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MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS AND ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN NON-STATE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS: AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT. The rapid expansion of non-state education requires management systems that combine regulatory compliance, instructional leadership, resource stewardship and public accountability. This study examines organizational development in Uzbekistan's non-state educational sector through a descriptive secondary-data analysis, with general secondary education serving as the principal empirical case. Official statistics for the 2023/2024–2025/2026 academic years were analysed alongside the national education law, accreditation regulations and international research on school leadership and non-state provision. The number of non-state general education institutions rose from 293 to 551, while enrolment rose from 64,103 to 157,471 learners. Between 2024/2025 and 2025/2026 alone, institutions increased by 21.1% and enrolment by 40.5%. In 2025/2026, Tashkent city and Fergana region accounted for 48.3% of these institutions. The study distinguishes observable system expansion from organizational effectiveness, which cannot be established using counts of schools and learners alone. On this basis, a five-domain governance and effectiveness assessment matrix and a staged evidence-to-improvement cycle are proposed. The findings show where management capacities may be placed under pressure by expansion and geographic concentration, but do not demonstrate institution-level causal effects. The proposed framework is intended for subsequent school-based validation through records, staff and parent surveys, instructional observation and longitudinal outcomes.

Keywords: non-state educational institutions; educational management; organizational effectiveness; school leadership; accountability; private schools; secondary-data analysis; Uzbekistan.

1. INTRODUCTION

Non-state educational institutions have become increasingly visible in systems seeking to widen access, diversify programmes and mobilize additional investment in education. Their governance differs from that of conventional public institutions because educational decisions are made within a dual accountability environment. Management must meet statutory requirements while responding to students, families, employees and founders. These responsibilities are interconnected but not identical: financial viability does not necessarily demonstrate sound instructional quality, and rising enrolment is not itself proof of effective teaching or equitable access.

The World Development Report 2018 argues that the expansion of schooling must be distinguished from actual learning and that weak management can obstruct quality improvement (World Bank, 2018). The UNESCO Global Education Monitoring Report on non-state actors similarly cautions against assuming that private provision automatically improves efficiency or equity. It instead

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emphasizes regulation, comparable standards, transparent information and responsible oversight (UNESCO, 2021). These international considerations are especially relevant where non-state provision is expanding faster than the availability of comparable public information about educational outcomes.

Uzbekistan presents an informative national case. The Law "On Education" No. ZRU-637 of 23 September 2020, as amended, establishes the legal framework for non-state educational organisations, including rules associated with educational services, institutional charters, licensing and transparency (Republic of Uzbekistan, 2020). Cabinet of Ministers Resolution No. 91 of 14 February 2024 specifies procedures for attestation and accreditation of preschool and general secondary education organisations, including non-state providers. The regulation's separate risk-based school-quality monitoring provisions expressly concern state general education organisations and should not be presented as a universal private-school obligation (Cabinet of Ministers, 2024).

Official statistics show an expansion that deserves management analysis. Non-state general education institutions numbered 455 at the beginning of the 2024/2025 academic year and 551 one year later (National Statistics Committee, 2025, 2026a). Yet aggregate indicators do not disclose board effectiveness, teacher retention, internal control, cost per learner, parental trust or learning progress. The purpose of this article is therefore to quantify observable sectoral change, explain its implications for management capacity and formulate an operational assessment framework that can be tested within institutions.

Three research questions guide the study: (1) How did the scale and territorial distribution of non-state general secondary education change between 2023/2024 and 2025/2026? (2) What can and cannot be concluded about organizational effectiveness from publicly available administrative data? (3) Which managerial functions and indicators should be prioritized in a future institution-level evaluation? The contribution combines transparent descriptive indicators with a context-specific governance matrix rather than presenting uncollected survey results.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

2.1. Organizational effectiveness and educational outcomes

Organizational effectiveness in education is a multidimensional concept. In the present study it refers to an institution's capacity to pursue educational objectives while maintaining compliance, using resources responsibly, supporting staff, protecting learners and improving measurable outcomes. This definition deliberately goes beyond an exclusively commercial interpretation of efficiency. For example, growth in student numbers may improve revenue stability but can also increase pressure on premises, teacher workload and counselling provision. Effectiveness requires examining whether expansion is accompanied by sufficient organizational capacity.

