

Advancing in education: reaching rural people, developing capacity

# **Advancing in education: reaching rural people, developing capacity**

A report from the IWGE

*International Working Group on Education  
(IWGE)  
Rome, Italy, 12-14 June 2006*

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This document is the summary of discussions of the 2006 meeting of the International Working Group on Education (IWGE). The views and opinions expressed in this volume are those of individual participants in the meeting and should in no way be attributed to UNESCO, IIEP or any of the agencies that are members of the Working Group.

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## Preface

My predecessor as Director of the IIEP, Gudmund Hernes, remarked on his experience that the deliberations of the IWGE Planning Committee just before a meeting of the group tended to call the group's value into question. In contrast, the participants' evaluations and the Planning Committee's own discussions just after the meeting tended on the contrary to reaffirm the worthwhileness of the occasion. This latest meeting of the group in Rome in 2006, the first I have attended, proved no exception. As will be seen from the record of Theme 6, a full debate was held on whether the IWGE should continue to convene and I, as Chair, made sure that every participant, whether volunteering or not, was called on to give an opinion. The verdict was unanimous: The IWGE serves a purpose appreciated by bilateral, multilateral and civil society aid agencies alike and should continue. The only condition proposed was that the opportunity costs of the meeting in terms of time consumed should be reduced.

The Planning Committee agreed: Henceforth IWGE meetings will be coupled with other forums that require the participation of senior policy-makers from agencies involved in facilitating educational development around the world. It will act either as an overture or as a follow-on, depending on the preferences of the participants, for the IWGE's programme has always been demand-driven. Its periodicity of convening every 12 to 18 months will continue, as will its intent to offer its participants a space where they can be informal and personal, rather than act as spokespeople for their employers.

One of the points stressed in the debate was the richness of the range of topics covered and the high quality of the presentations that covered them. On this occasion, the IWGE considered developments in six areas of major concern and responded to no fewer than 16 presentations on the subjects. As a participant put it, the quality of the latter was terrific. I concur.

## *Preface*

A main focus of this meeting was 'Education for rural people'. IIEP and the FAO have been working together to ensure that the EFA flagship programme in this area does have an impact in reversing the neglect and disadvantages from which rural people seem universally to suffer, whether they are farmers, fishers, pastoralists, foresters, nomads, hunter-gatherers or landless labourers. Another important area of discussion was capacity development in education. Many projects and programmes fail because there is no capacity in member states to manage the funds and implement the programme at the national, regional and local levels. Much has been written on this theme in general, but very little in education. I hope that the IWGE will return to these concerns frequently, as they affect the majority of the children and adults of most of the developing countries that are members of UNESCO.

John Oxenham drafted this report on behalf of the Secretariat, and members of the Planning Committee reviewed it before its publication. As with its predecessors, the report reflects only the personal perception and views of the participants themselves, not the views or policies of the institutions for which they work, or the views or policies of either IIEP or UNESCO.

Mark Bray  
Director, IIEP

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## Composition of the Planning Committee

The International Working Group on Education (IWGE) is an informal group of aid agencies and foundations that come together at regular intervals to discuss issues of common interest relating to international co-operation in the field of education. At present, the Planning Committee of IWGE is composed of representatives of the following agencies:

Aga Khan Foundation (AKF)

Department for International Development (DFID), United Kingdom  
International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD or World Bank)

Swedish International Development Co-operation Agency (Sida)

United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

United States Agency for International Development (USAID)



## List of abbreviations

|         |   |
|---------|---|
| ADEA    | Association for the Development of Education in Africa  |
| ADG     | Assistant Director-General  |
| AFD     | <i>Agence Française pour le Développement</i> [French Development Agency]                                   |
| AKDN    | Aga Khan Development Network  |
| AKF     | Aga Khan Foundation   |
| ANTRIEP | Asian Network of Training and Research Institutes of Educational Planning                                   |
| CBO     | Community-based organization  |
| CCT     | Conditional cash transfers [for regular attendance at school]   |
| DAC     | Development Assistance Committee of the OECD  |
| DELPHE  | Development partnerships in higher education  |
| DFID    | Department for International Development, United Kingdom  |
| DHS     | Demographic and Health Surveys Programme  |
| ECD     | Early Childhood Development [and education]   |
| EFA     | Education for All [the goals set by the Dakar World Forum 2000]   |
| ERP     | Education for Rural People [FAO/UNESCO flagship programme]  |
| FAO     | Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations   |
| FTI     | Fast Track Initiative [for Education for All]   |
| G-8     | Group of Eight [largest economies in the world – Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russia, UK and USA] |
| GAP     | Global Action Plan [to achieve the EFA goals]   |

*List of abbreviations*

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| GMR   | Global Monitoring Report [on progress towards the EFA and MDGs for education]                              |
| GTZ   | <i>(Deutsche) Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit</i><br>[German Society for Technical Cooperation] |
| HAE   | Higher agricultural education  |
| IBRD  | International Bank for Reconstruction and Development<br>(World Bank)                                      |
| ICT   | Information and communication technologies   |
| IDA   | International Development Association, the concessionary<br>lending arm of the World Bank Group            |
| IFAD  | International Fund for Agricultural Development  |
| IIEP  | International Institute for Educational Planning (UNESCO)  |
| INSET | In-service education and training [mainly for teachers]  |
| ISCED | International Standard Classification of Education   |
| IWGE  | International Working Group on Education   |
| JICA  | Japan International Cooperation Agency   |
| LAC   | Latin America and the Caribbean [geographical region]  |
| MDG   | Millennium Development Goal  |
| NGO   | Non-governmental organization  |
| NORAD | Norwegian Agency for Development   |
| ODA   | Official development assistance  |
| OECD  | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development   |
| OSI   | Open Society Institute   |
| PETS  | Public expenditure tracking survey   |
| PISA  | Programme for International Student Assessment   |
| PRA   | Participatory Rural Appraisal  |

|        |  |
|--------|--|
| PRESET | Pre-service education and training [mainly for teachers]                         |
| PRSP   | Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper   |
| SACMEQ | Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for the Monitoring of Educational Quality |
| Sida   | Swedish International Development Agency   |
| SSA    | Sub-Saharan Africa   |
| SWAp   | Sector-Wide Approach [to development planning]                                   |
| TA     | Technical assistance   |
| TIMSS  | Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study                            |
| TVET   | Technical and vocational education and training                                  |
| UIS    | UNESCO Institute for Statistics  |
| UK     | United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland                             |
| UNDP   | United Nations Development Programme   |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization                 |
| UNFPA  | United Nations Fund for Population Activities                                    |
| UNGEI  | United Nations Girls Education Initiative  |
| UNICEF | United Nations Children's Fund   |
| UPE    | Universal primary education  |
| UPC    | Universal primary completion   |
| USA    | United States of America   |
| USAID  | United States Agency for International Development                               |
| VET    | Vocational education and training  |
| WTO    | World Trade Organization   |



## Introduction

The International Working Group on Education (IWGE) met in Rome, Italy, from 12 to 14 June 2006. Its host on this occasion was the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations (FAO), through its Sustainable Development Department. Participants came from a total of 23 agencies, just one less than were present at the previous meeting in Washington, DC in 2004. Multilateral agencies constituted the largest group, numbering 10, but the nine bilaterals were not much fewer. A larger drop did however occur in the number of foundations and other non-governmental institutions: Whereas eight had participated in the 2004 meeting, only four were able to participate in 2006.

IWGE organizes informal discussions between key representatives concerned with the development of education policies in the donor agencies. The group meets about every 12 to 18 months for an intensive professional interchange on current policy issues. The informality of the sessions ensures the development of wide-ranging discussions in which participants express their own personal views as well as those of their agencies. To encourage and preserve the informal, questioning and probing nature of the exchanges, the record credits the authors of particular presentations, but does not note the names or affiliations of participants who offer comments or views in the general discussion. A list of those who participated in the 2006 meeting is provided in *Appendix 1*.

IWGE has been meeting since the early 1980s, when it took over the functions of the earlier Bellagio Group, which also acted as a forum for high-level discussions on policies in aid to education. Its meetings are organized and supported professionally by IIEP in Paris, which acts as the secretariat to the Working Group and is responsible, with the Group's Ad Hoc Planning Committee, for the production of this report.

*Appendix 2* provides a detailed programme of discussions. The opening address of Mr Alexander Mueller, Assistant Director-General of the FAO, was followed by the customary ‘show and tell’. The participants each briefed the meeting on significant developments – actual or prospective – in policy, practice and key personnel in their institutions since the previous meeting.

The discussions are summarized in the body of the main text. Except where the name of the presenter already appears on the programme in *Appendix 2*, statements are not assigned to specific, named individuals, nor are the discussions necessarily presented in the order in which they took place. The report attempts to draw out the main issues and themes in an order that is logical rather than chronological, using the presentations and discussions to provide a source of information for the general reader as well as for those who contributed to the meeting and their agency colleagues.

The text of this report is also available on the IIEP web site ([www.unesco.org/iiep](http://www.unesco.org/iiep)), with links to copies of the papers presented at the meeting. The titles of these appear against the names of their presenters in *Appendix 2*.

## Welcome and keynote address

### Welcome

Mark Bray, Director of IIEP, welcomed the participants on behalf of the Secretariat to the 2006 meeting of IWGE. He warmly thanked the FAO for hosting the meeting and for the substantial and smoothly competent teamwork and help that the Sustainable Development Department had given to the IIEP in putting the meeting on the road. Mr Bray noted that he had taken up the directorship of IIEP less than three months previously and, although he had been a consumer of the IWGE's products in past years, had never actually attended one of its meetings. On that ground he felt he lacked the qualifications to offer any information or insights that would add value to so distinguished a gathering of education practitioners. Instead, he invited Mr Alexander Mueller, Assistant Director-General for Sustainable Development in FAO, to open the discussions.

Alexander Müller  
*Assistant Director-General  
Sustainable development  
department  
FAO*

Mr Müller welcomed the participants to FAO. He took as his theme the need to address once again the disparities in educational provision that continue to prevail between rural and urban people and felt sure that the exchanges and discussions of the next two days would help to restore the priority that rural issues demand.

Mr Müller reminded the participants that rural people form the large majorities of society in the poorest countries of the world. Further, they will continue to predominate for decades to come. They also form large majorities of the poor. Indeed, 70 per cent of the world's poor currently live in rural communities. The fact that an even larger proportion of out-of-school children – 82 per cent – are to be found in rural areas underlines the disadvantages faced by rural people and the disparities they suffer in terms of public services.

Most of these children will in time join the ranks of illiterate and – almost by definition – poor adults.

Rural-urban disparities are in effect a serious drag on development. It is now well-accepted that educated people, even with only a basic education, are more likely to adopt new technologies, make themselves more productive, deal better with change, foster gender equality and become active citizens. Allowing huge proportions of children to be denied their right to education is then tantamount to slowing down the pace of development and, indeed, making development less sustainable. From a global point of view, it obstructs the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals and the goals of Education for All.

To help address this, FAO and UNESCO launched a fresh co-operative effort to combine educational and rural concerns. At the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg in 2002, their Directors-General announced their partnership in a global flagship<sup>1</sup> for Education for Rural People (ERP). FAO was to be the lead agency, with a mission to pave the way to empowering the rural poor to become full actors in the development process. Its modalities were to include knowledge generation, advocacy, policy and capacity building, technical assistance and pilot field projects.

Since then, the ERP flagship has mobilized research and knowledge on the interaction between education, skills development, agriculture and rural development. On that basis, it has organized several policy dialogues in several regions of the world between ministries of education, ministries of agriculture, civil society and the donor community. Its current focus is on building national capacity to use knowledge and insights from the dialogues

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1. Following the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, UNESCO launched or consolidated a series of inter-agency programmes called ‘flagships’. Each focused on a major thrust that the forum had identified as essential to achieving Education for All. The flagships serve to strengthen international co-operation, emphasizing the benefits of working together on major cross-cutting themes that are important to achieving EFA. There are currently nine flagships.

to develop policies that will enable rural people in all their variety to get the education that they want for their children and themselves.

Mr Müller recalled that concern for education in rural areas was not new, nor is co-operation for the purpose between FAO and UNESCO. Back in 1977, an FAO publication, *Learning and living – education for rural families in developing countries* (Higgs and Mbithi, 1977), called for increased cohesion between what was taught in the schools and what was learnt in programmes for youth and adults not in school. Thirty years later, some of the problems identified in the publication remain unresolved. For instance, the curricula of both primary and secondary schools do not address the needs or interests of rural populations, while teaching methods continue to emphasize schooling rather than learning. Admittedly, since rural populations are very heterogeneous, providing education that is directly relevant to each ethnic, cultural or occupational group still constitutes a complex challenge.

Aggravating the technical problems of curriculum design and teacher training is the widespread lack of capacity to plan and deliver effective education services to rural people. There are also widespread difficulties in arranging co-ordination between ministries that should be co-operating to ensure good quality education for rural populations – education, agriculture, rural development and finance. There are also difficulties in co-ordinating the work of government agencies and agencies of civil society that are involved in education and development for rural people. On the other hand, despite the prevalence of all these obstacles, the policy environment does seem to be changing for the better, so that hopes for improvements can be stronger.

Mr Müller then considered the contributions that the ERP flagship had so far made to deepening the analysis and sharpening the strategies for achieving the MDG and the EFA targets. He identified three chief ones. First, the research mobilized has confirmed the soundness of a ‘people-centred approach’ to education, one that starts not from the requirements of examinations or particular qualifications, but from needs and aspirations carefully ascertained

from the different constituencies of rural people themselves. The flagship now advocates the approach.

Second, the ‘people-centred’ approach has underlined the importance of the ‘interdisciplinary approach’ of fostering close partnerships between the education, agricultural and rural development sectors in designing and implementing the kinds of education that serve rural communities most productively. The flagship is working to promote such alliances. Indeed, there has rarely been such a concerted effort to make ‘Education for Rural People’ a reality.

Third, combining the ‘people-centred’ and ‘interdisciplinary’ approaches has produced a holistic approach that understands ‘education’ as a system of interdependent and interacting components. It has necessarily broadened the current EFA agenda beyond the exclusive preoccupation with primary schooling and widened the traditional boundaries of vocational agricultural education to encompass all levels and types of education and training. It includes all who live and work in what might be termed the ‘rural space’ – children, youth and adults – and all kinds of work, both on-farm and non-farm.

Mr Müller finally suggested that the IWGE, as a meeting of donor agencies, consider three issues in regard to ERP.

The first relates to *ensuring priority for investment in the people who most need it*. Large majorities of the world’s poor and the world’s out-of-school children live in rural communities. More than 94 million rural children need not just primary schools, but, more importantly, primary education of good quality. These were the people who should have priority in the allocation of investments, whether in rural development or in education and training. The investments required from both governments and donors were major. One calculation estimated that to ensure the goal of universal primary completion (UPC) by 2015 would require annual donor assistance of US\$1.64 billion. How to mobilize that assistance and ensure that just proportions are invested

in rural children and adults are crucial issues. A group like the IWGE can help solve them.

The second issue involves a *better understanding of the diverse needs and specificities of different rural communities*. The research mobilized by the ERP flagship has made it clear that achieving the MDG and EFA targets necessitates more differentiated approaches to education and skills development for rural people. It also necessitates the elimination of the two-track education systems, where rural majorities endure lower quality provision than the urban minorities. Developing understanding for differentiation and for the kinds of compensatory programmes required to address it is one area where the international community can help. Levelling up the quality of educational provision for rural communities is equally important and also an area where international assistance could be productive.

The third issue was the matter of *school curricula that included topics relevant to rural livelihoods*. Making school curricula more obviously relevant to rural life, but *not* thereby making them less relevant to social mobility, would facilitate stronger and more supportive school-community links. On the one hand, it would improve access to education, by reducing the reluctance of families to have their children's time wasted on 'useless' learning. It would also improve the quality of education, by increasing the intrinsic interest of the content and its power to engage its learners. Indeed, the current widespread drive for the decentralization of education systems opens two kinds of opportunities. One is to develop local curricula that would satisfy both local and national – and even regional – criteria. The second is to incorporate globally-relevant knowledge, skills and values into issues relevant to very variegated local communities. To illustrate the point, the ERP flagship has been asked by communities to address topics such as fishing with traps and pots, simple book-keeping, milk handling and preservation, preventing HIV and AIDS and avian influenza, and improving nutrition through school and home gardens. Combining local and global concerns into ranges of curricula for ranges of rural communities is certainly an area where international co-operation could be very fruitful.

*Welcome and keynote address*

Mr Müller ended by inviting IWGE participants to join forces with the flagship on Education for Rural People in promoting education of good quality for these majorities of the world's population.

## *Theme 1*

### Recent developments in aid policies and practices

A ‘show and tell’ session in which participants present the most recent developments in their agencies: commentary

The first session of the meeting provided a platform for participants to inform and explain to each other the current status of their institutions in terms of priorities, policies, practices and internal organization. The statements are presented according to the names of the 23 countries or institutions reporting.

#### **ADEA – post-primary education**

Since the IWGE met in Washington, DC in 2004, ADEA has been receiving signals from its partners that it should be widening its concerns to take in post-primary and post-basic education. In response,

Hamidou Boukary  
*Senior Programme Officer*  
*Association for the development*  
*of education in Africa (ADEA)*

it has set up a working group with four objectives. They include drawing attention to the importance of the many areas of post-primary formal and non-formal education, facilitating their development, fostering the capacities required for each area and stimulating the ministries involved in education and training to look beyond their own portfolios and to develop more and better co-ordination between themselves. The working group is also expected to develop a workplan for ADEA to implement its proposals over the next two years.

The working group suggests a limited number of strategic thrusts. One is to keep the focus on the immediate post-primary levels and not at this stage to include higher education. A second is to pay careful attention to the management of education. A third is to maintain an alert watch for best

practices and make sure they are disseminated for appropriate adoption and adaptation. Along with this is the need not to restrict the watch narrowly to systems in Africa, but to identify, examine and assess experiences beyond the region. Fourth, very important, is ensuring the clear, close and coherent articulation between the different branches of post-primary education.

## **AFD – institutional reform**

Jean-Claude Balmes  
*Manager,*  
*Education and vocational*  
*training division*  
*Department of Human Development*  
*Agence française de développement*  
*(AFD)*

AFD had two main topics to report: the reform of the institutional structure of French development co-operation and, second, the impact of the reform on the short and medium-term priorities of AFD.

The institutional reform of the overall structure of French development co-operation has several objectives in view. The first is raising the priority dedicated to the low-income countries of Africa. The second is to target co-operation more directly at the MDGs, using both bilateral and multilateral channels. The third is to exercise more selectivity in the spheres of action and build in more stability and predictability. This would restrict a given country programme to just three economic or social sectors for co-operation and offer the country a five-year partnership agreement, instead of the more traditional shorter-term programmes. The fourth was to bring about more strategic management and greater operational efficiency.

Institutionally, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is now responsible for the overall strategy of French development co-operation: It will determine the countries with which France should co-operate and the sectors within those countries that France will support. It is also responsible for directly funding two kinds of programmes that have impact beyond the physical or immediately economic. One kind is called ‘political’ and includes programmes related to governance or public administration. The other might be termed

‘influential’: Examples would be the development of tertiary education, scholarship schemes and teaching the French language.

AFD for its part will act as the funding agency for all bilateral programmes and operations that more directly support the MDGs. These include support to the private sector to foster economic growth. The modalities of funding will include both grants and loans.

The reforms have extended AFD’s responsibilities. Previously, AFD would fund only investments, which included sector investments, assessing PRSP and therefore participating in SWAp; while the Ministry of Foreign Affairs funded ‘soft’ components such as analytical work, capacity building, teacher training and curriculum development. In this arrangement, whereas the Ministry was an implementing agency, AFD was not. The new arrangement makes AFD responsible for the entire spectrum of activity involved in funding and implementing bilateral programmes. Although the Ministry of Foreign Affairs will retain responsibility for supporting the drive for the Dakar education goals insofar as they involve multilateral commitments, it will work very closely with AFD and other donors to ensure consistency of policy and approach. In addition to its additional technical responsibilities, AFD has had to extend its geographical purview to fragile states.

The year 2006 has seen the transfer and adaptation of ongoing projects from the Ministry of Foreign to AFD, as well as the transfer of responsibility for managing technical assistance, a difficult and sometimes sensitive area, since the responsibility for engaging such assistance rests not with AFD but with the co-operating governments. This phase is critical for AFD, for its responsibilities have not only increased, but have also taken it into new areas, while its staff have been augmented only a little – from five to eight people – and there has been little decentralization from the office in Paris to regional or national branches.

AFD’s priorities were basic education and vocational education and training (VET). While these will remain, there will have to be an additional focus on post-primary education, especially in African contexts. A great deal

of analytical work is needed on secondary and VET, which are currently scarcely mentioned in SWAp. The perennial challenge of designing and building sustainable education systems that are organically linked to economic demand remains. This is, of course, part of the effort to implement the Paris Declaration on harmonizing and aligning the education system with the social and economic functioning of a society.

The Paris Declaration also requires AFD to revisit, as a matter of priority, the role and mission of French technical assistance in assisting countries to establish such harmonized and well-aligned education systems.

These priorities naturally necessitate equal priority for strengthening AFD's own capacity in the education sector and for investing more in building the capacities of the education systems of its partner countries.

### **AKF – thematic approaches**

Caroline Arnold and Kathy Bartlett  
*Senior Programme Officers,  
Education  
Aga Khan Foundation*

The education services of the Aga Khan Foundation (AKF) have been expanding with the opening of new universities in Pakistan and the countries of Central Asia, while a new form of academy is being founded in a number of countries. The foundation is also pursuing some themes that cut across all levels of education.

One is *transition*. At the first level, in many primary schools around half the pupils enrolled in Grade 1 are either repeating or even dropping out altogether. Why are they not making the transition to Grade 2? At the second level, in the countries where the AKF works, fewer than 10 per cent of students who do complete the primary course successfully continue into secondary school. The implications for development – technological and economic development in particular – could be serious. The third level – the transition from school to work – is a key area. Primary school leavers are no longer qualified for formal jobs, so that their options are family employment or

some form of relatively low earning and unstable self-employment. Secondary and tertiary education leavers face formal employment sectors that tend to be small and under-developed. Skills and resources for finding jobs or creating self-employment in possible new livelihoods are critical for them.

A second theme is *pluralism*. A new centre for what is called 'globalism' has been established. Its mission is to undertake research and produce publications that will promote the concept of a global society. Such a society cannot come about by accident, but must necessarily be the product of enlightened education and enlightened policies in dealing with people of different backgrounds and outlooks.

A third theme embraces *public-private partnerships* at the community level. AKF has found that in India and Pakistan more and more families are opting out of public schools, despite increasing budgetary support for primary and secondary education. The foundation is responding to this situation by fostering forms of partnership between the public education system and local community and business interest groups. The aim is to mobilize more resources for the schools and at the same time give parents and their wider communities more of a stake in the performance and effectiveness of schools. For their part, schools and their teachers are helped to become more transparent and accountable to the parents and communities for their curriculum and performance. It is clear to AKF that, in the contexts where it operates, governments on their own will not be able to achieve the EFA goals. They will need the complementary support of non-governmental organizations and civil society.

## **Austrian Foundation for Development Research – effective strategies**

Margarita Langthaler  
*Department of educational cooperation  
ÖFSE – Austrian Foundation for  
Development Research*

The Austrian Foundation for Development Research is currently studying the strategies adopted by a range of bilateral and multilateral agencies for promoting and

supporting EFA. In addition to assessing the relative effectiveness of these strategies in achieving their educational goals, the foundation is also trying to assess their wider impact on the countries with which the agencies are co-operating. Alongside these studies, the foundation is also assessing capacity development in the education sector.

## **DFID – keeping our promises**

David Levesque  
*Department for International  
Development (DFID)  
United Kingdom*

The United Kingdom (UK) Department for International Development (DFID) is intent on keeping the promises that the British government has made concerning international development co-operation and working to reduce

poverty. It was preparing a White Paper on government policy that focuses on the promises made in 2005 and on the best means to implement them. The department is particularly keen to ensure that the attainments of the MDGs are sustainable, so that there will be no falling back from what has been achieved. The process includes a radical review of the purpose of DFID itself, what its aims should be and how it could improve its performance and effectiveness.

As regards education, the UK government has promised that in addition to its existing commitments to the FTI, it will provide a further GB£8.4 (US\$15) billion over the next 10 years to 2015 to help ensure that the world achieves

EFA. As regards its relations with other governments, it on the one hand encourages OECD members to increase their funding for education in their development co-operation. On the other hand, it encourages governments whose educational efforts it is supporting to think ahead about the provision that will be needed in the longer term to meet and then sustain the targets for 2015. Twenty countries of sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) have so far promised to draw up full plans for attaining and sustaining UPC by 2015.

In its own thinking on education, DFID feels that, after spending 15 years focused mainly on primary schooling, it is time to give more attention to the post-primary levels. Primary education must of course retain its priority, and will remain the first priority for DFID in those countries that are 'off track' in meeting the MDGs. Nevertheless, planning for education systems must become more holistic and the distribution of external support between the components of the systems more equitable. Although it is not possible at this point to give precise percentages for the allocation of DFID's education budget, the likely rough proportions will be: 40 per cent to multilateral commitments, i.e. to the European Community, the UN, the World Bank and others; 40-50 per cent directly to co-operating governments for budget and sector support (this means that allocations to particular levels can only be nominal); while most of the remaining 10 per cent will likely be spent on primary education.

As the multilateral partners will be receiving 40 per cent of the UK funds for education, DFID will encourage them to also plan for holistic systems.

In its thinking on secondary and higher education, DFID is working on two issues. One is untying aid, so that co-operating governments will no longer be obliged to spend their allocations in the UK or on UK personnel. This freedom should enable them to secure more for the money and possibly also better value. As far as is known, the UK is the only bilateral donor untying aid for higher education. It is also the only donor financing partnerships between higher education institutions in countries other than its own. A new step in this scheme, called DELPHE (Development Partnerships in Higher

Education), is that the partners can be based anywhere in the world – neither need be based in the UK. This clearly opens the way for and indeed encourages ‘south-south’ relations regionally and globally.

The second issue is ‘harmonization’. In this context, the word means the movement among bilateral and multilateral donors to align their policies and procedures in ways that facilitate the work of their partners, rather than confusing or causing them intolerable burdens of extra work. The UK government is very much in favour of the process.

On the broader front of overall development, DFID strongly supports the reform of the UN system. The different – but sometimes apparently overlapping – roles and responsibilities of the family of UN agencies, on the one hand, and those of the World Bank on the other, need to be distinguished and clarified. Further, in the UK view, there are now too many multilateral agencies: Some rationalization and reduction is in order. It would also be helpful for the UN to arrange for just one office in a country to represent its range of agencies. Such an arrangement seems to work well in, for instance, Vietnam, where there is a single UN office through which all the agencies operate.

### **EFA-GMR – monitoring progress**

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*EFA monitoring report team*  
*United Nations Educational, Scientific*  
*and Cultural Organization*

The EFA Global Monitoring Report (EFA-GMR) team works from UNESCO headquarters in Paris with the financial support of a number of UNESCO members. It continues to monitor progress towards the EFA goals and targets

adopted by the World Forum in Dakar in April, 2000. Its annual reports since 2002 have two components: an overall assessment of the state of play, supported by substantial arrays of the data available from 203 countries; and a thematic issue selected from the goals and targets. For 2006, the theme was

‘Literacy for Life’. For 2007 it will be ‘Early Childhood Care and Education’, while the volume for 2008, being the midpoint between 2000 and 2015, will analyze progress in more detail and depth. The GMR for 2009 will be looking at how educational systems have been strengthened and what have been the actual outcomes of the enormous efforts to widen access, achieve gender parity and improve the quality of teaching and learning.

### **FAO – leading education for rural people**

As ADG Müller mentioned, FAO is the lead agency for the ERP flagship. It must be stressed that FAO takes ERP to mean education for rural development and all rural people, not just education for agriculture and

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Sustainable Development Department  
Food and Agriculture Organization  
of the United Nations*

agriculturalists. Because development encompasses several sectors, each of which is the focus of a specialist department, FAO fosters a cross-departmental approach to a number of topics in sustainable development – two examples being gender and conflict resolution. Since its launch in 2002, the ERP flagship has not only run a number of well-attended and productive regional conferences that have brought together the most senior decision-makers from education, agriculture – including veterinary services, forestry, fisheries – finance and social transformation, it has also produced several training materials to back up the drive for cross-sectoral approaches to policy development and implementation.

