

APPROACHING EDUCATION FROM A GOOD GOVERNANCE PERSPECTIVE

USAID Resource Guide for Joint DG/Education Programs

August 2003

OCCASIONAL PAPERS SERIES

Office of Democracy and Governance
Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance
U.S. Agency for International Development



“...promoting the transition to and consolidation of democratic regimes throughout the world.”

**TO ORDER THIS DOCUMENT FROM THE
DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCE CLEARINGHOUSE:**

Please reference the document title (*Approaching Education from a Good Governance Perspective: USAID Resource Guide for Joint DG/Education Programs*) and document identification number (**PN-ACR-222**).

USAID employees, USAID contractors overseas, and USAID sponsored organizations overseas may order documents at no charge.

Universities, research centers, government offices, and other institutions located in developing countries may order up to five titles at no charge.

All other institutions and individuals may purchase documents. Do not send payment. When applicable, reproduction and postage costs will be billed.

Fax orders to (301) 588-7787
Attn: USAID Development Experience Clearinghouse (DEC)
E-mail orders to [**docorder@dec.cdie.org**](mailto:docorder@dec.cdie.org)

ABOUT THE OCCASIONAL PAPERS SERIES

The USAID Office of Democracy and Governance Occasional Papers Series was launched in October 2000. The series includes publications intended principally for USAID personnel; however, all persons interested in the topic may benefit from the series. The Occasional Papers Series is designed to bring together DCHA/DG-produced or –funded publications in a coherent series that upholds the high standards and quality established by the DG Office’s Technical Publication Series. Authors of individual publications may be USAID officials and/or other individuals from the public and private sector. The Office of Democracy and Governance reserves the right to review and edit all publications for content and format and all are subject to a broad USAID review process.

A list of other relevant publications and ordering information are included at the back of this document.

ABOUT THIS PUBLICATION

This resource guide is a joint effort of USAID’s Office of Democracy and Governance and Office of Education, responding to the need to promote greater policy and program linkages between the Agency’s democracy and governance (DG) and education sectors. The specific goals of this DG and education resource guide are to raise awareness among education sector professionals at USAID about the role of the DG sector in shaping education policies and programs; to raise awareness among USAID DG professionals about education as an important DG issue; and to provide frameworks and best practice examples to help guide joint programming among USAID education and DG staff.

Comments regarding this publication should be directed to

Gary Hansen, Division Chief
Civil Society
Tel: (202) 712-1521
Fax: (202) 216-3231
ghansen@usaid.gov

Office of Democracy and Governance
Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance
U.S. Agency for International Development
Washington, DC 20523-3100

More information, including electronic versions of the DG Office’s Technical Publication Series, is available from the DG Office’s Intranet site at <http://inside.usaid.gov/G/DG/> and USAID’s democracy Internet site at http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/democracy_and_governance/

ABOUT THE DG OFFICE

The Office of Democracy and Governance is the U.S. Agency for International Development’s focal point for democracy and governance programming. The DG Office’s role is to provide USAID and other development practitioners with the technical and intellectual expertise needed to support democratic development. It provides this expertise in the following areas:

- ◻ **Rule of Law**
- ◻ **Elections and Political Processes**
- ◻ **Civil Society**
- ◻ **Governance**

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This report is a product of the Improving Educational Quality (IEQ) project, which was implemented by the American Institutes for Research in collaboration with the Academy for Educational Development; Education Development Center, Inc.; Juárez and Associates, Inc.; and the University of Pittsburgh. The initial draft was prepared by Ronald C. Israel and Kristin Rosekrans, and later edited for the DG Office by Karen Farrell.

Approaching Education from a Good Governance Perspective: USAID Resource Guide for Joint DG/Education Programs

| | |
|---|----|
| 1. Introduction..... | 1 |
| 2. The Importance of Basic Education for Democracy..... | 3 |
| 3. The Importance of Good Governance to Education | 7 |
| 4. Understanding the Relationship between Good Governance and Democracy, and Education | 11 |
| A. Basic Education Best Practices that Support DG Principles and Goals ... | 11 |
| B. DG Best Practices that Support Basic Education Principles and Goals ... | 12 |
| 5. Democracy and Governance, and Education: Best Practice Descriptions..... | 13 |
| A. How do Countries Put in Place Governance Policies and Processes that Help Achieve EFA?..... | 13 |
| B. How can Effective Civic Education Be Practiced in the Classroom? | 15 |
| C. How can Education be Used as a Vehicle for Conflict Resolution in Post-conflict Societies? | 17 |
| D. How can the Decentralization of Government Authority be Effectively Applied in the Education Sector? | 18 |
| E. How can Increased Community Participation in Governance be Effectively Applied in the Education Sector? | 19 |

Endnotes

References

1 Introduction

This resource guide is a joint effort of USAID’s Office of Democracy and Governance and Office of Education, responding to the need to promote greater policy and program linkages between the Agency’s democracy and governance (DG) and education sectors. The specific goals of this education and DG resource guide are to

- raise awareness among education sector professionals at USAID about the role of the DG sector in shaping education policies and programs
- raise awareness among USAID DG sector professionals about education as an important DG sector issue
- provide frameworks and best practice examples to help guide joint programming among USAID education and DG staff

The guide begins with a thematic diagram that describes the relationship between democracy and good governance, and education (see page 2). The diagram illustrates how policies and practices of good governance and democracy, and basic education can work together to help achieve four USAID themes on characteristics of democratic societies. These themes—equality of opportunity, public sector accountability, pluralism and representation in political process, and democratic citizenship—are represented by the outer ring in the diagram. The diagram’s two inner rings show how democracy and governance and education work together to achieve each of the four democracy themes. For example, to build democratic citizenship, it is essential to both establish democratic political processes as well as enable children to learn how to live and work in a pluralistic society.

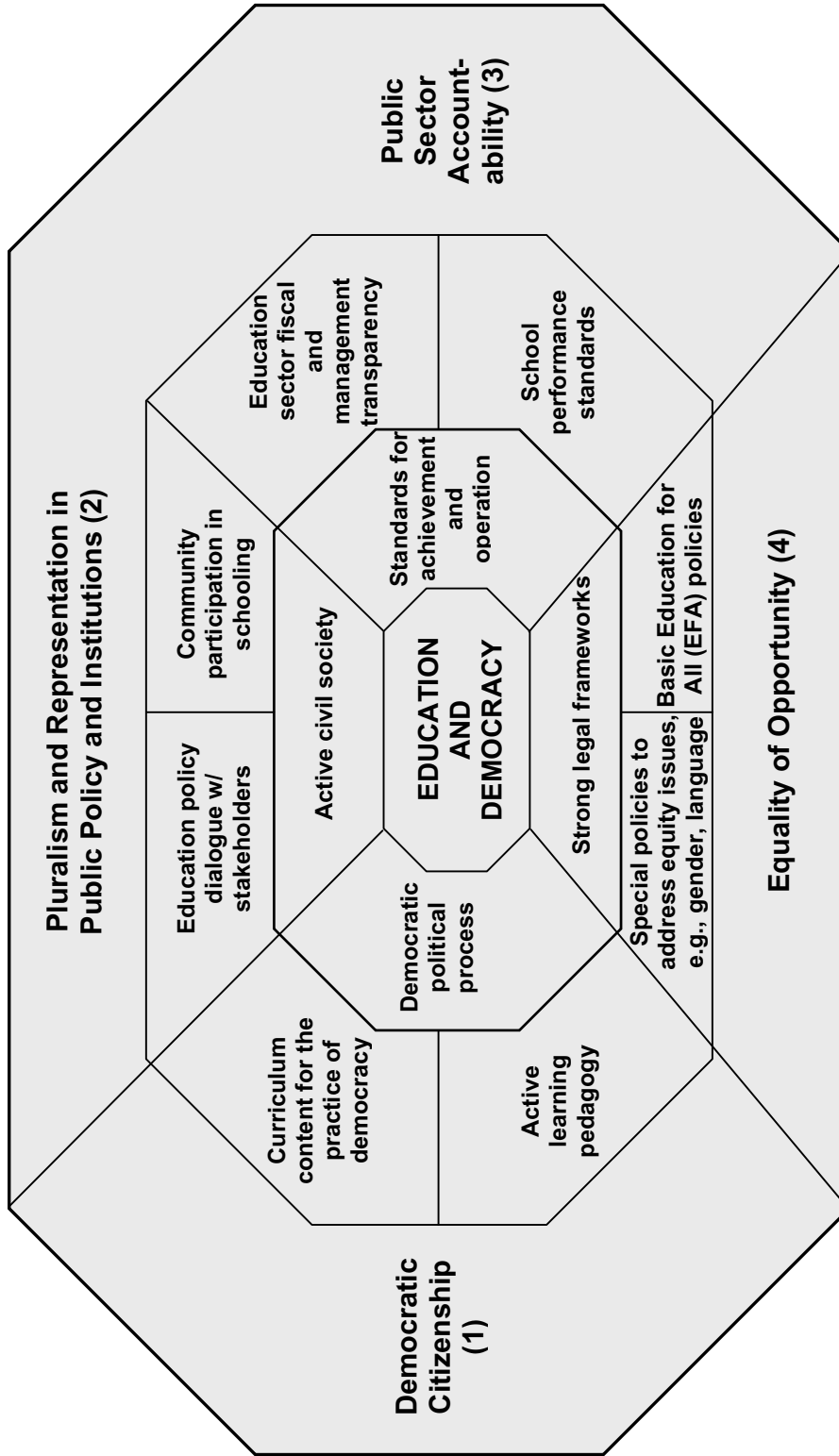
The theme of pluralism and representation in the political process can be modeled in the education sector at both the national and local levels. At the national level, diverse stakeholders need opportunity to have input into country-wide educational goals and policies. At the local level, grassroots communities need opportunity to contribute to the policies and activities of their neighborhood schools.

