates teachers' salaries, as private schools routinely do, it may be able to motivate teachers directly with rewards for a job well done.

In Yemen the offices of the Ministry of Civil Service (MECS) and MOE at regional (governorate) level have legal authority to appoint, deploy, and transfer both teaching and non-teaching staff to schools based on the Regulations for the Law of the Local Authority.

The appointment of teachers is subject to final review by the central level. According to the appointment system in the civil service, the name and data for all new teaching and non-teaching staff should be entered in the government database at the MECS, and all newly appointed staff must get a national financial number to include their salaries in the payroll list, which can only be allocated by the MECS.

Since both teaching and non-teaching staff members are considered public servants, their appointments and deployments are made under civil servant agreements based on an advisory (Fatwa) issued by the Office of the MECS at the governorate level. The advisory (Fatwa) is considered to be an agreement between the new employee and the MECS that assigns the employee a career level, main function group, functional category, and wages.

The appointment and deployment of school principals is within the authority of the regional (governorate) level according to the Law of the Local Authority. The regional level has the authority to oversee all matters pertaining to a school principal's recruitment, promotion, adjustment, transfer, retirement, and perks such as a car and loans.³

The responsibility for the performance evaluation of school principals rests with the Executive Office in the district based on the Regulations for the Law of the Local Authority (Republican Decree No. 269). Although the law gives the district level responsibility for evaluation of school principals, this does not happen at the district level, and in practice, transfers and removals are implemented by the governorate level.

2. School autonomy in personnel management is Emerging		
Indicator	Score	Justification
Autonomy in teacher appointment and deployment decisions	Established ●●●○	Regional government has legal authority to appoint teachers under civil service agreements. Appointments are subject to final review by central authorities.
Autonomy in non-teaching staff appointment and deployment decisions	Emerging ●●○○	Regional government has legal authority to appoint non-teaching staff under civil service agreements.
Autonomy in school principal appointment and deployment decisions.	Established ●●●○	Principals are appointed and deployed by regional authorities, who also have the authority for determining transfer or promotion.

3. Participation of the School Committee in school governance is Established

The participation of the School/Parent Committee in school administration is very important because it enables parents to exercise their real power as clients of the education system. If the committee has to cosign payments, it automatically has purchasing power. The use of a detailed operational manual is important in this area, since it allows school committee members to adequately monitor school management performance, help the principal with cash flow decisions, and become a catalyst for seeking additional funds from the community. The use of such manuals by the school committee is thus a good vehicle for promoting increased accountability and institutionalizing autonomy.

³ The Regulations for the Law of the Local Authority direct all powers and authorities regarding affairs of employment and civil service employee

functional groups within second to fifth group, to which all teaching and non-teaching school staff belong, to the local level (governorate and district).

Change management studies also have provided evidence that bringing stakeholders together to plan and implement meaningful activities contributes to behavioral change in institutions, including schools. Collective school planning activities can provide a mutual vision and shared accountability of what parents and school staff can commit in terms of support to the school. These processes provide an enabling environment for better governance.

The MOE's School Regulation, signed by the Minister of Education in 1997, states that each school must have a School Committee that consists of at least nine members. The Father and Mother Council is the organization that involves parents and community members in school management. The head of the Father and Mother Council serves as the Vice Head of the School Committee. The Internal Financial Auditor in addition to two or three members of the School Committee are members of Father and Mother Council. According to article 3 of the Father and Mother Council Regulation, the objective of the Councils is to create effective partnerships with the local community in the educational process. Article 7 of the same regulation states that membership of the Father and Mother Council is based on the number of students enrolled in the school, ranging from a minimum of 15 to a maximum of 21. Article 11 in Chapter 8 of the SDPRF describes the authority of the School Committee in planning, implementing, and evaluating school plan activities. The 10 core responsibilities of the School Committee are outlined in Box 3.

In pilot schools, further to the description in Policy Goal 1, the School Committee plays an active role in the execution of expenditures of the operational school budget. According to the SDPRF, "the controlling authority of the school is the School Committee, which performs its responsibilities on behalf of the village/district community and the MOE." The School Committee has the legal authority to have a voice on budget expenditure, but the MOE has legal oversight on determining the amount of school budget. During execution, the School Committee is responsible for approving expenditures within the guidelines of the SDPRF, but both the MOE and MOF provide final financial oversight.