In August 2005, FAO initiated a reform of its structures and programmes. The reform has included a focus on capacity building not only for rural institutions such as women’s organizations and producer/consumer co-operatives, but also for policy-makers at several levels of government. It has of course had to include funding for fellowships for a variety of forms of capacity building.

## **Finland – harmonizing, untying**

Jussi Karakoski  
*Department for Development Policy  
Ministry of Foreign Affairs  
Finland*

In line with other donors, Finland is moving more and more to harmonizing its aid policies and practices with theirs to make it easier for co-operating countries to deal with and absorb the aid on offer. On the other hand, there is some concern that the pressure for harmonization may lead to a reduction of the proportions of aid budgets allocated to education or even to a withdrawal of some donors from the education sector altogether. It is, after all, a sector that is somewhat crowded with donors.

Finland is also moving to untie more and more of its aid to enable its partners to draw on wider sources of technical and material assistance.

Currently, approximately 11-12 per cent of Finland's official development assistance (ODA) is allocated to education. The emphasis is on ensuring equity between rural and urban schools, between richer and poorer areas, and between boys and girls. Although there is still a focus on education for agriculture and forestry, overall work on TVET is reducing in scope.

Support for working through non-governmental organizations (NGOs) is growing rapidly, although there are some questions about efficacy and accountability. They operate mainly in education for disabled people, a field that Finland continues to emphasize.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs has been implementing the policies introduced in 2004 by what was then a new government. New initiatives may be expected subsequent to the 2007 election.

## **Gulbenkian Foundation – co-operating with Africa**

The main domains in which the Gulbenkian Foundation works are health and education. In education, the foundation accords priority to teacher and higher education. It is currently trying to develop ways in which to co-operate with foundations

in Africa that share its aims, have some money for their operations, but are in overall terms resource-poor. The projects with which the foundation is co-operating are related to new technologies for education, distance learning, development of appropriate pedagogical materials for the new technologies and modalities, and community development.

Manuel Carmelo Rosa  
*Director of Education and  
Fellowships Service  
Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation*

## **IFAD – reaching the rural poor**

IFAD is a 28-year-old outgrowth from FAO. It promotes education for agricultural development and supports it with loans and grants, which are of course important for work on tertiary education. IFAD is currently working to refine the tools

for identifying precisely who are the rural poor, where they live, what their priorities are and how they are best reached by public services. Interestingly, participatory rural appraisals (PRA) find that education is at the top of the list of priorities of many rural communities. On the basis of the insights from these appraisals, IFAD is also developing policies that will enable public services to hone in on and get to the rural groups most in need. In many countries, these are indigenous peoples; elsewhere they are people living in the drier lands.

Maria Hartl  
*Technical Adviser – Gender  
and Social Equity  
International Fund for Agricultural  
Development*

Apart from its work on agriculture and education, IFAD is involved in the discussions about the reform of the UN system. Its President is in fact a member of the UN panel dealing with the issue.

## **IIEP – new director, new directions**

Mark Bray  
*Director*  
*International Institute for*  
*Educational Planning*

IIEP received its new Director in March 2006, just a few months before this meeting. A little before that, UNESCO had carried out an evaluation of the Institute's operations and contributions to education around the world. It reported very positively, but suggested that more work should be done for China and indeed the whole Asian region. The IIEP is therefore in the process of drawing up a new medium-term development plan, which it will of course co-ordinate with the priorities of its parent body, UNESCO.

## **ILO – skills development**

Josiane Capt  
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*Skills and Employability*  
*Department*  
*International Labour Office*

The ILO sees gainful and productive employment as the main way out of poverty. It is a fact that, just as poverty predominates among rural people, most unemployment and under-employment also occurs among them. Generating employment and new forms of employment for people in rural areas must then form central planks of policies to reduce poverty. Accordingly, the ILO reviews PRSPs with a special eye on how they treat the role of vocational training and skills development in their strategies to reduce poverty.

It has found that most PRSPs emphasize primary education and give rather less attention to vocational education. This causes the ILO some concern, since most primary school graduates in most developing countries do not move on to secondary education. Instead, at the age of 14 or 15 years, they enter the labour market, either as labour in their families or as job-seekers in the formal and informal employment sectors. Given the quality of much

primary education, they have few skills either to offer or to use in enterprises of their own. The ILO believes that skills development should be linked more closely with primary schooling and indeed feature as an important element of macroeconomic planning.

As regards rural areas, the ILO argues that the approach should be through forms of training for rural empowerment, with a stress on innovation and local economic development. Bound up with this are the issues of gender, decent work, the quality of employment, social protection and the capacity to organize into effective and sustainable associations.

In 2008, the ILO will convene an international high-level conference on ‘Rural employment promotion for poverty alleviation’. The objective will be to move governments to improve their policies and programmes for skills development.

### **InWEnt – capacity building**

InWEnt, a German organization, specializes in capacity building, with a particular focus on managers. It reaches some 55,000 people annually. In partner countries, its curricula include good government, designing and managing the reform of public agencies, and crisis management. In Germany, InWEnt organizes what is called ‘development education’ or education about what development entails and why the German public should be involved.

Ulrike Wiegelmann  
*Senior Project Manager Education  
Internationale Weiterbildung  
und Entwicklung*

In the education sector, the agency works in Africa and Central America to increase the capacities of systems to deliver good quality education. In addition, it has taken two initiatives in Southern Africa. One is a course on managing educational costs and finance. The second is a course that blends material on HIV and AIDS into the training of teacher educators of primary and secondary teachers. InWEnt is also partnering with the University of the

Western Cape in South Africa in an effort to combine e-learning with more established forms of distance education.

## **JICA – continuous reform**

Yumiko Yokozeki  
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*Institute for International Co-operation*  
*Japan International Co-operation*  
*Agency*

At the last IWGE meeting, JICA reported a new President, who had initiated a restructuring of departments and responsibilities. In the 20 months since then, the Agency has developed a clearer vision of its priorities, which

now include human security and the education and welfare of girls. It has also pushed the decentralization of responsibilities further, so that country and regional offices now have more decision-making discretion. Japan has long been associated with building with its own contractors. JICA has now untied aid for school building, so that local contractors can be employed.

The process of reform in the agency is continuous and will lead in two years to a merging of the lending operations of JICA and the Japan Bank for Development.

JICA has faced and managed serious budget cuts. Although the overall aid budget of the Japanese government has increased and will continue to do so, the budget for the agency itself is on the decrease.

## **NORAD – budget support replaces projects**

Since the last IWGE meeting in 2004, Norway has elected a new, centre-left Labour government. A new minister is now responsible for NORAD and a new Director has taken charge of the agency. The current leading interests of development policy are energy, the environment, and reforming and renewing the UN system. Education is not an explicit priority.

Arne Kr. Larsen  
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*Norwegian Agency for Development*  
*Co-operation*

Bilateral relations with developing partners are now the responsibility of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, while the emphasis of aid policy has shifted to budget support rather than financing projects and programmes, and to supporting UN agencies like UNICEF, UNESCO and UNGEI.

NORAD itself now functions as a ‘knowledge agency’ in support of NGOs and the private sector. In education, while it continues to accord priority to basic education, it also takes a more holistic view of the education sector as a whole and recognizes that secondary and higher education require more attention and resources. In addition, the agency maintains its priorities for girls, marginalized groups, quality in education and teacher education.

## **OSI – equity, networking**

The OSI continues its work in more than 20 countries. It co-operates with national foundations in focusing on support for basic education. Its priorities are issues of equity, assistance to vulnerable groups and enabling NGOs to make their voices heard when they advocate these priority issues. The OSI also provides technical assistance for

Indra Dedze  
*Senior Program Manager*  
*Education Support Program*  
*Open Society Institute*

a network of foundations, helping each to co-ordinate its work with those of others.

The institute has completed a large project on education for the Roma people and has helped clarify why their rural – and indeed other – children drop out of school.

### **UIS – improving statistics**

Albert Motivans  
*Head, Analysis and Information  
Section  
UNESCO Institute for Statistics*

UIS continues its work on helping to refine the definitions and descriptions in the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), providing data on education to governments, international organizations and other interested

bodies, compiling a global education digest, capacity building in the collection, collation, analysis and use of educational data and statistics, and providing technical assistance to governments on data-related issues.

### **UNICEF – rights-based strategies**

Changu Mannathoko  
*Chief, Education Section, PD  
United Nations Children's Fund*

Cream Wright has been leading a process to develop a fresh, rights-based strategy for UNICEF in education. The output will be a medium-term strategic plan for the period 2006-2009, giving continuity

and follow through from the strategy adopted in 1995, in line with the MDGs and child protection. Its vision will be centred on human rights and the rights of the child and adolescent to education, rather than on the institutions of education.

With the objective focus on access to education, UNICEF will pay priority attention to the 50 countries with most children out of primary school.

They include several countries in states of emergency, as well as some that appear to be stagnating in their efforts to provide even primary education for their children. As part of the push for universal access, UNICEF will press for the abolition of all forms of fees and charges for attending primary school.

Following the MDGs and in view of the failure to achieve gender parity in 2005 and the continuing bias against girls' education in a number of countries, a second focus will bear on the 50 countries with the worst gender parity index – there will of course be some overlap with the first focus.

A third concern is the matter of quality and academic achievement in primary education. UNICEF will be pushing its model of child-friendly schools to provide the right kinds of environment for effective learning. It is also worried by the low average levels of attainment and will be developing special efforts to improve them. In countries that have gone through emergencies of one kind or another, UNICEF will help work on restoring quality.

The country offices of UNICEF will be mainly responsible for supporting their hosts in developing their education systems into strong, resilient and sustainable organisms. At the same time, in line with the drive for sustainability, UNICEF needs to develop exit strategies for the moment when a system can indeed sustain itself.

### **USAID – refocusing**

USAID is refocusing its priorities in education and reforming its approaches and processes. Overall, the aid programme is to be more politically-driven, with more of its aims in the shorter rather than longer term. Youth has arisen as a new area of cross-cutting concern in 84 'crisis' countries. There is a demand for a new plan that will view the world through five categories of country.

John Hatch III  
*Education Specialist*  
*United States Agency*  
*for International Development*

The first category includes these 84 ‘crisis’ countries. Low income countries that are politically unstable form the second, while low income countries with strong political institutions comprise the third. The fourth category contains countries that have made and continue to make sustained progress. The fifth category includes only North Korea and Iraq.

An analysis of fragile states is due to be published in 2006 and is expected to recommend that aid programming in such states should be multisectoral. Training is to be revived as an important component of aid, and will be available both in forms tied to US sources and in forms that are untied and include much local training, such as master’s degrees in national universities.

The Education Policy and Data Center (EPDC) funded by USAID has recently published *Educating the world’s children* as a contribution to international efforts to achieve UPC. It appraises the achievements of 70 countries and identifies where policies and resources can most effectively be used.

## **World Bank – holistic education and results**

Ruth Kagia  
*Director of Education*  
*Human Development Network*  
*World Bank*

*Changes in leadership:* Since the IWGE meeting in Washington in 2004, the World Bank and its Education Sector have seen some changes in leadership. Paul Wolfowitz succeeded James Wolfensohn as President of

the institution on 1 June 2005.<sup>2</sup> As yet, there have been no major strategic changes with a direct bearing on the work in education. However, a subtle but real shift is emerging towards greater emphasis on education for growth to complement more strongly the link between education and poverty reduction. Attention is increasing to post-basic education, science and technology, and multisectoral linkages.

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2. Robert Zoellick took over as President as of 1 July 2007.

Changes more directly linked to the Education Department are: the impending retirement of Vice President Jean-Louis Sarbib, who has headed the Human Development Network since 2003; the transfer of Jamil Salmi, who was deputy to the Director of Education and Sector Manager for Education, to the leadership and co-ordination of the tertiary education work programme; and the succession of Robin Horn to the post of Sector Manager for Education. Moreover, the head of the FTI Secretariat, Rosemary Bellew, retired in December 2005; her successor, Desmond Bermingham, formerly of DFID, will take over as head later in June 2006<sup>3</sup>.

*Programming highlights:* As regards programming, the strategy is geared to holistic systems of education, country-based planning and an orientation to results. The World Development Report (WDR) for FY07 takes as its theme ‘The next generation’ and has an important bearing on youth, the transition from school to work and secondary education. The themes for previous years were ‘Equity’ and ‘Making services work for poor people’. In April 2006, the World Bank established a Growth Commission. These activities, with their direct bearing on education, have greatly strengthened the broad operating environment for educational work.

The external environment in the form of the communiqué from the G-8 discussions in 2005 has provided additional reinforcement for education, while the G-8 meeting in 2006 promised to sustain it.

The FTI has settled its architecture and the *modus operandi* for running the partnership. It now has to demonstrate that it is indeed possible to accelerate results.

In June 2006, commitments to the FTI had come from Italy (an increase of US\$1 billion), the Netherlands (US\$6 million), Russia (US\$7 million) and the UK (US\$100 million). The FTI Trust Fund now holds close to US\$500 million. The expectation is that by 2008 some 40 countries will be fully endorsed for support from the FTI.

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3. He has now taken over.

As regards the World Bank's lending for education, loans have stabilized at around US\$2 billion annually. About 33 per cent of this amount is included in multisectoral programmes. The broad distribution of the lending is about 50 per cent to basic education, while the remaining 50 per cent is more or less evenly divided between the secondary and tertiary levels. There is a substantial shift towards policy-based lending.

There is a stronger focus on results, so that indicators are being developed to measure quality. These will of course need to be comparable nationally, internationally and over time. Issues of attribution will arise due to the country-led nature of the partnerships in programming and also due to the multi-sectoral nature of many of the programmes.

There is also a stronger focus on service delivery. Accountability must be strengthened, capacities developed and outcomes maximized.

*Outstanding issues:* There is some concern about the adequacy with which 'black box' issues are being covered. For example, is the efficacy of teacher training and of teachers themselves sufficiently observed? Are the availability and quality of textbooks taken into account? What are the effects of variations in classroom practices? Is there a risk that the focus on the macro elements of education systems is shortchanging the 'bread and butter' of education, the actual learning and teaching? The World Bank will be addressing these issues over the coming months.

## **WFP – food for learning**

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School Feeding Service  
Strategy, Policy and Programme  
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United Nations World Food  
Programme*

The two strategic objectives of the School Feeding Unit of the WFP are to support access for every child to education and help eradicate gender disparity in access. The main activity is providing food for schools as a regular programme. In addition, there are emergency programmes

for school feeding in given situations. Currently, four countries with a total of 33 million school children are benefiting from the latter.

The 'Food for Education' programme has now been expanded beyond primary schools and takes in non-formal education programmes for both school-aged children and adult women who have had no formal education.

As is well known, a number of studies have shown the link between hunger and the inability to learn effectively, as well as the need to reach under-nourished children as early as possible. Implementing programmes to ensure that all children in need are sufficiently well-fed to be able to learn properly will require on the one hand more resources for the WFP from more countries and, on the other, that countries design and implement school feeding programmes of their own.

### **GAP (Global Action Plan) to achieve Education for All (UNESCO)**

Since 2004, UNESCO has been developing a Global Action Plan to ensure the achievement of the EFA goals on time, i.e. by 2015. The plan defines UNESCO's role as the global co-ordinator of the drive for EFA and proposes five strategic directions and several areas of joint national-level action by the five convening agencies (UNDP, UNESCO, UNFPA, UNICEF and World Bank).

Mir Asghar Husain  
*Director, Education Policy  
Department  
Education Sector, UNESCO*

The first strategic direction, 'From access to success', underlines the need to insist that access to schooling is not enough. The quality and effectiveness of schooling everywhere must reach standards that ensure that every child completes at least the primary school course and graduates with the full range of expected skills and knowledge.

The second, ‘Literacy’, recognizes the importance of high rates of adult literacy, not only to the adults themselves and their societies, but also to the attainment of high rates of primary school completion.

Third, ‘Education for work’ recognizes that, for a long time to come, most children will be able to access only a primary schooling of five to six years – and possibly a basic education of seven to eight years. The primary course then needs not only to qualify pupils for promotion to secondary school, but also to help them prepare for the world of work. What the world of work requires differs from country to country and indeed within countries from region to region and from urban to rural. To respond to this variety, the primary curriculum cannot be uniform across a country, but requires sensitive tailoring.

‘Teacher training’ is obviously an indispensable strategic direction. Without good teachers there can be no good education, let alone the kind of sensitive responsiveness required for the third strategic direction.

The final strategic direction is ‘Technology’, again an obvious contemporary necessity.

UNESCO proposes four major modalities of support to countries to pursue these strategic directions. They include capacity development, assessment and evaluation, national planning and standard setting, with the organization acting as a clearinghouse of information and good practice. Along with them must come strong support for national leadership, strong advocacy of the critical role of education in enabling development, mobilization of additional finance, and better management and application of development aid. There must also be some widening of the scope of the current efforts to monitor EFA.

As many countries are indeed making good progress towards the EFA goals that they have not already achieved, UNESCO further proposes special emphases on the countries furthest from achieving the goals and on disadvantaged groups who encounter the most difficulty in accessing and

persevering in education. Ambitiously, the GAP challenges the five convening agencies to take up the agenda of EFA as a whole and not to focus on some aspects at the expense of others.

Global support for the plan is of course needed and is being mobilized by UNESCO. Between the current IWGE meeting in June and the 175<sup>th</sup> Session of UNESCO's Executive Board in October, the task teams of the EFA Convening Agencies will have finalized the GAP, and the heads of the agencies will have agreed on a consensus. They will present the plan at the G-8 Summit in St. Petersburg<sup>4</sup> in July 2006 to win broad approval. After that, the EFA Working Group will meet to fill in the operational details of the plan. Finally, the Executive Board will consider the GAP and, it is hoped, endorse it.<sup>5</sup>

## **General discussion**

The general discussion that followed focused on the GAP proposed by UNESCO and clustered around four issues: ownership of and access to the GAP; keeping the GAP abreast of progress; co-ordination; and the priority respectively for primary education and holistic education systems.

*Ownership:* There was some concern that the GAP apparently involved only the five convening agencies, rather than the international community as a whole. What had been presented struck some participants as too brief. There was a need for some elaboration, if not at the meeting itself then through some indication of where and how the current draft of the GAP could be accessed, if access was available to other interested parties.

Would the plan reflect the thinking only of the five UN agencies and possibly that of the donor community, or would it reflect more the thinking of the member countries most in need of support from a global plan? A GAP

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4. In the event, the 2006 G-8 Summit affirmed the fundamental importance of Education for All as a contributor to national development and peace.

5. The 175th Session of the UNESCO Executive Board did endorse the GAP in October 2006.

would need to involve all agencies and earn a sense of ownership from them if its likelihood of success were to be maximized. For example, FAO, as the lead agency for the ERP Flagship for EFA, would naturally like to offer an official view. The presentation had given the impression that there had been no inclusive task force, that the plan was essentially UNESCO's and that there was now only a call for comments and endorsement by the wider community.

As regards access to the latest draft of the GAP, its current status could be learnt from the EFA web site – UNICEF was at that moment considering it. An agreed-on version would be put to the G-8 in July and the final version to the Executive Board of UNESCO in October.

*Updating:* The succinct presentation had not been able to elaborate on how the GAP took into account the changes and progress since the 2000 World Forum in Dakar: Had it examined these changes and defined what remained to be remedied? Had it, for example, incorporated the implications of the recognition of education for rural people as a key priority for EFA? The GMR and other efforts had indeed enabled the GAP to take on board new empirical work, experience and research, to take stock of the situation evolving in individual countries and to pinpoint possible improvements. Three examples could be cited. For one, the GAP had taken into account the effects of UNGEI. For another, it had become clear that work on adult literacy had been downsized in some countries and neglected in others. Third, ambiguity had emerged in planning education for work: Did the concept imply what might be called general life skills, or did it involve job skills for particular occupations? The issue was of particular importance in education for rural people. The GAP has sought to address these questions.

*Co-ordination:* There were requests for clarification on how UNESCO envisaged fulfilling its role as co-ordinator of the drive for EFA. The G-8 heads of government and heads of all the agencies that would have to endorse the GAP would after all need to know what practical implications the plan held for them. Indeed, as a large majority of those education agencies were actually present in IWGE, co-ordination might start on the spot.

The first point to appreciate was that the GAP was not a straitjacket, but a framework with the flexibility to adjust to changes in key personnel and key policies. It also had to take into account that many governments still did not consider EFA to be a priority and that other governments had not reorganized their budgets to meet their commitments to the EFA goals and MDGs. Furthermore, long experience had shown the difficulties of co-ordinating donors in any given country. Indeed, immediately after Dakar, when UNESCO was given the task of leading the drive for EFA, some bodies expressed resentment about being co-ordinated. What was required then was a loose mechanism of co-ordination to keep people on the road, for force of any kind would have been unworkable. More broadly, there have been problems of co-ordinating information, of ensuring coherence between policies and actions, and of continuity: All these have at times led to misunderstandings and over-reactions. In some countries, the drive for EFA has generated plans that run parallel with already-agreed on national education plans. The FTI has been slow to take off and in fragile states there is the issue of ensuring continuity in its implementation.

The essence of co-ordination is getting the job done and not spending too much time on deciding who should do it. The GAP aims to keep the attention of the partners of a country on the obligations and commitments they have undertaken. At the global level, it aims to keep education high on the G-8 agenda, for the G-8 has so far not delivered on its promises. More specifically, the plan focuses on the commitments made first in Jomtien and then in Dakar, with the intent of making the goals and general targets visible and suggesting roadmaps towards them. In effect, the GAP will sensitize donors and countries more acutely on where they stand in relation to EFA. That implies an emphasis on the country level and co-ordination within countries. The GAP suggests that a first step would require keeping all a country's partners abreast of developments, with constant updates on the educational situation and letting them know what each is currently doing.

For the task, UNESCO proposes to have its four regional offices strengthen their relations with the country offices of partner agencies such

as UNICEF and the World Bank, as means of promoting and sustaining the flow and distribution of information on progress, problems, gaps and newly-arising needs. The intent is that such a flow should prompt a continuous sharing of thought that would facilitate the co-ordination of both planning and appropriate action. It may also prompt better co-ordination between initiatives that are already underway, although such moves would necessarily be slow and careful.

*Primary and post-primary education:* Some participants formed the impression that the GAP was focused only on primary education: If this was the case, would the GAP not be dealing with yesterday's problems and be insufficiently proactive in addressing the current widening of concern to include post-primary, secondary and tertiary education in the concept of holistic education systems and sector-wide approaches to planning (SWAp)?

This is not to imply that primary education is no longer a priority – with some 110 million children still out of school, the Beijing High Level Meeting on EFA not surprisingly reasserted the priority of primary schooling. Reinforcing this is the observation in some East European countries that the numbers of children who are not being enrolled in school are actually increasing, and no programmes are in place to counter such trends.

In addition to the questions of enrolments, regular attendance, drop-out and low completion rates, there are also the questions of quality and attainments. International assessments such as TIMSS and SACMEQ, whatever their shortcomings, have shocked educators in many countries with their revelations of the low average levels of attainments of primary school graduates in literacy, mathematics and elementary science. There can be no hint of lessening attention to the quantitative and qualitative aspects of primary education. (At this juncture, it was confirmed that primary education remains a priority for DFID, which expects that of the additional GB£8.4 billion that the UK will be contributing to education between 2007 and 2015, some 70 per cent will be allocated to primary education. However, the trend towards

overall budget support does entail some uncertainty over the final use of the funds in particular countries. Similar confirmation of priority for primary education came from UNICEF, with the observation that the question was not ‘either ... or ...’. Instead, it involves managing transitions between stages of education, for the possibilities and probabilities of transition did affect enrolments and completions.)

At the same time, the questions of what followed the primary level and of access to forms of secondary education must be faced. It was after all plain that to sustain quantity and raise quality in primary education, investment in post-primary as well as in ECD were both unavoidable. Governments and societies are already doing this, but the GMR observed that the differences between countries in the distribution of funding between primary and post-primary are quite marked. It is also not simply a matter of supply; demand is also concerned. A kind of pull factor operates, in that if some parents formed the perception that the primary course led nowhere, they tend to pull their children, more particularly their girls, out of school.

The moment may have come to begin discussing and planning for universal – even free – post-primary education, while bearing very carefully in mind what happened after declarations of free primary education. The pendulum swings of sudden surges in enrolments, overcrowded classrooms and overburdened teachers, followed by relatively rapid declines in attendance and subsequent enrolment must be avoided. The balance between primary and post-primary education remained an issue of investment not only for governments, but also for households. What must be kept firmly in mind is that a shift to post-primary education is not a shift *away from* primary education. But issues of additional funding, sustainability and the further education or employment of post-primary graduates are all bound up with the matter. Although SWAp supported whole education systems, they did not necessarily bring with them additional resources, so that the issue of distributing resources between competing needs remains acute.



## *Theme 2*

# Education for rural people

Five years previously, at its meeting in Lisbon in 2001, the IWGE had considered the particular problems of making education accessible to people living in a variety of rural areas and pursuing a very great variety of rural occupations. It was timely to assess what progress had been achieved during the half-decade in reducing the disparities of access and quality between the education available to the richer and more urban populations, and that available to the poorer and more rural. Six presentations addressed the theme, led by an account of the activities of the FAO/UNESCO-IIEP partnership in the ERP Flagship programme.

### **The Education for Rural People Flagship Partnership**

As ADG Müller had remarked in his opening address, the Directors-General of FAO and UNESCO announced the formation of the ERP Flagship under the leadership of FAO in 2002. Its aim was to harness

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work in the sectors of agriculture and education in service to EFA, food security and poverty reduction. At the time, some 852 million people lacked secure access to food, over a billion were illiterate and the high correlation of illiteracy, food insecurity and poverty had long been recognized. Of that billion people, some 700 million were rural. Their rates of literacy, school enrolment and school completion were – and remain – markedly inferior to those of urban populations, while the inferior quality of the education offered to them was reflected in their much lower academic attainments. Even graver disparities afflicted rural girls.

Numerous research studies over many years have substantiated the crucial role of good education in enabling people to improve their livelihoods and incomes and enhance their food security. This is tantamount to saying that rural people are the main, if hidden, constituency of EFA and the MDGs:

Indeed, education is indispensable for achieving the first seven of the eight MDGs. In that light, the flagship must identify the rural people in all their variety of locations, ecology, culture and livelihood, ascertain their very varied needs for education and training, and work out how to address them most effectively. It must also assess the capacities of governments and other relevant institutions to provide the kinds of access that rural people can use and the levels of quality that are necessary for satisfactory attainments in knowledge and skills. Policy formation, appropriate curriculum development, mobilizing and strengthening the support of civil society and the private sector, and mobilizing higher levels of support from the international donor community comprise the range of tasks that the flagship must undertake.

The effectiveness of the flagship's efforts so far was recognized by the High Level Group for EFA at its meeting in Beijing in November 2005, when it declared ERP to be one of the three EFA world policy priorities.

Among the achievements of its first three years are the formation of alliances with more than 270 new partners among governments, civil society organizations and international organizations. In addition, it has worked with at least one government in every major geographical region of the world – Africa, Asia, Europe and Latin America – to integrate ERP into national policies for rural development and EFA. It has also been careful to incorporate the latest well-founded insights from research into those policies. Alongside this, the flagship has delivered programmes to help build capacities at several levels – national, regional and international. More tangibly, the flagship has produced several training materials, including an 'ERP Toolkit'.

The future, of course, presents an array of further challenges. The flagship is addressing them under the motto: 'More, differently, better'. First, it must agitate for more resources for rural people and promote strategies that will compensate for their disadvantages. At the same time, it must address the relatively higher unit costs that educational programmes for rural people currently incur. It must map the diversity of situations and needs that they generate and at the same time help develop the diversity of strategies to

target each need. The flagship must also devise mechanisms that will actually make intersectoral collaboration attractive and reciprocally productive. And it needs to create forms of partnership between the state, civil society, the private sector and the international community that will sustain themselves due to their obvious benefits to all stakeholders.