By setting and helping to achieve sector performance standards, the education sector also can model the USAID DG theme of public sector accountability, promoting transparency in fiscal and management practices. Finally, education policies and practices can help countries achieve equality of opportunity for all citizens, e.g., by ensuring universal access to schooling and providing mechanisms to address issues of educational equity, such as gender and language of instruction.

Section 2 of the guide highlights what current research data tell us about how an investment in basic education also helps promote democracy and good governance. Section 3 provides examples of how DG functions have been applied in different countries to strengthen basic education. Section 4 provides frameworks for analyzing how good governance and democracy, and basic education support one another. Section 5 describes best practice examples from around the world, illustrating how the education and DG sectors can work together to achieve common objectives. A list of useful references for those interested in learning more about the theory and practice of education and democracy also is provided.

This resource guide is intended as a programming tool for USAID Mission staff and their host-country partners. We hope you find it useful and that it helps efforts in programming across the two sectors.

Understanding the Relationship between Education, and Good Governance and Democracy through Thematic Connections



(1) School-based pedagogy and curriculum content that support democratic citizenship (education) + democratic political processes (DG).

(2) Education policy dialogue and community participation in schooling (education) + active civil society (DG).

(3) Sector fiscal and management transparency and school performance standards (education) + standards for public sector achievement and operation (DG).

(4) Education for All policies and equity issue policies (education) + strong legal frameworks (DG).

2

The Importance of Basic Education for Democracy

In this section, we summarize data from different studies that document the ways investments in basic education can influence democracy and the development of civil society. Current data illustrate how basic education contributes to economic development, improved health, and well-being; provides knowledge and skills that help increase access to social and economic opportunity; increases participation in the political process; and promotes democratic practices of multi-cultural, pluralistic societies. Effective basic education systems also help operationalize principles and practices of good governance, such as strong legal frameworks, responsive government services, and government/civil society partnerships.

- Basic education contributes to the establishment of the socio-economic prerequisites for democracy—e.g., economic development, improved health, and well-being:
 - One additional year of a mother’s schooling is associated with a reduction in the infant mortality rate of 9 per 1,000. By increasing the average amount of a mother’s schooling from three to six years, it could reduce infant mortality rates from 100 (now common in Latin America, Asia, and Africa) to half that rate.¹
 - Education has proven to be a very effective way to address preventable diseases, including HIV/AIDS, smallpox, tuberculosis, and diarrhea: In 17 African and Latin American countries studied, educated girls had significantly lower risk of HIV infection.²
 - Where females are only 20 percent literate, they have, on average, 6 children; where they are more than 80 percent literate, they have fewer than 3 children.³ Also, more educated families tend to view children in terms of the pleasure they bring to their lives as opposed to viewing them as economic assets and security in old age.⁴
 - Accessible and relevant basic education has proven to be the best antidote for child labor, currently effecting about 250 million children—about a quarter of who are in hazardous and/or abusive labor situations.⁵
 - A farmer with four years of basic education is, on average, 8.7 percent more productive—as measured by crop production—than a farmer with no education. The effect is even greater (13 percent increase in productivity) when complemented by other inputs, such as fertilizer, new seed, or farm machinery.⁶
 - According to the World Bank, between 60 and 90 percent of the growth achieved in Japan and other east Asian industrial countries is explained by human capital, rather than natural resources or finance. The overall higher level of primary education was found to be the single most important factor accounting for the differences in growth rates between east Asia and sub-Saharan Africa.⁷
 - In a study of 83 developing countries (during 1960-1977) it was found that the 12 developing countries with the fastest growth rate had well above average levels of literacy and life expectancy.⁸
 - An increase in the literacy rate from 20 to 30 percent is associated with a national income (GDP) increase of 8 to 16 percent.⁹

Approaching Education from a Good Governance Perspective

- In early stages of a country's development, a minimum level of literacy and primary education in the population is required for an economic breakthrough to occur, and then, in later stages, a more general diffusion of primary and secondary education allows for new economic breakthroughs.¹⁰
- A minimum level of literacy, of at least 40-50 percent, has been a necessary condition of economic growth: England, Sweden, and the United States all achieved this level just before the industrial revolution.¹¹
- Basic education provides knowledge and skills that help increase access to social and economic opportunity:
 - Basic education contributes to young people developing skills that enable them to increase their income and participate in economic gains, thus leading to poverty reduction.¹²
 - Studies show that farmers with more education adjust more rapidly to technological changes; they tend to adopt the technology sooner and are more likely to increase their income.¹³
 - Studies show that every additional year of school beyond grade 4 leads to 10-20 percent higher wages.¹⁴
 - In Zambia, rural women with between 8 and 12 years of education are only half as likely to be living in extreme poverty as women with no education.¹⁵
 - In Peru, about two thirds of extremely poor households are headed by someone with no education, compared to less than one third of non-poor households.¹⁶
- Basic education provides knowledge and skills to help increase participation in the political process:
 - Public schooling as an institution emerged from the notion that government had an obligation to incorporate citizens into a society that was based on shared values and norms, as well as equality.¹⁷
 - Economists have shown that as the labor force's amount of schooling increases (especially when the labor force achieves basic education) the working class increases its political power.¹⁸
 - Even in the most authoritarian environments, education systems invariably produce informed dissent as demonstrated by student protests in China, Indonesia, South Africa, and South Korea.¹⁹
 - Universal literacy attained in one state of India (Kerala) allows people to use information required to make informed judgments: Almost half the population of Kerala read a newspaper on a regular basis and one quarter of rural laborers are also regular readers, compared with a national average of one in five people, and two percent of rural laborers.²⁰
 - Within communities, education can give individuals the self-confidence needed to engage in discussions. One study in Nepal found that almost half of rural women who had completed a nine-month basic literacy course said that they would be confident about expressing their views to the community, compared to only four percent of non-literate women.²¹

- A World Bank poverty assessment in Bangladesh indicated that women with a secondary education were three times more likely to attend a political meeting than women with no education.²²
- Basic education provides knowledge and skills that help enable people to participate in a multi-cultural, pluralistic society (e.g., social communication and conflict resolution skills):
 - Education can promote democratic behavior, peace, and stability; both the process and content of education can teach individuals and groups to manage conflict and respect diversity.²³
 - The process of schooling—working in groups, dealing with diversity and differences in a classroom and school, and learning to solve problems collectively—exposes students to ways of managing in a multi-cultural and pluralistic society.²⁴
 - Schools can be a vehicle for initiating children into democratic and civil life, as demonstrated by the New School model in Colombia.²⁵
 - Basic education can be a means for empowering children to take ownership over their own learning, thus preparing them to participate in democratic life, as demonstrated by the Step-by-step program in eastern Europe.²⁶
 - Basic education can be a means for people to learn about their human rights and how to take action to defend these rights.²⁷
- Basic education systems help operationalize the principles and practices of good governance, such as strong legal frameworks, responsive government institutions, and government/civil society partnerships:
 - Basic education can be the means for building democracy in post-conflict societies, as demonstrated by countries such as El Salvador and Namibia, which both used broad-based consensus building and stakeholder participation to reorient their education systems following internal conflict and to move towards a more democratic society.²⁸
 - Basic education can be the means for equalizing opportunities through the creation of policies and laws that target resources to the traditionally marginalized sectors, as demonstrated by Mexico’s experience with compensatory strategies.²⁹
 - Schools can be the means for empowering local communities to participate in the delivery of educational services, as experiences in Uganda and Ghana have demonstrated.³⁰
 - Basic education systems can improve representation at the local level and increasing government responsiveness to local needs, as decentralization initiatives have demonstrated in countries such as India and Mali.³¹
 - Basic education can be a means for teaching cooperative integration with others and the development of community—the basis for a democratic society.³²

3

The Importance of Good Governance to Education

Section 3 provides examples of how effective good governance functions can affect basic education access and quality. These examples demonstrate how constitutional and legal frameworks help countries achieve universal access to basic education; prohibit harmful child labor practices; and address educational equity issues of gender, language, and allocation of resources. Other examples show how good governance standards of accountability and transparency are applied to the education sector; how governance commitment to citizen participation in public sector management can help improve schooling; and how the education sector benefits from civil society partnerships.