Box 3: School Committee core responsibilities

1. Promote school-level leadership development program among school staff and community in participatory manner.
2. Conduct a self-assessment of the school in alignment with the existing mechanism, forms, and areas approved, and schedule support from teaching staff and school management.
3. Prepare the annual school development plan following participatory approach based on the outputs of self-evaluation within the development areas.
4. Sign the school development program and abide by the terms and conditions set with the development team of the district.
5. Form subcommittees (parents, teachers, students, Finance Committee), in accordance with the regulations and mechanisms, models, and approved standards, and ensure transparency and accountability.
6. Oversee management of the financial system and annual operational budget expenses. Review monthly financial reports and accounts, and provide authentication to parents councils for approval.
7. Participate in the implementation of the school development plan in an integrated manner and find solutions to the difficulties in implementation and completion, according to the executive program and schedule.
8. Mobilize local efforts to contribute to the support and implementation of the school development plan.
9. Promote a culture of quality among school personnel and students, parents, and the community.
10. Give more attention to professional development for teachers and school staff to raise their efficiency and practical skills.

Source: The School Development Program Reference Framework 2013.

Even in pilot schools the School Committee does not have legal authority on matters pertaining to personnel management, such as appointment and deployment, which is conducted by the Office of Education at the governorate level. However, article number 22 of the Father and Mother Council bestows on them the responsibility to notify the Education Department about the level of the school management and teachers' compliance with the official working hours and their implementation of educational decisions and regulations.

Beyond the role of School Committees, communities are expected to be active contributors to their local school. At a minimum, the MOE’s Father and Mother Council Regulations outlines community responsibilities to include four categories: (1) general tasks such as preparing, implementing, and evaluating the school plan and learning process within the school; (2) improving learning, such as following up on their children’s learning results, and supporting activities to enhance student achievement; (3) relations with school administration and teachers, such as solving any problems facing teachers and school administration and conducting regular meetings with them, in addition to following up on issues with the relevant authorities; and (4) tasks related to school building, furniture, maintenance of equipment, and improving the school environment. The MOE establishes the curriculum for all core subjects, which the School Committee is responsible for enforcing. The MESCC recommends appropriate classroom inputs (such as textbooks), from which the School Committee has discretion to select and use. The School Committee has autonomy over non-core subjects, as well as teaching and learning materials.

There are legal provisions for the open election of school council members. Articles 18 and 19 in the Father and Mother Council Regulations describe the process for forming the Father and Mother Council, which consists of three phases: (1) preparations for the formation process, (2) steps during formation of the Father and Mother Council, and (3): steps after formation of the Father and Mother Council.

The Father and Mother Council Regulations mandate scheduled elections of school council members every two years. The Father and Mother Council Regulations do not provide any limit regarding the number of years that an individual can be on the council. Any person who wants to continue working can nominate himself as a candidate and if selected can be a member of new council without any term limitation.

Article 43 of the Regulations states that the Father and Mother Councils should receive support and training from the government. The task of providing capacity building to these councils belongs to the Girls Education Sector, the Curriculum and Guidance Sector, and the General Education Sector within the MOE. Their responsibilities include:

- Supervising the formation of councils
- Preparing, implementing, and evaluating training programs for council members
- Monitoring and evaluating council activities

3. Role of the School Council in School Governance is Established		
Indicator	Score	Justification
Participation of the School Council in budget preparation	Emerging ●●○○	School Council has a voice in the planning and preparation of the nonsalary budget items at the school level, but final responsibility falls on government authorities.
Participation in financial oversight.	Advanced ●●●●	School councils have legal standing as an organization, legal authority to have a voice, and legal oversight authority on budget issues.
Participation in Personnel Management	Latent ●○○○	School councils have no legal right or voice in teacher appointments, transfers, and removals.
Community participation in school activities	Advanced ●●●●	There are formal instructions, manuals, and mandates for organizing volunteers to plan, implement, and evaluate activities.
Community participation in learning inputs	Emerging ●●○○	School councils have legal authority to voice an opinion, but no legal oversight on learning inputs to the classroom.
Transparency in Community Participation	Advanced ●●●●	Provisions for regularly scheduled elections of school council members and defined term limits exist. There are also guidelines for calling general assemblies.