In education, the ERP flagship will have to work for both better quality and closer, clearer relevance in education. Quality must apply to the health of children, the competence of teachers, the teaching-learning environment and essential supports – textbooks, exercise books, pencils, pens, chalk, school and community libraries. Relevance needs to inform the curriculum, not only for the teachers and pupils, but also for the communities; not only in content, but also in the language of instruction and in its relations with local cultures and social practices. In addition, the flagship must combat two forces that, whether overtly or inadvertently, hinder the improvement of education for rural people. One is the well-known and documented urban bias. The other is the less acknowledged rural stigma.

Although only just over three years old, the ERP Flagship has already managed to have ERP declared an EFA priority and, in so doing, has given a new impulse to EFA. It has also managed to have a special impact on the education of rural girls. Through its focus on the MDGs and PRSPs, it has engineered a dynamic inter-sectoral approach to achieving EFA. In short, the flagship has shown that education for rural people is one of the keys to a sustainable world and has proved itself an effective tool in the struggle to reduce poverty.

### **A neglected key to the MDG**

Presented here are the initial findings of a desk study of rural surveys by the Measure Demographic and Health Surveys Programme (DHS). The observations come from 49 countries (29 African, 12 Asian and 8 Latin American). The study aims

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to assess the empirical evidence for the impact of education, both basic and higher, on food security and insecurity, on people in general, with special attention to its impact on rural people. Clearly, the study is related directly to the first three MDGs, which include halving the proportion of people who suffer from hunger, achieving UPC and eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education. It hypothesizes a degree of interdependence between the goals and particularly the dependence of food security on education. The presentation here reports only on the rural findings, as the analysis of the urban data is not yet complete.

The education variables looked at three levels, ‘basic’, ‘advanced’ and ‘higher’, observing them through the enrolment rates of children of different ages between 6 and 24. The age group 6-10 years was classed as ‘basic’, 11-15 as ‘advanced’ and 16-24 as ‘higher’. The highest level of education attained by adults was also taken into account. The Household Food Insecurity variables looked at the mortality rates among rural children, anthropometric measures of rural children – stunting, underweight and wasting – and the rates of rural women whose body mass index was lower than those set as international norms. These variables indicate the non-availability of sufficient food to maintain good health and thus the presence of food insecurity. The concomitant observation that high rates of fertility are associated positively with high rates of food insecurity will cause no surprise.

The exploratory analyses of the data<sup>6</sup> suggested clear correlations between levels of education and levels of food security: More education is associated with better food security (or reduced food insecurity) and lower rates of infant and child mortality, malnutrition and stunting, as well as lower rates of underweight women. But does more education lead to better food security, or do people who enjoy better food security, e.g. the richer, tend to send their children to primary and higher school? A causal analysis shows that it is education that leads to better food security and better health, rather than

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6. The data, graphs and correlation tables of the study are available on the IWGE’s web site.

the other way round. A more-than-interesting additional observation is that the largest impact on reducing food insecurity comes from basic education, as measured by the percentage of children between the ages of six and 10 years attending primary school. *Ceteris paribus*, a doubling of the enrolment rate of children aged between six and 10 years causes a decline of nearly 20 per cent in the Household Food Insecurity index. Perhaps surprisingly, smaller – but still positive – impacts flow from advanced and higher education. Why this might be so awaits further analysis.

The study confirms that basic education for rural children obviously and directly contributes to MDGs 2 and 3, achieving universal primary completion and eliminating gender disparities in education. More importantly, it also confirms that basic education is a means to achieving MDG 1, halving the proportion of people who suffer from hunger. In addition, it is a means to achieving three more of the MDGs: the fourth goal, which aims to reduce infant and child mortality; the fifth goal, which aims to improve maternal health; and the sixth goal, which aims to reduce the incidence of common serious diseases.

The next step in the study is to construct a model to analyze the data from the urban areas of the 48 countries. After that, it will compare the urban and rural areas to assess the relative contribution of basic education to food security in the two sets of population and households.

## **Increasing access to quality learning opportunities AKDN lessons and experiences**

The lessons presented here arise from work over more than two decades on education with rural people in the northern areas of Pakistan, more than a decade of work in India and around six years of work in the Cabo Delgado rural province of Mozambique. Embracing both

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the public and private sectors in education, the work has covered a range of approaches, skills and activities. These include building trust and effective relations with communities, establishing coaching centres to help children with their learning, promoting and supporting self-help school construction for community schools at the primary, middle and secondary levels and incorporating local culture and stories into the curriculum. At the same time, they comprise maintaining long term links with and – very important – to the official education system, creating programmes to train young women as teachers. Fostering a culture of respect for the child, along with a belief in and practice of active learning, improving child readiness for school through programmes of ECD, and organizing literacy courses for youths and adults as well as vocational and technical courses for rural girls, thus ensuring that education fits clearly within broader programmes of integrated rural development, have together helped the AKDN accumulate a wealth of lessons for future work.

The network's experiences have helped confirm older observations of the factors that tend to push rural parents to enrol their children in school or that, on the contrary, make them reluctant to let them go to school or even move them to pull them out. The distance from home to school is an obvious deterrent or 'pull' factor, especially for daughters. There are many stories of children who have walked great distances to get to school, but almost all of them concern boys, not girls. As increasing proportions of both mothers and fathers in rural areas gain experience of school education, parents' – and especially mothers' – experiences of school, and what it leads to, influence decisions about whether or not children should be schooled. Moreover, decisions about younger children may be influenced by the experiences of their older siblings. Parents' perceptions of a child's 'readiness' for school may differ from official norms and lead to either under-age or over-age enrolments.

Perceiving that a curriculum could be useful and is of good quality is often a 'push' factor, as is perceiving that more education will be available

down the line. Transition ratios are important here: High rates of repetition and failure can act as 'pull' factors through discouraging the aspirations of children and parents. Similarly, low rates of transition from primary or basic education into secondary school can also cause children to be pulled out of the primary course prematurely. The opportunities for employment that appear to be open to the graduates of particular levels of education also influence parental decisions about pulling children out of school or pushing them on.

The performance of a child in school can affect her parents' assessment of her intelligence and of the likelihood of her succeeding in the longer run. A pessimistic assessment could lead to pulling her out, while the opposite would likely lead to pushing her on. Associated factors are what families do for a living and how children contribute to those activities: They affect decisions about schooling. Where the labour of children is important either in the household or in the workplace, children are at risk of being pulled out of school; where it is less important, the risk of their being pulled out diminishes.

This complex set of factors, some of them contradictory, indicates that dealing with rural communities demands a long-term, comprehensive or integrated view. This need is especially critical for marginalized rural communities. Participating agencies must allow programmes to evolve in response to changes in the realities that face communities and changes in the needs that the communities feel as a consequence. An example is work in Pakistan that began modestly as a coaching centre to help pupils deal with school work in an unfamiliar language, then gradually developed into a middle and later secondary community school.

Securing the involvement of the community – the official leaders, the more informal leaders, the parents and the rest of the population – to get the process started and then sustained is of course essential. What is less readily appreciated is the intensity of the effort required, the transparency needed to win confidence and trust, the patience needed to win active co-operation and, above all, the time required to bring all this about. In addition, the diversity

of the remote and marginalized rural communities with whom AKDN works naturally multiplies these demands. The network must learn to work with many other development actors, government departments, national and international non-governmental bodies and local community-based organizations.

Learners, whether they are children, adolescents or adults, and whether they are rural or urban, must maintain continuity in their attendance at courses. Fostering this in rural areas where the infrastructure for transport, other communications, lighting, heating and water is often rudimentary and where resources – financial, material, human – are often more limited and less reliable, is a formidable and durable challenge.

In parallel, the exigencies of life for many of the rural poor make it difficult for them to sustain their participation in long-term courses of learning and training. They need new and more flexible policies and systems that will make available to them multiple entry and re-entry points, possibly over several years. Promoting the development of such systems within existing, established and relatively inflexible regimes is yet another challenge that involves struggle and patience.

To balance those observations, it is also the case that most rural localities have resources that can be mobilized in support of education. They may take the form of community members with particular skills, or community spaces that can be adapted to accommodate learning groups, or local materials that can be used in support of particular elements of a curriculum. AKDN staff must be on the alert for them.

AKDN faces this challenge in learning: How can it incorporate this wealth of observations and lessons into training, so that its workers benefit concretely from them and avoid missteps that their predecessors may have made? The question applies to pre-service and in-service training for field workers and teachers, and to professional development for its education officers.

Apart from that, the network – along with other development agencies – needs to examine more systematically the cost-effectiveness, as well as

the impact, of the different approaches it develops in dealing with different kinds of rural communities.

## **Education and training for rural development in IFAD supported projects**

IFAD supports projects for agricultural development and rural development more generally. It places them in the poorest rural regions. Features such as fragile environments, low productivity, lack of infrastructure and services such as health and education, difficult or no access to markets, or the disorders of conflict and post-conflict situations characterize the communities where IFAD works. The fund's methods for working with such communities derive from a strategy oriented to full participation by the communities themselves and geared to their empowerment and development. The methods then necessarily include participatory approaches to assessment and planning, as well as careful poverty analysis and targeting of those most in need. The methods must also embody a central concern with gender equity.

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In all its participatory rural appraisals, IFAD has found that communities rank education and training high among their priorities. At the same time, they are mostly linked to other concerns, such as social services, instruction in literacy and skills training through various extension services. IFAD therefore includes in all its projects components not only for training, but also for more general education, and not only for education focused on the projects' aims and targets, but also for education with wider concerns. It is convenient to categorize IFAD's interventions in five groups or types.

The first type is support to formal education through assisting the creation of infrastructure, for example, buildings, furniture and equipment for community primary and basic schools. The reasoning is obvious: The future farmers and rural labour force will come from today's rural children, and it is much better that they be educated. Here, of course, a prerequisite is securing the involvement of a community as a whole in support of a school and

enrolling the children. Apart from the structures, there is the issue of finance: first for the actual construction, then for longer term maintenance. For this, IFAD encourages the establishment and use of Community Development Funds mobilized from a range of social funds, social investment funds and funds for local initiatives.

While the first type helps educate young rural children, the second serves rural youth and adults who have had no schooling. It organizes literacy classes and other forms of adult basic education with the aim of opening up access to wider sources of information than local word of mouth and limited extension services. Adult literacy principally addresses women. Their response to such opportunities, as well as to opportunities for skills training, often exceeds expectations. IFAD has found that well-conceived and really functional literacy not only helps women learn what they find useful, it appears in addition to build up their self-confidence. Therefore, IFAD has adopted five key principles in designing its education and training programmes. First of all, they must have a productive orientation. They must also spring from an initiative from the prospective trainees or learners – they must not appear to be foisted by IFAD on a community or a particular group. A third requirement is that the courses be comprehensive, in the sense of including all the components that will ensure that what is learnt can be put immediately into practice. Equity is the fourth principle, in the dimensions of gender, age, ethnicity and socio-economic status. The final principle is sustainability: What is learnt can be applied without unrealistic reliance on external sources of supplies or technical assistance, or on external markets.

The third category of education moves beyond basic general education into the area of skills training for young people, especially as complements to interventions that introduce improved agricultural technologies or better natural resource management, or have to do with enhancing food security. A particular emphasis here is outreach to marginalized groups; this requires careful study of their relations with their larger societies as well as a certain amount of negotiation with the latter. Work in the category is not confined

to training, but also includes direct and indirect support for the creation and maintenance of the required infrastructure. In addition, it takes care to link the training with sources of credit as well as with training on how to manage the credit. This of course helps to ensure that the skills learnt can be put to use straightaway in earning incomes and ensuring adequate food for families.

An important point to make about this third category of skills training for youth is that the training is not limited to agriculture. Much of it has to do with wider rural development and with training in off-farm skills and occupations for both men and women.

At another end of the spectrum of IFAD's work are its efforts to promote what it calls 'pro-poor higher education'. This involves working with universities and research centres to encourage and facilitate innovations that will be of particular use and value to the rural poor, either in strengthening their food security or in diversifying and increasing their sources of income. IFAD stimulates collaborative research between different institutions of higher education both locally and internationally. For the latter, it helps to arrange partnerships between universities, some of which are termed North-South partnerships, others of which are South-South.

However, IFAD does not confine itself to encouraging innovations in research centres and universities. It also encourages farmers themselves to develop innovations by arranging pilot technical assistance groups with staff from higher education institutions. Appropriate pedagogical approaches help to elicit the farmers' own knowledge, suppositions and assumptions, and combine them with the researchers' expertise to produce fresh solutions to longstanding problems.

The fifth thrust of IFAD's work in education and training involves the newer technologies for information and communication (ICT). They make a relevant follow-on from learning literacy, for rural and agricultural people could benefit substantially from access to them. Learning how to use mobile phones, e-mail and the Internet for information to enhance production,

productivity and marketing could help build fairer and more efficient market relationships and help to accelerate rural development. However, the state of national infrastructure, whether for electricity or solar or wind or water power, makes their disadvantage in terms of the digital divide far more acute than that of their urban fellow citizens. Along with many other agencies, IFAD is exploring ways of mitigating and eventually eliminating that disadvantage.

In organizing these five types of education and training, IFAD has found that it is indeed helpful to form and cultivate real working partnerships with government agencies such as the Ministries of Education, Agriculture or Rural/Social Development, other international multilateral and bilateral bodies, national and international NGOs, and local community-based organizations.

It has also found that non-formal education and training courses are most effective when they are targeted and built around particular, well-defined clientele, whose interests, needs and aspirations are well appraised.

For educators, perhaps the most encouraging observation made by IFAD is that functional literacy and the related empowerment training generate spill-over effects that enhance the impact and sustainability of the other activities of a rural or agricultural development project.

Naturally, IFAD must deal with challenges in all this work. IFAD is not an educational organization and therefore cannot claim any specialist expertise in the field. It must rely on technical assistance from more specialized agencies, particularly where the education of children is concerned, while at the same time preserving, using and sharing its own accumulated wisdom from its empirical experiences with ranges of rural adults and their communities. The problem of conserving and capitalizing on institutional memory is well-known.

Empirically, IFAD can confirm the well-known challenge of making literacy programmes truly ‘functional’ for all their participants. The content of curricula and scheduling of learning sessions must be adapted to the specific needs and time constraints of specific groups, whether of women, of men or

of mixed composition. This means indeed that ‘one size cannot fit all’; there can be no standard approach and IFAD must necessarily adapt to every rural community with whom it offers to work.

IFAD has also had to learn to deal with a particular facet of gender sensitivity. In many rural communities, husbands who are illiterate or unschooled tend to discourage their wives from enrolling in literacy and other educational programmes. Such men must be identified, addressed and somehow involved in determining a programme so that their wives can enjoy an educational opportunity.

In common with other development agencies and indeed in common with schools and education systems that serve rural populations, IFAD is everywhere challenged by chronic shortages of qualified teachers for the schools and educational programmes it assists, as well as chronic shortages of qualified trainers for its range of skills programmes. Devising remedial measures, compromises and improvisations has become part of the stock-in-trade of working on development for rural people.

Equally challenging is the need to help foster what is currently termed a literate environment. To retain and develop what they have learnt, rural adults must of course keep applying and furthering their knowledge and skills. IFAD has to work at developing the sorts of publications that will assist and encourage them to do so. Even more difficult is the necessity to provide those publications not only in the official languages of a country, but also in the vernacular of a community. Of course, as ICTs develop and are made more accessible to poor rural people, IFAD will need to stay abreast of the possibilities for enabling them to capitalize on the potential to improve their well-being.

IFAD also recognizes the challenge of doing more for young rural people. A first requisite is to initiate processes of policy dialogue with governments and other authorities about the possibilities, options and obstacles. However, a likely priority will be the need to develop the sorts of education that will

enable young people to see the opportunities that are open to them at home and to make use of them at home. This might help slow down the excessive migration of rural youth to urban areas, where for the most part they only aggravate the problems of youth unemployment. Mentoring programmes, such as attaching young people to successful farmers and businesspeople, along with appropriate counselling programmes, could constitute useful complements to the right kinds of education. However, IFAD must and does acknowledge that the principles of such ideas have been around for a long time: What remains is the challenge of embodying them in education that appeals to rural youth for its intrinsic use in rural cultures and for the keys it offers to different ways of life.

## **General discussion of education for rural people [1]**

The discussion of the first four papers on ERP concerned expansion on the information from the research that had been reported, as well as the issues of special curricula for rural schools, the effectiveness of schemes for non-formal education for rural children and going to scale with them, and the apportioning of responsibilities for education between government agencies and rural communities. There was also a query on how the ERP Flagship actually functioned.

*The Roma 3 Study:* The findings of the study reported had confirmed those of other kinds of studies done in the 1970s, which had uncovered a fairly strong link between education and agricultural productivity, and hence between education and nutrition. The study by Lockheed and her colleagues was mentioned as an example. Was there now better understanding of how the process of schooling brought about these effects? Did schooling lead to higher incomes that then enabled better nutrition? Or was there a separate effect of education upon nutrition? At that time, there was a hypothesis that a threshold of seven years of schooling had to be attained to ensure the effects. Was it possible to see from the new data how well that hypothesis was supported or undermined and to estimate how many years of schooling are really needed? In the 1970s, the gender aspect had not yet come to the fore:

Did the data now available provide any light on differential gender effects on the outcomes of schooling?

While recalling that the study was still in process and that half the data remained to be analyzed, the authors of the study responded that the data suggested that basic education engendered not just economic effects in terms of productivity and income, as earlier studies had shown, but also a rather more important set or chain of social effects. School education seemed to help people to be more aware of their rights, more alert to social opportunities and more empowered to use their rights and take their opportunities. Of course, education includes variations of type, quantity and quality that household data cannot capture. They are all submerged under the generic label of 'basic education'. Moreover, many of the countries in the study offered no data on experiences of informal or non-formal education, so that the possible effects of such programmes could not be assessed. And literacy, where it is recorded for adults, could have been learnt from any of a variety of sources, so its analysis is currently global. However, a more detailed case study may help reveal the types of education that people experience. The next steps of the research will attempt to identify not just the skills developed by basic education, but also the agency that makes them accessible.

In tracing the relationship between education and nutrition, the study had attempted to observe, in addition to variable access to food, the quality of the food, its cultural acceptability and the state of respondents' health.

In response to a query about the observation of the strong relationship between education and the reduction of fertility, and the possibility of co-linearity between education and food security, the researchers felt that food security was affected through many channels, all of which had not been identified in the study. In addition, the quality of mothering and childcare as a factor in child nutrition had not yet been explored.

*Curricula for rural schools:* The well-known difficulty of creating curricula that fulfil the two functions of being relevant to the variety of rural

lives and conditions while at the same time satisfying criteria for access to further education and to waged/salaried jobs in other parts of a country was acknowledged as a delicate issue. While it was important that rural students learn how to operate better in their local environments, it was equally important that they learn about other people and the contemporary world. However, it was indeed true in most countries that the curricula and teaching materials were so urban-biased that a change and shift of balance was required. The urban-rural gap had to be addressed in a balanced way that did not mark rural curricula as being of lower quality. Decentralizing curriculum development and design would certainly open the way for courses sensitive to rural and local conditions; but they could also risk charges of ‘dumbing down’ curricula and providing a second-class education. And integrating scholastic education with relevant and up-to-date skills training within a school environment was notoriously difficult. There was certainly a need here for information to be disseminated about successful approaches and practices.

What had become abundantly clear, however, was the point made about the work of AKDN: Developing educational programmes with appropriate curricula required time; to do it with complete relevance required involving and winning the trust of the communities in view, necessitating additional time; testing the programmes and allowing them to evolve in the light of experience required even more time. The AKDN example of making haste slowly, adopted also by UNDP, was the soundest way forward for ERP.

NGOs, bilateral donors and other bodies had supported projects that had been successful in designing and implementing non-formal curricula which were relevant and acceptable to particular communities and had also contributed to rural development in the ways in which they had managed educational and community priorities. Indeed, it seemed that intersectoral efforts undertaken by NGOs and non-education agencies such as IFAD were easier to implement than programmes that operated only from ministries of education. Perhaps the explanation lay in their relatively small-scale nature.

Disseminating their benefits to larger populations always required some form of scaling up. Combining education with rural development made the task of going to scale more complex for, whereas education tends to uniformity across a country, rural development is multisectoral, and rural ecologies and communities are not all alike. Further, scaling up necessarily involved decisions about resources, their allocation and phasing. Beyond the basic infrastructure for schools, there were questions about capacities to develop sufficiently flexible curricula and provide adequate training to sufficient numbers of teachers and other personnel. Whether or not to scale up was then an issue for policy-makers in at least two sectors. There had recently been a conference on this subject in Africa, with the participation of 12 ministers of education and 12 ministers of agriculture, while the World Bank had supported video-conferences with similar aims.

*Articulating non-formal education programmes with the formal system:* The issue of how to articulate special non-formal programmes of education with the main formal system of schools was part of the issue of balancing acceptability, relevance and usefulness against keeping pathways to advancement open. These non-formal programmes were in many cases necessitated by the simple non-availability of government schools or government teachers. In some cases, however, rural communities distrusted government schools – examples came from India and Niger. In others, the government system was reluctant to involve itself with some marginalized groups, who were considered too poverty-stricken or difficult, and preferred to leave NGOs to deal with them. In such situations, unofficial agencies like NGOs tried to create access to education for communities who would otherwise be completely marginalized. Even so, they found that such communities wanted access not only to education, but also to what only education could give access, i.e. the kind of education that would enable at least some of their children to enter the modern sector. That meant that the NGOs had to engage with the official systems of examinations that determine eligibility for further education or training, or else their work would lead nowhere – at least in the eyes of the learners and their families.

Clear understanding was needed on what constituted education in the eyes of such rural parents. In addition to other methods of achieving this, the World Bank had found, for instance in Zambia, that people who had retired from the civil service or similar employment and returned to their original communities could be valuable knowledge resources in this regard, as well as providing leadership for their communities. Similar resources might well be available in other countries with early retirement ages in their civil services. Such understanding had to be compared with the kinds of education that were actually available through non-formal programmes on the one hand, and mainstream schools on the other.

Given the patterns of livelihood and predicaments of many of the rural poor, the only way forward in some circumstances could well be combinations of formal and non-formal education. Irregular, even sporadic, patterns of attendance at either non-formal or formal courses of education could well be frequent, so that education systems for rural people might well need to make provision for alternating short and long courses with multiple entry and re-entry points that recognized previous learning and did not penalize unavoidable temporary withdrawals. The multiple disadvantages of rural communities could necessitate multisectoral interventions with an orientation to take education to the people, as in an interesting scheme with the Masai people of Kenya, rather than waiting for the people to come for education.

*The balance of responsibilities between governments and communities:* The issue of the relative roles of governments and communities has grown somewhat confused. In many countries, rural communities had long contributed to the establishment and maintenance of schools in cash, kind and labour. Indeed, the poorest rural people have at times been asked to contribute to education in ways that urban communities have not – an unfair use of taxes and certainly an issue of equity. A cynical view might even claim that the importance of community involvement was to ask communities to fund what the government – whether national or local – would not or could not. Whether or not that was so, the fact is that some communities developed a

sense of ownership and control over the education of their children. Current examples can be found in many countries: One comes from Uganda, where some communities set up their own pre-schools, which then progressed and expanded into primary schools wholly owned and run by the community. Now, as the Uganda government moves to conform to the current pressure to provide education that is free in all its components, these communities fear that their surrender of ownership will include the surrender of their control over the selection of teachers. Of course, increasing government responsibility does not necessarily entail terminating the responsibility of communities. The question – and art – is how to develop approaches that will provide more complete government support without diminishing the role and energies of parents and communities as material stakeholders in the education system.

*Operating the ERP Flagship:* There was an enquiry on how the ERP Flagship worked with schools in very poor communities with meagre resources and weak infra-structure. What measures did it apply to strengthen their resilience? What were the linkages with governments and other official institutions to ensure sustainability?

In response, FAO, the lead agency for the flagship, explained that the flagship did not operate through field projects, but rather through monitoring the evolution of programmes that held promise for ERP, disseminating good practice, seeking and generating relevant statistics and information, networking, advocacy, identifying comparative advantages, and fostering interdisciplinary and intersectoral action. Examples were the conferences the flagship had organized in every region for ministers and senior civil servants from different ministries responsible for rural development. Through sharing experiences, they pointed to more possibilities and opportunities for joint policy and action. The network of the ERP flagship now had 270 members heterogeneously drawn from NGOs, universities, research institutes, international organizations and governments. Among the last, the governments of Italy and the USA – through USAID – had been very supportive. In addition, a coalition of European member NGOs had won a grant to support their advocacy activities for ERP.

Of course, more widely than its leadership of the ERP Flagship, FAO operated as a UN agency for technical assistance in agriculture and rural development – rather than as a donor – with its own field projects and programmes in nutrition and school feeding, where it collaborated with WFP and IFAD.

## **Compensatory education programmes in Latin America**

Eduardo Velez  
*World Bank*

The countries of Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) have succeeded in making access to primary education virtually universal, although there are some minor gaps. On the other hand, some countries have still to achieve UPC and student learning outcomes are on average relatively poor when compared with those of countries in other regions. This indicates that the average quality of teaching and learning is low. Moreover, within countries, there are high levels of inequality between schools and regions: These seem to correspond to similar inequalities in social and economic terms – health, life expectancy, income, assets and wealth, poverty. On the last dimension, poverty, most countries still have fairly large proportions of their peoples living below the poverty line, with the majority of such people living in rural areas. Rural poverty ranges from a low of 23.2 per cent in Chile to a high of 83.0 per cent in Colombia.

In recognition of these facts, most LAC countries have designed and implemented programmes that aim to benefit mostly the rural poor. They have focused on nutrition for pregnant mothers and young children up to the age of six, on preventive health for mothers and young children, on housing, on employment and of course on education. In education, central governments finance the broad system and furnish the traditional inputs of school construction and rehabilitation, furniture, texts and other instructional materials, libraries, laboratories, teacher training and supervision. In addition, many governments have put in place a variety of measures to ensure that the cost of education does not deter poor families from enrolling their children or hinder the children from learning successfully. The range of such

measures is quite wide, as the following examples will show. Practically all the LAC countries have abolished fees for primary school, so that no direct barrier or deterrent exists. Almost all provide free texts and other learning materials. Some offer transport from home to school for children who live in relatively remote locations. Many offer school meals, which are indeed an inducement for many poor families and their children. Some offer vouchers to enable families to choose their schools in either the public or private sectors – Colombia does it at the national level, while the capital city, Bogotá, does it at the local level. At least four countries, Brazil, Guatemala, Jamaica and Nicaragua, have introduced conditional cash transfers (CCT). These are payments to poor families contingent, as their name implies, on regular attendance at school by their daughters.

Compensatory Education Programmes (CEP) like CCT tend to be targeted either at particular regions or even more narrowly at particular population groups. Their bases can be household surveys, local registries or analyses of selected socio-economic indicators that enable the governments to identify with a fair degree of precision the groups who stand in need of some help. Using such approaches, Brazil now subsidizes the families of some 8.5 million students with US\$36 per family per year under its CCT programme; while during the 1990s Colombia assisted 140,000 students with vouchers to complete their secondary education.

Quite apart from such financial help, CEP can stimulate governments and their educators to develop fresh models of education to suit the target groups. Brazil, for instance, created what it called ‘accelerated schools’, while Colombia devised the ‘SAT’ (*Sistema de Aprendizaje Tutorial*) or ‘System of Tutorial Learning’. Nor were they the only countries: Mexico has developed a new kind of community school, while Guatemala has set up multi-grade schools that use a special active pedagogy to deal with the particular challenges of managing multi-grade classes.

A Colombian CEP is worth noting. It targeted four particular groups, most of which are found in rural areas: marginalized ethnic groups; people

displaced due to the internal conflicts of the country; households with female heads; and students with special needs. The programme covered more than just the educational sector. While it did indeed support education, it also addressed health, nutrition and employment. Each child received US\$240 per year for general feeding and maintenance, plus \$55 per year for attendance at primary school or \$110 per year for attending a secondary school. After their schooling, young men and women were offered training to suit them for the range of employments available. To help finance the initiative, forms of public-private partnerships were set up. The learning outcomes in mathematics at primary Grade 5 were encouraging. At each of three attainment levels the pupils in the CEP schools, 'Escuela Nueva', did markedly better than the national average, while the young people who took the 'accelerated' course more or less equalled it.