The World Bank (2018) distinguishes learning from participation and highlights the alignment of incentives, actors and evidence. In this perspective, school attendance, administrative inputs and financial indicators are necessary for planning but insufficient for evaluating students' actual educational experiences. A credible evaluation therefore connects input data with measures of teaching practice, learner progress and inclusion.

2.2. Instructional leadership and distributed governance

Leadership research places instructional direction at the centre of school improvement. Hallinger (2011) conceptualises leadership for learning through values, focus, context and shared leadership. Leithwood, Harris and Hopkins (2020) further show that leadership effects depend on the

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http://houghtonstreetreview.com/index.php/hsr

organizational conditions that shape teachers' work. Their arguments support the use of explicit learning priorities, collaborative decision-making, professional development and formative feedback rather than managerial supervision limited to budget and admissions targets.

The governance of a non-state institution additionally requires clear distinctions among founders or trustees, executive directors, academic leaders and internal quality-assurance staff. The owner may set broad goals and approve strategic budgets, whereas pedagogical leaders require defined authority for curriculum implementation, teacher support and instructional monitoring. Where these responsibilities are undocumented, rapid expansion may magnify conflicts of interest or produce reactive decisions. The statement is an analytical risk hypothesis, not an observed finding about individual Uzbek schools.

2.3. Regulation, choice and accountability

The UNESCO (2021) assessment of non-state actors demonstrates why the relationship between choice and quality should not be reduced to a simple public–private comparison. Families may select providers on the basis of location, fees, language, reputation or peer composition, while robust learning information is less readily available. Equitable educational governance consequently requires accessible information, meaningful grievance mechanisms and scrutiny of exclusion as well as formal compliance. Regulatory documentation should be treated as the starting point for quality assurance rather than its endpoint.

For Uzbekistan, Article 31 of the Law "On Education" regulates non-state education organisations, and Article 32 addresses institutional charters. The current law also provides for licensing and relevant notification-based exceptions in specified types of educational activity; requirements must therefore be interpreted by educational level and service type rather than assumed to be uniform. Resolution No. 91 of 2024 supplies a more specific framework for school and preschool attestation and accreditation. Together, these norms establish a reasoned basis for examining governance structure, legal compliance and management accountability (Republic of Uzbekistan, 2020; Cabinet of Ministers, 2024).

2.4. Continuous improvement and evidence-informed management

The improvement-science literature supports disciplined cycles in which institutions define a problem, examine evidence, test a manageable change and assess its implementation (Bryk et al., 2015). OECD school-leadership research likewise identifies the distribution of leadership responsibilities, capacity development and organisational support as important policy priorities (Pont, Nusche, & Moorman, 2008). A private provider can apply these principles to budget transparency, teacher development, parent relations and instructional performance without reducing quality to a single institutional ranking.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This study employed a non-experimental, descriptive secondary-data design combined with a focused documentary analysis of education governance. No interviews, questionnaires, school observations or administrative records from named private institutions were collected. The term "empirical" refers to the analysis of observed, published administrative statistics; it does not signify an experiment or a tested causal relationship between managerial practices and performance.

The principal quantitative sources were the official 2024 statistical announcement of the 2023/2024 non-state school count, the National Statistics Committee's 2025 general secondary education release, and its 2026 publication on non-state schools in 2025/2026, and its SIAT tables for

HSR (LONDON),
HOUGHTON STREET REVIEW JOURNAL
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http://houghtonstreetreview.com/index.php/hsr

non-state school enrolment, total secondary enrolment and total general education institutions (National Statistics Committee, 2025, 2026a, 2026b, 2026c, 2026d; Navoiy Regional Department of Statistics, 2024). Non-state institution totals refer to operating general secondary education providers at the beginning of the corresponding academic year; the higher education sector is discussed only as contextual comparison and is not combined with school-sector denominators.