4. Assessment of school and student performance is Emerging

School assessments can have a big impact on school performance because it encourages parents and teachers to agree on scoring rules and ways to keep track of them. Measuring student assessment is another

important way to determine if a school is effective in improving learning. A key aspect of school autonomy is the regular measurement of student learning, with the intent of using the results to inform parents and society, and to make adjustments to managerial and pedagogical practices. Without a regular assessment of learning outcomes school accountability is reduced and improving education quality becomes less certain.

Schools in Yemen are not assessed using MOE criteria. Schools are supervised for compliance by the Regional and Central Education Supervision authorities of the MOE. When supervisors visit schools they do not assess the school as a whole, they assess each teacher individually. There is no specified frequency of school supervision, and since school supervision focuses mainly on compliance rather than performance, supervision results are not a key contributor to the pedagogical, personnel, or operational adjustments to improve the learning environment.

In terms of student assessment, two primary methods of assessment are used in Yemen: school-based assessment and standardized student assessment. School-based assessment is conducted every year for all students in grades 1–8 of basic education and grades 1–2 of secondary education. The school-based assessment uses the MOE roles and regulations set out in the General Regulations for Examinations issued in 2005. According to this document, the objectives of the assessment are to assess student achievement and report student results to their families, help monitor the education system and program effectiveness, and evaluate schools. Schools prepare and administer the exams. They also correct the exams and announce the results. Another use of the school-based assessment is to identify students who will be promoted to the next level and those who will not be promoted.

The second method for assessment is a standardized student assessment at the basic level, which is the Yemeni Basic Education Certification Assessment. It informs basic school graduates' potential for secondary and technical or vocational training. At the secondary level, national examinations are administered at grade 12, which is the third and final year of secondary education in Yemen. The grade 12 exam, known as the Yemeni Secondary Education Certification Assessment, is used to determine student eligibility for different types

of tertiary schools. The two national exams conducted every year for all students at the final grade of basic education (grade 9) and final grade of secondary education (grade 12). As a result of adjustments to the level of difficulty of the exams from year to year, the results are not comparable across years.

Schools are not obligated to use standardized student assessments to make pedagogical, personnel, and operational adjustments. No one is mandated to receive standardized student assessments results and recommendations, because the MOE and its offices at governorate and district level do not conduct an analysis of student results for the national exams in the final grade of basic and secondary education to obligate schools to use the results to make pedagogical, personnel, and operational adjustments. The only examination report prepared at the national level is the analytical report for the Secondary Education General Examinations process, which is conducted at the end of grade 12 (grade 3 of the secondary education).

According to the Yemeni General Regulations for Examinations, the Assessment and Evaluation Administration within the MOE is responsible for managing and distributing standardized student assessment results.

No policy is in place obligating schools to use the results of standardized student assessments to make pedagogical, operational, and personnel adjustments. Each school receives their results from the standardized student assessment exam, and results are distributed to individual students through a website. The MOE does not provide aggregated results based on district or governorate levels.

4. School and student assessment is <i>Emerging</i>		
Indicator	Score	Justification
Existence and frequency of school assessments	Latent ●○○○	No set frequency of school supervision is specified, and no set MOE criteria for assessing school performance exist.
Use of school assessments for making school adjustments	Latent ●○○○	School supervision focuses on compliance rather than performance, and results are not a contributor to adjustments to improve the learning environment.
Existence and frequency of standardized student assessments	Advanced ●●●●	Annual standardized student assessments are administered at the basic and secondary school levels.
Use of standardized student assessments for pedagogical, operational, and personnel adjustments	Latent ●○○○	No policy obligates schools to use student assessment results to motivate adjustments for improving learning.
Publication of student assessments	Emerging ●●○○	Schools receive the results of their student population and individual students can access their scores on a website, but no aggregated results are shared by district or governorate level.

As mentioned in Policy Goal 4, the guidelines for the use of results of student assessments are provided through the General Regulations for examinations issued in 2005. Section 10 (articles 14–17) focuses on reporting and utilization of assessment data, which includes reporting to students, parents, school community, and others. These articles are not implemented in all schools in Yemen because the regulations alone are not enough to implement it. The need exists to build the capacity of schools and education staff in how to analyze and use the results to improve learning. Also, no follow-up is done by MOE, and its offices in the governorate and district do not enforce implementation of this article because they follow other chapters within this regulation.