Mexico launched a CEP for basic education in 1992, piloting it first in just four states. In 1994, 10 states took it up and by the end of the 1990s all 30 states were participating. An assessment in 2002 found that the previously marginalized schools had made a 30 per cent improvement in their primary school test scores, while the less marginalized schools had achieved improvements of only 9 per cent. In effect, the CEP had helped narrow the inequalities of quality and effectiveness – or the advantage gap – between marginalized schools and the rest of the country.

Similarly, a CEP started by Chile in 1997 was able within three years to reduce significantly the differences in achievements in Spanish and mathematics between indigenous and non-indigenous groups of students. Analysis showed that the advances in achievements by the indigenous groups could not be explained by changes in the student or family variables or by improvements in their socio-economic status. The explanation for the enhanced achievements lay with the CEP. Indeed, the data from PISA suggest that the CEP of Chile and Mexico have enabled their pupils to learn at levels close to some of the higher income countries.

Pointing to these successes does not deny the many challenges of appraisal, negotiation, design and implementation. Nevertheless, it is possible to assert that when CEP are properly targeted and well designed, they can and do help poor and rural children do much better in school than has historically been the case and that they do decrease the degree of inequality between average and marginalized schools.

### **The contribution of higher agricultural education to learning and development in rural areas: experiences and policy implications**

The current focus of development strategies is on reducing poverty. Rural areas and people are often characterized as poor and indeed disproportionately poor. They are also characterized as disproportionately food-insecure, even though most of them make their living from agriculture, pastoralism or fishing. At a very different level, the agricultural faculties of universities and other institutions of higher education have contributed to the growth and modernization of agriculture, but have often failed to make the necessary adjustments in curricula or management to provide the kinds of education and services required by the changes affecting the agricultural sector and rural life. In countries where the revitalization of rural areas presents a critical challenge, this failure and the relationship between higher education and rural development are important policy concerns. The issues of decentralization, relevance to local communities and accountability are all involved.

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*IIEP-UNESCO*

Rural labour markets reflect the impact of globalization in the rise of non-farm employment and income, which now accounts for between 30 and 40 per cent of the income of rural households in South Asia. There has been a striking diversification of patterns of rural employment. The implication for higher agricultural education (HAE) is a challenge to think not in terms of agricultural education only, but in the wider terms of sustainable rural development and strengthening rural communities.

The agenda here includes focusing on poverty reduction, adopting a holistic view of the rural space, emphasizing community involvement, promoting participatory approaches to development planning and implementation, preparing local people for agricultural and off-farm employment, recognizing the potential of local indigenous knowledge, understanding the complementarity of rural-urban linkages, coping with the retreat of the state from areas in which it once took the lead or even had a monopoly, and developing partnerships with NGOs, CBOs and the private sector. It would also need to bring gender issues into the mainstream of discussion and planning and to assess how to deal with HIV and AIDS issues. Managing such an agenda requires that HAE institutions review and develop better ways to fulfil their traditional three functions of research, teaching and extension.

Along with this set of commitments to rural development, the higher education community accepted in 1998 the commitment to “contribute to the development and improvement of education at all levels”.<sup>7</sup> This is a commitment that HAE can take on, although it will also require a review of current approaches to implementation. Again, the movement towards decentralization will in turn require attention to engaging more directly with local education authorities, institutions and their surrounding communities. An element that needs emphasizing here is that part of education that is now called ‘lifelong learning’. Fostering the latter will be essential to stimulating innovation in local economies and communities.

A range of possibilities is available to HAE. It could contribute to developing the right kinds of curricula for schools, producing the requisite learning materials, and/or training teachers to use the curricula and materials most productively. Possibly in partnership with the education departments of universities, it could introduce schemes of national service for students to teach in the basic schools of rural communities. It might take that idea a step further and suggest the participation of university students in the management

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7. World Conference on Higher Education, UNESCO, 1998.

committees of local schools. HAE could also organize ‘open door’ discussions with communities on their learning needs and how best to respond to them. It could initiate adult education programmes on and off campus and pioneer innovative uses of ICT and applications of distance education.

In 2004, UNESCO and FAO began a research project in Asia to assess what contributions HAE was making to rural development and learning. Institutions in China, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand were the partners.<sup>8</sup> The research covered themes already mentioned above: community development; poverty reduction; sustainable development; community-driven research; partnerships with schools; and the teaching profession. In addition, it examined the transformations of the HAE sector in terms of outlook, vision, curricula and management.

Not surprisingly, an early finding was the importance of country-specific conditions: the size and distribution of the rural populations, the levels of rural poverty, the size and evolution of the agricultural sector, trends in employment in agriculture and other rural occupations, and the impact of and response to globalization. With regard to the last factor, the accession of China to the WTO had naturally had implications elsewhere, as did the concept of ‘food sovereignty’ that Indonesia, Japan and Malaysia were developing.

Also not surprising were some of the research findings. The first was the great diversity of programmes that the eight universities have developed and offered, for their mission statements often included commitments to community service and their communities were indeed diverse. Forms of support to agricultural extension, farmer-centred research, community education programmes, university-school partnerships were all to be found. There was also feedback to regular university programmes, for example in

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8. The eight institutions were the China Agricultural University, Bogor Agricultural University (Indonesia), the Universities of Nagoya, Obihiro and Tsukuba (Japan), Universiti Putra Malaysia, University of the Philippines Los Baños and Kasetsart University (Thailand).

the form of courses in participatory methods in research and development, derived from the concepts of Participatory Rural Appraisal.

On the other hand, the overall picture was less encouraging. Low relevance to labour market needs was general, as was an apparently low contribution to increasing productivity in agriculture. Linkages to farmers, agricultural industry and agri-business tended to be weak. Within many institutions there were issues of poor, rather top-down management that did not encourage new thinking or initiative on the part of researchers and provided little incentive for new research. Low faculty morale and declining quality in teaching, followed by high graduate unemployment rates, have led in places to declining enrolments as well.

Partnerships with other institutions, whether academic, administrative, voluntary or commercial, were few. Curriculum reform was not a dynamic process grounded in new research and verified empirical experience. There were also issues of sustainability (some institutions were excessively reliant on project-based finance) and consistency in policy (in some institutions there were tensions between focusing on poverty reduction and spending more time on fundraising). These problems arose from the considerable pressures that the growing constraints on public sector spending have exerted on universities.

This last trend has prompted searches for greater efficiency in research, teaching and management. Maximizing class sizes and minimizing duplication in teaching has led some faculties to merge so as to achieve a form of critical mass, while others have tried to cover new areas, not always related to agriculture. Erosions of independence and even of identity have occurred.

The signals from the research pose several challenges to HAE. First, the academic culture of some institutions must change and orient itself more to holistic rural development and to research and extension. Bringing about this change will require institutions to establish appropriate systems of incentive and reward for their personnel. This will of course involve similarly appropriate performance indicators and systems of evaluation, not only for

personnel, but also for the HAE institutions themselves, if they are to earn appropriate and reliable funding mechanisms along with increased autonomy. Many curricula could do with enrichment and with dissemination through a variety of programmes, both degree and non-degree.

Beyond the institutions, far more regular collaboration needs to be developed between them and the several government ministries involved in rural development and poverty reduction. For example, HAE extension services are best placed to catalyze innovation. Scaling up should remain the responsibility of the relevant government agencies, even if decentralization policies have resulted at least temporarily in some agencies not having the capacity to follow through. Apart from the benefits for the participating parties and their several rural clienteles, such collaboration will position the HAE institutions to undertake policy advocacy for sound rural development from a well-grounded empirical base.

## **General discussion of education for rural people [2]**

*Compensatory cash transfers:* Programmes for compensatory cash transfers (CCT) drew admiration for their comprehensive nature and for the length of time they had been operating, given the frequent changes of government and government personnel that Latin American countries undergo. Ministers, directors and other senior officials seem to have an average tenure of only six months or so, although Chile was an exception. The clue to the durability of the programmes seemed to be their effectiveness, and also possibly their popular appeal. In Mexico, when governments changed, they changed the names of the programmes, but kept them operationally intact, largely because of information on their outcomes. Peru provided a contrasting case, largely because of the ineffectiveness of the implementation.

On the other hand, the comparative outcomes, as assessed by PISA in Chile and Guatemala, suggested that the programmes produced rather low quality results. True, the CCT did raise demand for schooling, but it appeared that the education being demanded was to say the least questionable. In

Brazil, the feeding schemes did appear to improve retention, but not academic attainment. Access to education was certainly good, but not good enough. The inference seemed to be that CCT were not cost-effective: The improvements in learning outcomes did not seem to warrant their high costs. That observation, although certainly justified by the data, did not take account, however, of the nature of the families and children who benefited from CCT. The families were often very poor and unable to keep their children properly fed. It was very difficult for teachers, with large classes of pupils to manage, to give such children the additional attention necessary to overcome the disadvantages of malnutrition and inadequate support at home. From that point of view, the compensatory programmes at least drew children into school who would not otherwise be there, and kept them there with sufficient effect that the learning outcomes were at any rate no worse than the average.

In this context, it was pertinent to note that the World Bank had been shifting the emphasis of attention from inputs to outputs, but had found in most countries very few impact studies by which to steer. It therefore gave special recognition to countries in Latin America for their efforts to measure outcomes.

Part of the explanation for the disappointing learning outcomes lay in the way in which teachers were deployed. New teachers, the majority of whom came from urban areas, tended to be posted to rural communities, often the most difficult to deal with and from which most of them wanted to exit as soon as they could win a transfer. The consequent rates and frequencies of transfers, coupled with the inexperience of these new teachers, militated against achieving an effective, good quality education. Various schemes of incentives had been attempted to induce teachers to go to and stay in rural schools, but had not met with much success. The problem was perennial and, of course, was not peculiar to Latin America.

Aggravating the problem was the matter of time on task. In East Asia, teachers had to show that their pedagogical contact with their pupils maintained the strict standard of 220 days. Controls in Latin America tended to

be more lax, with the effect that on average teachers maintained only 80 days of actual contact. Not only were the teachers in rural schools new to their job, they tended to shy away from it. While there may well be a case for removing bad or poorly-trained teachers from schools, there was an even stronger case for trying to make sure that they actually did their job. Better systems for assessing teaching and learning, along with better systems of accountability and recognition for teachers, could well evoke greater willingness from teachers to give their full time and attention to their jobs and to teach more effectively.

There was interest in learning precisely how the CCT systems worked in ways that ensured that the resources were not diverted, or that corruption was minimized so that the intended beneficiaries did in fact benefit as they should. Unfortunately, however, time did not permit a detailed exposition of the mechanisms of the systems, but a proper study of them was due to be published before the end of 2006. All that could be said was that CCT can indeed create opportunities for corruption; but these can be foreseen and forestalled. When the systems are well-designed and implemented as intended, they do produce beneficial results.

All the parties involved in CCT recognize that a supply-driven approach to education through scholarships and subsidies could not be a panacea for all the issues of access, take-up and perseverance. CCT programmes worked only where their design was fully informed by the views of the poor families who did demand education for their children.

The hope was expressed that the information from the monitoring and evaluation of these compensatory education programmes was being carefully stored, so that it could be disseminated and shared. The study of CCT to be published by the end of 2006 should go some way to satisfying that hope.

*Higher agricultural education:* There appeared to be something of an inconsistency between insisting that rural development embraces far more than just agriculture and launching an initiative for rural development from

universities focused exclusively on agriculture. If development is indeed multisectoral, a more consistent launch would have been from multidisciplinary institutions. Reinforcing this point is the observation that agronomists tend to be preoccupied with the technical points of their disciplines and far less concerned about people, communities or societies. Rural development needs a people-centred approach, so the initiative would have been better housed in faculties that are people-centred.

While such reasoning is valid, implementing its implications is hindered by two facts, while the choice of agricultural universities is supported by two others. The first two facts are that analyses of student bodies in higher education reveal that most come from urban areas. The ratios between rural and urban sections of a population are more than reversed in higher education. This means that very few students are at all interested in rural development or in living in a rural area. Reorienting them away from urban to rural living and service is a challenge that has not yet been successfully solved. Second, in most developing countries, universities as institutions and the individual faculties within them have no incentives to engage with rural people, let alone to attempt rural and sustainable development. Devising and resourcing such incentives would be challenging.

The facts that support the choice of agricultural universities are, first, that most of them are finding it increasingly difficult to recruit students. Continuing with their standard and traditional courses has apparently made them unattractive. Second, in contrast, those agricultural faculties that are actively responding to new realities and taking up new roles are succeeding in attracting new students. In that light, helping faculties to identify and develop new roles and to broaden their focuses to include rural development and rural people, as distinct from what could be narrowly termed agronomical concerns, is in fact to help ensure their survival.

A further influence is the obvious fact that agricultural universities and their faculties are necessarily involved in matters that can only be rural. They do not have to be oriented to rural areas, although indeed their perspectives

may require broadening. It was recognized that stronger links needed to be formed between HAE and poverty reduction, and that the effectiveness of those links would depend to a substantial extent on EFA and, more importantly, on quality education for all. A three-way linkage must be developed.

Developing the linkages is of course not without problems. There are in the first place what might be called structural factors that limit the engagement of universities in active rural development. At the root is money. Universities in general are not funded to undertake development projects. On the contrary, they are increasingly expected to engage in the kinds of research that will earn them more money to keep themselves going. There is a tension even between the traditional mandate to do agricultural extension work with farmers and the more recent and increasing need to be entrepreneurial and earn maintenance money.

A second set of hindrances are attitudes among both academics and farmers. The research element is of course important, but involves delicacy. Participatory research, which means involving farmers, is time-consuming and slow. Academics who wish to publish research results resist having to spend the time explaining, negotiating and implementing research and experimental designs with farmers. For their part, farmers are not eager to have their work rhythms disrupted by the requirements of researchers. These sorts of problems that affect narrowly agricultural work are of course multiplied when broader rural development is broached.

A third consideration is simply the scale of the challenges. The rural populations of Africa, Asia and Latin America are huge, while the numbers of people engaged in universities as a whole and faculties interested in rural development in particular are very small indeed. To call organizing the transmission of knowledge from the universities to the farmers and farming communities a challenge is a mild understatement. Creating the capacity to reach out adequately, as well as the capacity to offer access to learning to sufficient numbers of people interested in rural development, remains an issue.

A few miscellaneous points concluded the discussion on HAE and ERP. One was a comment that the concept of developing linkages between basic and higher education, particularly for rural people, was attractive. However, in what had been so far reported, the issue of the feminization of poverty, the consideration that in many countries agriculture *is* women, the matter of the status of women farmers and the need for female agricultural and rural development researchers had not arisen.

There was a question as to whether instances had occurred of vocational and technical schools that taught agricultural skills involving themselves in agricultural or rural extension work. As far as was known, agricultural extension services remained exclusively the province of agricultural universities, with no involvement of lower level schools. One possible exception was Bunda College in Malawi, which had moved from acting as a traditional agricultural school to undertaking forms of outreach to farmers in its vicinity.

In regard to monitoring developments in linking HAE, EFA and poverty reduction focused on rural areas, IIEP-UNESCO was working with UIS and ANTRIEP to develop sets of indicators of inputs and outcomes for the countries of Asia.

## *Theme 3*

# Capacity development

### **Capacity development in educational planning and management: IIEP's experience**

The background to the theme of capacity building is the fact that despite many billions of dollars spent on projects, technical assistance and training for high-level specialists, the capacities to design, plan and implement policies and reforms in education are still sufficiently scarce as to constitute arguably one of the most serious obstacles to EFA. Although some suggest that the lack of funds is the most serious obstacle, a number of countries actually now receive more funds from external donors than they can use and their rates of disbursement remain low. In some countries, the main effect of additional funds has been to increase the number of international and national consultants who are asked to prepare, implement, evaluate and report on plans and programmes. The price of such consultants has increased rapidly but the educational situation on the ground in terms of access and quality has improved far more slowly. Questions then arise about how to improve and expand the capacities of countries to plan and manage their education systems.

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This presentation aims to summarize the experiences of IIEP in this area of capacity building or capacity development. Given the multiple uses of a number of terms and the consequent ambiguities, it would be prudent to define what certain terms mean in the context here.

‘Capacities’ are generally taken by UNDP to indicate “the ability of people, organizations and society as a whole to manage their affairs successfully”. The term encompasses “organizational and technical abilities, relationships and values”. ‘Capacity development’ then means “the process by which individuals, groups, organizations and societies create, enhance,

and maintain their capacities over time”. In this sense, the term has three dimensions: individual; organizational; and institutional. At the level of the *individual*, capacity development is equivalent to human resource development in the sense of enhancing an individual’s knowledge, skills and values through education/training, mentoring and technical assistance. To be effective, it requires incentives to induce the individuals concerned to actually learn and apply what they have learnt, so that their capacities do develop. At the level of the *organization*, the process enhances the capacity of, say, a ministry of education to perform its functions adequately, to deliver the services required of it, to learn from the experience of its officers and to adapt its procedures and processes to the requirements of changing conditions. Organizational development requires far more than training of its individual members. It requires proper organization of work, clear division of tasks and good communication between different divisions and levels; appropriate funding mechanisms; and motivated and relatively stable staff that derives from proper incentives and leadership. The term *institutional development* refers to the overarching norms under which a society and its sub-systems function in actual reality. The norms govern the broad culture of the society, the behaviour of its political system and the operations of its public services. It also has to do with overall political leadership and stability. It is far more difficult to influence from outside.

Historically, capacity development has had three phases. In the first phase, agencies operated on the assumption that developing the skills of individuals would suffice to bring about the transformation of societies. That approach led to vast programmes of training and skills development in-country and abroad at a variety of institutions – mainly for individuals, sometimes for teams. Technical assistance was also very much part of that approach and experts were sent in countries to do the work while training their counterparts. This approach lasted for three decades or more.

Disappointment in the speed with which the approach produced the desired transformations led to the addition of an organizational approach that

attempted to help everyone in an organization, or at least strategic groups of key personnel, learn the necessary skills to make the organization function better. Twinning arrangements between universities, research centres and sometimes government ministries were implemented, sometimes North-South, as the phrase went, less frequently South-South. Audits and reorganizations of ministries, along with supports for reforms of different components of an education system, were part of this movement.

Appreciation of the inadequacies of even that broader approach has more recently led to considering ways to engineer *institutional reform* in addition to skills development and organizational development. It entails changing the assumptions and tacit conventions that influence, if not govern, the ways in which governments define and implement their policy; people actually behave and apply the skills that they possess. If the first two phases were difficult to implement, the third is even more complex and arduous. The means adopted by the international community has been a stress on an integrated approach to development, illustrated at the global level by the MDGs. They begin with reducing poverty and hunger, move through education and gender equity to increasing health, combating disease and ensuring environmental sustainability, and conclude by calling for a global partnership for development. They imply a package of interdependent elements that call for a shift in institutional perspectives on development policy. Further, by framing the elements as goals spelt out in quantitative, time-bound targets that can be readily translated into local, national terms, the MDGs attempt to fire up fresh enthusiasm and energy and to change ways of thinking at the institutional level of each country.

Reinforcing this approach at the country level are the SWAps and the PRSPs. They insist on packages that not only contain plans for a range of economic sectors, but also include sound macroeconomic and legal frameworks along with provisions for improving governance, expanding decentralization, promoting participatory processes for assessing, designing and then implementing development initiatives, giving the poor an effective

voice, and preventing and combating corruption. As with the MDGs, the PRSPs give priority to education, health and cross-cutting issues such as gender equity. The expectation is that, as the processes of formulating and implementing the PRSP and SWAp help change institutional perspectives and enhance institutional capabilities and capacities, finance for development aid will progressively move from projects and programmes to budget support, which of course will give national authorities greater control over its application. An important institutional change in the PRSP process is the greater involvement of civil society and the NGO community in planning poverty reduction, which of course would tend to enhance their own institutional capacities.

While the vision for institutional capacity development exists and is being implemented and elaborated, it naturally encounters numerous constraints on the ground. Prominent among these are political instability and conflicts of varying degrees of intensity and violence. In a number of countries, they are exacerbated by the effects of pandemics like HIV and AIDS. Although much work is being done on PRSPs, SWAps and the FTI at country level, a wide gap persists between theory and discourse, on the one hand, and reality on the other. The international community must recognize that institutional capacity development is a long-term, indeed protracted process that requires equally long-term and steady support. External agencies can help and even influence it, but it must become an endogenous process, led from within the country and in coherence with the other changes that are occurring at the same time – political, economic, social and cultural. Outsiders cannot be expected to grasp the full complexities of such changes and stresses, so that external pressures for short-term products and delivery will more than likely be counterproductive. Of course, taking such a view raises considerable challenges for monitoring, evaluation and, perhaps most of all, accountability to financiers and the taxpayers of bilateral partners.

In short, institutional capacity development is a very complex concept that is difficult to operationalize. It cannot be tackled without being rooted

in the other two levels of organizational development and individual skills development. Conversely, capacity development at the other two levels without concomitant efforts at the institutional level will more than likely have disappointingly limited effects. Approaches at all three levels are necessary and work on the approaches needs to be articulated with each other. Currently, awareness of such need is less than it should be and skills at articulating the three levels have some way to go for perfection. An additional point is that agencies, whether national or external, differ in their capabilities to affect the three levels. While most agencies can tackle skills development for individuals with some confidence, organizational development is more difficult and capacity development at the institutional level would be beyond the capabilities of most of the smaller and more specialized agencies. Nevertheless, all agencies concerned with development should be aware of and work in support of larger efforts to promote institutional capacity development.

The work that IIEP has done over the past 43 years must be viewed against that general background. Created in 1963, IIEP remains a small institution dedicated to the development and dissemination of the concepts and techniques of educational planning. In common with most other analogous and contemporary institutions, it has traditionally focused on individuals, but is increasingly working at the organizational level. It provides training and advice on governance issues in education systems, works in partnership with other – multilateral and bilateral – agencies to promote greater leverage; and hosts ADEA, which is a partnership between ministries of education and agencies working in Africa – but cannot pretend to have an impact on the broader social institutions and systems.

At the individual level, IIEP has had to consider whose capabilities and capacities it should be helping to develop. Should it attract only people working at the national level, or should it reach down the hierarchy to the regional and even local levels? Ensuring implementation does require working at all three levels, since in the end policies must be realized in the classroom

with proper support from the centre. On the other hand, an international institute needs to balance that against the number of countries that it must serve. IIEP therefore trains and supports policy-makers, planners, researchers and managers at only the central and regional levels.

At the organizational level, IIEP helps strengthen other educational planning institutes through technical assistance, training their trainers and researchers, and collaborating in research projects on urgent issues common to many countries. It also works within ministries of education and ministries of finance to help enhance their educational planning capabilities, and does the same with NGOs and other agencies that run education programmes and need to plan for their better management or expansion.

As its name implies, IIEP deals with the capabilities that planning education requires. There are strategic issues and policy options to be identified, analyzed and appraised. There are also the technical issues and skills for planning, management, monitoring and assessment. Underpinning both are the generic skills of human relations, negotiations and communications in both oral and written media.

IIEP deploys an array of means for developing these capabilities. It continues to organize its traditional education and training programmes and seminars in its centres in Paris, Buenos Aires and a variety of venues in the countries of all geographic regions. While these vehicles may be traditional, IIEP does strive to make use of fresh techniques and aids to raise the effectiveness of its teaching. It has of course also adapted its courses and materials for use in distance learning, in which it uses the Internet to train the staff of institutes in teams within their own working environments. It has set up a 'virtual institute' to make fuller use of the World Wide Web, on which it makes available its training modules, handbooks and other publications. In the field and on the ground, it works alongside the staff of other institutes in research and action research on issues that affect educational planning. And it promotes communication and exchange between these fellow institutes through fostering networks of them in Africa, Asia and Latin America.

The Institute's overall success rests substantially on the long-term and continuous investments made by its partners in its programmes and initiatives – the Advanced Training Programme, which now includes the Master's level, and the work of SACMEQ are examples. The emphasis it has placed on working with a large number of development agencies around the world through more or less formal partnerships has not only enriched its in-house expertise, but has of course also enabled it to extend its reach. Its care to ensure through proper needs assessments that the training it offered was always relevant to its students helped ensure the effectiveness of its programmes. Its insistence that face-to-face interaction on courses be followed up through distance contact – now much facilitated by e-mail – has of course enabled the Institute to be of longer term use to its alumni. Equally important, it has also helped the Institute stay abreast of educational developments in a wider range of countries than its resources would have permitted on their own and of course helped to keep its training up to date. A further factor in its success has been its policy of linking training with operational work and linking research systematically with training.

Lest it be thought that the demand for training with IIEP arises from dedicated cadres of educational planners, it might be timely to balance the picture. Over the years, many of the ministries and institutes with which IIEP has worked have suffered from a lack of leadership and from political instability. Many people in key positions for educational planning have been political appointees and clients of influential politicians and not deeply interested in their functions. Even where education planning offices have been staffed regularly, poor salaries, poor working conditions and poor career incentives for planners and managers at the regional and even central levels have undermined morale, engendered poor working habits and destroyed any ambition to learn how to do the job better. High turnover in planning offices has been common.

A similar situation has prevailed in many education research institutes: It has led to their heads and their able researchers being poached by organizations

able and willing to pay them more and offer them more rewarding working conditions. An additional feature has been what might be called the inadequate professional profile of many officials in planning and management positions. They have not had any training or background in their professions, but have generally been teachers for whom some kind of promotion needed to be found, if not in schools and classrooms, then in some office in the region or central ministry. Their aptitude and appetite for education and training as planners or managers have been on the low side.

Some of the factors mentioned above have at times brought about perverse effects. For instance, distance courses are an effective way of combining capacity development for individuals with capacity development for organizations, since they can work with teams of people actually at their posts. From the point of view of some prospective learners, however, there are two serious drawbacks. If the course were conducted off campus or, even better, abroad, they would be freed from their normal work and in addition would draw travel and subsistence allowances. But as the course will be actually at the workplace, they will receive no allowances and still be expected to continue with their ordinary work. Their participation in coursework tends to be less than satisfactory. Furthermore, in collaborative organizational strengthening through joint research projects, payments for travel, subsistence and other field research expenses are made directly to the organizations to be strengthened. In some cases, the payments have not been passed on to the researchers, who have thus been left out of pocket. Not unreasonably, the affected researchers now prefer direct personal contracts with the funding organizations. These sorts of practices of course have their roots in the overall institutional context. IIEP, or even UNESCO, is too small a player to be able to influence such local behaviours.

A quite different constraint has recently emerged for what used to be regional activities. The international community tends increasingly to make funds available at the local level. Support for regional activities or South-South co-operation has been shrinking. This trend naturally hinders

efforts to enhance organizational capabilities through regional networking and other forms of regional inter-institute co-operation.

As for the way forward in capacity development, IIEP believes that it should continue integrating training courses with operational work and, vice versa, operational work with training. It will also support country-driven assessments of the needs for capacity development at all three levels of institutions, organizations and individuals. In regard to individuals, however, IIEP will focus on teams from given organizations rather than on isolated individuals; and, despite the remarks above, it will persevere with developing distance courses that combine team training with local mentoring. It will of course need to work with organizations on addressing the issue of how to engage their staff in effective participation in such training.

Finally, given the earlier observation on the nature of the need, IIEP will seek to sign long-term agreements with governments and appropriate agencies for programmes for capacity development in educational planning and management.

### **Capacity development in education: the case of JICA support in mathematics and science education**

In the last 10 years, JICA's major efforts in technical support for primary and secondary education have been in the fields of science and mathematics teaching and learning. The chief reason

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for this is the very strong demand from JICA's partner governments, which itself arises from the universal recognition that the two subjects are the basis for technological and hence industrial advancement. An additional factor may be that the two subjects are seen to be 'neutral' in cultural and political terms, unlike, say, history or second languages. It may also be the case that Japan is thought, because of its technological and economic success, to have achieved a comparative advantage in the two fields and in their teaching. Whatever the reasons for the demand, it has given rise to projects in eight countries

located in all three major geographical regions of the world, Africa, Asia and Latin America: Cambodia, Egypt, Ghana, Honduras, Indonesia, Kenya, the Philippines and South Africa. Smaller-scale work occurs in other countries, so that regional support is co-ordinated from Kenya for Africa, Japan for Asia and Honduras for Latin America.