Three school-year observations were retained: 2023/2024, 2024/2025 and 2025/2026. For each year, the analysis computed: (a) the non-state share of all general education institutions, calculated as non-state institutions divided by all institutions multiplied by 100; (b) the non-state share of pupils, calculated as enrolment in non-state institutions divided by total secondary-school enrolment multiplied by 100; and (c) a descriptive enrolment-to-institution ratio, calculated as non-state pupils divided by non-state institutions. Year-on-year percentage change was calculated as (current value / previous value − 1) × 100. Computations were rounded to one or two decimal places as shown in the tables.

Geographical concentration was examined using published regional school counts for 2024/2025 and 2025/2026. This identifies the spatial distribution of providers, but it does not measure relative service availability by population, household income or school-age cohort. The documentary strand reviewed the 2020 education law, Resolution No. 91 of 2024, the UNESCO GEM report and school-leadership literature; governance themes were grouped as compliance, instructional leadership, resources, stakeholder accountability and organizational learning. The selection is purposive rather than a systematic review. All web-based statistical values were checked against the cited pages as available on 16 October 2026.

4. RESULTS: SECTORAL EXPANSION AND MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

4.1. Dynamics of institutions and enrolment

Table 1 reports a sustained rise in both the number of non-state general education institutions and the number of enrolled pupils. Between 2023/2024 and 2025/2026, the institution count increased by 258 (from 293 to 551), or 88.1%, while non-state enrolment increased by 93,368 pupils (from 64,103 to 157,471), approximately 145.7%. The national totals for all secondary pupils grew much more slowly over this period. Accordingly, the private-sector share of school enrolment rose from approximately 0.96% to 2.29%. These values describe changing participation, not comparative learning performance.

Table 1. Development of non-state general secondary education in Uzbekistan

Indicator	2023/2024	2024/2025	2025/2026
All general education institutions (n)	10,750	10,943	11,118
Non-state institutions (n)	293	455	551
Non-state share of institutions (%)	2.73	4.16	4.96
All secondary-school pupils (n)	6,645,119	6,776,333	6,870,545
Pupils in non-state institutions (n)	64,103	112,093	157,471
Non-state share of pupils (%)	0.96	1.65	2.29

HSR (LONDON),
HOUGHTON STREET REVIEW JOURNAL
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http://houghtonstreetreview.com/index.php/hsr

Indicator	2023/2024	2024/2025	2025/2026
Pupils per non-state institution (derived ratio)	218.8	246.4	285.8

Note. The 2023/2024 institution count (293) follows the 15 March 2024 official statistical announcement; other institution figures use National Statistics Committee school-sector records; pupil figures use SIAT. Shares and pupils-per-institution ratios were calculated by the author from published totals. The ratio represents a sector-wide aggregate and is not a measure of class size, staffing adequacy, occupancy or educational quality.

From 2024/2025 to 2025/2026, non-state institutions increased by 96 (21.1%). Enrolment grew by 45,378 pupils (40.5%). The implied enrolment-to-institution ratio increased from 246.4 to 285.8. These simultaneous changes suggest that non-state operators collectively accommodated more students per operating institution, whether through fuller existing schools, larger campuses, changes in provider composition or other factors. The public figures cannot distinguish among these explanations. Any claim that educational resources kept pace with this change would require separate staff, premises and budget data.

4.2. Regional distribution and concentration

Territorial distributions demonstrate substantial concentration. At the start of 2025/2026, Tashkent city recorded 145 non-state schools and Fergana region 121, together constituting 266 of the country's 551 non-state schools, or 48.3%. At the other end of the distribution, Navoi and Surkhandarya each recorded five institutions. These are absolute numbers, not population-adjusted access rates; the analysis does not infer that the regions with fewer schools necessarily have unmet demand.