According to policy, the assessment system does not have formal provisions that mandate comparative analysis of student assessment results over time or with other schools or regions. Also, these types of analyses and comparisons are not implemented at the central level using data from the standardized national assessment. The statistical yearbook does not include data related to exam results, by school, district, or governorate level.

The general regulations for examinations are available in education offices at the governorate or district level, and parents may request them from the school or Government Education Office or DEO. The Father and Mother Councils can use the general regulations for examinations to demand accountability. One of the general tasks of the Councils is to review developments and resolutions taken by the ministry and present these to the school community during general assemblies to keep it informed of the decisions taken by school management. Because the results of student assessments are not analyzed, the impact of improvement measures in education is not known. There are no consequences to the school if it does not respond to demands for accountability.

In the area of financial accountability rules and regulations exist to guide spending and ensure transparency at the central, governorate, district, and school level. The central level is tasked with defining regulations for financial management and transparency that apply to all levels and tiers of the public budget, including reporting to the entity with financial oversight, according to Law No. (8) of 1990 on financial law as

5. School accountability to stakeholders is *Emerging*

Accountability is at the heart of school-based management. The systemic connection between budgetary and personnel autonomy, parent participation in the financial and operational aspects of a school, and the measurement of learning outcomes are all aimed to reinforce accountability. Only by being accountable to parents can educational quality be sustainable. The following indicators below address aspects of accountability that can be implemented within the framework of school-based management.

amended by Law No. (50) for the year 1999, and Ministerial Decree No. (70) for the year 1991 on the regulation of financial law. Most school budgets are part of the district budget. As such, they are subject to supervision by the Ministry of Finance (MOF) and the Central Organization for Control and Accounting (COCA). For governorate schools, all rules and regulations related to governorate budgets are also applicable to the school budget. The school is required to implement and comply with all national and local laws, rules, and regulations related to financial management and transparency.

The local authority at the governorate level has to report to the MOF monthly, quarterly, and annually. Based on the Local Authority Law, the districts within each governorate prepare the final accounts at the district level. The district final financial reports are reviewed by the governorate and are used to prepare the governorate final financial account. Once approved, one copy of the governorate final budget account report is sent to the MOF and another copy to the COCA. Based on the financial law, the MOE at the central level is obligated to report on its budget account to the MOF and COCA. No regulations have been established for linking rewards and sanctions to compliance. However, in practice, school budget supervision entails consequences if there is spending on activities outside of the school plan, if financial rules are not followed, or if documents required by the financial systems are not provided.

In line with the Father and Mother Councils Regulation (2009), schools are required to comply with the rules of school operations and to report to those with oversight authority at either the district or governorate for matters pertaining to school operations, such as school management and teacher compliance with official working hours and their implementation of educational decisions and regulations. The school plan in the pilot schools funded by donors is an accountability tool designed to hold school operations and activities accountable to parents and community members. The plan will be used as a tool for accountability in all schools in Yemen in the future as outlined in the SDPRF.

Although a school plan can be an effective mechanism for parents to make informed decisions, they must be equipped with sufficient information. In Yemen, no mandate requires student assessment results to be

released to the public and be simplified and explained. The student results communicated to parents are limited to the grades that students received in the exam without any simplification and explanation. There is also no collective body by which parents and the community can voice their opinions or concerns to hold the school responsible for delivering a quality education.

The MOE at the central level has legal authority to choose all textbooks, decide which courses are offered, and set the school calendar for all schools. The school level has the legal authority to determine teaching and learning materials for schools and to determine course content for non-core curriculum. The MOE does not provide any textbooks related to non-core curriculum such as physical education, art education, or music. The content of these courses is determined by the schools that introduce these courses.

5. Accountability to stakeholders is Emerging		
Indicator	Score	Justification
Guidelines for the use of results of student assessments	Emerging ●○○○	There are guidelines for the use of results of student assessments, but these are not implemented or enforced.
Analysis of school and student performance	Latent ●○○○	No provisions for the comparative analysis of student assessment results for different types of schools, across regions, and for previous years exist.
Degree of financial accountability at the central, regional and school levels	Established ●●●○	MOE central level reports to the MOF and COLA. Rewards and sanctions are not linked to compliance. The governorate reports to the MOF quarterly and annually.
Degree of accountability in school operations	Established ●●●○	Schools are required to report to district or governorate offices on school operations.
Degree of learning accountability	Latent ●○○○	There is no mandate for simplifying and explaining results of student assessments to the public.