The projects naturally have as their main objective the enhancement of the learners' educational attainments in mathematics and science. This implies of course that the intermediary objective must be enhancing the effectiveness of teaching in classrooms through updating and upgrading instructional methods and materials. The two means to the intermediary objective are in-service training (INSET) and pre-service training (PRESET) for teachers.

The focus on the former has intensified, as it has proved to be more efficient, as well as more effective, largely due to the heightened levels of awareness among serving teachers of the actual challenges to good teaching. With INSET, JICA and its partners have been formulating a system that will operate through strategies that can be called 'cascades' and 'clusters'. 'Cascades' aim to accelerate the dissemination of good teaching practice through having teachers, who having been through the INSET programme, teach their fellow teachers back in the schools. 'Clusters' aim to support teachers who serve in neighbouring schools and have been through INSET to stay in close touch with each other and encourage each other to continuously improve their teaching. JICA also works with each country to improve the institutionalization and sustainability of the new strategies and indeed of the system of INSET, so that they do not come to a halt once the co-operation with JICA ceases. At a more detailed technical level, the projects work on enhancing the content of INSET, for example by developing lesson studies that work through the anatomy of a given lesson; and on evolving a more complete 'teaching philosophy' that extends beyond simply the teaching of mathematics and science.

The teaching philosophy of the projects themselves has shifted generally from an orientation of ‘technology transfer’ towards one of ‘capacity development’. This incorporates not only the skills development of individual teachers, but also the capacities of the organizations within which the teachers work and the surrounding or contextual institutional issues. It has also shifted from a preoccupation with resources and inputs to measuring its validity by outputs and outcomes. JICA has had to take care that the philosophy is not simply its own, but is evolved with and indeed owned by its partners. Clearly, this is the only way to raise the probability of its sustainability.

As the previous paragraph implies, JICA now works – very much in common with the approach reported by IIEP-UNESCO – at the three levels of capacity development: individual, organizational and institutional. To that it adds the concept of a virtuous spiral of capacity development leading from one level to the others, so that a continuous process of reciprocal reinforcement gradually builds up.

With the shift of emphasis to INSET and to outcomes, JICA and its partners must of course build an INSET system that focuses on the effectiveness of the education and training. The first need here must be care to establish training mechanisms that are in line with existing local capacity. The second must be selecting options for training delivery that will include as many opportunities as possible for putting the new training into practice, so that its demands as well as its superior effects can be experienced and ‘taken on board’ by the teachers and confidently ‘cascaded’ to their ‘cluster’ fellows.

Once an acceptable and sustainable INSET system is constructed, initiatives are necessary to institutionalize and extend it. To launch these requires key people in the education system – whether they are particularly influential politicians, senior education officials or officials of teachers’ organizations – being involved in planning them and in undertaking strategic advocacy for them. This does require that the initiatives and the policies to support them be based on actual evidence for their likely effectiveness. An

element that such initiatives must incorporate is at least one mechanism that will raise the level of motivation among the actual teachers of mathematics and science to teach the subjects better. A further requirement of the course is a credible and – equally important – locally-acceptable process for determining the impact of institutionalization.

This last item needs to be observed at five levels at least. One is the national, the second is the regional or provincial, the third is the district or even sub-district, the fourth is the school cluster, while the fifth is the school itself. At each level, there are three areas to be observed. One is the legislation and infrastructure that are necessary to enable the implementation and funding of the INSET system. The second area encompasses the knowledge and skills that the operatives at each level need if they are to implement their roles effectively. The third area can be broadly termed ‘awareness’: It concerns appreciation of the reasons for and the importance of INSET and a grasp of all the elements of leadership, attitudes and culture that must be in place to bring about a transformation in the teaching and learning of science and mathematics.

JICA has of course learnt a number of lessons from these eight programmes in eight very different countries. In light of the several decades and volumes of resources that have been expended on technical assistance and training programmes, the first lesson will cause little surprise: It is that JICA must shift its focus far more intensively to the factors and processes of institutionalization. The second lesson requires that the Agency work out how best to set about developing an environment conducive to institutionalizing the values and behaviours that underlie this pattern of INSET, taking full account of the institutional and cultural context of each country. Understanding these contexts also means identifying the factors that pose risks to successful capacity development and developing a strategic response either to circumvent or to obviate them – a third lesson. Finally, JICA has learnt that it needs to work with its partner countries on developing mutually-acceptable indicators that will monitor whether and how the processes of INSET are generating progress in the development and use of capacity.

## How to fill the ‘capacity gap’ in implementing the FTI?

What is reported here is only the opening phase of an enquiry into how best to develop the capacities of a number of countries that are participating in the Fast Track Initiative (FTI). The FTI is a global partnership between some developing countries and donors to accelerate progress towards the goal of universal completion of quality primary education (UPC) by 2015. In June 2006, 20 low income (or IDA eligible)<sup>9</sup> countries had been endorsed to take part in the initiative. They were partnered by 30 bilateral and multilateral donor agencies and a number of civil society organizations. The number of participating low income countries is expected to increase substantially over the next three years.

Temby Caprio  
GTZ

The FTI partners have identified four fundamental gaps that need to be closed for the low income countries to be able to take full ownership of the EFA agenda for their peoples. One is obviously the finance gap. The second is the data gap – most of the countries have neither the necessary data, nor the means to collect the necessary data, nor the capacity to analyze the necessary data to develop adequate plans to achieve EFA and UPC. The third is the policy gap – most of the countries need to review their education policies to ensure that they are aligned with the achievement of EFA and UPC. The fourth gap concerns capacity – most of the countries do not have the capacity to implement UPC or to sustain it, once achieved.

In March 2006, on the basis of a concept note submitted by Germany in November 2005, the partnership created a Task Team on Capacity Development. The statement of purpose for the team read:

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9. IDA – International Development Association – is the concessionary lending arm of the World Bank Group. Using mainly grants from donor countries, it offers long-term, interest-free credits to the 82 countries that currently have average gross national incomes per capita of US\$1,025 or less.

“The FTI Task Team on Capacity Development will focus on cultivating capacity at country level in the context of the EFA-FTI. The Team will take stock of lessons learned in terms of process and partnership demand and determine how to continue to work together at the end of 2006.”

The Task Team has decided to work to a set of eight guiding principles. The lead principle is the recognition that capacity development is an endogenous process: It can happen only within a country, with the consent and co-operation of both the people whose capacities are being developed and of the organizations for which they are working. The second principle is the recognition and acceptance that capacity development is a long-term process that does not simply impart skills, information and knowledge, but also addresses the factors within the cultural, social and incentive systems that either encourage or discourage the development of new capacities, whether or not the initiative for them arises in the country.

The third guiding principle is to add value to what is ‘business as usual’ in a country. Put another way, it is to recognize the capacities that already exist and function and as far as possible to build on them, rather than to disregard their potential for development. The next principle takes this approach further: It suggests that activities should be geared to catalyzing additional initiatives from local actors. As these would be endogenous, they may also be sustainable in the sense of promoting lasting change. In tune with such approaches is the principle that the focus of discussions of capacity development should shift from issues of concern to donors – i.e. supply-driven concerns – to those that concern the policy-makers and educators of low income countries – i.e. demand-driven concerns.

In the interests of not only all the participating countries and agencies, but of all countries and agencies, the sixth principle recognizes ‘knowledge management’ as a key activity in accumulating expertise in capacity development. Learning from what works and from experience, assessing ‘best fit’ approaches, conserving, accumulating and strengthening institutional

memory and making it all known, available, accessible and easily accessed will add value to work on capacity development.

In consonance with the second principle of addressing systemic factors, the seventh principle insists that capacity development must be designed within a broad perspective. Programmes must take account of the impact of factors such as general public sector reform or reform of the civil or teaching services, or drives for good governance or against corruption. Capacity development happens on several fronts simultaneously: formulating development policy and implementation; reducing poverty; growing the economy; and reforming the education sector. At the same time, of course, while taking this broad view, the Task Team must also keep its focus on developing capacity to take the FTI forward to the fulfilment of the EFA targets in the participating countries. This then prompts the question of what the FTI as an agency can actually do about capacity development, either before a country is endorsed for the initiative or once it has been endorsed.

The Task Team on Capacity Development has taken a number of steps to answer the question:

- For countries that have applied for endorsement, there is now a questionnaire that aims, on the one hand, to establish a baseline of the actual status of a country's education system and, on the other, to gauge the demand for primary education and particularly for UPC. In line with the sixth principle of 'knowledge management', when the questionnaires for a given country are returned and analyzed, the information they yield is distributed to all the partners of that country and, to obviate the risk of lapses in communication between headquarters and the field, to all their field offices as well.
- There are also guidelines for assessing capacities that already exist in the political and education systems at the central, provincial, district and lower levels. As benefiting from the FTI depends on submitting a sound PRSP and education plan, it is of course of the utmost importance that the questionnaire and guidelines enable an accurate assessment

of a country's capacity to create sound educational plans and actually implement them.

- On the external front, a study has been designed to take stock of the various forms of international co-operation in which a country might already be engaged for EFA: South-South; North-South-South (as organized by Japan in some instances); and the more usual North-South.
- There will be an analysis of existing strategies to develop the kinds of capacity that the FTI will need.
- The FTI is already using its web site to share information on capacity development specifically focused on the education sector and has linked it to three other relevant sites – the Education Programme Development Fund, the Catalytic Fund and the Fragile States Task Team.

If these assessments suggest that the Task Team on Capacity Development has nothing to offer a particular country, the team will turn its attention to where it can be of use.

The Task Team on Capacity Development was formed in March 2006, just three months before the IWGE's meeting. It was naturally still in the early stages of getting the measure of its mission and was therefore open to suggestions for links to work being conducted by other groups and to proposals for additional support from the field.

## **General discussion of capacity building [1]**

The discussion of capacity building opened with a suggestion that the term to be used in this context should be 'capacity development', since every country had capacities that could be developed further. The phrase 'capacity building', on the other hand, seemed to imply that countries, their governments and societies were a kind of *tabula rasa* on which whole new capacities could be constructed. That was clearly not the case. On the contrary, the history of most countries suggested that there had been much 'capacity erosion', which had left governments and other organizations no longer able to do what had once been part of their functions. In such cases, 'capacity restoration' might

be more appropriate. Further, it might also be appropriate to consider ‘capacity valuation’, as countries possessed capacities that donors might not recognize or value and consequently overlook. That would involve assessing ranges of capacities and putting them in some order of priority.

The relevance of ‘capacity valuation’ was implicit in the shift of emphasis made by JICA when it decided to support INSET more strongly than PRESET. It assessed the capacities of experienced teachers to be greater than those of teachers in training in absorbing and applying new approaches and methods; and accordingly put more resources into developing them. The implication of that choice was to overlook – or possibly to assess unfavourably – the capacities of teacher training colleges and universities to devise the kind of training that would enable new teachers to appreciate and apply the new methods for teaching mathematics and science. The associated implication is that the capacities of academic institutions to link their teaching to actual practice in the classroom will remain undeveloped. The lack of that link will of course harm the learning that does go on in the classrooms of the new teachers.

It was also interesting that the elements of the JICA example – building a critical mass, cascade training, cluster training and designing incentives for teachers to value the training on offer – were distinct and parallel processes, each of which required a different set of capacities. Not all of these capacities would have been totally absent from the systems of the partner countries, so that capacity development would be the appropriate term. It would certainly fit the GTZ concept of a process of capacity development spiralling between the three levels of institution, organization and individual, with each level stimulating further development in the others.

That observation stimulated an observation on what was called ‘the flip side of capacity development’, namely the group of donors who were advocating the concept. The behaviour of governments that depended to one degree or another on external finance was not disconnected from the behaviour of the donors who provided that finance. There was a possibility that donors

were making too many demands that called for too many capacities. There was also the probability of discontinuity in their demands. Changes of government led to particular donors changing their policies and emphases in international co-operation, while changing fashions in development thinking led to groups of donors doing much the same. These shifts and changes often gave rise to demands for new capacities in the partner countries.

Since the late 1990s, there has been much talk of putting ‘the country in the driving seat’, but there is evidence that many countries are not yet in that driving seat. At least part of the reason may lie in the shifting demands from different donors for capacities that are in short supply in partner countries. For instance, in Mozambique, a relative latecomer to international co-operation, the government is trying to co-operate with a score of donors. Much the same is true of Uganda. The visits and missions that they request put heavy strains on the capacities of a government. Indeed, in India the government has had to set limits to a ‘visiting season’ for donors, just to allow its personnel to get their work done. In too many countries, there are too many projects with too many consultants, so that the work is not being done by the countries’ personnel and their capacities are not being developed. In fact, the personnel of some countries tend to view the donors almost as enemies; they claim that they spend far more time talking to each other than to the people of the country. In this light, donors might examine what capacities their overarching institutions, organizations, long-term or ‘permanent’ personnel and short-term consultants should develop in order to engage their counterparts more meaningfully and in ways that would indeed promote capacity development. The final impression is that both ‘driving seats’ and capacity development are still very much at the rhetorical stage and much remains to be done to make them a reality.

In this connection, a question was raised about the actual possibility of capacity development in the context of tied aid. A response suggested that prior to that question was the larger question of why any aid was needed at all and for what purposes. There was also the question of how best to assess

what aid was needed. An important point here concerned the issues of values and relationships, for both had an impact on the possibilities of developing capacities that would actually be put to use. Core values held in common did need to be reflected in joint efforts. It was interesting that this aspect was recognized in PRSPs, which do now look at the non-economic aspects of development. To respond adequately to this complex set of issues, it might be helpful to organize an audit of the values and practices of the donors, their evolution over time, and what capacities donors should try to develop in themselves.

Some agencies struck a despondent note. They remarked that in view of the volume of need for developing capacities, their contributions seemed to be mere drops in a huge bucket, while in view of the range of capacities that needed to be developed, they felt faced with numerous dilemmas about where they should focus. In terms of the MDGs and EFA targets, the tasks were mammoth. But they were also vague. There may well be 100 million children out of school, but were they all out of school for the same reasons? Were the situations of different countries identical? In Tanzania, for instance, would simply channelling more money to primary schools get more children into school and ensure that they learn well? Or would it be more a matter of giving more teachers better training and paying them better to move them to teach better? Would developing a single set of easily-identifiable capacities settle the problem? There was much rhetoric and jargon about partnership, but the discussion suggested that this had its limits. The four gaps that the FTI was supposedly to fill conveyed a vision that smacked less of partnership than of paternalistic central planning bureaucracy.

One response to this despondency suggested that establishing a just perspective on drops in a bucket and gaining a sense of the priorities for capacity development only required a clear appreciation that capacity development worked well where there was good governance. For example, young people sent to the USA for training did not in the past stay in that country after their graduation, but rather returned home to work in and serve

their societies. But when the governance of their societies deteriorated, they became more and more reluctant to go home. Supporting the development of capacities – at the individual, organizational and institutional levels – to establish and sustain good governance would always be a productive focus.

A connected issue was discouragement in the face of apparently little and slow progress. Again, a proper perspective had to be taken. ADEA provided an apposite example. This association was established in 1988. Now, nearly 20 years later, it had an increasingly clear focus and showed increasing willingness and capacity to modify its approaches and programmes. A second example was the Round Table of Ministers of Education at UNESCO. In its early years, its meetings were relatively tame affairs, where UNESCO made most of the running. The September 2005 meeting was a dramatic contrast. Ministers of Education are now a different breed. They have a confident grasp of their portfolio and of the importance of the education sector to the future of their countries. In this growth of their capacities, they are dynamic and bold in their ideas for initiatives. Time for maturation was important – the GTZ model of a three-level spiral clearly implied it. Equally so was the probability that different societies might need different allowances of time. A salutary reminder came from the history of Norway: That country required 300 years to achieve UPC!

The issue of allowing sufficient time for capacity development initiatives to take root and spread took on particular importance in the light of the historically short-term perspectives of the programmes and projects of much international co-operation. Commitment to the long haul by both donors and partners was vital, despite the very natural fatigue that could set in on all sides. In this regard, donors might well benefit from looking into their own capacities for sustaining long-term development with both consistency and flexibility.

Connected with the issue of time for capacity development initiatives to mature was the issue of identifying how different initiatives might link

with each other and over time evolve forms of cross-support. The business of donors duplicating projects and programmes with partner governments was happily becoming a thing of the past. However, although there was now far more effort aimed at achieving co-ordination between what many donors were offering a particular partner country, there remained considerable scope for developing complementarities between initiatives and programmes. This was especially applicable to capacity development at the institutional level, where broad transformations in outlook, organizational behaviour and working habits across entire governments might be being considered.

The discussion to date appeared to suggest that only donors and governments were concerned with capacity development. However, the processes for developing PRSP and qualifying for the FTI involved civil society and many NGOs, which also had to take on roles in developing a range of capacities. For instance, the OSI had worked with educators in Tajikistan to develop textbooks in the English language and history as part of the country's participation in the FTI. A major outcome had been a clear methodology for continuing such work systematically and cost-effectively. The process could be institutionalized across all subject areas in the education system, and even to teacher training. The approach itself and capacities to implement it might well be disseminated beyond the ministry of education to other sectors and organizations involved in the development of instructional materials.

From the point of view of donors, monitoring capacity development programmes was desirable if only to keep them on track, while evaluating them was desirable to draw insights, lessons and guides for succeeding programmes and to disseminate them more widely. However, in very many partner societies, both monitoring and evaluation continued to be regarded with nervous suspicion and subverted, if not openly resisted. Even national and local expertise, where it existed, often faced obstacles in making observations and collecting data. Monitoring and evaluation were in fact areas where attitudes, values and skills at the broad institutional level might need to give a lead to capacity development at the other levels of organization

and individual or team. For the future purposes of the IWGE and indeed for the wider education and development communities, IIEP-UNESCO might consider commissioning a paper to take stock of capacities for monitoring and evaluation in donor agencies, NGOs and partner countries.

## **FTI**

In addition to the main discussion of capacity development in the education and government systems, some remarks were more specifically focused on the FTI and its Task Team for Capacity Development.

Concern was expressed that widely differing concepts and understandings existed of the FTI, even though its core was very simple. There was also concern that the FTI secretariat was only now proposing questionnaires and baseline studies, when the concept had first been mooted nearly six years previously and elaborated on since then. Why had the FTI not followed the example of ADEA and started out with such a questionnaire? ADEA had sent its enquiry to both donors and their partners in Africa and succeeded in attracting a 60 per cent response (it was after all clear that it was not only the partner countries that needed to develop their capacities, but also donors).

On the other hand, the guideline to check out existing analogous programmes of international co-operation was welcomed. In Kenya, for instance, several agencies – DFID, JICA and UNICEF – were assisting with developing the capacities of teachers and the Kenya Science Teachers College had adopted the JICA approach. Similarly in Zambia, UNICEF was focusing on science and mathematics for girls. In Ghana, a university had included distance learning for teachers as part of the credit towards their degree, while the Teacher Education Unit of the Ministry of Education had assumed responsibility for co-ordinating assistance from donors. Helping to accelerate and reinforce such programmes and steps without duplicating them would be a useful function for the FTI to take up.

Quite as important as the point of co-ordination between donor agencies was the point of co-ordination within a donor agency, even within one sector

of an agency. The individual tools for capacity enhancement were after all well-known and widely used, and partnership between organizations in different countries was one. DFID had been running a partnership scheme for some 25 years, and was about to re-launch an updated and expanded version of it. USAID had also conducted similar schemes. One of the features that had perhaps prevented them from being more cumulative in their effects in establishing and sustaining capacity was that the several elements of partnership tended to each be the responsibility of separate departments. For example, scholarships, twinning arrangements and other partnerships each had their own department. Communication and coherence between departments were minimal, so that there was little mutual reinforcement between programmes and thus little benefit for what might be called capacity accumulation.

In response to the invitation for proposals on how the FTI Task Team for Capacity Development might take its work further, the need to examine more closely how things were working in a country and how they might work better was stressed. This applied from the ground level in actual classrooms, through the intermediate levels to the national bodies like ministries of education, teacher training colleges and universities. Teachers should be consulted and indeed brought together to work out how their organizations could function better and achieve the critical mass necessary to sustain the momentum for improvement. As an example of thorough commitment to generating capacity development throughout a system, Malaysia sent its top education officials as teams on customized six-week training courses at Stanford University for three years in a row. The effects of such an investment, which was both intensive for the individuals and teams and pervasive for the organization, would likely generate the institutional capacities to sustain the impetus for improvement. The FTI Task Team for Capacity Development might consider measures of this nature.

The presentation by IIEP-UNESCO about using forms of distance learning to foster capacity development through teams of individuals in

a single organization, and to lay at least some foundation for institutional enhancement through working with teams from two or more organizations simultaneously, had pointed to the potential of ICT to augment established approaches to capacity development. The possibilities of organizing conferences and seminars either within a country or between two and more countries, without the participants having to be assembled in a single venue, had already been in use for several years. Steady improvements in technologies had opened up opportunities that the FTI Task Team for Capacity Development should explore vigorously.

In terms of broader policy, within the demands created by the MDGs and EFA targets there was a need to distinguish priorities between population groups and to introduce some form of positive discrimination in favour of those on the slow tracks to both poverty reduction and UPC. These groups comprise, as is well-known, the poorest of the people who live in the rural spaces. They include the 800 million who are still illiterate and composed mainly of rural women. In the eyes of many ministers of education, the education and empowerment of these people remains a major challenge. Indeed, the Beijing meeting of the High Level Group reflected the resolutions of many previous ministerial conferences, when it recommended that ERP should be incorporated as a permanent priority in the FTI. The ERP Flagship had been pursuing this, but was a relatively small initiative by 270 members to close a very large gap. In contrast, UNESCO was on the Steering Committee of the FTI and the ERP Flagship was a UNESCO initiative. These facts suggested that the Organization should work with the FTI Task Team for Capacity Development on how they might follow up the Beijing resolution through developing the capacities of these very poor rural people to claim the education to which they and their children were entitled.

The course of the discussion reflected some concern and even frustration about how donor agencies worked together. Despite progress in SWAp, lead agencies, sleeping partners, pooled budgets, basket funding, budget support and the like, real co-ordination still proves elusive. Donors have not yet learnt

how to communicate in a way that would create an upward virtuous spiral of capacity enhancement. While strategies like ‘cascade’ and ‘cluster’ training certainly did help to spread capacity improvement more rapidly, they were vulnerable to dilution and experience with them had not so far indicated the preconditions for them to work properly or where they were reliably successful. These issues were pursued in the discussions that followed on ‘absorption capacity’.

### **Capacity and service delivery in education: rising to the challenge**

Every year during the past decade, some 70,000 African professionals have left the continent to earn their living elsewhere. They represent the loss of the very capabilities that are necessary for

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national capacities to plan, manage and implement development; that is, the very capacities that the donor community is trying to foster. One reason is that their countries cannot use their skills appropriately, while a second is that their countries cannot offer them the standards of living that they can enjoy elsewhere. Both reasons are fundamentally rooted in issues of governance. On the one hand, styles of leadership and management can frustrate the exercise of capabilities, while on the other hand poor economic policies can cause stagnation and even declines in real incomes. Slowing and reversing this ‘capacity drain’ will then be indispensable for the sustainability of capacity development. It will necessarily entail capacity change on both management and policy fronts at the broad national level in addition to whatever capacity development takes place in organizations, teams and individuals.

Reaching the MDGs and EFA targets also depends on faster economic growth. It will depend, too, on the management and implementation skills to translate growth into basic services that can reach poor people. That will of course require the capacities to design and implement better economic policies, as well as increases in the range of capacities to deliver the services. In addition, the period 2002-2010 will see the largest ever increase

in development assistance, from US\$79 billion to US\$129 billion, a rise of 69 per cent. In Africa, the rise will be 100 per cent, from US\$25 billion to US\$50 billion. Although part of the projected increases will go to emergency aid, debt relief and technical assistance, the net disposable resources for development programmes will nevertheless reach record levels. The capacities to use them to achieve the desired development outcomes will need to be expanded commensurately. For its part, the education sector in every country must ensure that these increased resources are translated into tangible human development outcomes.

The Rome and Paris High Level Forums and Paris Declaration of 2005 provide a framework for this. Ensuring the translation was to be built on a platform of five principles. The leading principle was that the partner country must have and feel that it has full ownership of the plans for and implementation of the development in view. The second and third principles applied to the donors: They were to see that their approaches and procedures were harmonized among themselves, and also aligned with the processes of the partner country, so that the transactions costs were kept to an essential minimum. The fourth and fifth principles applied equally to the partner countries and donors. They required management for results and mutual accountability.

In line with these principles, the donors would work to make ODA more effective by using the systems of the partner country, rather than requiring the latter to adopt new systems. They would also work to strengthen rather than dissipate a partner's capacities, by avoiding parallel implementation structures such as special or *ad hoc* Project Implementation Units. Donors would in addition make ODA more predictable, so that partners could plan for longer terms and would cease to tie their disbursements to the purchase of goods and services from their own national sources. Taken together, these measures should reduce the multiple drains on a partner's operational capacities and thereby enhance its capacity to absorb ODA to good effect.

Alongside mutual accountability between donors and partners, the latter would work to make services such as education more directly accountable to their actual clients. To that end, they would devise ways of developing the capacities of clients, poor and non-poor, to hold the providers of services accountable for the actual provision and quality of the service. In education, the most obvious examples would be the ability of poor, even unschooled, parents to call school teachers to account for unduly frequent absences, or the ability of head teachers to call district or regional offices to account for the funds to purchase instructional materials.

Although it might be early days to expect results from these resolutions and declarations, there are some promising instances of action. In regard to the principle of harmonization, Tanzania has devised a government-led Tanzania Joint Assistance Strategy (TJAS) that challenges donors to live up to the Paris 2005 Harmonization Commitments with:

- efficient division of labour among donors;
- use of country systems;
- continued shift toward budget support; and
- flow of all donor resources through the government's budget.

A second example at a more international level is the FTI. Despite delays and certain disappointments, it is proving to be a dynamic and effective platform for harmonizing, aligning and co-ordinating the contributions of 30 donor partners. It is in fact global action anchored at country level.

With regard to the drive to give more direct support to beneficiaries and enable them to hold service providers to account, there is encouraging evidence from four countries:

**India:** The **Elementary Education Project** allocates funds to decentralized project entities through state societies. Actual expenditures under the project have exceeded project estimates and reached US\$400 million in less than two years.

**Mozambique:** The **Direct Support to School Programme** gives each school US\$175-\$3,000 depending on size. Information programmes have been run on community radios and local radios in vernacular languages, so that each school and its catchment community know what they are due. For each tranche of money paid to the school, a small handbook with detailed forms has been given to be completed and signed by the school council and head teacher. Mutual accountability between the school and its community on the one hand and the local offices of the Ministry of Education on the other is thus achieved.

**Kenya:** The **Primary Education Project** disburses funds directly to schools. This has enhanced ownership and built the capacities of teachers in procurement, financial management and conservation, and use of instructional materials. The guidelines provided by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology to schools on the use of the funds have been effective in assisting schools in managing them. As regards absorptive capacity, primary schools utilized 78 per cent of the funds available between 2002 and 2004. This good start suggests that developing absorptive capacity will not pose a long-term problem.

**Yemen:** The **Social Fund for Development** enabled the Ministry of Education to reduce the unit cost per school by some 75 per cent from US\$476 to US\$126.

The summary indications so far for good practice to encourage the endogenous development of capacity in politically stable countries are:

- stay focused on results:
  - *sustained improvement in country outcomes*
  - “from day one to day done”;
- take action at three levels:
  - in countries – *where results are achieved*
  - within agencies – *to be more effective partners*
  - in partnership – *to harmonize and co-ordinate support;*

- governments must become competitive employers of their skilled workforce:
  - enhanced compensation arrangements and Project Implementation Units that parallel or duplicate local structures should be avoided; and
- work with existing institutions.