- Good governance provides constitutional and legal frameworks that support education for all:
 - Some 160 countries have signed the Education for All (EFA) Declaration and Charter, which commits them to providing universal access to basic education. This commitment to the right to basic education also is often found in national legal statutes and constitutional documents. For example, the post-apartheid South African Bill of Rights states that everyone has the right to both basic and further education. Philippine law mandates free and compulsory education for children who are between the ages of seven and twelve. Mexico, in 1992, passed a law extending the length of compulsory education from six to nine years.
 - Having a basic education universal access law does not guarantee that all children will be enrolled in school nor does it ensure that those who are enrolled receive a quality education. However, constitutional/legal frameworks that guarantee access are usually a necessary building block for resource allocations that are needed for countries to reach universal enrollment and provide quality primary school education.
- Good governance provides constitutional and legal frameworks that prohibit harmful child labor practices:
 - Child labor is a pervasive problem throughout the world, especially in developing countries. Africa and Asia together account for over 20 percent of total child employment. Child laborers often endure harmful working conditions and are paid low wages. They also often lack access to schooling and quality basic education opportunities. Therefore, addressing issues of child labor requires joint action by the DG and education sectors.
 - In 1999, the International Labor Organization sponsored an anti-child labor convention (Convention 182) that was signed by 174 countries. Many developing countries also have put in place legal frameworks that help regulate child labor. For example, Article 32 of the Rights of the Child in the Philippines “recognizes the rights of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or interfere with the child’s education.”
 - The lack of enforcement of labor restrictions helps perpetuate child labor. In many developing countries, the number of enforcement officials is very low. There also are inconsistencies in legislation. For example, a difference may exist between the minimum ages required to work and drop out of school. In many countries (e.g., Costa Rica, Sri Lanka, and Thailand), the minimum working age is lower than the required age of compulsory education, giving children access to employment before they have even completed the minimum amount of schooling. Conversely, if the minimum age requirement for work is greater than the

compulsory schooling age, as is the case in Bangladesh, children who have completed the required schooling must stay inactive for a period of time before they can legally work. Governance review of the contradiction in child labor laws in different sections is often helpful.

- Good governance provides policy and legal mechanisms that enable countries to address issues of educational equity (e.g., gender, language of instruction, and financial resources):
 - In the past decade, many countries have developed policies within and outside the education sector to respond to the need to increase girls' enrollment and retention in primary school. Examples of policies that work include locating schools closer to communities; providing incentives that promote the hiring of female teachers; and lowering the costs of girls' participation through the provision of scholarships, textbooks, and uniforms (e.g., Malawi and Pakistan).
 - Language of instruction is a major educational equity issue in many countries. In federal governance systems, such as India, constitutions often cede to the states the right to determine the language of instruction, and they provide for judicial review of contentious language policy issues. However, in more centralized governance systems, a single language of instruction policy is sometimes mandated. Ethnic and linguistic communities often resent the imposition of a single national language policy that does not address their needs. This was the conclusion of a recent study (*IEQ2/Ghana Final Report: The Implementation of Ghana's School Language Policy*) of language policy in Ghana, carried out by USAID's Improving Educational Quality (IEQ) project, which found that parents in many Ghanaian communities are not pleased by the government's decision to make English the compulsory language of instruction for all students. They would prefer to see mother tongue instruction provided in the early primary school grades.
 - Many developing countries face large regional inequities in the allocation of resources for basic education. Therefore, poorer areas—because of their lack of financial and technical resources—often do not have the capacity to provide access to quality basic education services. Governance resource allocation policies in several countries have attempted to help poor regions compensate for their lack of resources. In Ethiopia, for example, the national education sector development plan allocates funds to regions according to two criteria—population size and need, as defined by a country-wide socio-economic index.
- Good governance requires standards of accountability and transparency for the delivery of public services, such as basic education:
 - Decentralization of educational authority, if it is to work well, needs to be accompanied by organizational principles of management transparency and accountability. Decentralization can create intermediate levels of power that are still accountable to centralized authority. In such cases, the location of power has not really shifted from the center to the periphery, but has reinforced the center by a better control of the periphery. This observation was confirmed during a 2001 on-line exchange on education and democracy sponsored by USAID's IEQ project. (<http://www.edc.org/GLG/edu-democ/hypermail/>)
 - Many countries are instituting national performance standards, and then allowing regional and district authorities the freedom to develop their own approaches to achieving these standards. For example, in Ghana the government has recently put in place an incentive grants mechanism that funds the proposals of regional education districts to achieve targeted

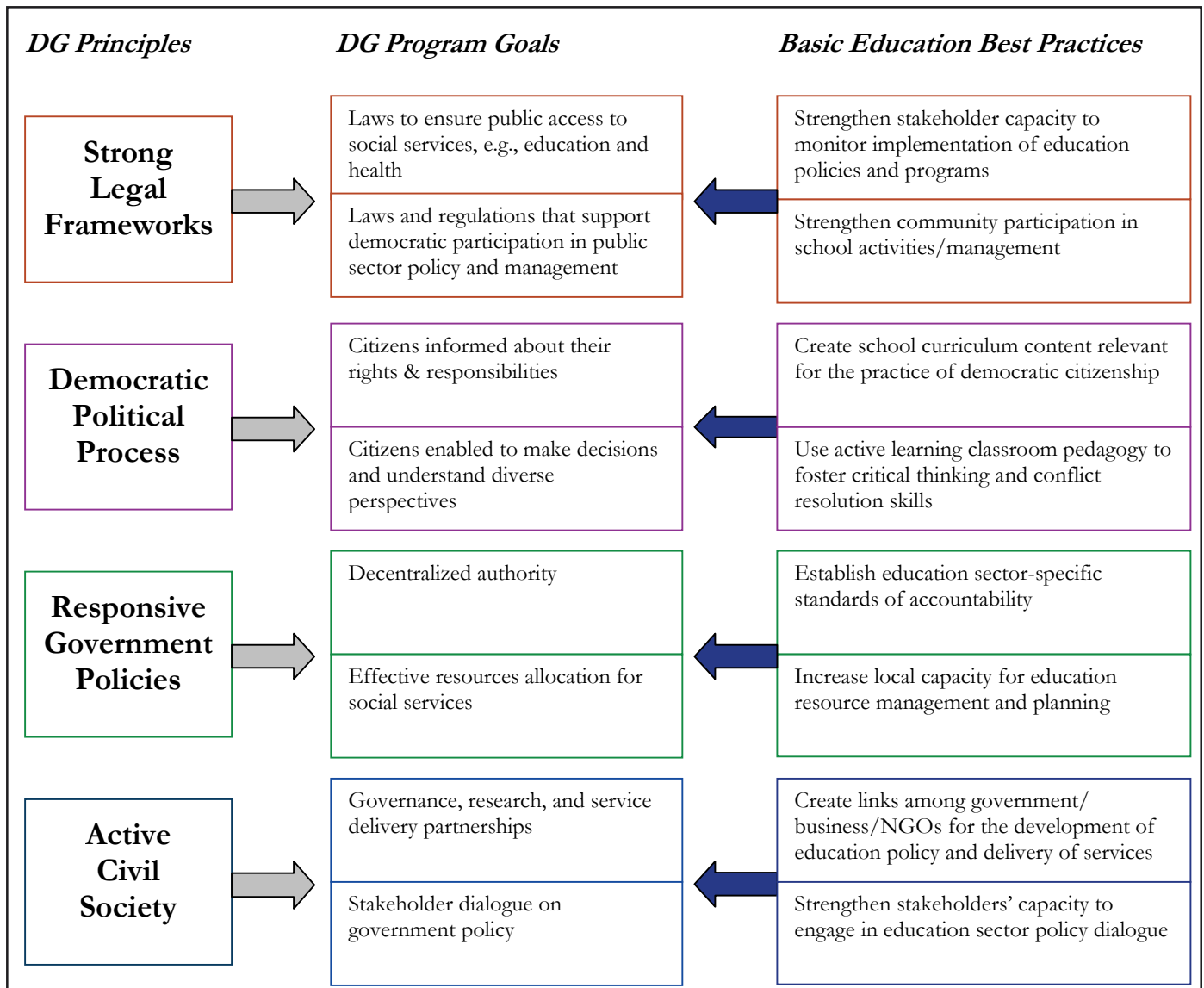
- goals. District goals are based upon a national education framework and address such issues as learning outcomes, teacher training ratios, community involvement, and local education management.
- Public sector standards of transparency can help alleviate corruption in the education sector. For example, there can be corruption in the purchase of educational materials and supplies, in the hiring of teachers, or in the admission and grading of students. In Uganda, between 1991 and 1995, 87 percent of non-wage expenditures were leaked in the transfer from districts to schools. A recent World Bank study shows that reducing corruption (or improving the quality of government) improves education outcomes largely by improving the effectiveness of educational expenditures.
 - Good governance provides for citizen participation in the design and oversight of public services, such as schools:
 - The state of Porto Alegre in Brazil has instituted a process of popular democratic decision-making in education (the “school constituency”). In 2000, this process focused state-wide discussion and consensus-building activities on 25 key education sector issues that had been identified by school and regional coordinating committees. These issues were explored in-depth at 191 municipal or micro-regional conferences, involving more than 60,000 people.
 - In Uganda, a policy was put in place that required schools to post their enrollment figures and the funds they received from government on a monthly basis. The policy helped allay concerns among citizens that government funds were not getting transferred to the local level. As a result, communities began to contribute more of their own resources to basic education and helped construct 1,000 new classrooms in a 12-month period.
 - Good governance practices encourage the development of civil society partnerships for the purposes of policy dialogue and service delivery; such partnerships can make meaningful contributions to strengthening basic education access and quality:
 - Among the civil society organizations funded by USAID’s DG programs are public policy institutes and think tanks, whose function is to develop alternative policy proposals in a wide range of sectors, including education. For example, the Institute of Public Analysis and Research in Kenya seeks to promote policy debate and build consensus on educational reform. Policy papers and studies have been conducted on issues including the efficiency of primary education and national legal frameworks as they affect the education sector.
 - Trade unions often are an important civil society education partner organization. A global grant from USAID to the American Center for International Labor Solidarity is being used to help local labor organizations combat child labor in many countries. For example, the Solidarity Center, in partnership with the Malawi Confederation of Trade Unions, has laid the groundwork for a national campaign to fight child labor and improve access to basic education.
 - In countries like Bangladesh, partnerships between government and NGOs have helped extend access to primary school education, involved joint efforts to establish new schools, and increased government willingness to take in the graduates of NGO schools. The government benefits from greater community outreach, innovative ideas, and efficient service delivery. NGOs secure regular sources of funding, enabling them to reach a larger number of people and have some of their ideas institutionalized.