Table 2. Selected regional counts of non-state general education institutions

Region	2024/2025 (n)	2025/2026 (n)	Absolute change
Tashkent city	131	145	+14
Fergana region	93	121	+28
Samarkand region	38	43	+5
Andijan region	32	37	+5
Namangan region	28	37	+9
Navoi region	4	5	+1
Surkhandarya region	4	5	+1
Uzbekistan (all regions)	455	551	+96

Source. National Statistics Committee (2025, 2026a). The table presents selected regions, not a complete territorial distribution; the nationwide row is the independently published national total.

The Fergana region accounted for 28 of the national increase of 96 institutions between the two years, while Tashkent city contributed 14. This indicates that expansion is not uniform across territories. It does not establish whether licensing policy, family demand, real-estate costs, local income or school management quality caused that variation. A follow-up territorial analysis would need school-age population, school fees, travel time, household income and accreditation status.

HSR (LONDON),
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http://houghtonstreetreview.com/index.php/hsr

4.3. Context from non-state higher education

A separate higher education series reinforces the importance of disaggregating institutional types. The National Statistics Committee reports 99 non-state higher education organisations in the 2024/2025 academic year, compared with 97 in 2025/2026; the total number of higher education organisations moved from 222 to 215 over the same years (National Statistics Committee, 2026e, 2026f). This differs from the growth observed among non-state general education schools. It would be methodologically inappropriate to pool these counts or treat the two segments as experiencing the same regulatory, academic and market conditions.

4.4. A proposed governance and effectiveness diagnostic matrix

The quantitative results establish a changing operational environment but leave the core effectiveness question unanswered. To connect descriptive evidence with the article's management focus, Table 3 proposes five evaluation domains. The indicators are illustrative items for future fieldwork; no numerical scores, organizational ratings or effects were assigned. An institution would use the matrix to select observable records and collect direct evidence before drawing conclusions about management effectiveness.

Table 3. Proposed management domains, indicators and verification sources

Management domain	Illustrative indicators	Evidence to be collected
Legal and strategic governance	Clear authority, charter, compliance register, risk review	Charter; meeting minutes; licences; accreditation files
Instructional leadership	Lesson feedback, teacher mentoring, curriculum review	Observation; training records; learning assessments
Financial and resource stewardship	Budget variance, staffing plans, capacity and safety checks	Audited accounts; workforce plans; facility records
Stakeholder accountability and inclusion	Published policies, complaints resolved, support for diverse learners	Parent feedback; grievance logs; inclusion audit
Evidence-driven improvement	Targets, baseline measures, follow-up actions, documented revisions	Quality dashboard; action plans; review reports

4.5. A management improvement cycle

A practical management process follows five recurring stages. First, the institution establishes a baseline using verified documents, financial and workforce data, school climate evidence and learning indicators. Second, its leadership identifies a small set of risks or priorities, such as rapidly increasing enrolment without corresponding teaching capacity. Third, clearly assigned managers implement actions, for example a recruitment timetable, mentoring arrangements or revised classroom allocation. Fourth, they re-examine implementation indicators on a fixed schedule, documenting both progress and unintended effects. Fifth, the governing body or authorized management group adjusts policy, budgets and responsibilities on the basis of the results.

For illustration only, a school whose enrolment rises by 20% over an academic year could compare actual teacher contact hours, classroom utilisation, student attendance and parent feedback against a documented baseline before adding more classes. The figure of 20% in this example is

HSR (LONDON),
HOUGHTON STREET REVIEW JOURNAL
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http://houghtonstreetreview.com/index.php/hsr

hypothetical; it is not a measured change for any school in this study. This distinction matters because well-designed managerial scenarios should not be confused with empirical findings.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. What the observed trends imply for management

The observed increase in both institutional counts and enrolment is consistent with an expanding non-state school segment. Growth can create opportunities for innovative provision and choice, yet its main implication for governance is increased complexity. More learners require planning for personnel, safeguarding, communication, assessment, physical facilities and financial resilience. A strategic management system must therefore set capacity thresholds and review operational risks rather than allowing enrolment targets alone to determine expansion decisions.