IV. Enhancing education quality: Policy recommendations for Yemen

As mentioned earlier, the interrelations between autonomy, assessment, and accountability can be compared to a “closed-loop system,” or one in which feedback constantly informs output. In a closed-loop system, all elements in balance are critical to achieving success. In this regard, school-based development can achieve closure of the loop (balance) when it allows enough autonomy to make informed decisions, evaluate its results, and use that information to hold someone accountable (Demas and Arcia 2015).

In recent years, Yemen has increasingly bestowed responsibilities for operation of education on the school level. The following section uses results of the benchmarking of school autonomy and accountability to highlight areas for potential policy change to empower schools to make decisions that reflect their local context and lead to improved learning outcomes.

1. Autonomy in the planning and management of the school budget (Emerging)

The authority over the design and management of the operational budget including the Yemeni School Budget Grant Scheme is concentrated at the central level

The per capita financing formula for school operating costs proposed by the government in 2008 and supplemented in 2013 should be implemented and provided to schools as a first step to implement the SDPRF. Following implementation of the formula, the MOE, in consultation with the school level, should evaluate and readjust the financing formula to ensure it is adequate, especially for poor rural communities, to avoid creating or widening a gap in learning between rural and urban areas.

Although the school also has the ability to raise funds through the community or other sources, anecdotal evidence suggests that rural schools may be at a disadvantage due to their inability to raise funds locally to cover excess operating costs and capital improvements. Providing a sufficient budget for all schools is key for inclusive development and economic growth. The review of the per capita financing formula would allow the MOE to build participation into the

process to ensure that the school level—the stakeholders that best know the cost of education in their community—has a formal voice in the approach and allocation through the School Committee.

Since Yemen has generated some knowledge through the piloting of the School Development Program, we recommend comparing experiences between governorates. These comparisons should help highlight lessons learned, particularly for (1) refining mechanisms to improve administrative efficiency in fund transactions, and (2) monitoring and advising schools and communities on school improvement plans. Such mechanisms should also develop the institutional capacity of communities to participate in school governance and increase their access to school information, roles, and voices for improving student learning opportunities and outcomes.

To improve transparency and accountability of school resources transferred through the per capita financing formula, the MOE can post, on its website, the list of all schools with basic indicators such as the number of students by gender and per teacher by using the annual education surveys. The MOE should also promote and distribute the school list to local administrations that do not yet have online access and encourage them to discuss the information with schools.

2. Autonomy in personnel management (Emerging)

Yemeni schools do not have any autonomy in personnel management. The regional level (governorate) has legal authority to appoint, deploy, and transfer teachers and non-teaching staff. To ensure good quality education, newly appointed teachers should complete a probationary teaching year in which they should pass a certificate of good performance for the school level before their status as a teacher is made final. It is recommended that the MOE provide standards for teacher certification, and the district and school director would be responsible for evaluating teacher performance against the certification criteria. New teachers who do not pass the certification should be given specific plans for improvement. To support this improvement, districts should arrange for teachers who have not gained certification to receive additional in-service training and a chance to be certified at the end of the next academic year. The MECS should cancel the

appointment of new staff who do not have the certificate of good performance after two years or transfer them to noneducation sectors.

Another recommendation is to expand the range of stakeholders involved in the selection, attestation, and performance review of school directors since this process is limited, in practice, to the governorate level. A selection and appointment mechanism that involves governorate, district, and school and parents is an option worth considering. More participation at the school level may help to eliminate political influence and retain a focus on professional qualities and performance of the school director since parents and the school council are likely to be concerned with the quality of schooling that their children receive. The government may further improve the human resource aspects of the system by strengthening the framework for training and qualification of school directors, with a focus on instructional leadership skills, working with parents, performance management, and the use of assessments for short- and long-term plans for school improvement. In this respect, exploring examples of good quality head teacher accreditation schemes may be helpful for strengthening the school leadership programs in Yemen.

For non-teaching staff, each school has its own local characteristics that may influence non-teaching personnel needs. The MOE could consider decentralizing management to the school director and School Committee, and provide them with the authority to hire or remove non-teaching staff within guidelines and civil servant pay rates set by the MECS. This could be an easily implemented step that would be beneficial for meeting local school needs and unburdening the central authority from handling the details of non-teaching staff appointments.