4 Understanding the Relationship between Good Governance and Democracy, and Education

A. Basic Education Best Practices that Support DG Principles and Goals

The chart below illustrates basic education best practices that support DG principles and goals.

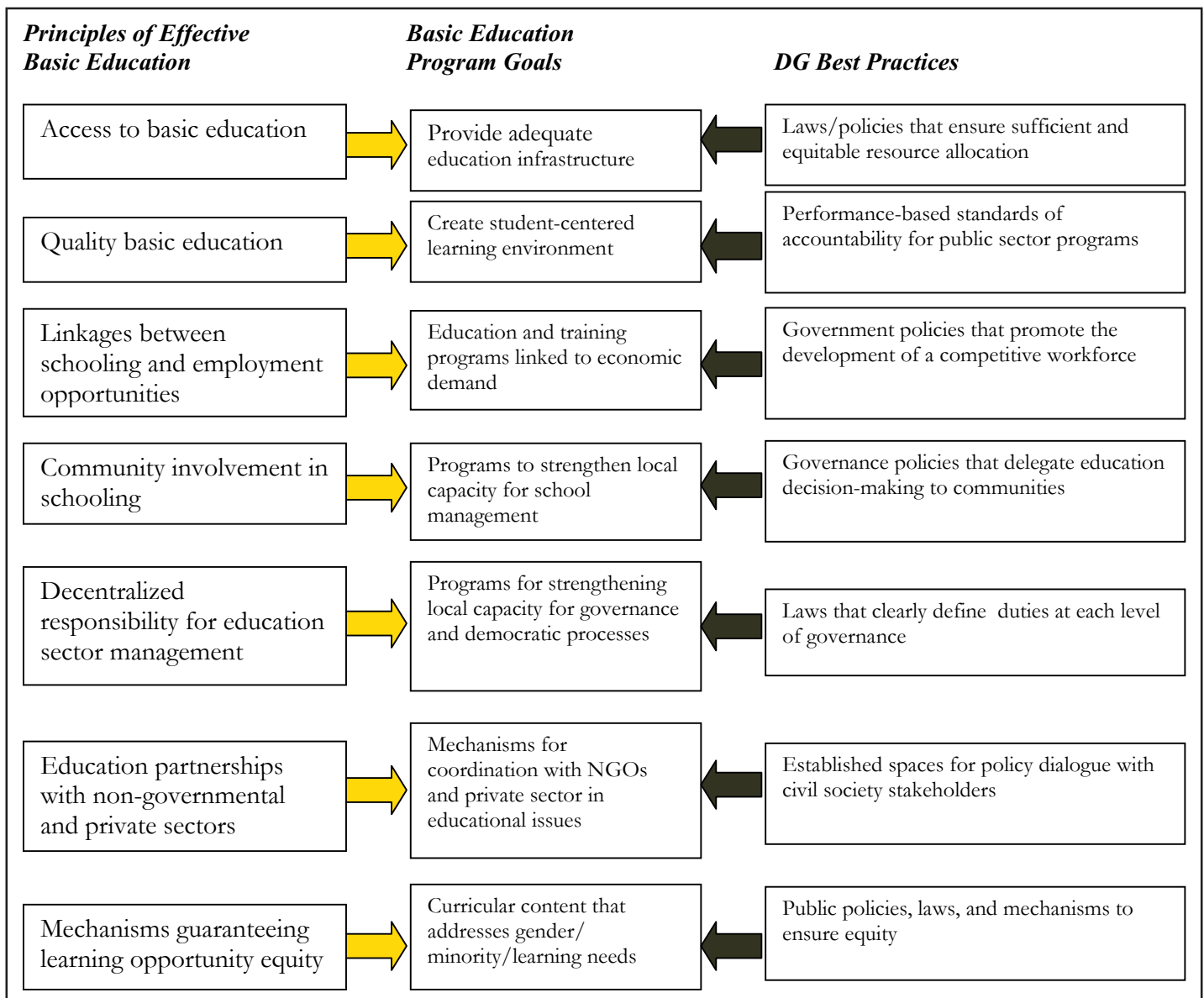
- (a) Column 1 lists the four of the principles of the Office of Democracy and Governance of USAID:
 - strong legal frameworks
 - democratic political processes
 - government capacity to respond to constituent needs
 - an active civil society
- (b) Column 2 provides program goals for the DG sector that flow from these four principles
- (c) Column 3 suggests best practices for achieving the DG program goals within basic education



B. DG Best Practices that Support Basic Education Principles and Goals

The chart below illustrates how DG best practices can support basic education principles and goals.

- (a) Column 1 is a list of core basic education principles drawn from the experience of USAID’s Office of Education:
 - access to basic education
 - quality basic education
 - linkages between schooling and employment opportunities
 - community involvement in schooling
 - decentralized responsibility for education sector management
 - education partnerships with non-governmental and private sectors
 - mechanisms for guaranteeing learning opportunity equity
- (b) Column 2 highlights education sector program goals that can be used to achieve core basic education principles.
- (c) Column 3 suggests governance practices that can be applied to help achieve basic education program goals.



5

Democracy and Governance, and Education: Best Practice Descriptions

This section of the USAID resource guide provides a description of selected education and DG best practices. The best practice examples are intended to provide USAID staff working in the education and DG sectors with examples of how the two sectors can work together to address common issues. We have organized this section around five core questions:

- (a) How do countries establish governance policies and processes that support EFA?
- (b) How can effective civic education be practiced in the classroom?
- (c) How can education be used as a vehicle for conflict resolution in post-conflict societies?
- (d) How can decentralization of government authority be applied effectively in the education sector?
- (e) How can increased community participation in governance be applied effectively in the education sector?

Two best practice examples illustrate how each question was answered in a particular setting—the processes that were used, the technical resources that were provided, and the outcomes that were achieved.

A. How do Countries Establish Governance Policies and Processes that Support EFA?

Strong legal frameworks and democratic political processes are two fundamental principles of USAID’s Office of Democracy and Governance. When applied to basic education, these two principles can be used

Box 1: A Consultative Process with Stakeholders Results in Greater Equity through Education

In 1990, upon gaining independence from South Africa, the Namibian constitution was drafted. The new constitution made access to primary education a fundamental right. Primary schooling was made free and compulsory, and children were not able to leave school until the age of 16.

Namibia’s commitment to education for all emerged from widespread stakeholder participation in the governance process. Immediately after independence, the new ministry of education established a consultative process that enabled different stakeholder groups to discuss new education policies for their country. The ministry also made a concerted effort to keep the public informed regarding the process of policy development, through regular written reports and media announcements.

This broad-based participatory process of policy development made it possible to build national consensus for the implementation of new laws, regulations, and programs to support educational equity. For example, policies were put in place to ensure that schools would be racially integrated.

Namibian teachers were consulted on all key issues and played an important role in the policymaking process. Teachers themselves took steps to strengthen democratic structures within education, such as forming teachers’ unions and student councils.

The focus on educational equity in newly independent Namibia also included an emphasis on improving educational quality. For example, additional local resources were directed to strengthen the capacity of disadvantaged schools, while foreign technical support was used to enhance teacher education. At present, roughly a decade after independence, there has been a dramatic shift in the ability of Namibian children to enroll in primary school and receive a quality education.

to support the education sector goal of universal access to primary school. Strong legal frameworks often include constitutional rights to schooling. For example, democratic political processes, when applied to education, often provide for the participation of stakeholders with different political points of view in the design of national education systems.