This interpretation accords with the World Bank's distinction between schooling and learning and with international leadership scholarship emphasizing organisational conditions for instruction (World Bank, 2018; Leithwood et al., 2020). However, there is no institution-level evidence in the present dataset to conclude that Uzbek private schools are more or less efficient, innovative or academically successful than public schools. Sectoral expansion and institutional effectiveness remain analytically distinct.

5.2. Accountability under Uzbekistan's regulatory framework

The legal analysis supports the importance of formal governance and internal assessment. Non-state educational organisations operate within legally specified requirements related to services, charters, licensing where applicable and educational standards (Republic of Uzbekistan, 2020). For preschool and general secondary institutions, Resolution No. 91 addresses attestation and accreditation procedures across ownership forms. The separate risk-based monitoring regulation within that resolution specifically refers to state general secondary schools; treating it as a current universal private-school requirement would misstate its scope (Cabinet of Ministers, 2024).

Effective compliance management should maintain an up-to-date register of obligations and distinguish a school's own internal quality-control procedures from legally mandated external requirements. Governance evaluation should also ask who approves policies, who verifies implementation and how the institution responds to documented problems. These arrangements help ensure that accountability is substantive rather than confined to possession of files.

5.3. Transparency, equity and stakeholder relationships

UNESCO (2021) draws attention to the limits of consumer choice as a substitute for accessible information and equitable regulation. For non-state schools, parents and learners require clear contractual conditions, transparent fees, realistic statements about academic programmes and a credible mechanism for raising concerns. At the same time, founders and directors need feedback that does not punish staff for reporting organizational weaknesses. Responsible management balances confidentiality with public accountability and avoids using unvalidated league tables as evidence of quality.

The documented regional concentration should motivate a more careful future access analysis, not immediate claims of exclusion. Household purchasing power, geographic location and demographic structure may influence where schools operate, but these determinants were not tested here. A defensible policy analysis would compare school distribution with population-adjusted demand and learning outcomes, and would consider whether measures to promote access inadvertently weaken instructional standards or teacher working conditions.

HSR (LONDON),
HOUGHTON STREET REVIEW JOURNAL
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http://houghtonstreetreview.com/index.php/hsr

5.4. Research limitations and future empirical validation

Four limitations are central. First, publicly available national figures are aggregated and do not reveal the governance practices of individual institutions. Second, the observational period is short, and reported data do not identify school openings, closures, mergers or changes in reporting definitions individually. Third, enrolment is not a learning-outcome, equity or financial-efficiency measure. Fourth, the documentary sample is selective rather than exhaustive and the proposed management matrix has not undergone expert validation or reliability testing.

The next stage should employ a stratified institutional sample spanning contrasting regions and school sizes. Governance documents could be coded using standardized rubrics, while school leaders, teachers and parents could be surveyed with informed consent. Objective indicators should include staff turnover, budget execution, attendance, safety incidents, complaints resolution and learning progress adjusted for baseline achievement. Inter-rater agreement, construct validity and longitudinal associations should be evaluated before any composite effectiveness score is used. A comparison with state schools would require explicit adjustment for socioeconomic and selection differences; simple averages would not support causal inference.

6. CONCLUSION

This study documents rapid, measurable expansion of non-state general secondary education in Uzbekistan. The number of non-state institutions increased from 293 in 2023/2024 to 551 in 2025/2026, and enrolment rose from 64,103 to 157,471. In the latest reported year, Tashkent city and Fergana region jointly accounted for 48.3% of the country's non-state general education institutions. These results establish the direction and territorial pattern of change without proving managerial effectiveness or educational superiority.

The principal methodological contribution is a transparent separation between sectoral growth indicators and the institution-level evidence needed to assess organizational effectiveness. A five-domain diagnostic matrix covering governance, instructional leadership, resource stewardship, stakeholder accountability and continuous improvement offers a structured starting point for field evaluation. Uzbekistan's education law and accreditation arrangements provide the compliance context within which such evaluations should operate. Future research must test whether specific management practices are associated with credible learning, equity, staff and financial outcomes before stronger effectiveness claims are made.

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