Teacher management policies need to be strengthened and implemented by all the stakeholders, including administrators, schools, and communities, to ensure that all students, including those from disadvantaged areas, learn from motivated teachers, who fully teach the intended curriculum in a reasonable class size. Specific policy measures especially critical for the post-conflict environment could include the following: (1) micro-planning and implementation of teacher deployment to urban and rural schools, with a greater attention paid to the current and potential variations of class sizes to

further reach out-of-school children; (2) monitoring teachers' actual placements and daily attendance to reduce the number of ghost teachers and absenteeism; (3) linking the records of teacher placements and attendance to the actual salary payments and providing the needed rewards for difficult areas in a transparent way; (4) improving supervision to assess and guide schools; (5) improving records and information on teachers who could receive professional development and in-service training to give priority to teachers who need it the most; and (6) facilitating the roles of parents and communities in monitoring the attendance of school directors and teachers.

Given the likely displacement of teachers during the crisis, districts and schools could be allowed some voice on teacher staffing needs. Yemen has some experience with this gained through the Rural Female Teacher Contracting Scheme piloted through World Bank-financed projects in recent years. As a result of this locally voiced need for teachers, more female teachers were recruited in underserved rural areas. This has contributed to higher enrolment and retention of girls. It is recommended to build on this experience of allowing for a local level response to locally voiced needs for teachers.

3. Role of School Committee on school governance (Established)

Yemen's approach to school-based development reform was far reaching in terms of providing autonomy to schools in the area of planning and management of the school process. Although the MOE laid the policy foundation for the program to be implemented in all schools nationwide, in practice, the implementation of school-based development is limited to pilot schools that receive funding from development partners. The government of Yemen should accelerate implementation based on the SDPRF. This will improve the policy environment to enable parents and community members to influence better learning outcomes and to take a more active role in what happens at schools, all of which can be beneficial for transparency and accountability.

Considerable responsibility is bestowed to the School Committee. While policy mandates the existence of School Committees and Father and Mother Councils, they function in only a small number of schools due to

financial and capacity constraints. To ensure their full functioning, it is recommended to provide funds (grant transfers or operating costs through formula funding) directly to schools. Additionally, the MOE should ensure the selected candidates for school committees have the necessary competencies and skill sets to fulfill their duties as committee members. Based on continuous feedback, tailored training programs could be developed to address skill deficiencies and allow school committees to fulfill their roles. Areas for capacity building could include bookkeeping and creating school improvement plans focused on learning, reporting, and monitoring. Technical assistance paired with simplified guidelines, management tools, and direct allocation of some operational funds to schools will enable schools to plan, make decisions, implement, and monitor stated goals for improvement and align them with the MOE goals for better delivery of education services.

4. School and Student Assessment (Emerging)

In general, policies on school and student assessment in Yemen are emerging. Schools are not assessed using the MOE criteria. When supervisors visit schools, they do not assess the school as a whole; instead they focus on assessing individual teachers. The SDPRF was presented in JAR 2013 as a framework to advise and assess Yemeni schools. It is recommended to improve the policies and practices supporting the use and dissemination of assessment results.

School assessment: A census-based assessment at each educational stage that is comparable across time is necessary for providing local stakeholders, including parents and municipal officials, with information about performance of individual schools. To use school assessment data to parse out what component of student achievement is due to the efforts of the school or teacher and what component is due to the student's household or background, the government could perform value-added analysis of assessment results. England provides a good example of this kind of analysis. Using the value-added scores (and not the absolute assessment scores) will ensure that publicity of results does not stigmatize schools, especially where the absolute scores are low because of the socio-economic characteristics of students.

Based on the SDPRF, Yemen has a system in place for school self-evaluation. This system has not been implemented yet nationwide, and without it, the central authority does not have data about school achievement levels. It is a missed opportunity to do cross-school analysis to identify common trends and provide additional specialized instruction or training for common problems. In the current approach, it is difficult to ensure consistency across schools, and the information may not be comparable from school to school. It is recommended that the MOE strongly consider developing a policy that supports an approach enabling data to be aggregated at the system level for further evaluation and analysis to inform system-wide trends and nuances on school performance. As a first step, the MOE could consider providing a more structured school self-evaluation framework to schools to guide the design and implementation of their schoolwide assessment and self-evaluation.