As would be expected, the indications are somewhat different for those states currently regarded as ‘fragile’. Such regimes do not receive sufficient ODA or aid from other sources. Furthermore, the aid that they do receive tends to be highly volatile and unpredictable. Effective co-operation and capacity development with societies tends to use local rather than national institutions and social capital. The principle, ‘Build from the ashes of conflict!’ applies. Direct assistance to households and communities seems best and can usually be channelled through civil society, the private sector and independent services. Particular social sectors like education and health need to be carefully ring-fenced, and the challenge of identifying and selecting activities with the highest poverty payoff is made more difficult by the usually weak capacity for monitoring results. ‘Performance-based aid’ with all the problems it entails, may then be the most prudent way forward when the state is fragile.

### **Capacity development and education quality: caught between donor commitments and absorption capacity**

The streams of recent lessons about effective capacity building and increasing the effectiveness of aid and parallel declarations of goals and targets for development in general and education in particular have helped to elicit promises and commitments of very large sums of money from the donor community. For example, the UK has promised US\$15 billion for education over the next 10 years, while the Netherlands have committed close to US\$1 billion in 2007 alone for basic education and Germany has promised some US\$150 million annually for the same sub-sector. In fact, the DAC Working Party on Statistics has reported

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that between 1995 and 2004 there has been a trend of increasing aid to basic education.

While these are very welcome steps, they have brought in their train a few dilemmas. Reviews have shown that some countries have been unable to spend their disbursements: In the jargon, they have not been able to absorb and apply the resources available to them. Other countries have misspent at least part of their allocations, a symptom that non-official capacities have been able to capture what the capacities of the education sector were unable to absorb and use in a timely manner.

On the part of the donors, there has been too much emphasis on plans and ensuring that the criteria for the FTI ‘seal of approval’ were satisfied, and too little attention to implementing the plans. There has also been too much emphasis on assuring the inputs for education and too little attention to the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom.

If the focus is widened to education and poverty reduction, it is clear that it is still mainly the poor who do not have access to affordable education. It is also clear that the educational outcomes in terms of skills and knowledge are worse in schools that cater for the poor than in those that cater for the non-poor. Part of the reason for this is simply that those who deliver the educational services to the poor do not deliver well and in effect fail their clients. The technical competence of teachers assigned to schools in poor and remote areas tends to be lower than average, and the support given to them in terms of instructional materials and tools inferior. The social distance between the education professionals – teachers and their supervisors – and their client communities tends to make the former insufficiently responsive to the situations and requirements of the latter. It also tends to weaken, if not nullify, official measures to enhance the accountability of educational services to their clients. Absentee rates among teachers in schools serving the poor, especially the rural poor, therefore continue to be higher than average, and some head teachers and their colleagues continue to practise various forms of corruption to the disadvantage of their poorer pupils. There tends to be little

evaluation of either outcomes or performance, so that there is little incentive for teachers or supervisors to innovate and productivity remains stagnant.

In the face of this catalogue of shortcomings and malfunctions, if the increases in aid are to lead to better service delivery and better basic education for the poor, the response will need to be more than a simple increase in the supplies of skilled personnel such as teachers, head teachers, supervisors, administrators, planners and statisticians. Such increases are obviously essential. Without them, the returns on the additional budgets will decline. In addition, however, the organizations for which they work will need to become more effective and the institutional ethos that governs their behaviour towards their jobs and their clients will require reorientation. Without these transforming ingredients, the rising volume of aid for basic education will be unlikely to bring about much benefit for the poor.

Since the Dakar World Forum in 2000 and the launch of the FTI in 2002, the drive to mobilize the finance required to achieve UPC has tended to dominate the discussion. The Paris Declaration of 2005, for instance, does stress capacity development, but puts the emphasis on capacities for financial management and transparent procurement. Any discussion of capacity development that has to do with service delivery in all areas and at all levels tends to be exceptional.

In that light, three challenges face the educators of the FTI countries and their donor supporters. The first could be called 'more of the same'. More classrooms have to be added to existing schools, more schools must be built to serve more poor and rural communities, more textbooks have to be produced and distributed, more teachers need to be trained, more supervisors and administrators must be trained to support the teachers, more teacher trainers have to be trained, more teacher training colleges need to be built, and so on for all functions of an education system. However, even though 'more of the same' might sound simple and routine, experience has shown that it, too, requires considerable capacities of planning, organization and implementation. It constitutes a challenge and should not be underestimated.

The second challenge is to enhance institutional performance throughout the entire education system. This is more difficult than ‘more of the same’, for it necessarily involves eliciting better performances from central ministries of education and their many departments at one end, from teachers in classrooms at the other end and from decentralized institutions such as school councils, district offices and teacher training colleges in the middle. Figuring out how to deal with this challenge to capacity development in different societies and cultures is the main path to achieving improved learning outcomes from basic education – indeed, from all education – for the poor, as well as for the non-poor.

Necessarily involved in the first two challenges, and especially in the second, are a series of changes in attitudes, norms, skills sets, practices and so on. The third challenge is then to manage these changes so that they are productive and not so disruptive as to cause chaos, provoke revolt or induce paralysis. Change management is now recognized as an essential set of skills in any effort at reform.

It is here that technical support might be helpful. Technical advisers should of course be people who know how to develop the capacities of their counterparts through acting as catalysts, facilitators, coaches and enablers. Such a role requires not only sufficient technical competence in managing change in a given sector, but also considerable intercultural competence. Identifying and recruiting people with that mix of skills are critical tasks for the managers of education systems and for their donor supporters.

Donors need to see that adequate modalities of co-operation are in place to support responses to the three challenges. The guiding principles for donors should be flexibility to respond to changes in needs and complementarity to ensure that what one donor contributes works to reinforce and enhance the contributions of other donors. Baskets of funding from several donors, budget support, technical co-operation, pooling technical assistance, and allowing for long-term, short-term and more flexible uses of technical assistance have all proved helpful in ensuring that aid is used to good effect. What is now needed

for the education sector is a clear concentration on capacity development at all its levels and in all its important areas.

### **The capacity gap: an urgent matter but a long-term issue**

The capacity gap is part of the poverty trap, with no short-term or easy solution. Even weak economies have education systems that enable at least a few of their people to acquire the knowledge

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and competences that constitute the kinds of capacities needed for development and the reduction of poverty. However, these economies do not generate the financial resources to retain the capacities that they create – earlier Ruth Kagia noted the capacity drain. Highly-skilled professionals can compete in the international labour market, but governments calibrate the salaries and benefits of public and teaching services within the norms of local labour markets and GDP per capita. It is thus difficult to implement public service reforms that provide attractive incentives for highly-skilled professionals and managers while keeping the overall wage bill under control. As a result, institutional capacity continues to be weak and to constrain economic growth, as well as educational expansion and development.

The difficulties of building capacity in unfavourable economic contexts mean that the process is less technical and more political, since it calls for strong political leadership and good governance. In its turn, good governance requires as an essential ingredient mechanisms of social control that can insist on accountability. To achieve effective social control – and thus a major step in institutional development – it will be indispensable to empower civil society. In effect, capacity development becomes an issue of political economy.

With regard to education and in particular to the FTI, it is true that some countries endorsed for the FTI have shown weak capacity in absorbing and using the funds made available to them – quite apart from the fact that mobilizing the funds has taken more time than expected. There is a question, however, as to whether the failure to take up funds is due more to weak

capacity on the part of the countries or to the transaction costs imposed by the donor community, which of course necessarily absorb part of the capacity that would otherwise be available to use the funds. There is no consensus in the international community on the explanation for the bottlenecks or on where responsibility for them lies. As far as the French experience is concerned, using budget support or pooled funding to promote development in the education sector was introduced only recently in French-speaking countries in Africa. As yet, there is therefore no clear evidence as to whether these steps have lowered transaction costs and increased absorption capacities.

Connected with the issue of transaction costs is the introduction of 'programme budgets' – i.e. budgets based on and derived from the results expected from a programme. These certainly constitute a step forward in clear planning and accounting, but have proved far more difficult to elaborate and implement, especially where the national budgets are drawn up by categories of expenses. They are in effect an additional burden on already inadequate and over-stretched capacities. In addition to this more difficult formulation of a budget is the frequent requirement that countries furnish programme reports and sector reviews twice a year, straining capacity even further. There are also questions as to whether the timeframes for reports on locally spent money are appropriate and take into account the performance of existing auditing processes.

An indirect transaction cost – again impinging on capacity – is coping with the mixed signals that donors sometimes give out. On the one hand, when donors in the form of embassies are engaged in political dialogue at the local level, they tend to be 'soft'. This does not really help governments to make difficult choices and reach consensus with civil society when sensitive reforms are needed. On the other hand, when donors are in the form of sector specialists, they tend to demand so much more by way of detail that they could be accused of micromanaging, while their tendency to set up multiple working groups to look after different aspects of a programme takes a further toll on capacity. Aside from this, the timeframe that the donors joined in supporting

the accomplishment of the Dakar targets and MDGs may well have forced some countries into unrealistic planning that adds to the overload on their capacities and may well lead to much unnecessary frustration.

The intent to have donors harmonize their approaches and requirements is of course to be welcomed as an important means to reduce the transaction costs of ODA and relieve the loads on the capacities of partner countries. However, the concept is still often more of an idea or an aspiration than real, partly because earlier arrangements have not been properly replaced. Bilateral funding agreements between donors and partners are legally binding, while memoranda of understanding between donors are not, so that the former necessarily take precedence (as a side observation, it can be remarked that reaching agreement on memoranda of understanding can turn out to be a tiresome and almost meaningless process when the result turns out to be based on the lowest common denominator that offers little relief, if any, to the capacities of the partner country).

Reaching harmonization has also been hampered by difficulties on the part of some donors in coming to a consensus on how to deal with fiduciary risk. Moreover, when official audits or protests from civil society have pointed to issues of corruption, it has not always been easy for development partners to agree on how to react constructively to the problem.

These criticisms of the adverse impacts that donors have on what are often the overloaded capacities of their partners' education and financial systems – and thus on assessments of 'absorption capacity' – raise the question of what donors might do to mitigate and reverse these unfortunate effects.

In the first place, more attention to the institutional and political aspects of capacity development would be productive: Aspects such as leadership, governance, in-country political dialogue and possible incentives for change would all be worth studying. In complement, support for the involvement and empowerment of civil society could be helpful in reaching wide consensus on sector policy, encouraging more transparent financial accountability,

strengthening participatory school management and also prompting training programmes to help people elected to office on parents' and teachers' associations to take a more confident and competent part in affairs.

Such an approach necessarily implies support for forms of decentralization and an analysis of where and to what extent decentralization would be most helpful. Which functions would best be left with the central ministry of education, which should be passed to the regions or districts and which delegated to the schools? Whatever is agreed, the sector plan or SWAp had better not omit provision to develop the necessary capacities of the actors at each level of decentralization. This could well involve training local actors on a very large scale – a substantial challenge! But without it, and without providing for action and responsibility, capacity will not develop.

Development partners could also look inside themselves to see how they could simplify things and, taking a baseline, agree on what fiduciary and reporting requirements would be currently realistic, and how these requirements could be made more demanding over time. In the first years of implementing a SWAp, for instance, simple output indicators could be monitored. As activities reach their stride, the donors could ask that wider outcomes be included in the monitoring and make it clear that they understand that annual variations are normal and not always symptoms of an established trend. Using surveys to help monitor outcomes and asking for the findings to be discussed with civil society will not only help entrench accountability more thoroughly, it will also help develop capacity in organizing surveys, analyzing the data and using the findings to promote informed and balanced reforms. During a sector review, donors could ease the load on a partner country's capacity by agreeing on just a limited number of priority recommendations and following them up.

Donors could help, too, if they could agree to ensure that capacity development is at the core of sector development programmes. They could do this by working with their partners to specify identifiable objectives and indicators in the logframe of a SWAp. They could also help identify

components and modalities for implementation that would maximize the development of capacities within the public administration and civil society. Depending on fiduciary risk, channelling as much aid as possible through budget support would help foster ownership and, with it, capacity development through the planning, implementation and monitoring of programmes (it is as well to note here, however, that budget support is not really appropriate for hiring consultants for occasional technical assistance. A better instrument for the purpose would be retaining the modalities traditionally used to bring in temporary help for projects, preferably through multidonor pool funds for capacity development).

However sound and acceptable such ideas may be, a few questions remain. For one, if we are convinced that leadership and good governance are essential for successful capacity development, what kinds of pressures can donors exert to move governments to improve governance? And if political leadership and political stability happen to be lacking in a given country, what options are open to donors to help capacity development? On the donors' side, how might their administrators and financial staff be persuaded to pay as much attention to capacity development as to disbursement ratios, especially in countries with absorption capacities that seem to be relatively low in comparison with others? Finally, to turn the focus around completely, how might donors be brought to examine their own deficiencies of capacity and to remedy them, at least by having more qualified staff with more time to respond to the needs and demands for capacity development in their partner countries?

## **General discussion of capacity building and absorption capacity [2]**

There was some discussion on the meaning and implications of the phrase 'absorptive capacity'. Some participants were not clear as to the exact nature of the problem: Did it indicate only the capacity to use funds and other resources? In that case, given that management capacities differed between countries and even between ministries and departments in a country, did the

phrase imply difficulties of implementation on the part of an education system? If that was the intent, the phrase might involve a neglect of political issues, which needed to be taken into account but were often overlooked.

Or did ‘lack of absorptive capacity’ hint that the cause lay more on the side of the donors? Were they pumping in too much money and demanding too rapid an accounting for it, so that their disbursement rates appeared relatively low? For instance, the call for indicators that would show educational progress within three years was probably unrealistic, as was forecasting excessively rapid improvements in net enrolment ratios. It is possible that too many conditionalities and too many reviews absorb so much capacity that the capacity to implement plans is compromised. If that is the case, systems need to be simplified.

While it is certainly possible that part of the fault lay with donors’ requirements, and while it is certainly true that some countries have sufficient capacity to meet those requirements, it is also true that other countries do not have institutions and organizations with the capacities to deal with even reasonable conditions. For instance, the governments of Guatemala and Peru had felt constrained to refuse loans and grants from Germany on the ground that they did not have the capacity to satisfy some of the conditions. It is also the case that discussions elsewhere of what capacities need to be developed tend to revolve around people in the higher levels of the organizational and policy-making hierarchies. Discussions here had made it clear that developing capacity among mid-level personnel in regional and district offices, as well as among teachers in the classrooms, is as important as the need to ensure that every link in a chain is reliably strong.

The point acquires added force in light of the quest for more effective decentralization, more local autonomy, better assessment of attainments and outcomes and more accountability. These desiderata require capabilities and capacities, and the example of Uganda suggests that they constitute a good route for developing better education systems. Encouraging and developing the capacity to track expenditures from the central ministry of education

through to the schools led to a dramatic improvement in the percentage of allocated funds actually getting through to their intended destinations. Prior to the tracking system, only 20 per cent percolated down to the schools. When the tracking system was functioning, 80 per cent made it through the intermediate levels to the schools, despite continuing problems with the procurement system. Indeed, where Uganda's Ministry of Education was once ranked as the second most corrupt institution in the country, the reform of the disbursement system led to its being perceived as the most honest.

However, quite apart from capacity *per se*, three reasons stand in the way of the absorption or use of resources. One is the central ministries of education: When resources are channelled through them, they tend to act as bottlenecks that slow rather than facilitate progress. Second, if the ministries of finance and education are not ensuring that teachers are receiving even their salaries, there is little point in trying to help schools directly, as their staff are too demoralized to put the resources to use. The third block lies in dysfunctional local procurement systems that can paralyze the use of resources. Governments and donors need to create the room for education systems to actually use what is available. However, it is recognized that the mix and balance of influence between the factors are very country-specific, so that donors and their partners need to pay explicit attention to creating room for a particular education system to manoeuvre appropriately in making optimum use of additional resources.

In that connection, it is clear that when governments – governments as a whole and not just the ministry of education – wish to be effective, then donors see that blocks, whether of capacity or of other factors, tend to weaken, while success emerges. Brazil and Uganda are two recent examples.

A query was raised in regard to the point that countries may need expanded capacity even to do 'more of the same', i.e. build more schools, produce more texts and so on: Would not 'doing more of the same' contradict the current policy of trying to put the 'country in the driving seat'? In actual fact, the contrary is more often the case. Governments and ministries of

education usually want more schools built and more textbooks produced and there is a good case for donors to help with construction and production. If more teachers are wanted to staff an increasing number of schools, then donors should help produce them through new capacities in terms of teacher education institutions and universities. At the same time, in countries where average teacher salaries are high in relation either to GDP per capita and or to average earnings in the wage and salary sector, donors can suggest that the correct policy framework for producing more teachers is to engage them on contract terms. The proper questions are where does a country need more of the same and what capacity needs to be built to handle more of the same.

On the other hand, there are occasions when ‘more of the same’ causes donors to demur. A case in point was the desire of the Ministry of Education in Malawi to construct more boarding schools and to do more for them in the way of equipment and facilities. However, none of the donors was convinced of the cost-effectiveness of boarding schools. Despite their wish to put the country in the driving seat, all thought it might be better for the country to discuss options with the government that would make more schools available to more people in the country at a lower average cost. The inference must be that putting the country in the driving seat does not entail an obligation to agree with a particular government on every issue.

Putting the country in the driving seat and agreeing with the government is likely to be easier where a minister of education was left in office long enough to give the ministry stability and a clear sense of direction. Brazil is an example where such stability of policy has enabled resources to be distributed more equitably across the country, across social strata and between levels of education. ‘Absorption capacity’ tends not to be a problem in such countries. Indeed, the effects went wider, as education expenditure had turned out to be the main factor in reducing the country’s Gini co-efficient in income inequality. By way of comparison, China is a good performer in economic terms, but what has been happening in basic education is really not known, as

the education statistics were suspect – apart from those for higher education, which was indeed an area of impressive achievement.

Although the principle of putting the country in the driving seat is sound, it does raise the issue of how the international community should work with a given government on responding to what might be called global issues, if the government itself is either not aware of an issue or chooses not to address it. An example is the HIV and AIDS pandemic, when many governments declined to engage with the question. The pandemic, other health problems and, increasingly, climate change were moving the international community to advocate action through education systems. If a government and its country are not inclined to view any of these questions as of any relevance to themselves, how can the necessary capacity be developed to use education to prepare people to deal with them?

Somewhat akin to this point is an important aspect of ‘absorption’ that the presentations did not address, namely the absorptive capacities of the labour market and of the education system. How are graduates from different levels of the education system being absorbed into one or the other? Not every young person can be expected to have the abilities to set up and run her or his own business. Should the education system therefore provide for more technical education to fit more young people for employment by others? In light of the rather less-than-satisfactory history of efforts at relevant technical and vocational education in many countries, how might the international community assist partner governments to develop the capacities to assess, design and to deliver the kinds of education that would be most productive?

The concluding mood of the discussion was to see the glass still half-empty, not half-full. For instance, pooled funding is still not working in the countries of French-speaking Africa. Moreover, France has offered budget support to the government of Niger, although the World Bank had thought the step too risky. The government did spend the money, but the problems that arose through the procurement processes received such adverse publicity

and comment from the media and civil society that disbursements had to be suspended. The two governments are now engaged in working out a solution.

The main challenge is to find shorter and surer routes to get money to the schools in forms that benefit the students and their learning. It is right to abolish fees for primary education, but that left the schools with no resources for materials or maintenance. There are too many examples of money given to governments that does not reach the schools, much less the students. As was stressed earlier, there was a need to empower local people, that is, to develop their capacity to call educators and their supervisors and administrators to account.

A question that was raised but not pursued concerned the characteristics of ‘fragile states’. Were they the states that were judged to possess weak implementation capacity? Were their standards of governance thought to be too low? Were they judged to be more liable to violence? Were they the states emerging from civil war? Or did a combination of all these characteristics qualify them to be termed ‘fragile’?

## *Theme 4*

# Monitoring the follow-up of Dakar

As the title of this chapter suggests, the two presentations and subsequent discussion looked at progress towards the goals and targets agreed on at the World Education Forum in Dakar in April 2000.

### **A global review of progress since Dakar: 2008 EFA report concept**

In April 2000, 164 countries committed themselves to achieving six goals under the umbrella of Education for All. One of those goals – gender parity in primary and secondary enrolments – was set for 2005, while the other five were to be attained by 2015. The international community pledged to support the effort under the rubric that no country with a credible plan would lack the necessary resources to implement it. Regular monitoring of progress was demanded, along with improvements on the scientific quality of previous evaluations of EFA. In response, the EFA Global Monitoring Report (GMR) was set up.

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In compiling reliable, comparable quantitative and qualitative data on educational progress, the report is able to highlight effective policies and strategies as well as to draw attention to emerging issues and challenges. In this, it is able to use case studies and country comparisons for richer illustration. In effect, it provides a bridge between the research and policy communities. It is also able to monitor international commitments and thus to hold the global community and donor agencies accountable for delivering on their promises. The information that the GMR marshals and disseminates makes it a significant tool for assessment, reference and advocacy.

Funded by seven bilateral aid agencies – from Denmark, France, Germany, Ireland, Norway, Sweden and the UK – as well as by UNESCO,

the GMR is independent and developed annually by a multinational, interdisciplinary team that is based at UNESCO. It commissions research papers, online consultations and literature reviews. Appreciating the need for dissemination and communication, the GMR issues translations in six UN languages and summaries in additional languages, and organizes launches on global, regional and national bases. In addition to the book or 'hard copy', the GMR produces a CD-Rom along with a customized tool to access its statistical annexes. It aims to inform not only national policy-makers, planners and donor agencies, but also NGOs, civil society, advocacy groups, researchers, academia and the media.

The sixth GMR, dated 2008 but due out in October 2007, will be the mid-point issue. It will assess progress made in the seven years between April 2000 and April 2007 and estimate what can be expected in the remaining eight years up to 2015. Its four sections will start with a review of how the education goals have evolved since Dakar in terms of meanings, strategies and approaches, and an outline of significant changes in terms of economic, demographic, health, governance or other trends that have had implications for the achievement of the EFA goals. The impacts of shocks like the 2004 tsunami in the Indian Ocean or outbreaks of war, whether civil or international, will also be analyzed.

The second section will examine in detail advances toward all six EFA goals, particularly in 'off-track' countries. There will be a special focus on equity, with sub-national analyses of disparities in regard to educational opportunities for marginalized and disadvantaged children, youth and adults. Stronger emphasis will be put on three issues: the third EFA goal, 'Ensure that the learning needs of young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes'; the completion of eight years of schooling, i.e. 'basic' education or six years of primary followed by two years of lower secondary education; and national financing of education plans.

The third section will follow with an analysis of the efforts of governments to achieve the goals they have undertaken and how the international community has supported them. On the side of governments, actual action on obstacles to the demand for and supply of education, on improving the governance of education systems and on implementing declared policies will be a main focus. Within that, issues of education quality, equity and gender equality, child labour, user fees, teachers, financial resources, civil society involvement in policy formation, HIV and AIDS, and relationships with donors will all feature. On the side of the international community, all actors will fall in the purview – bilateral, multilateral and international NGOs. The volume of financial and other aid for education will of course be a main topic, but the quality of aid in terms of predictability, harmonization and modalities that minimize the load on the capacities of partner countries, and patterns of disbursement will also feature. The review will also revisit the education financing gap.

The final section will attempt to indicate the agenda for accomplishing the EFA goals. It will suggest the kinds of strategies that could obviate any remaining obstacles and maximize progress. It will also estimate the extent to which individual countries will achieve their goals by 2015 and under what conditions.

The process by which the GMR will fulfil these tasks will involve a number of substantive background papers examining key issues that to date have not received adequate attention. Language and education, non-formal education, post-basic and post-secondary education, strengthening education systems through better governance and possibly through involving the private sector, equity, the impacts of emergencies and conflicts, working within fragile states, and responsiveness to developments in ICT are all likely candidates. Complementing the papers will be online consultations on key issues, probably more targeted in terms of participants than hitherto and linked as far as possible to UNESCO's regional reviews.

A consultative reference group will also be established to provide general advice and act as a critical reference point. Drawn from persons with relevant experience of working for EFA and from different EFA constituencies, the group will be expected to play a key role in building and sustaining momentum for the 2008 GMR. It will convene on three occasions and will help ensure that the UNESCO General Conference receives the mid-term GMR in October 2007.

### **From data to policy: challenges for monitoring progress in education**

Albert Motivans  
*UIS*

The reasons why we need data on education and why we need comparative data are obvious to any education planner. In the first place, data enable the formulation of policies that are based on empirical evidence. They also enable managers and policy-makers to monitor how well systems, schools and classrooms are functioning and how well children are learning; and help ensure that human rights are indeed met. For their part, comparative data enable education planners to set benchmarks and inform, even drive, efforts at reform. They also permit intraregional exchange and learning. This presentation will look only at comparative data, a framework for considering them and the current gaps in the data actually gathered.

In terms of a matrix, a country or given education system can be considered to have a column with four rows: the country or system; the schools; the classrooms; and the learners. Each row would have three areas for data: outputs and outcomes; policy levers; and antecedents. Thus, for the country row, data would be gathered to assess the overall quality of system performance in terms of its outputs and outcomes, to identify the policy levers within the institutional setting, the resource allocations and the policies themselves, and, under the third heading of antecedents, the national, educational, social and economic context. The school row would look for data on institutional performance and the quality of instruction, the learning environment and the characteristics of the school and its community. The

classroom row would look at much the same items as the school row, but would also seek to observe and record teaching and learning practices. The learner row would seek data on the distribution of knowledge and skills, the motivation and engagement of the students, their attitudes and behaviour, and their background characteristics.

The country or system level currently furnishes the most common indicators. However, coverage problems remain: The age of learners by grade, for instance, is still not easy to obtain, nor is the level of private expenditure on education. At the school and classroom levels, there has been little comparative work, but there is scope for multilevel analyses of studies of students' achievements. At the level of the individual learner, there are increasing numbers of studies of achievement, but their quality is unfortunately variable.

To address the gaps, UIS is working to improve the coverage of core data at the country level, with efforts currently focused on teachers and finance. At the levels of service providers and instructional settings, UIS is exploring ways in which comparative data can inform debates on how schools function and on the quality of instruction. At the level of the individual learner, secondary analysis of data collected from each learner is the chief strategy, meaning that assessment tools need to be developed to capture the skills and behaviours that education is expected to enable learners to learn and then adapted to fit several education systems in validly comparable ways.

Apart from its own work on methodologies of data collection and analysis, UIS must of course help UNESCO's member countries to improve their own systems of data collection, processing and use. Its current aim is to help each education system move its data collection up to the next level of data quality and depth. A convenient categorization is to group systems into basic, intermediate and self-sustaining levels.

The basic level would be characterized by a lack of what could be called statistical infrastructure, with little appreciation, commitment or use of data on

the part of the government. Systems at this level would of course feel rather less need for insights from international comparative data.

Systems at the intermediate level would have basic data channels in place and some commitment to using the data for policy-making. However, the data tend to be fragmented across ministries, departments and offices, while their coverage, relevance, quality and reliability would be somewhat less than perfect.

When an education statistics unit reaches the self-sustaining level, it has a stable information system, good links have grown between the producers and users of data, and producers are responsive to the needs of policy-makers and able to cope with more complex demands. Such units tend to use international comparisons widely to help enhance their own data and inform their policy-makers.

When UIS works with the statistics units of a country, the first step is to see if there are new ways of looking at administrative data that are already routinely collected. The next step is to identify useful new indicators, then develop them from the existing administrative data. The third step is to start incorporating other sources of data that are either statutory and normative or derived from surveys. In putting the information before policy-makers and explaining its significance, statisticians today are of course helped by the capabilities of ICT to present their scatter-grams, bar-charts, pie charts and pyramid charts in dramatic and colourful ways.

For instance, lower secondary education – eight years of school – is becoming the global norm, but is not yet universally compulsory, nor does it yet attract universal enrolment. So a regional comparison could break down enrolments by categories (a) where lower secondary education is not compulsory, (b) where it is compulsory, but where enrolments are at less than 90 per cent, and (c) where it is compulsory, but where enrolments are at more than 90 per cent. Translating these statistics into a coloured bar-chart naturally heightens their impact.

Again, three issues that are currently prominent are the actual time that primary school children spend on learning (time on task), the number of hours that teachers actually spend on teaching, and the number of learners whom a teacher has to teach. A scatter-gram by country can dramatically highlight the contrast between, say, Kenya, where the adjusted primary class size is about 65 pupils, but where teachers spend only about 500 hours per year on teaching, and Bangladesh, where the adjusted primary class size is about 25 pupils and where teachers spend about 1,400 hours per year on teaching.