Universal access to basic education is a relatively new policy in many developing countries. In the last decade, two world conferences (Jomtien, 1990; Dakar, 2000) have resulted in signed EFA agreements by some 180 countries. The Dakar agreement specifies that all children “have access to a complete, free, and compulsory education of good quality.” However, some nations still do not have policies or legal frameworks in place that guarantee educational opportunity for all.

Boxes 1 and 2 illustrate how Namibia and Mexico have addressed the challenging task of putting in place effective EFA policies. Such policies are characterized by a government commitment to provide not only access to schooling, but also access to quality learning opportunities for all children.

Box 2: The Design of Compensatory Educational Policies and Programs

Mexico’s recent history of targeting resources to improve educational opportunities of poor communities is an experience that other countries can learn from as they face similar challenges. Throughout the 1990s, Mexico implemented several educational programs that targeted poor communities in order to respond to the problem of high dropout and repetition rates in primary school. These programs are now supported by a national policy that seeks to improve equity through resource targeting mechanisms. One of the largest and best-known of these “compensatory” programs—termed for their purpose of attempting to compensate for the inequalities of educational opportunity—is the Program to Overcome the Educational Gap (PARE).

PARE was initiated in 1991 in Mexico’s four poorest states, where two thirds of the inhabitants live below the poverty line. Forty percent of the program’s budget (1991-1994) of \$352 million was nationally financed, with the remaining 60 percent coming from international sources (primarily the World Bank and Inter-American Development Bank). PARE took a multi-faceted approach to increasing access to schooling for poor communities. First, schools were upgraded and repaired, and new buildings were created where infrastructure was needed. Parent associations were given yearly funds for school improvement activities. The program also provided books for school libraries and developed textbooks in the eight main indigenous languages through the 4th grade. To enhance quality, teachers received training in subject matter, pedagogical techniques, and student evaluation and monitoring methods. In this way, the Mexican compensatory program sought to close the gaps in enrollment, completion, and achievement between the historically marginalized groups and the less poor sectors of society.

In terms of results, the program has been successful in equalizing inputs and narrowing the gap in completion rates between the poorest and less poor sectors. Between 1994 and 1998, completion (terminal efficiency) for the targeted schools rose from 59 percent to 71 percent, while for the non-targeted schools, it rose from 71 percent to 79 percent.

Mexico’s experience with compensatory programs and policy reflects both the political will of a government to improve educational opportunities for the poorest regions, and also the possibility of making changes at the level of access and completion through targeting resources to these regions. These efforts have gone to scale, as Mexico has followed this program with a series of other similar programs (PRODEI, PAREB, PAED, and PAREIB) and currently, compensatory programs reach roughly four million students in 43,000 rural, indigenous schools.

B. How can Effective Civic Education be Practiced in the Classroom?

Civic education is an important activity of USAID's Office of Democracy and Governance, which helps USAID Missions undertake various activities to increase citizen participation in the political process (e.g., helping support voter education campaigns).

School-based civic education has sought to help students learn the principles and practices of democracy. Recent studies by USAID and others indicate that traditional approaches to civic education have met with limited impact. These studies suggest the difficulty of teaching civic education in environments where those democratic behaviors being taught in the classroom are not found in a country's political culture.

Recent research also suggests that curriculum-wide active learning pedagogical strategies provide an effective approach to helping students learn democratic values and behaviors. Such active learning strategies include critical thinking skills, problem solving, and cooperative learning.

Boxes 3 and 4 illustrate the effectiveness of both content-based and pedagogical approaches to the promotion of democratic citizenship in the classroom. Project Citizen provides students with a hands-on, experiential approach to learning the basics of responsible citizenship, while the Step-by-step program in eastern Europe and Eurasia is an example of the use of active learning pedagogies to promote democratic behavior.

Box 3: Use of Active Learning Pedagogies to Promote Democratic Behavior Among Students in Early Childhood and Primary Education Programs

The Step-by-step program, implemented in Bulgaria, Kyrgyzstan, Romania, and Ukraine (among other countries), demonstrates the possibility of generating democratic teaching and learning practices in a context in which the role of schooling traditionally has been to transmit knowledge and skills to service the state ideology. The program, developed in 1994 by Children's Resources International, began in 15 countries and 250 classrooms and has now expanded to 26 countries and more than 5,000 classrooms. Initially for the pre-school level, the model has expanded to include primary school (as well as infant and toddler care). Its four components include a child-centered curriculum, transformation of the role of the teacher, parental involvement, and collaborative relations with teacher training institutions, ministries of education, and other structures. The premise of the Step-by-step model is that educating young children in a manner that encourages family participation and individualized teaching, while supporting children's ability to make choices, will lead to a new generation of citizens equipped to live in democratic societies.

The curriculum is based on individualized learning and teaching. Children are provided the choice of learning through play and experimentation, and the classroom is organized into learning activities to support choice and exploration. Teaching is also done in a way that supports the cultures and traditions of the participating families. This is made possible by the families' involvement in the educational process, which is perhaps the most important aspect of the model. The participating families become actively involved in their children's classrooms and work with teachers to implement the curriculum.

The role of the teacher in this program is not as a transmitter of information, but rather as a facilitator of children's learning. Step-by-step teachers must understand and learn how to assess child development and children's learning. To help ensure that teachers receive adequate training, the program establishes collaborative relationships with teacher training institutions and with the ministry of education.

An evaluation of the program, carried out by USAID's IEQ project, found that children in Step-by-step classrooms use significantly more democratic practices than traditional classrooms. In terms of achievement, Step-by-step children were found to perform as well or better than children in traditional classrooms, especially in mathematics. This program is an example of a model that has been effective at promoting teaching and learning practices based on democratic principles. It has gone to scale in many countries in eastern Europe and Eurasia.

Box 4: An Experiential Approach to Democracy: Linking the Classroom to the Community

Project Citizen is a global initiative that encourages civic participation among middle grade students, their parents, and members of the community. The program, developed by the Center for Civic Education, actively engages students in learning how to monitor and influence public policy through an interactive, cooperative process. Students learn by working together to identify and study a public policy issue, to develop recommendations for improving policy, and to draw up an action plan for implementing their recommendations. They then present the results of their research to a mock legislative committee, composed of parents and community leaders.

Project Citizen is being used in middle school classrooms throughout the United States and in countries around the world. For example, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, more than 100,000 students have learned about democracy from approximately 2,200 teachers trained in the Project Citizen program. In May 1999, students presented their work to more than 550 educators, students, government officials, and members of the media. Student presentations focused on addressing issues such as low economic growth, environmental degradation, and food safety. In Mexico, the Federal Election Institute launched a pilot program of Project Citizen in three Mexican states (the Federal District, Jalisco, and Yucatan). Student projects focused on local issues such as taking care of the environment, youth violence and its causes, spouse and children abuse, and drug addiction. In 1999 in Northern Ireland, an NGO based in Belfast and Dublin launched a three-year pilot of Project Citizen. The pilot builds on the Good Friday Agreement by fostering cross-community exchanges between youth in Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland. In Russia, Project Citizen activities take place in schools in Bryansk, Kolomna, Moscow, St. Petersburg, Samara, and Ulyanovsk. In the city of Syrzan, students argued that teachers should not use what they called legal drugs (alcohol and tobacco) in schools, and that these drugs should not be advertised on TV or in cinemas. Students discussed their ideas with candidates for electoral office in the city *duma*.

C. How can Education be Used as a Vehicle for Conflict Resolution in Post-conflict Societies?

Education is usually one of the first issues to be addressed in post-conflict societies engaged in the process of re-establishing good governance and civil society. The two best practice examples in Boxes 5 and 6 illustrate the ways in which education can be a focal point for dialogue and cooperation among political, ethnic, religious, and other stakeholder groups unaccustomed to working closely or collaborating with one another.

Box 5: Post-conflict Stakeholder Participation in Defining Educational Policy

In 1993, about eight months after the signing of the peace accords that ended El Salvador's 12-year civil war, an education sector assessment was carried out over a three-month period. The process and product of this sector assessment established an unprecedented national dialogue about education, and it created wide acceptance among stakeholders on new directions in education policy. These stakeholders came not only from governmental, non-governmental, and civil society sectors, but they also represented the different political parties and ideologies that had been engaged in civil war throughout the previous decade.

The ministry of education, with some international financial and technical assistance, designed the sector assessment to include consultation with stakeholders continually throughout the process. This was done in part through the formation of a technical committee, made up of representatives of a local research organization and universities, as well as the formation of stakeholder advisory committee. The latter included a wider range of stakeholders and had the role of connecting technical analysis with the dialogue on policy options. This dialogue was carried out throughout the process of the assessment and offered continual feedback on education sector issues from the different stakeholder groups. Thus, stakeholder consensus was reached on many occasions on different policy recommendations and ways to implement them. Since this sector assessment and national policy dialogue took place, El Salvador has been viewed as a model for its community-based school management and other participatory educational processes.