Student assessment: Currently the Directorate of Exams and Educational Evaluation is responsible for the management and implementation of student exams and distribution and approval of the results. Since the results of student assessment are not analyzed and documented over time, the utility and consistency of the student results to improve education performance is not realized. The MOE should consider implementing a policy to achieve better use of standardized student assessment data. Specifically, the policy should clearly stipulate that analysis of results must be used to inform pedagogy, school operations, and personnel decisions.

5. Accountability to Stakeholders (Emerging)

The government of Yemen could consider developing and implementing a more rigorous accountability system. This could include the following:

1. Improved dissemination of information to empower parents to make informed decisions and demand accountability.
2. Better instruments to hold the school director accountable for learning outcomes.
3. Greater monitoring of school performance by parents and the school councils.
4. Real consequences for poor performance.

First, the MOE should issue necessary policies to obligate schools to analyze standardized student assessment results. Then the MOE should develop clear guidelines

and provide technical training to schools on how to analyze standardized student assessment results to ensure that schools are utilizing the results from assessments to optimize the learning environment. Doing so would increase consistency in quality and opportunity across the country, while also providing schools with autonomy to respond to their local environment and educational needs.

Second, the MOE could empower education stakeholders in the community and enhance accountability mechanisms. The MOE could improve in this area by adopting a strategy that involves analyzing student results at an aggregated level and widely distributing performance results at the national level, to districts, schools, and the public. The process could be gradual. The MOE could initially make results available at the district level and eventually accessible for comparison across schools. The results should include analysis that is both articulated and simplified, enabling all stakeholders the opportunity to understand the strengths and areas for improvement identified through analysis of standardized student assessment results, and to compare school performance across districts and over time. By implementing a layered approach, it allows the MOE to gradually expand public knowledge on student performance from the national to the school level, thereby empowering citizens to hold the system more accountable both locally and nationally.

Third, the MOE could consider developing and implementing sanctions and incentives into its accountability system. This approach would reward and encourage high-performing schools, as well as identify schools that are not performing well and provide opportunity for the schools to develop and implement improvement plans. It is important to recognize that implementation of a holistic incentive system should be implemented gradually. For instance, the system could focus on one area (such as school infrastructure) and expand to include aspects of school operations. An auxiliary benefit of an effective incentive system is that it recognizes where there is good performance that can be used to improve information sharing of effective attributes and strategies across the education system. Conversely, it will identify where attention should be given to improve compliance with standards. Rewarding and encouraging high-performing schools would serve to both motivate schools as well as enable the MOE to

identify strong characteristics and best practices that can be shared across the education system.

Acknowledgments

This report was compiled by Hamoud M. Al-Seyani, Education Policy and Planning Consultant and Advisor to the Ministry of Education in the Republic of Yemen, under the supervision and guidance of Angela Demas, Senior Education Specialist, Global Education and Knowledge Unit of the World Bank. Mr. Al-Seyani provided country expertise and technical input to this report. He coordinated and carried out data collection, benchmarking of the policies, and formulating recommendations. The author is grateful to the Ministry of Education for their input, support, and validation of data. The report also benefited from the data reviews and editing executed by Wenna Ross Price, Consultant. Data cited in this report are based on reviews of official laws, regulations, decrees, and other policy documents. The World Bank team extends special appreciation to Mr. Al-Seyani for his professional efforts and dedication to completing this report under difficult circumstances. For further information on the SABER Initiative and SABER SAA, see <http://saber.worldbank.org/index.cfm>.

Acronyms

COCA	Central Organization for Control and Accounting
DEO	District Education Office
ECE	Early Childhood Education
JAR	Joint Annual Education Review
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MECS	Ministry of Civil Service
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOF	Ministry of Finance
SAA	School Autonomy and Accountability
SBM	School-Based Management
SDPRF	School Development Program Reference Framework
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training

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The **Systems Approach for Better Education Results (SABER)** initiative collects data on the policies and institutions of education systems around the world and benchmarks them against practices associated with student learning. SABER aims to give all parties with a stake in educational results—from students, administrators, teachers, and parents to policy makers and business people—an accessible, detailed, objective snapshot of how well the policies of their country’s education system are oriented toward ensuring that all children and youth learn.

This report focuses specifically on policies in the area of **School Autonomy and Accountability**.

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