This meeting of the IWGE has focused on ERP, so UIS could use a pyramid chart in five colours to take an entire population of children and young people aged between 6 and 24 years by year group at a given point of time and compare the proportions of urban and rural residents who were attending primary, secondary or higher education, who had left school or who had never been to school at all. The charts for, say, India, Indonesia, Mali or Nigeria would confirm clearly and visually the disadvantages of the rural residents.

By gradually improving the scope, quality, analysis and presentation of such statistics, UIS aims to build up the capacities of UNESCO's member countries as well as to aid the GMR to monitor and discuss progress towards EFA more cogently.

### **General discussion on monitoring the follow-up of Dakar**

Before the discussion of the two presentations, the meeting learnt that the Education Policy and Data Center financed by USAID had used UIS and other sources to compile the basic statistics for primary and secondary education in 70 developing countries to date. This information was now available on the Internet. It would be steadily expanded and regularly updated.

The meeting welcomed the stock-taking nature of the mid-term 2008 GMR and the intent to look at all the goals of EFA, however differently countries operationalized them in their particular circumstances. In particular, participants appreciated the planned inclusion of lifeskills and literacy. The

past six years had seen significant developments in social and individual behaviours in health and hygiene, especially in regard to HIV and AIDS: Tracking them would be useful. Similarly, literacy, despite the 2006 GMR on *Literacy for life*, tended to be a neglected issue and required frequent reminders. In this regard, it would be useful for the 2008 GMR to include a section following up and reflecting on the impact of its five predecessors.

As regards terminology and definitions, it was recognized that reaching consensus on the latter was always difficult, if only because a group being defined views itself differently from the observer trying to define it. However, current and continuous refinements to definitions were making them progressively more precise, clearer and more widely adopted – an important point for international and interregional comparisons.

The quality of data was also an issue – indeed, a perennial one. If national statistics were not too good, how could UIS assure the quality of its products and the accuracy of the GMR? UIS is of course too small on its own to assure the quality of data on a global basis, but it uses two major sources: one being national censuses as adjusted by UN population data and the other being the Ministry of Education. Where discrepancies are detected, UIS questions them and, if they cannot be satisfactorily explained, the data in question are simply omitted. One instance where an apparent discrepancy could be explained concerned ‘out-of-school children’. Using the common international standard of a five or six-year primary course with pupils beginning at the age of six years, UIS defines ‘out-of-school children’ as children of primary school age who are not in school. In a country where the numbers of children actually enrolled in primary schools, plus the children counted as not in school, did not add up to the total number of primary school-age children counted in the census, UIS found the missing number already enrolled in secondary schools – they amounted to some 6 million young people. Now that the Ministry of Education and UIS are alerted to that fact, they can ascertain the numbers of out-of-school children net of those enrolled in secondary schools. The example reflected the fact that the data are in fact getting better, although the

process of improvement may seem excessively drawn-out. It also reflected the growing understanding of how to use them effectively.

There was some concern about the level of aggregation in the statistics. Large countries like China or India were very heterogeneous at the regional, state and even smaller levels, so that national pictures could be very misleading about some areas and populations. There was a particular issue to do with differences between rural and urban populations: Was it not yet possible to look at smaller-than-national aggregates? A particular difficulty in dealing with rural/urban distinctions was the longstanding and continuing lack of a common, universally-accepted definition of what was rural and what was urban. FAO had attempted to formulate one on the basis of distance from a basket of amenities, but had not gained broad acceptance. The UN itself, not one of its specialized agencies, should persist in the effort to identify specific differences between the two populations that should form the basis of an agreed-on definition; perhaps the IWGE should submit a recommendation to that effect. A second difficulty faced by UIS is that often the data made available to it is already been aggregated at the national level: Reversing the process is of course time consuming and costly. A cheaper option is sample surveys, which could denote particular districts as rural purely from their locations.

Sample surveys and observational studies are also needed for issues such as the amount of time that teachers actually spend teaching their pupils face-to-face and how much time pupils actually spend on learning and reinforcement tasks. The studies undertaken by Schleicher and Postlethwaite covered only the 14 poorest countries, which can of course not be assumed to be representative of all the countries now termed 'developing'. Similarly, as regards studying the status of equity in education on whatever dimensions are deemed important, household surveys serve better than routine administrative data. Moreover, studies designed for particular countries or particular populations within those countries could be very useful, even if they are not amenable to more global use: The data they yield could be disaggregated to enable other forms of comparison.

The meeting welcomed the focus on marginalized populations and the search for strategies to reduce their marginalization. In this connection, a point was put that the way in which pyramid charts portray situations can give an impression opposite to that intended. ‘Marginalized’ means being pushed to the margins and normally connotes a minority being squeezed by a majority. Yet the pyramid charts on populations who had never been to school suggested that it was the minority urban populations who had been pushed to the margins and crowded out by their rural majority fellows. If the eight Dakar goals were the starting point, it might then be prudent to rephrase their intent in terms of goals for the marginalized majorities. At its meeting in 2000, the IWGE raised the issue of the marginalization of rural people. Now, it could perhaps urge the UIS to guide countries in formulating indicators for planners of education for rural people and in collecting and analyzing the necessary data.

A connected point was the necessity to disaggregate the marginalized. Rural residents were indeed key, but were not homogeneous populations – rural was plural and different groups of rural people suffered different forms of disadvantage and marginalization. Similarly, the populations of children broadly labelled ‘marginalized and disadvantaged’ needed to be separated out into more precisely-defined groupings. The concern with their marginalization is welcome and must be taken forward into analyses of why they are marginalized and what can be done about it. Connected with this issue is the issue of groups with special needs, for example, indigenous peoples, nomadic and pastoralist peoples and migrant fisher communities. As the UN maintains a permanent forum on such peoples, educators would do well to use their findings and insights into workable approaches to include them in national education systems and closing gaps in meeting EFA goals. What must be borne in mind is that the drivers of exclusion were several and that they differed for different groups both within and between countries.

However, it is of course important to balance concern with exclusion and finding children out of the usual schools with recognition that some parents

may be choosing other sorts of school to educate their children. For instance, studies in four states of India and in Mali are looking within large Muslim communities to understand how parents were making their choices between ordinary state schools, Islamic schools and varieties of private schools. The findings would be distributed to IWGE members in due course.

The meeting was delighted that the 2008 GMR would be examining the topic of private expenditure and private, non-state provision in education. Issues such as the importance of engaging civil society in educational matters or inspiring local actors to take initiatives in education, while maintaining a proper balance of autonomy and accountability, have to date not attracted sufficient attention in major reports. Private provision, whether not-for-profit or for-profit, is probably the most mushrooming sector in education currently, but the heterogeneity of private provision and the mix of financing means that national and international databases had had difficulty in accounting for them adequately. In Pakistan, for example, the biggest portion of public giving through civil society went to education, while in India the many trusts that offered grants and donations for education form a vibrant subsector of their own. There are also private interests in assessment, in conducting examinations and in supplying textbooks – the GMR needs to take all these aspects into account.

An important point was noted. There was much discussion and a certain amount of rhetoric about the possible retreat of the state from providing a full range of education and about competition, and even antagonism, between public and private provision of education. However, what is actually being seen are forms of merging and partnership between the state and private interests, with memoranda of understanding being concluded between governments, NGOs and community schools. This, too, is an issue that the 2008 GMR should examine.

The meeting showed a lively interest in outcomes: What does the world have to show for all the effort and resources that have been poured into education? It is time to shift some emphasis away from processes towards

answering the question: 'To what effect?' Is learning for knowledge societies actually occurring? Is it not true that efforts like SACMEQ and PISA have shown that the average outcomes were actually worse than had been expected by even the more pessimistic of observers and that the gap between successful learners in successful schools and less successful learners in less successful schools was growing wider? The meeting hoped that the GMR had plans to monitor that aspect of education.

The GMR had indeed recognized the importance of outcomes and had been preceded by UNESCO and the World Bank after the Jomtien conference in 1990, but the two organizations had not succeeded in winning the agreement of their member countries. After Dakar in 2000, the GMR itself had actually produced a 17-page concept note on the subject for discussion by its various consultative bodies and stakeholders. The first meeting to seek agreement on which learning outcomes should be observed and how they should be observed failed.

One issue that remains controversial is whether countries should take part in international assessments rather than concentrate their capacities on improving national assessments. International assessments were after all very costly and their content was often not used after they were completed. One possible way forward is to develop a bank of items that covers the ranges of knowledge and skills that are included in different national education systems and leave it to educators to select the items most useful to their own system. Beyond this is the need to develop better handles on the wider impact of programmes on societies and economies. Furthermore, there are too few randomized and well-controlled experiments with, for instance, voucher schemes, or proper cost-benefit studies, to enable the GMR to undertake a full-scale review.

## Theme 5

# Ethics and transparency in education

Since Transparency International and the World Bank opened up discussions in the late 1990s on corruption in the use of public funds for government and for development, IIEP-UNESCO has taken a leading role in studying the issue of ethics and forms of corruption in education systems. This section reports on the findings of the work that it has conducted so far in this area and on the initiatives undertaken in the same field by four other agencies.

### **Ethics and corruption in education: selected findings of IIEP's synthesis report**

“Corruption is a major drain on the effective use of resources for education and should be drastically curbed.” (EFA Dakar 2000)

Jacques Hallak  
Muriel Poisson  
*IIEP-UNESCO*

Since IIEP began its project on ‘Ethics and corruption in education’, there has been a substantial accumulation of information on the subject thanks to the various studies and monographs commissioned by IIEP, as well as to the data collected by the Institute in the course of its work (policy forums, seminars, workshops, study tours, etc.). Most of the information gathered, together with books and reports published by other actors, articles found in the press and other sources are available on ETICO<sup>10</sup> (IIEP’s platform of information on the issue. The accumulation warranted a proper synthesis, *Corrupt schools, corrupt universities: What can be done?* (2007). This report takes stock of all the information collected to date and identifies clear strategic guidelines for educators and administrators.

The opportunities for corruption in education systems occur in four broad areas of expenditure: capital investment; capitation grants; teacher salaries;

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10. [www.unesco.org/iiep/eng/focus/etico/etico1.html](http://www.unesco.org/iiep/eng/focus/etico/etico1.html)

and illegal fees, which include private tutoring. In terms of the public resources involved in these areas of pre-university education, about 80 per cent are in teacher salaries, 10 per cent in capital investments and 10 per cent in current expenditures, such as the purchase of equipment and materials. Illegal fees and private tutoring of course involve the exaction of private resources for what should be publicly-financed services.

In capital investment, the profits of corruption are particularly high in school construction and rehabilitation, in contracts for textbooks and in long-term contracts for services such as school meals. An example of corruption in textbook contracting occurred in the Philippines, where bribes given to regional officials and school divisions can represent as much as 20 per cent of a contract. One result is a critical shortage of textbooks in nearly all 40,000 public schools: In elementary schools, one text can be shared by six pupils and, in high schools, by as many as eight. However, change may be in the wind: A freelance agent working for several textbook publishers was caught handing over a bribe of 3 million Philippine pesos (PHP) and had to answer corruption charges before the National Bureau of Investigation and later the Senate and House of Representatives.

Strategies to counter such corruption involve ensuring the independence and neutrality of the body in charge of the contracting process; establishing internal and external supervisory and control systems of contract implementation; strengthening local procurement centres; making bidding procedures and documents publicly available in a timely manner (potentially using e-procurement); involving civil society organizations and communities (integrity pacts, 'report cards', etc.); and identifying relevant 'red flags' to alert authorities about the potential misuse of resources. This requires capacity building for contracting, and internal and external auditing.

Funds for capitation grants, the second area of opportunity for corruption, are easily diverted into private pockets when the criteria for distributing them are not known or are unclear. In this context, formula funding applied in a context of decentralization or school-based management is often regarded

as a way to increase transparency and accountability. It is assumed that a consistently-applied formula determines what each school is allocated: This is known by the school and can be made publicly available. At the same time, getting closer to the users, promoting participation and building ownership are supposed to promote better relevance to needs and good governance. However, this obviously depends on how formula funding operates in practice, as the introduction of formula funding and delegation of spending decisions *can increase the possibility of fraud, as many more people have direct access to funds*. Moreover, the application of the formula can be distorted by manipulating data. The extent of such diversion can be illustrated from a number of countries: In Uganda in 1995, 78 per cent of non-wage funds failed to reach the schools; in Zambia in 2001, the proportion was 76 per cent; in Tanzania in 1998, 57 per cent; in Ghana in 2000, 49 per cent; and in Peru in 2001, 30 per cent.

The elements of a framework to discourage such corruption include diagnosing budget execution problems (in particular through public expenditure tracking surveys) including delays, leakage, discretion in allocation of resources; organizing direct transfer of funds to the schools; designing a transparent formula (simple but also equitable); checking data collection and verification processes; facilitating training for local and school accountants; implementing internal and external audits (using random sampling of schools); and promoting public scrutiny through better access to information and community mobilization. This shows that there is a need to support public expenditure tracking exercises, strengthen regulatory systems and promote human resource development in school account and audit.

Teachers form the largest proportion of public servants in most countries, so that their salaries represent a sizeable proportion of public expenditures. They also constitute the largest component in a government's education budget, varying from 50-90 per cent. Forms of corruption, whether on the part of teachers or on the part of other education officials, can then have substantial adverse effects. Indeed, misbehaviour on the part of teachers can undermine some of the aims of education with regard to honesty and responsibility.

A well-known fraud is the ‘ghost teacher’, i.e. a teacher listed on the payroll, who either never existed or is no longer teaching. In some Indian states, the salaries of such teachers amount to between 15 and 20 per cent of the payroll – more than the total available for the non-salary running costs of the schools. Ghost salaries go into the pockets of officials or head teachers. In Uganda in 1995, ghost teachers ‘took’ up some 20 per cent of teacher salaries, in Papua New Guinea in 2002 they took up about 15 per cent and in Honduras in 2002 they took up some 5 per cent.

A less obvious form of fraud is excessive absenteeism, which constitutes not doing the work but taking the pay, and thus shortchanging both the government and students. A survey of primary schools in seven countries in 2004 found teacher absentee rates varied between a low of 11 per cent in Peru to highs of 27 per cent in Uganda and 25 per cent in India, with Bangladesh, Indonesia, Papua New Guinea and Zambia hovering around 17 per cent.

Similarly, fraud in credentials affecting recruitment, promotion and retirement or in claiming for overtime work or not declaring sick leave, constitutes taking money from the salaries budget without doing the work for it.

There are forms of corruption that do not directly constitute a diversion of public funds, but do affect the salaries that teachers can dispose of and may therefore adversely affect teachers’ attendance at school or their behaviour in the classroom. One is bribery in gaining appointments, more convenient postings, promotions or even places in in-service training courses, especially those that require international travel. Another is illustrated by the National Education Workers Union in Mexico, which has created a system of patronage including the selling of teaching positions.

The synthesis sets out possible strategies for dealing with all these fraudulent behaviours, e.g. establishing a ‘clean list’ of staff; making personnel functions automatic; setting clear and objective criteria and procedures (competition based on credentials, audit of the certificates and diplomas given

to teachers); and facilitating access to information from within the system in response to requests. One challenge is to support the implementation of Quantitative Service Delivery Surveys (QSDS) and to finance computerized teacher management systems.

Illegal fees and private tutoring constitute the fourth area of opportunity for corruption in education. They illustrate the point that quantitative data on education are not always sufficient to show what is actually happening within an education system. Plans to improve access, quality, equity and efficiency often focus on numbers of teachers by age, grade, status, level of qualification, pupil:teacher ratios and the like, but overlook what might be called the intangible inputs. These include the professional and ethical commitment (or lack of) of teachers and staff – bribes, absenteeism, blackmail, discrimination against colleagues and academic fraud – all of which affect the delivery of education.

Most obviously, illegal fees militate against access and equity, and operate most harshly against the poorest families and children. Their effect may be gauged from the positive, literally overwhelming, way in which the poor of many countries have responded to the abolition of official fees for primary education. An example of the magnitude that illegal fees can reach comes from a report card survey of primary schools in eight ‘upazillas’ in Bangladesh: The fees collected totalled the equivalent of US\$350,000. Less than 1 per cent of this amount came from charges for admission to primary school, so that initial access to school may well have not been affected to any great degree. Two per cent were collected to pay for the entertainment of government officers. The remainder, well over 90 per cent, was charged by head teachers to allow pupils to take two end-of-term and one end-of-year examination to qualify to continue their education. Another form of illegal fees is the acceptance of bribes to admit students to particularly attractive schools.

Private tutoring has been a major phenomenon in East Asia since the 1960s and has been spreading around the world to Africa and Latin America.

In principle, it is not objectionable, except insofar as it allows richer families an advantage that poorer families may not be able to afford for their children. However, fraudulent practices have of course arisen and spread. Most obviously, teachers who tutor privately in their classrooms are using public facilities for private profit. Beyond that, teachers exert pressure on parents to pay for private tuition on the ground that their children cannot keep up with the class. Worse, some teachers shortchange their pupils either by not teaching the curriculum fully or by spending most of class time on pupils' activities rather than on teaching, or by ending classes early. In the worst cases, teachers actually penalize pupils who do not take private tuition – there have been cases where teachers deliberately failed such pupils.

The synthesis considers the measures that have been or could be taken against illegal fees and fraudulent private tutoring, and suggests strategies for eliminating them. It emphasizes in particular the crucial role to be played by self-assessment surveys (including perception and report card surveys) and proper monitoring systems.

To combat all forms of corruption in education, comprehensive strategies must be developed on three bases. The first is creating a reliable regulatory system and then maintaining it. That will require both political commitment and capacity development. The second base is strengthening management capacities to monitor and regulate effectively. The third base is encouraging enhanced ownership by parents and communities through disseminating fuller information about entitlements and procedures, and through establishing mechanisms to enable them to hold teachers and the education system to account.

## **Education financing and corruption: NORAD framework and experiences**

Arne K. Larsen  
*NORAD*

This presentation describes the framework that NORAD has established for addressing governance and corruption, and narrates two experiences with it, one in Tanzania, the other in Bangladesh.

Norway's Public Administration/Civil Service Act lays down the ethical rules and regulations in accordance with which all NORAD staff are expected to work. NORAD itself has set up a special Unit for Governance and Anti-Corruption, along with an internal network for anti-corruption that includes representatives from all units and departments in the agency. Naturally, the Education Unit co-operates closely with the Unit for Governance and Anti-Corruption. In addition, all NORAD staff have been offered training in anti-corruption methodology, while IIEP helped to organize and deliver two training courses, one in Africa and one in Asia, for education programme staff in Norway's embassies.

Externally, NORAD supports international organizations such as Transparency International and the International Organization of Supreme Audit Institutions that are working against corruption, and works with U4, a joint initiative of DFID, NORAD and Sida.

In general terms, NORAD fights corruption through fostering good governance in development co-operation and through devising specific anti-corruption measures, such as anti-corruption clauses in co-operation agreements, participation in public expenditure reviews, public expenditure tracking surveys and financial reviews.

This broad approach can be illustrated in the case of a public expenditure tracking study in 2004 of the funds allocated to the Primary Education Development Programme in Tanzania. The study revealed substantial problems in the system regulating the transfer of funds from the centre to the districts and then to the schools. Prominent in these problems is a lack of knowledge among important stakeholders, including donors, about the financial situation of the programme. The findings provoked a major debate among Tanzania's development partners and led to a meeting convened by the Norwegian embassy with representatives from the Tanzanian government and the donors.

The conclusions were that the study was technically a good piece of work and represented an excellent tool for tracing changes over time. However,

it could have benefited from taking a broader social context perspective, which would have helped to see that documented leakages of funds did not automatically and necessarily prove corruption. Instead, it was clear that all levels in the management system lacked manuals, training and reliable information. The required capacity training had not yet taken place during the period covered by the study. Some of the apparent leakage had occurred due to simple misunderstandings of what was intended or required.

In planning the development of primary education under the broader plan for developing the education sector, a decentralized system was to form the basis for managing and utilizing the funds. This meant that the link to the implementation of local government reform was crucial. In turn, this raised the importance of empowering schools to operate with full information within a decentralized system. Along with that, the relevance of including NGOs in the debate became clear, as they obviously play a role in both education and community empowerment.

There was great interest in repeating the study, but in the larger context of government and not in the context of only a single programme. The development partners would be following up on the tracking study with the Tanzanian government, but the decision as to whether or not to repeat it would of course rest with the latter.

The case from Bangladesh was the Female Education Scholarship Programme. As its name suggests, it proposed to provide financial support directly to individual girls in secondary education so as to enable their families to keep them in school. It laid down a set of criteria for eligibility for support and channelled funds through the banking system and then through the education system to the eligible girls. A number of challenges linked to suspicions of corruption soon arose. On the basis of audit reports, the Norwegian embassy felt it necessary to track the funds from the level of headquarters through to the individual girls and agreed on a strategy for the exercise with the Ministry of Education.

The private accounting company commissioned to carry out a three-month monitoring exercise found that almost none of the girls receiving stipends satisfied the criteria for eligibility. Different actors violated the agreements and no security was provided for carrying the money from the banks to the distributing offices. However upsetting the documentation, it did enable an honest, if difficult, high-level dialogue between the Ministry of Education and the Norwegian embassy. One result was that the Project Director was removed from office. Another was that the exercise was further developed into a system of monitoring disbursing arrangements at individual schools and interviews with beneficiaries, out of which came a strategy called Continuous Audit.

Using this experience, the Norwegian embassy initiated a similar exercise in another project that it supported. It revealed first and foremost a severe lack of capacity and competence at most levels of implementation, with consequent delays and gaps in the delivery of educational services. As a result, Norway had to impose a condition of improved financial management, if it was to offer further support. Also, when a second sector programme in education was in preparation, a financial review was undertaken with the aim of making recommendations for a risk-reduction strategy in the governance and management of the programme. Its five major recommendations to reduce the risks of corruption were:

1. Install a proactive approach to increasing transparency and information to support public accountability at all levels.
2. Increase the use of mass media to generate awareness of the organization and financing of the primary education system, the regulations of the stipend programme, charging school fees and the transparency of school finances.
3. Develop procedures and regulations to improve the objectivity of staff appointments, promotions and transfers, including open marking and an appeals procedure.

4. Develop more radical approaches to textbook procurement to undermine the stranglehold exerted by the printers' cartel and consider introducing technical steps to enable better stock control.
5. Make it a priority to review the stipend programme after one or two years to confirm that the use of the funds is proper and in line with the agreed criteria.

### **Ethics and transparency in education: An institutional and UNICEF rights-based approach**

Rhea Saab  
*UNICEF*

UNICEF recently published its medium-term strategic plan, within which it set out its approach to social policy and education. In its drive to improve the lives of children and reduce poverty among them, UNICEF uses a combination of instruments: policy advocacy to promote social policies that are based on evidence and analysis; partnerships with governments, civil society and other UN and international agencies to support such policies; and participation of stakeholders in the groups and communities likely to be affected so as to ensure that the policies take account of their full likely impact. In common with others, UNICEF is pressing for the principles of human rights (with emphasis on the rights of children and women), ethics, universality, non-discrimination, transparency and accountability to be observed and applied in all policies. Its particular mandate requires UNICEF to pay attention to the best interests and views of the child and the adolescent.

As regards education, UNICEF argues that children's right to education should not be limited to a single definition of what education is or entails, but does insist that whatever definition is used keeps open possibilities for developing children's and adolescents' full potential, while at the same time forming the social values that should govern their behaviour. It also insists that the term 'equal opportunities' in education applies not only to access, but also to attendance, attainment and achievement. Bearing in mind the best interests of the child, UNICEF advocates child-centred education that balances the abilities and potential of children, the expectations of their

families and communities, and broader society's vision of its social, political and economic development.

In pursuing these objectives, UNICEF deploys a two-pronged approach at the 'macro' and local levels. At the 'macro' level, it fosters dialogue between government and civil society on aims and priorities for social policy as well as the human rights, ethical principles and norms involved, the kinds of support needed for legislative reforms, and so on. In local contexts, UNICEF fosters the kinds of dialogue that help identify the priorities of communities and their constituent groups, as well as their fears, reservations and objections. In effect, it is a two-track dialogue, from top down and from bottom up.

As regards corruption in general, UNICEF perceives that it exacerbates social exclusion and is an obstacle to overcoming poverty. Reducing corruption and increasing government's accountability should lead to greater credibility and thus legitimacy for state institutions. Here, UNICEF sees that transparency and more and better disseminated information are necessary, but deems them insufficient. They need to accompany greater scope for participation by all stakeholders in public services, along with greater powers of oversight. Such measures should deepen trust in the state's capacity to deliver services. A helpful tool for systematically assessing social accountability is the 'Six dimensions of social accountability' identified by Ackerman in a study for the World Bank: 'incentive structure'; 'accountability for what?'; 'institutionalization'; 'involvement'; 'inclusiveness'; and 'branches of government'.

Three country cases – one from Central Asia and two from Latin America – will help illustrate how UNICEF has worked to implement this philosophy. The Central Asian case involved Mongolia, ranked by Transparency International as 89th out of 159 countries for corruption. The government itself sees corruption as a key problem in the country's development and has the advantage of working with a society with a high rate of literacy. It has launched initiatives that prioritize MDG 9 (human rights, democratic governance and anti-corruption drives). On the other hand, Mongolia is a

society of nomads; a very different context from that of most other countries. What forms of participation, institutions and institutional norms would be helpful? UNICEF is assisting the organization of widespread discussions in an unusually mobile society on the forms of decentralization that would best increase participation, transparency and accountability at a local level and reduce whatever forms of corruption currently affect education.

One Latin American case concerns Chile and the application of the principles of universality, indivisibility and participation. UNICEF data on actual attendance and completion in secondary schools revealed a sharp drop in daily attendance, especially among the poorest students. With the support of UNICEF, the media were used to make the public aware of the problem and to stimulate a wide and open debate among the country's educators and educational stakeholders. Parents were involved in monitoring the kinds of fees that the schools were collecting and in assessing the curricula that their children were following. In response to the findings, the Chilean government launched a programme in mid-2000, 'Secondary School for All'. This programme incorporated curriculum reforms, scholarships for students from poorer families and programmes for children with special needs. A year later, in mid-2001, a survey ascertained that the rates of non-attendance and drop-out had decreased by one third. While that was good, it was clearly not good enough, so that efforts to achieve universal attendance and completion of secondary school are continuing, while bearing in mind that the 'last 5 per cent' will present a particularly difficult range of problems to overcome.

Ecuador provides the second case from Latin America. Here the needs are to ensure that children and young people get their proper priority in forming public policy and to focus on effective mechanisms for accountability. Corruption of various sorts was undermining the legitimacy of state institutions, so UNICEF and a number of international partners worked on how to have the budget monitored and its actual disbursement evaluated through ways that required the participation of wide sections of the citizenry. Promoting a framework of human rights and using the media to alert the population and to

prompt social mobilization, citizens were progressively recruited as monitors and evaluators, while channels were developed to enable children, young people, their communities and civil society to participate in ways that they could see had an effect on policy and its implementation. All this would of course not have been possible without the support of the government.

Besides learning from its own experiences, UNICEF learns from the efforts of civil society, both international – for example, from Transparency International – and national. For instance, in Argentina an NGO was formed by young professionals and others with the intent to contribute to a more just society. It pressed for policies to bring about a more equitable distribution of wealth in the country and ensure equal opportunities for all in education and other fields, as well as for measures to make sure that public institutions were strong and transparent enough to implement social policy without distortion by forms of influence and corruption. A recent success was its influence on the text of the Law on Educational Funding. The original formulation would have resulted in such unrealistic financial goals that the law could not have been implemented in times of economic stagnation. The NGO succeeded in having the financial stipulations made more realistic and capable of implementation even in harsh economic climates. It also succeeded in having an article included to enable close monitoring and the publication of information on how the law was actually being implemented. The Senate of Argentina endorsed the inclusion of both recommendations.

Such experiences have led UNICEF to conclude that accountable political institutions and transparent policy implementation form a necessary condition for the achievement of social rights, including the right to education. A second conclusion is that the capacities of civil society to monitor state policies and institutions do need to be strengthened. Both steps are part of the way forward for tackling corruption. Third, it is important that these experiences be well-documented, so that UNICEF and similar agencies, as well as governments and civil society, can share them and learn from each other.