Box 6: Healing and Reconciliation for War-affected Children

The Butterfly Garden is a program aimed at helping to heal the trauma and emotional scaring of Sri Lankan children who have lived through war. The needs of the children that this program serves were surveyed prior to the design of the program. This survey, which included several hundred school children affected by armed conflict in three different districts, found that, of these children, 41 percent had experienced violence, and 53 percent had direct family members violently killed and "disappeared". The program was designed to invite these children into a space that models peaceful conduct, employs healing rituals, and brings out their creativity through various activities.

Over 600 schoolchildren from 20 communities (in the district of Batticaloa) and representing the local ethnic groups, Tamil and Muslim, participate in this creative play program. On a daily basis, 50 children from two to four communities of different ethnicities attend the garden. Children with difficulties attend weekly for a nine-month program. Staff also is composed of different ethnic groups. They facilitate clay work, drama, storytelling, music, and arts and crafts. Staff model for the children new and peaceful ways to resolve conflict and to deal with disturbing emotional issues. Also, the Butterfly Garden offers the opportunity for children to form relationships with children from other villages as well as connect with their own creative spirit of childhood. Cultural rituals are used to honor deep feelings and promote healing and reconciliation, enabling children to gain insights into their lives and integrate their past with their present.

After five years of operation, research on the Butterfly Garden revealed positive effects on children and also signs of success in peace building and reconciliation at the community level. The Butterfly Garden program has made a unique contribution to the efforts to address the needs of war-affected children, by offering a model that responds to their need for long-term psychological healing.

D. How can Decentralization of Government Authority be Applied Effectively in the Education Sector?

The decentralization of government services is among the first steps taken by newly emerging democracies to achieve greater public sector responsiveness. In education, decentralization has entailed the transfer of decision-making responsibility from a central ministry to other bodies in the education system (e.g., regional or district authorities, community groups, and schools themselves). The delegation

Box 7: How a Community Schools' Movement Affected National Education Policy and Practice

Mali's experience with community-based schools demonstrates the potential of decentralization developing at the local level and becoming a national model for expanding basic education. Begun in 1992, this initiative came out of a strong need to create more access to basic schooling for children in Mali. At this time, gross enrollment figures were as low as 14 percent in some districts. For girls, gross enrollment figures were as low as 8.5 percent. Community demands for schooling were not being met, both due to a disproportionate amount of money going towards secondary and higher education and a lack of capacity of the ministry of education to provide personnel.

Faced by the lack of response of the government, some communities began to organize their own schools, which were assisted by non-government and international organizations. In 1992, Save the Children and USAID/Mali began the first systematic attempt to help villages organize to establish primary schools. This model was different from the traditional, national system in various ways. It recognized that there is a high demand for basic education (if schools are located in the community, relevant, and parents feel ownership over it). The program hypothesis was that, given proper training, each community already has the means and resources necessary to provide relevant basic education to its children.

Under the USAID-Save the Children program, the school infrastructure is built by the community, using local materials. Tin roofing and materials for latrines are supplied, as are desks, a blackboard, and the first year's supply of notebooks and pens. There is a school fee of about \$0.20 monthly per student, which helps to pay teacher salaries. The community defines the amount of teacher salary, which averages about \$13 monthly (roughly 15 percent that of the salary of civil servant teachers). Teachers are recruited from the community and must have basic literacy skills and some schooling. They receive a one-month initial training, an annual two-week in-service seminar, and supervision by Save the Children in collaboration with national educational institutes. The curriculum differs from the official curriculum in that the first three grades are taught in the indigenous language (with an option for French in third grade). Instruction focuses on reading, writing, and calculating skills. Issues relevant to the community, such as the environment and health, are incorporated into the curriculum, through stories and other means. A school management committee, made up of parents and village leaders, is in charge of the administration, school maintenance and financing, setting the school calendar and class hours, and all other school decisions.

This model has demonstrated positive results since its inception. In a three-year period (1992-1995), a total of 62 schools were established to serve 4,638 children. Half of these newly enrolled children were girls, which breaks with the pattern of higher male enrollment. In these schools, attendance rates are higher (at about 95 percent) and dropout rates substantially lower. Promotion rates are much higher than in government schools, and, although there have not been systematic studies carried out, anecdotal evidence and classroom observation reflect improved reading and writing skills in these schools. There also has been an impact at the national level: The ministry of education has begun to recognize non-official schools. An official legal framework for non-government schools has been developed, which includes them as part of the education sector. Community schools also helped the ministry to reconsider standards and modalities for school management and personnel, thus providing a model for decentralization of education at the community level. The village school model also is being considered as part of Mali's national education sector strategy. What began as a community-based initiative to provide village children with basic education has become a national model for bottom-up decentralization.

Box 8: How Decentralization Has Helped Minority Groups Gain Greater Access to Basic Education

In 1992, India's federal government recognized the need to make a change to strengthen the effectiveness of basic education. At that time, about one third of the nation's children (ages 6-11) were not in school; there was a 40 percent primary school dropout rate; and about one third of all women were illiterate. Also, there was a low level of participation in representation by certain ethnic groups.

The government enacted a constitutional amendment that decentralized responsibility for much of basic and secondary education to the district and community level. The amendment led to the establishment of the District Primary Education program (DPEP), which operates in 7 states and 42 districts. Each state in DPEP was asked to establish an education council composed of government and NGO representatives, educational specialists, and community representatives. This council was given responsibility for the administration of funds for primary education.

Each village was asked to set up a village education committee (VEC) to participate in school planning and management. The VEC is intended to act as an advocate for community concerns and interests regarding primary school, and as a mechanism for mobilizing community participation and resources for basic education.

Thus far, the program has had a positive impact on achieving greater access to educational opportunity in participating states and districts. There is greater primary school participation and representation by different ethnic groups. Enrollment growth has averaged 5.5 percent in DPEP districts versus less than 1 percent in non-DPEP districts; DPEP enrollment has increased faster for girls than for boys. Overall repetition and dropout rates have declined, learning achievement rates have increased, and the Index of Social Equity for caste children in participating districts also has improved.

of education sector decision-making can cover a wide range of issues, e.g., definition of curriculum standards, allocation of financial and material resources, and supervision and management of schools.

Experience in countries around the world suggests that decentralization, in and of itself, is not necessarily related to greater education sector responsiveness. Successful education decentralization efforts depend on the establishment of clear standards of accountability and transparency in the way that services are designed and carried out. Decentralization also often requires targeted efforts in capacity building—both to strengthen the ability of those groups whose level of responsibility increases as a result of decentralization, as well as strengthen the ability of agencies at the center, district, and community to effectively work together within a decentralized administrative structure.

Boxes 7 and 8 illustrate how India and Mali have developed innovative approaches to education sector decentralization in order to increase community participation and address issues of educational equity.

E. How can Increased Community Participation in Governance be Applied Effectively in the Education Sector?

The development of civil society calls for increased citizen participation in the policy process and oversight of public institutions. In education, increased citizen participation can take a variety of forms. In the education sector, parents and community groups can serve as education resource providers, advocates for education reform, monitors of teacher and school performance, and school managers. Best practice examples from Uganda and Ghana in Boxes 9 and 10 illustrate effective strategies that governments and international donors have used to strengthen community participation in basic education.

Box 9: Use of Indicators to Measure the Impact of Community Participation in Basic Education

The Community School Alliances (CSA) project in Ghana is part of a large-scale effort to help communities mobilize, build capacity, and effect sustainable local and regional improvements in school quality. The program, which is implemented in roughly 300 communities, aims to increase community participation in schooling and involve the community in the design and monitoring of school improvement efforts.

CSA begins with an assessment of community awareness, support and involvement in basic education. An extensive participatory learning and action (PAL) process is carried out that consists of interviews with six sub-groups of the community: chiefs and elders, school management committee/parent-teacher association members, teachers, parents of students, and non-parents. This information from these interviews is then synthesized and shared with the community as a whole, generating a dialogue based on multiple perspectives. The community then develops an action plan to improve local primary school education. The PTA is responsible for refining the action plan and applying for a micro-grant to implement the school improvement project. During the implementation process, community members and facilitators assess educational progress.

CSA has successfully developed a way for communities to participate in the monitoring and evaluation of their own efforts to improve education. It has allowed communities to demonstrate to themselves their advancement in areas such as strengthening school management practices, trust in the schooling process, and their own advocacy in school improvement. Impact studies reflect that, after roughly three years of operation, the CSA project had already greatly increased the participation of Ghanaian communities in basic education.

Box 10: Use of Participatory Action Research as a Means of Improving Community Participation in Basic Education

Uganda's experience with participatory action research (PAR) is an example of the possibilities of improving educational quality by engaging the community in a process of inquiry, data gathering, and collective search for solutions. Begun in 1998 as a research and development activity to support the primary education reform, this initiative aimed to strengthen the research capacity within the Ugandan community, to use research findings to strengthen the education system, to create opportunities for partnerships and dialogue among Ugandan education policymakers and practitioners, and to facilitate international linkages between Uganda and international research communities.

PAR was chosen as the approach for this effort, which begins with outside researchers and groups of teachers, community members, and students reflecting on ideas about quality education. Based on this discussion, concerns about educational quality in a particular school emerge and provide a focus for data gathering. For example, a Ugandan community that was concerned with student absenteeism collected data on student attendance and reasons for absenteeism. Another group, which was concerned with effective class time, began to monitor the time of school opening and class initiation. The researchers and community members then analyze the findings of these inquiries and take action to change the situation.

The experience of using PAR has enabled participating Ugandan communities to convene meetings, set agendas, widen participation, assess their situation systematically, analyze data, and act on the findings in order to improve the quality of schooling. For the first time, some community members and teachers began to participate in district and national level conferences about educational quality, sharing their findings and voicing their concerns in an organized way. Community members and teachers developed more confidence about their own research capacities instead of relying on external experts. Also, parents have begun to get more involved in academic life by talking with teachers about their children's education and collaborating to improve school conditions. The impact of the PAR approach in Uganda, thus far, has proved to be an effective way of strengthening democratic practices, while at the same time improving educational quality.

Endnotes

¹ Martin Carnoy, *The Case for Investing in Basic Education*, UNICEF, New York, 1992, pp. 12-13.

² U.S. Agency for International Development, “Basic Education: Building the Foundation for People and Nations”, 2002, In press, p.4.

³ Ibid., p.5.

⁴ Carnoy, pp. 16-17.

⁵USAID, p.5.

⁶ Carnoy, p. 26.

⁷ K. Watkins, “Basic education: a catalyst for human development”. Oxfam International, 1999. <<http://www.caa.org.au/oxfam/advocacy/education/report/index.htm>>

⁸ George Psacharopoulos and Maureen Woodhall, *Education for Development: An Analysis for Investment Choices*, Oxford University Press, 1985, p. 19.

⁹ Ibid., p. 20.

¹⁰ Carnoy, p. 25.

¹¹ Ibid., p. 24.

¹² Ibid., pp. 35-6.

¹³ Ibid., p. 34

¹⁴ Ibid., p.

¹⁵ Watkins.

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ Carnoy, p. 56.

¹⁸ Ibid., p.55.

¹⁹ Watkins.

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ Ibid.

²² Ibid.

²³ USAID, p.4.

²⁴ Ibid., p.4

²⁵ E. Schiefelbein, *In Search of the School of the XXI Century: Is the Colombian Escuela Nueva the Right Pathfinder?* UNESCO, Santiago, Chile, 1991.

²⁶ J. Brady, D. Dickenson, J. Hirschler, T. Cross, and L. Green., "Evaluation of the Step Program," Education Development Center, 1998.

²⁷ Watkins.

²⁸ F. Reimers, "Participation and Educational Change in Latin America", Working Papers on Latin America, The David Rockefeller Center, Paper No.96-4, 1996.

²⁹ F. Reimers (Ed.) *Unequal Schools, Unequal Chances. The Challenges to Equal Opportunity in the Americas*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA, 2000.

³⁰ J. Carasco, N. Clair, and L. Kanyike, "Enhancing Dialogue among Researchers, Policymakers, and Community Members in Uganda: Complexities, Possibilities, and Persistent Questions", *Comparative Education Review*, Vol. 45, No.2. May 2001.

³¹ U.S. Agency for International Development, "Community-based Primary Education: Lessons Learned from the Basic Education Expansion Project (BEEP) in Mali", Human Resources and Democracy Division, Office of Sustainable Development, Bureau of Africa, February, 1996.

³² J. Dewey, *Democracy and Education: An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1916.

References

General References

- Amissah, P., Andoh-Kumi, K., Asare Amoah, S., Awedoba, A., Mensah, F., Wilmot, E., and Miske, S. (November 2001). *IEQ2/Ghana Final Report: The Implementation of Ghana's School Language Policy*. Washington, DC: American Institutes of Research.
- Bray, M. (1999). Control of Education. Issues and Tensions in Centralization and Decentralization in *Comparative Education. The Dialectic of the Global and the Local*, edited by Robert F. Arnove and Carlos Alberto Torres. Lanham, MD: Rowman and Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
- Caballero, P. (1999). "La Autonomia Escolar y el Proyecto Educativo Institucional", in *Reformas en Educacion y Salud en America Latina y el Caribe*. Martinic, S., Aedo, C., and Corvalan, J. Santiago, Chile: LOM Ediciones Ltda.
- Carnoy, M. (1998, August). "National Voucher Plans in Chile and Sweden: Did Privatization Reforms Make for Better Education?" *Comparative Education Review*. Vol. 42 (3), Pp. 309-337.
- Fuller, B. (1990), *Growing-Up Modern: The Western State Builds Third World Schools*. New York: Routledge.
- Levinson, Bradley A.U. and Margaret Sutton (2001). "Introduction: Policy as/in Practice—A Sociocultural Approach to the Study of Educational Policy," in Sutton, M. and Levinson, B. (Eds.). *Policy as Practice. Towards a Comparative Sociocultural Analysis of Educational Policy*. Westport, Conn.: Ablex Publishing.
- Maclure, R. (1994). "Misplaced Assumptions of Decentralization and Participation in Rural Communities: Primary School Reform in Burkina Faso." *Comparative Education*, 30 (3).
- Management Systems International. Brilliant, F. (2000) *Civic Education Assessment –Stage II. Civic Education Programming Since 1990 –A Case Study Based Analysis*.
- McGovern, Seana (1999). "Participation" section of "Modern Development: An Analysis of *The Development Dictionary in Education, Modern Development, and Indigenous Knowledge. An Analysis of Academic Knowledge Production*. NY: Garland.
- Meyer-Bisch, P. (1995). *Culture of Democracy: A Challenge for Schools*. Paris, France: UNESCO publishing.
- Mundy, K. and L. Murphy. (2001, February). "Transnational Advocacy, Global Civil Society? Emerging Evidence from the Field of Education." *Comparative Education Review*. Vol. 45 (1), Pp. 85-126.
- Oldenquist, A. 1996. *Can Democracy Be Taught?* Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation. Bloomington, Indiana.
- Peters, P. (1996). "Who's Local Here? The Politics of Participation in Development." *Cultural Survival*, 22-25.

Plank & Boyd. (1994). "Politics and Governance of Education," in Husen, T. & Postlethwaite, T.N. (Eds.), *The International Encyclopedia of Education (2nd Ed.), Volume 4*. New York: Pergamon.

Psacharopoulos, G., Rojas, C., and Velez, E. (1992) "Achievement Evaluation of Colombia's Escuela Nueva: Is Multigrade the Answer?". The World Bank.

Riddell, A. (1997). "Reforms of the Governance of Education: Centralization and Decentralization," in Cummings, W. and McGinn, N. (Eds.). *International Handbook of Education and Development: Preparing Schools, Students and Nations for the Twenty-first Century*. New York. Pergamon Press. Pp. 186-196.

Reimers, F. (2002) *Something to Hide: The Politics of Education Evaluation in Latin America*. The Rockefeller Center for Latin American Studies, Cambridge, MA.

Rugh, A.B. and Bostert, H. (1998). *Involving Communities: Participation and the Delivery of Education Programs*. Washington, DC: Creative Associates.

Sanders, M. and Epstein, J. (1998). "School-Family-Community Partnerships and Educational Change: International Perspectives," in Hargreaves, A., A. Lieberman, M. Fullan and D. Hopkins (Eds.) *International Handbook of Educational Change*. Boston, MA: Kluwer Academic Publishers. Pp. 482-502.

Schwab, R.G. (2001). "That School Gotta Recognize *Our* Policy! The Appropriation of Educational Policy in an Australian Aboriginal Community," in Margaret Sutton and Bradley A.U. Levinson (Eds.). *Policy as Practice. Towards a Comparative Sociocultural Analysis of Educational Policy*. Westport, Conn.: Ablex Publishing.

Shaeffer, S. (1992). "A Conceptual Framework for Collaboration in Educational Change" in *Collaborating for Education Change: The Role of Teachers, Parents and the Community in School Improvement* in Sheldon Shaeffer (Ed). Paris: IIEP.

Torney-Purtna, J. (1999). *Civic Education Across Countries*. Delft, Netherlands: Eburan Publishers.

Reimers, F. (Ed.) (1995). *La Educacion en El Salvador de Cara al Siglo XXI: Desafios y Oportunidades. (Education in El Salvador Facing the Twenty-first Century: Challenges and Opportunities*. San Salvador, El Salvador: UCA Editors.

UNESCO. (2000). *The Dakar Framework for Action. Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments*. Paris, France: UNESCO Publishers.

Annotated Resources for Section 5

(a) How do Countries put in Place Governance Policies and Processes that Support Educational Opportunity for All?