## **Corruption in education**

Maria Teresa Brassiolo  
*Transparency International*

Transparency International is an organization that came into being precisely in response to endemic corruption in many countries – the World Bank has estimated that bribery amounts to some trillion dollars (US\$1,000 billion) annually, an amount that outweighs ODA and private investment in developing countries by several orders of magnitude. The founders of Transparency International were determined to mobilize resistance to the many forms of corruption, which they defined as the abuse of institutional power to achieve personal benefits. They noted that the poor suffered most from its ill effects, that it undermined trust in government and the institutions of state as well as in democracy, and that it distorted free markets and pushed businesses into vulnerable and risky situations. In response, they established a worldwide, non-profit organization with the vision of making the world free of corruption. Transparency International now has 100 regional chapters that of course form that part of civil society that fights corruption: They measure it and apply proprietary knowhow to abolish it to the degree of zero tolerance.

Education should promote values, attitudes, expectations, knowledge and skills that resist corruption. Indeed, it is a vital and necessary component of any anti-corruption strategy. But in many education systems, corruption is prospering – which seems an exceedingly cynical statement, however true it is. The Global Corruption Report ranks sectors on a 5-point scale, 1 for the least corrupt, 5 for the most corrupt. Its 2005 issue assessed the education sector at 3.0, a full point below political parties, which scored highest at 4.0, and not much higher than NGOs at 2.8. Within the education sector, Iceland came out cleanest at just 1.5, while Nicaragua by contrast was assessed at 4.1.

Transparency International takes the general view that a corrupt school system will create a second-class citizen who is more cynical than responsible: That makes an effective fight against corruption in education mandatory. It argues therefore that every education project should examine each stage

of its design and implementation to identify possible opportunities for corruption. Each project should then use the tools developed by Transparency International to prevent and to punish corruption.

The specific steps proposed by Transparency International are several. They include assessing the leadership qualities of project managers, introducing clear codes of conduct, designing easy mechanisms for accountability, using integrity pacts in contracts for school building or for the supply of equipment all the way through the supply chain from donor country through to final user, and enabling reliable civil society organizations to monitor all stages of the project.

As wage and salary employment is the privilege of a minority in most developing countries, as public services tend to be the largest employers and as teachers tend to form the largest group of public employees, with their personnel costs accounting for 80 to 90 per cent of education budgets, the appointment and management of teachers offer substantial opportunities for corruption. Some forms of it hurt teachers – bribery for appointments, postings and promotions. Some forms, on the other hand, benefit teachers – accepting bribes for school places or for favours in examinations, short-time working to run a private business or second job, excessive absenteeism, insisting on the necessity of private tuition. These possibilities require responses in terms of clear criteria, transparent, easily-checked and well-publicized procedures for appointment, posting and promotion, admission to schools, progression through grades, and so on. They also require that remuneration in the teaching and support services be at least commensurate with analogous public services and adequate in relation to benchmarks such as the current poverty line or GDP per capita.

Transparency International recognizes that, even in the case of a single school donated under a financed contract between a donor and a developing country, guarding against corruption is difficult. The parties involved and stages of the project are many. Each step is vulnerable to corruption if some of the people involved are corrupt. Anti-corruption campaigners then need to

learn how to identify what makes each step vulnerable and from there work out how best to forestall any thought of corrupt practice.

## **Transparency and accountability in the education sector in Eastern European and Central Asian countries**

Indra Dedze  
*Open Society Institute*

OSI views NGOs as the organized voices of civil society that are indispensable for promoting participatory policy processes, helping to set the political agenda, monitoring the process of implementation and advocating for equal opportunities in education and other areas of public concern. In view of the relative poverty of most NGOs in Eastern European and Central Asian countries, OSI has taken on the role of helping them to build their capacities. This it does by developing resource packs in its priority areas, organizing training courses and seminars, and facilitating the exchange of experience through fostering partnerships and networks.

In these countries, the higher education sub-sector has been growing in importance for employment and advancement, and demand for it has been growing correspondingly. This has been accompanied by the development of private institutes of higher education, which are of course in direct competition with state universities. With these growths have come forms of corruption among all the groups involved in higher education – academics, administrators, students, the families of students – and at all stages of courses, from entry to graduation. Surveys in Albania, Armenia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Latvia, Macedonia, Russia and the Ukraine have tended to reveal similar situations, if in varying degrees.

At the admission stage, entrance examination committees have been bribed to allow applicants to qualify; applicants have hired private tutors to take the entrance exams on their behalf; applicants have used fake education credentials to qualify for entry; and parents and officials have used their connections to facilitate the entry of relatives or friends. During courses,

students have used plagiarism of different kinds to satisfy their tutors: Crib sheets, copying from sources on the Internet, hiring ghost writers, handing in the work of fellow students as one's own and falsifying data to suit arguments have all been encountered. Administrators have colluded in covering up the misconduct of students, sometimes because they are international students paying higher fees, sometimes because the procedures for formal charges are very cumbersome and time-consuming, sometimes because gathering the evidence for plagiarism is too difficult. At graduation, in addition to cheating and plagiarism, some students have bribed examiners to let them pass, while some who have had to write dissertations or theses have hired ghost writers or used the work of fellow students. Where diploma mills operate, of course, people buy fake certificates without having to attend a university at all.

Services have naturally arisen to support the market for fraud and plagiarism. Customized term paper writing, ready-made term papers, ghost writers for theses, false credentials, fake high school transcripts, fake letters of recommendation and fake admission letters are all available at prices that many students seem able to afford.

Surveys suggest that no country in Eastern Europe and Central Asia is clear of corruption in higher education, although the incidence does apparently vary. In Russia and Kyrgyzstan, between 60 and 70 per cent of students surveyed admitted to having to resort to some form of bribery, whereas proportions in other countries were lower. Similarly, some 90 per cent of the students surveyed in one country admitted that cheating went on in examinations, whereas in another only 27 per cent thought it did.

In basic education, corruption seems to appear mainly in the form of private tutoring. The main reasons for it seem to be a combination of low teacher salaries and changing examination systems. A Eurydice source (Eurydice, 2003: 5) suggested that the average salary of primary school teachers in well-performing countries was about two to three times the GDP per capita. In Latvia in 2000, the ratio was just 25 per cent of GDP per capita for beginning teachers and about 50 per cent for teachers at the highest

point of the salary scale. In Estonia, the situation was a bit better, with the minimum point at just under 80 per cent of GDP and the maximum point just over 80 per cent of GDP. At these levels, it is small wonder that teachers feel undervalued and in need of the supplementary incomes that private tutoring provides, either with students from their own schools or through privately-run tutoring businesses.

That is on the supply side. On the demand side, several countries have been introducing more centralized examination systems for school-leaving and university entrance. One of the reasons for the step has been the perception that the average quality of education in secondary schools has been declining: Centralized standards of attainment may stimulate schools to improve their teaching. As parents share the perception of declining quality and are anxious to help their children compensate for it, they look for extra tutoring. However, in Albania insufficient demand has apparently led some teachers to coerce parents by threatening their children with poor grades if private tutoring is not requested.

OSI is working with NGOs to analyze and weight the several factors that permit and encourage the kinds of corruption described and to develop counter measures appropriate for the country and society affected. For it is clear that the patterns of corruption tend to work against students from poorer families and thus to militate against equity and equal opportunity, as well as against society's interest in developing each person's potential to the fullest extent.

### **General discussion of ethics and transparency in education**

The meeting was informed that the discussion of corruption in education at the IWGE meeting in Washington, DC in 2004 had stimulated an ongoing cluster of interested persons in the World Bank to pursue the issues further.

The relevance of the discussion was underlined by calculations that estimated the worldwide direct monetary costs of corruption in education at between 3 and 4 per cent of the world's GDP. The calculation did not take into account the indirect effects on areas such as equity, exclusion, quality,

attainments, the possible damage caused by people with fraudulent and invalid qualifications, and so on.

It was noted that corruption is sometimes discussed in terms of being perceived or being reported, but not in actual observations. This last is the most difficult to document, for there is no systematic monitoring, reporting or evaluation of corrupt practices. Measurement and documentation are particularly difficult in the realm of intangible inputs, where there are issues of sexual favours in return for good grades, the use of boys to assist local farmers while their teachers pocket the payments, or the use of girls to cook meals for their teachers. Nevertheless, report card surveys have been usefully implemented in several countries, and a number of participatory diagnostic tools have been used with representative groups of all stakeholders. Still, there has been no general diagnosis in any country, so that, to a large extent, authorities must work on likely assumptions and make allowances for probable differences between different domains and different countries. While the information derived from such surveys could not be comprehensive, it was useful, for example in Bangladesh, in helping to establish and publish clear norms for charges and to pave the way for public hearings and accounts (Karim, 2004). By and large, where corruption occurred in building or long-term maintenance contracts, the funds involved were likely to be large. Where it occurred in illegal fees, individual sums were likely to be petty, though still significant in terms of excluding poorer students and exacerbating inequity.

Questions were raised about the kinds of solutions that have been developed to address systemic reform rather than perfect system surveillance and about appropriate combinations of reform and surveillance. There is in reality no choice between reform and surveillance – both are necessary, along with some form of social control. However, the cost of reforms or of increased surveillance have not yet been fully calculated. Georgia, Russia and Ukraine are trying to introduce a possible improvement in the transition from secondary to higher education through standardized tests for graduation and for university entrance, while the UN was helping Tajikistan do the same. However, it was

of course already known from experience in Europe and the United States that these reforms could give rise to other forms of corruption that would have to be forestalled. It would be interesting here to investigate whether practices in private tutoring also changed in response to the reforms.

Codes of conduct for teachers at all levels had been attempted in a number of countries to combat the kinds of relatively petty corruption open to teachers. However, there was a widespread perception that teachers tended to have little respect for such codes – possibly because the general or national institutional ethos was more tolerant of extralegal means to earn supplementary incomes. On the other hand, experience in Ontario, Canada, described in a study commissioned by the IIEP under its project on ‘Ethics and corruption in education’ has shown that when a code is developed by teachers and their peers, rather than handed down by a ministry of education, teachers did tend to observe it more closely (Van Nuland and Khandelwal, 2006).

One of the more popular recommendations for making education systems more accountable – particularly at the primary and basic levels – is the introduction of school management committees drawn from schools’ catchment communities. However, chaotic and uncertain local conditions often make decentralization and school-based management as open to corruption as any more centralized system. It has unfortunately been a frequent experience that the members of management committees have no clear idea of their roles and responsibilities and often do not have the skills and capacities to fulfil them – handling accounts competently and making sense of sets of different numbers are skills in short supply in many countries. There is also the consideration that many heads of schools prefer their management committees not to have clear ideas, as this increases their own discretion over the collection and disposal of funds. There have also been incidents where some committee members or students have colluded with head teachers to divert funds away from the intended purposes. Indeed, in parts of West Africa school committees could be sources of corruption through the collusion of members and teachers. It had been known for school boards

to register themselves as NGOs and collect funds in that capacity. In short, empowering local communities was more easily said than done. In that light, studies of successful schemes for school management committees are useful: As shown by a study conducted by the IIEP on the issue under its 'Ethics and corruption in education' project a number of states in Mexico set up training courses in accounting and finance for just such committees and may be able to offer good advice on the structures of support and accountability needed to make such training effective and productive (Santizo Rodall and Cabrero Mendoza, 2004).

There was some discussion as to whether it is helpful or productive to use the term 'corruption' in contexts where particular practices are not popularly perceived as corrupt and were generally accepted. For instance, teacher absenteeism arose from an array of factors and could not be accounted for by any systematic set of them. Moreover, sexual favours in return for good grades were accepted as standard in parts of West Africa, as was the practice of publicly-paid teachers spending part of their time teaching in private schools in order to enhance their incomes. But there was no assurance that increasing teachers' salaries would reduce corruption of that nature. Should not the local cultural context then make the assessment as to whether a particular practice was corruption or an inefficiency that was systemically induced or tolerated?

Transparency International took a strong stand in insisting on the use of the term 'corruption', rather than other terms, as it could not be shown what trade-off in terms of educational benefit these abuses of public positions brought. The costs of these practices has been shown to be prohibitive, while their repercussions in terms of exacerbating inequities and making the vulnerable more vulnerable are clear. Fostering social dialogues to help people understand the abusive nature of such practices, naming and shaming culprits, and setting up institutions like the ombudsman of Costa Rica to stimulate public discussion about what is going on and public action to combat it will help nurture an institutional climate in which corruption does not easily flourish.



## *Theme 6*

### The future of the IWGE

The past two decades have witnessed a proliferation of meetings and discussions about issues in the expansion and development of education and about how best to deliver assistance to countries that need more human and financial resources to at least achieve what are now embodied in the Millennium Development Goals for universal primary completion and gender parity. This development has given rise to questions about the role of the IWGE: What value does it add to these discussions and does that value outweigh the direct and opportunity costs that the IWGE entails? Has the group fulfilled the purposes for which it originally came into being and are those purposes now better met through other forums? The future of the IWGE was at issue.

Françoise Caillods introduced the discussion of the issue. She recalled that the IWGE had its origins some 30 years ago in the Bellagio meetings hosted by the Rockefeller Foundation. In those days, the group was almost the only regular conference of aid agencies involved in education in developing societies and took up and exchanged experiences and views on issues of common interest.

After some years, Rockefeller pulled out, but the meetings had proved sufficiently useful for other agencies to wish to continue them. UNESCO then asked IIEP to take over responsibility for organizing them, which it has done ever since. However, other agencies have helped to finance the research and publications needed to underpin the discussions as well as the administrative costs, and have helped steer the planning for the meetings. They have included the Aga Khan Foundation, DFID, Sida, UNESCO, UNICEF, USAID and the World Bank.

The early discussions started with basic education, access, quality and so on. Some of the outcomes were ideas, such as the World Forum at Jomtien

and EFA, a code of conduct among agencies, debt reduction and SWaps. The meetings were always informal, the agenda set by the members based on their common interests, with the interventions offered as personal, rather than institutional, views. These had often provided the stimulus for new discussions and thus for fresh studies to gather and synthesize empirical data and evidence. Regarding the institutional aspects, the opening sessions of 'show and tell' had served to share bird's eye views of shifts of policy and changes of personnel in the participating agencies.

Since the early days, there had been a substantial multiplication of similar meetings and forums. The questions therefore arose as to whether the IWGE had a comparative advantage over those many other forums and whether it should continue to meet. Even if it did have a significant comparative advantage, would it make more practical sense to organize its discussions as a pick-a-back on other annual or more regular meetings? The questions were not new, for they had arisen in the IWGE Planning Committee several years ago and were almost a staple topic. Some 10 years previously the possibility was mooted of replacing the IWGE face-to-face meetings with some form of distance exchange, perhaps through videoconferencing. These questions were in fact reflected in the address that Ruth Kagia had given in 2004 at the Washington, DC meeting, titled, 'Quo vadis, IWGE?'

In response to the introduction, the discussion noted that the group had always been demand-driven. It had worked on financing for some years, then on literacy, then on primary education. At the 2001 meeting in Portugal, the group had taken up the concern for ERP, out of which had come the FAO/UNESCO flagship in 2002. More recently, it had moved on to capacity development and capacity maintenance, and had provided the stimulus for the formation of a small group on developing and maintaining capacity within the donor agencies themselves, as well as a cluster in the World Bank on corruption in education.

The quality of the discussions had always been high, informed as they were both by actual experience from around the world and by recent research

either drawn from the wider literature or commissioned by the IWGE itself. The reviews of SWAp, PRSPs and other interdisciplinary work had been of especial interest. These combinations of sources of information and insight had enabled participants to form broad views of trends, shifting priorities and coherence in progress. The further advantages were that the informality of the exchanges represented no commitment on the part of the sponsoring agencies, so that the discussions could be open, frank and speculative. That dynamic supported even more exchanges during the breaks and evenings, which of course added to the richness and benefits of the meetings. In short, there was no argument that the IWGE meetings were valuable: The presence of members from nearly a score of agencies confirmed that. There was no comparable forum where so much new information on so many live issues could be presented in such high and organized quality and discussed in personal terms by people actually engaged in resolving them.

From the perspective of civil society, there were few other forums where NGOs and foundations could meet with so many bilateral and multilateral agencies, benefit from so much information and thought, and get a more thorough feel for trends in thinking about educational development. What was particularly appreciated was the informality and freedom of the exchanges, which contrasted with those of other, more official, meetings. An additional point was that NGOs and foundations perhaps needed to be stricter than other agencies in selecting forums and that the value of each should be reviewed quite frequently. The fact that IWGE continued to attract such bodies tended to confirm that it still offered considerable value.

Three distinctive features of the IWGE were worth bearing in mind. The range of bodies that participated was more inclusive of all the interests working on aid to education and was not restricted. The thematic areas were indeed demand-driven and discussed in the atmosphere of a seminar and of a sharing of ideas. Third, its focus was more global, less exclusively preoccupied with the problems of Africa.

On the other hand, it was noted that, on the demand side, fewer agencies seemed to participate in IWGE meetings than in earlier years. The OECD no longer attended and the numbers of bilateral agencies, foundations and other organizations had declined. The contrast with attendance at meetings on EFA, the FTI or of the European Community was noticeable. This fact did require that the value of the IWGE be revisited.

From the viewpoint of the practical bureaucrat, the three-day meeting in effect consumed an entire working week. The time required to prepare a presentation of one's own and to study the many papers contributed by other participants, plus the time required for travel, all had to be taken into account. This led to conflicting feelings: Yes, the benefits were rich, but the opportunity costs were heavy. Not surprisingly, the choice tended to be biased towards the current priorities of the office. It was telling that three bilateral agencies who had committed to send participants to the 2006 meeting had had to withdraw at very short notice.

In addition, the IWGE was neither a decision-making nor a co-ordinating mechanism, as were the FTI and European Community meetings. This naturally lessened its promise of benefits that would be applicable in the immediate or short-term, which of course tended to be uppermost in practitioners' minds.

The resolution of the dilemma seemed to lie in the direction of retaining the IWGE while at the same time reducing the opportunity costs. This could be managed partly by associating the IWGE with other, more obligatory, forums – pick-a-backing – so that travel costs and time would be lowered, and partly by tightening the agenda, so that preparation time would also be reduced. At the same time, it would be important to preserve the informal nature of the IWGE very deliberately and to ensure that the possible formality of the 'pick-a-back' did not overflow into the IWGE discussions.

Tightening the agenda might be achieved through (a) investing in more groundwork to identify the topics in the widest and most urgent demand,

(b) reaching final agreement on the agenda far in advance, (c) ensuring that the topics selected are of sufficient weight and urgency, and sufficiently specific to attract the participation of senior policy-makers, (d) taking steps to acquaint first-time participants with the objectives of IWGE meetings, so that they are not bewildered at the scope of the agenda, (e) limiting the agenda to allow space for a sufficient discussion of the topics – whizzing through the information and issues did not do justice to the effort invested in the papers and presentations, and (f) structuring and disciplining the discussions to minimize less-than-optimal use of time.



## IWGE Planning Committee

### Planning meeting 14.06.2006 – Summary record

*Present:* Aga Khan Foundation: Kathy Bartlett; FAO: Lavinia Gasperini; IIEP: Mark Bray, Françoise Caillods, Muriel Poisson; UNICEF: Changu Mannothonko; USAID: John Hatch; World Bank: Ruth Kagia, Eduardo Velez.

*'Pick-a-back' and periodicity:* The Planning Committee endorsed the principle of 'pick-a-backing' future meetings of the IWGE on other meetings that require the participation of senior decision-makers from its member agencies. The present periodicity of 12-18 months between meetings would be retained.

*2007 meeting:* The next IWGE meeting should follow the EFA Working Group on Post-primary Education scheduled for **July 2007 in Paris**. It should last only two days.

#### **IIEP's offer to host the meeting was gratefully accepted**

*2007 lead focus:* After considering several options, the Planning Committee decided that ***Quality in education*** and ***Transitions from education to work*** would be the two main organizing themes. The sub-themes of capacity development, equity (including private education and poverty), post-primary education, service delivery and results, monitoring and statistics, and capacity maintenance in donor agencies would be borne in mind for possible inclusion.

*2007 format:* More time should be provided for the 'Show and tell' session. While contributions should continue to be limited to five minutes (PowerPoint presentations should be discouraged), there should also be time for some questions and answers.

Although group discussions had worked well at the Helsinki (2002) and Washington DC (2004) meetings, the Rome meeting showed that plenary sessions also permitted good exchanges. In view of the abbreviation of the 2007 meeting to two days, ***the plenary format will be retained.***

*2007 participation:* As the 2007 meeting will be in Paris, special efforts should be made to secure the participation of the OECD-DAC (*it might also be beneficial to invite another Paris-based organization, the Centre international d'études pédagogiques, which has an interest in higher vocational education*).

As personnel in some member agencies had formed working groups on 'capacity development' and 'corruption in education', they should be invited to report on how their work has developed and what effects it has had.

*Budget 2006-2007:* The budgets for the 2006 (Rome) and 2007 (Paris) IWGE meetings were approved. The World Bank needed to have the invoice for its contribution by 16 June 2006 to ensure immediate processing.

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## *Appendix 1*

### List of participants

#### **I. Multilateral agencies and institutions**

##### **Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA)**

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Senior Programme Officer

##### **Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO)**

Mr Alexander Müller  
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Ms Marcela Villarreal  
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Ms Lavinia Gasperini  
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Ms Daniela Bruni  
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Gender and Population Division, Sustainable Development Department

Ms Ilaria Sisto  
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Technical Adviser, Gender and Social Equity

**International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)**

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IWGE Consultant

Mr Jacques Hallak

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**UNESCO**

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***EFA Monitoring Report***

Mr Yusuf Sayed

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UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS)

Mr Albert Motivans

Head, Analysis and Information Section

**UNICEF**

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Division of Policy and Planning (DPP)

**World Bank**

Ms Ruth Kagia  
Director of Education

Mr Eduardo Velez  
Sector Manager for Education in the Latin America Region

**World Food Program**

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Programme Advisor, WFP/School Feeding Service (PDPF)

Mr Jose Antonio Castillo  
Programme Officer, WFP/School Feeding Service (PDPF)

**II. Bilateral agencies and foundations**

**Aga Khan Foundation**

Ms Kathy Bartlett  
Senior Programme Officer, Education

Ms Caroline Arnold  
Senior Programme Officer, Education

**Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation**

Mr Manuel Carmelo Rosa  
Director Education and Fellowships Service

**Open Society Institution (Soros Foundation)**

Ms Indra Dedze  
Senior Program Manager, Education Support Program

***Austria***

Ms Margarita Langthaler  
ÖFSE – Austrian Foundation for Development Research

***Finland***

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Ministry for Foreign Affairs, Department for Development Policy

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Agency for Technical Co-operation (GTZ)

Ms Temby Caprio  
Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH

***Italy***

Ms Maria Pia Rizzo  
Desk officer for FAO, General Directorate for Development Cooperation  
Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Ms Teresa Savanella  
Desk officer for UNESCO, General Directorate for Development  
Cooperation

Ministry of Foreign Affairs  
Ms Gabriele Quinti  
Cerfe Director  
Ministry of Foreign Affairs

***Japan***

Ms Yumiko Yokozeki  
Senior Adviser (Education), Institute for International Cooperation  
Japan International Co-operation Agency (JICA)

***Norway***

Arne Kr. Larsen  
Adviser, Norwegian Agency of Development Co-operation (NORAD)

***United Kingdom***

Mr David Levesque  
Department for International Development (DFID)

***United States of America***

Mr John Hatch, III  
Education Specialist  
United States Agency for International Development (USAID)

**III. Other invitees**

Mrs Maria Teresa Brassiolo  
Chair, Transparency International

## *Appendix 2*

### Programme

|                                       |   |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| <b>Monday, 12 June</b><br>10.45-12.00 | Planning committee<br>(Aga Khan foundation, DFID,<br>UNESCO, UNICEF, USAID, SIDA, WORLD<br>BANK)  |
| <b>Monday, 12 June</b><br>13.45-14.00 | Registration  |
| 14.00-14.15                           | – M. Bray, IIEP Director: Opening speech<br>– A. Müller, ADG/Sustainable Development Dept.<br>FAO: Welcome remarks  |
| 14.15-17.00                           | Chair: Changhu Mannothonko (UNICEF)<br>Show and tell (all agencies)   |
| 17.00-17.30                           | Presentation of the Global Action Plan for EFA<br>(A. Husain, UNESCO)   |
| 19.30                                 | Get-together dinner in a trattoria  |
| <b>Tuesday, 13 June</b><br>8.45-9.45  | Education for rural people.<br>Chair: Ruth Kagia (World Bank)<br>– L. Gasperini (FAO): the ERP flagship partnership<br>– P. de Muro & F. Burchi (University of Roma 3):<br>ERP, a neglected key to MDGs<br>– K. Bartlett (Aga Khan foundation)<br>– M. Hartl (IFAD): Education and training for rural<br>people |
| 9.45-10.45                            | Discussion  |

- 10.45-11.15 Coffee break
- 11.15-11.45 Education for rural people (continued)  
Chair: Marcella Villareal (FAO)
  - E. Velez (WB): Education for rural people compensatory programs in Latin America
  - D. Atchoarena (IIEP): The contribution of higher agricultural education to learning and development in rural areas
- 11.45-12.30 General discussion on Education for rural people
- 12.30-14.00 Lunch
- 14.00-15.30 Capacity building  
Chair: Kathy Bartlett (AKF)
  - F. Caillods (IIEP): Capacity development in educational planning and management
  - Y. Yokozeki (JICA): Capacity building in science and Mathematics: the JICA project
  - T. Caprio (FTI CD Task Team): How to fill the capacity gap
- 15.30-16.00 Coffee break
- 16.00-17.00 Discussion
- Wednesday, 14 June** Capacity building (continued)
- 8.45-10.15 Panel: Absorption capacity and capacity building  
Chair: David Levesque (DFID)
  - R. Kagia (World Bank)
  - G. Flaig & T. Caprio (GTZ): Capacity development and education quality caught between donor commitments and absorption capacity
  - J.C. Balmes (AFD France)

|             |   |
|-------------|---|
|             | Discussion  |
| 10.15-10.35 | Coffee break  |
| 10.35-12.30 | Follow-up of Dakar<br>Chair: John Hatch (USAID) <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>– Y. Sayed: Progress/stock-taking report on EFA: the GMR 2008 report</li><li>– A. Motivans (UIS): Data requirements for monitoring</li></ul>  |
| 12.30-13.45 | Lunch   |
| 13.45-15.45 | Ethics and transparency in education<br>Chair: Mark Bray (IIEP) <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>– J. Hallak &amp; M. Poisson (IIEP): Selected findings of the IIEP’s research work on ‘Ethics and corruption in education’</li><li>– Panel on corruption and educational financing: A.Kr. Larsen (Norad), R. Saab (UNICEF), M.T. Brassiolo (Transparency International), I. Dedze (OSI)</li></ul> |
| 15.45-16.00 | Coffee break  |
| 16.00-16.45 | The future of IWGE<br>Chair: Mark Bray  |
| 16.45-17.00 | Closing ceremony: FAO, IIEP   |
| 17.00       | Planning Committee  |

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Senior Adviser on UNESCO issues to the Senior Vice-President for Programs,  
United Nations Foundation, Washington DC, USA.

Designated Members:

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Director, Department of Human Resources for Health, Evidence and Information  
for Policy Cluster, World Health Organization, Geneva, Switzerland.

*Ruth Kagia*

Education Director, World Bank, Washington DC, USA.

*Diéry Seck*

Director, African Institute for Economic Development and Planning, Senegal.

*Jomo Kwame Sundaram*

Assistant Secretary-General, United Nations Economic Development,  
Department of Economic and Social Affairs, New York, USA.

Elected Members:

*Aziza Bennani (Morocco)*

Ambassador and Permanent Delegate of Morocco to UNESCO.

*José Joaquín Brunner (Chile)*

Director, Education Programme, Fundación Chile, Santiago, Chile.

*Birger Fredriksen (Norway)*

Former Senior Education Advisor for the Africa Region, World Bank.

*Takyiwaa Manuh (Ghana)*

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