Angula, N. and Grant Lewis, S. (1997). **Promoting Democratic Processes in Educational Decision-making: Reflections from Namibia's First 5 Years.** *International Journal for Education Development*, Vol. 17, No.3, pp. 222-229. This article, co-authored by the former SWAPO Secretary of Education and Culture, examines the efforts of the Namibian government to democratize educational decision-making in

the first 5 years following independence. It emphasizes the competing interests and political and economic constraints at the school, community, region, nation, and international levels. It assesses the intentions, strategies, successes and lessons that may be useful for other countries struggling to reach similar goals in the democratization of decision making in education.

Zeichner, K., and Dahlstrom, L. (1999). *Democratic Teacher Education Reform in Africa. The Case of Namibia*. Westview Press: Boulder, CO. This book examines post-independence, teacher-education reforms in Namibia from the perspectives of different actors in the reform process. Sixteen of the nineteen chapters are authored by Namibians, consistent with the current focus of building and sustaining national capacity. These chapters examine challenges and successes in the pursuit of the central goals of the Namibian educational reforms—access, equity, democracy, and quality. Some of the approaches discussed in depth are learner-centered pedagogy, community participation, construction of knowledge, and teachers as reflective practitioners.

Reimers, F. (Ed.) 2000. *Unequal Schools Unequal Chances. The Challenges to Equal Opportunity in the Americas*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. This book examines the successes and failures of attempts to create more equitable education systems through policy and program changes in countries throughout the American continent. Educational leaders from the countries discussed, such as the United States, Mexico, Chile, Peru, and Colombia author the different chapters. The book offers both a critical analysis of efforts to improve equity through education as well as recommendations and insights into how to be more effective in these efforts.

(b) How can Effective Civic Education be Practiced in the Classroom?

Sandoval, R.P., Bernal, E.C., Ardila, J.P., Sandoval, F.P, and Vera Gil, C. (1996). *La Escuela Nueva*. (The New School). Bogota, Colombia: Editores Colombia, S.A. This book (in Spanish) is an ethnographic study of the Escuela Nueva program in Colombia. It explains in detail the design and implementation of the different components of Escuela Nueva, documents observations of ten sample schools, and includes interviews with directors, teachers, students, parents, and community members.

Schiefelbein, E. (1991) *In Search of the School of the XXI Century: Is the Colombian Escuela Nueva the Right Pathfinder?* Santiago, Chile: UNESCO/UNICEF. This book, available in Spanish and English, is an explanation of the origin, rationale and design of the Escuela Nueva model.

Brady, J, Dickenson, D., Hirschler, J., Cross, T., and Green, L. (1998) *Evaluation of the Step Program*. Education Development Center. This document is the result of an evaluation of the Step-by-Step Program conducted in four countries (Bulgaria, Kyrgyzstan, Romania, and Ukraine) with a sample of five Step-by-step and five traditional kindergarten classrooms in each of the countries.

(c) How can Education be used as a Vehicle for Conflict Resolution in Post-conflict Societies?

Chase, R. (2002). *Healing and Reconciliation for War-affected Children and Communities: Learning from the Butterfly Garden of Sri Lanka's Eastern Province*, in Miller, V., *Helping Children Outgrow War*, USAID Bureau for Africa, AFR/SD. This is a guidebook that consists of cases, resources, and concepts that can be useful for the planning of educational interventions in post-conflict and crisis settings. The first part offers a framework to assist project designers in constructing interventions in post-conflict settings. The remainder of the book contains cases and critical issues covering themes such as rapid educational response packages, demobilization of child soldiers, children's participation in project work, healing from trauma, community mobilization, and peace education.

Reimers, F. (1996). Participation and Educational Change in Latin America. *Working Papers on Latin America*. The David Rockefeller Center. Paper No. 96-4. This paper discusses an alternative to traditional, non-participatory educational planning by proposing participatory policy dialogue. It discusses the case of El Salvador, in which a participatory methodology was used in the aftermath of the 12-year civil war to identify the principal problems facing the educational system and options for reform. The document explains how the process was carried out using extensive participation by several organizations and intensive dialogue with an advisory group that included representatives from a variety of associations and political groups.

(d) How can the Decentralization of Government Authority be Effectively Applied in the Education Sector?

Fiske, E. (1996). *Decentralization of Education: Politics and Consensus*. World Bank Group. Washington D.C. This book was prepared by the Education Team of the Human Development Department of the World Bank, and is part of a series covering a range of topics relating to restructuring education systems. It seeks to identify the different issues that arise as education ministries decentralize. It also includes a case study of Colombia's decentralization process as well as short descriptions of other countries' decentralization experiences. The book is aimed at political and educational policymakers and practitioners in developing countries as well as staff of donor and non-governmental organizations.

Florestal, K., and Cooper, R. (1996). *Decentralization of Education: Legal Issues*. World Bank Group. Washington D.C. This book was prepared by the education team of the Human Development Department of the World Bank, and is part of a series covering a range of topics relating to restructuring education systems. It deals with the legal aspects of primary education decentralization. This book consists of an overview of the legal issues involved in decentralization and provides suggestions for designing the necessary legislation. It is aimed at those who plan and implement education programs, and has a practical approach in offering guidelines for the legal issues that are likely to be encountered as well as the preparation of necessary legislation for decentralization.

Pandey, R.S. (2000). *Going to Scale with Education Reform: India's District Primary Education Program, 1995-1999*. *Country Studies. Education Reform and Management Publication Series*. Vol. I, No. 4. (Available on line at: <http://www1.worldbank.org/education/globaleducationreform/pdf/india.pdf>) This document, written by the former head of the DPEP Bureau, is an assessment of the DPEP program. It describes the antecedents, context, design and implementation process of the program as well as oppositions and difficulties it faced. It also discusses the impact of the program and lessons learned.

USAID. (1996, February). *Community-based Primary Education: Lessons Learned from the Basic Education Expansion Project (BEEP) in Mali*. Human Resources and Democracy Division, Office of Sustainable Development, Bureau of Africa. This document explains the development of the Mali community-based "village school" initiative, the rationale for its design, its expansion, and some initial results. It also discusses the impact it has caused on a larger, national level. In addition, there is a discussion of the critical issues, or elements that must be looked at in depth in order to contribute to the success of the model.

(e) How can Increased Community Participation in Governance be Applied in the Education Sector?

American Institutes for Research. (2002, March). *Pathways to Quality*. The Improving Educational Quality Project. U.S. Agency for International Development. This document summarizes eight case

studies from the IEQ project: language policy in Ghana, applied research and bilingual education in Guatemala, classroom research in Haiti, improving access in Honduras, modernizing teacher education in Jamaica, linking research to policy in Malawi, using research to define quality in Uganda, and using the IEQ principles in evaluation in Europe and Eurasia. The first part of the document is an introduction to the IEQ cycle, and offers a framework for enhancing quality while responding to the demands of universal access. The second part is a discussion of the application of the cycle through the eight cases, which explains the implementation process for each case as well as lessons learned.

Carasco, J. Clair, N., and Kanyike, L. “Enhancing Dialogue among Researchers, Policymakers, and Community Members in Uganda: Complexities, Possibilities, and Persistent Questions”. *Comparative Education Review*, Vol. 45, No.2. May 2001. This article is the result of a study of the attempt to enhance community participation to improve educational quality and equity in Uganda. It discusses the challenges and effects of engaging community members in research and policy dialogue with researchers and policymakers.

Leherr, K., Boardman, J., Addae-Boahene, A, & Arkoful, k. (2001, March). “ ‘Best Practices’ in Community Participation in Education”. *Education Development Center, Community School Alliances Project, Ghana.* This document is an assessment of the sustainability and impact of the CSA project after three years of operation.

Website for Community School Alliance program. <http://www.edc.org/CSA/> This website gives detailed information about the CSA program. Sample monitoring and evaluation instruments are also available at this website.

Office of Democracy and Governance Documents

Technical Publication Series

- PN-ACP-335: **Alternative Dispute Resolution Practitioners Guide**
- PN-ACP-331: **Approaches to Civic Education: Lessons Learned**
- PN-ACP-336: **Case Tracking and Management Guide**
- PN-ACP-337: **Civil-military Relations: USAID's Role**
- PN-ACP-338: **Conducting a DG Assessment: A Framework for Strategy Development**
- PN-ACP-339: **Decentralization and Democratic Local Governance Programming Handbook**
- PN-ACR-210: **Democracy and Governance: A Conceptual Framework**
- PN-ACM-007: **Guidance for Promoting Judicial Independence and Impartiality**
- PN-ACR-211: **Handbook of Democracy and Governance Program Indicators**
- PN-ACR-212: **A Handbook on Fighting Corruption**
- PN-ACR-213: **Managing Assistance in Support of Political and Electoral Processes**
- PN-ACR-214: **The Role of Media in Democracy: A Strategic Approach**
- PN-ACR-215: **USAID Handbook on Legislative Strengthening**
- PN-ACR-216: **USAID Political Party Development Assistance**

Occasional Papers Series

- PN-ACR-217: **Understanding Representation: Implications for Legislative Strengthening**
- PN-ACR-218: **Participation, Consultation, and Economic Reform in Africa**
- PN-ACM-006: **The Enabling Environment for Free and Independent Media**
- PN-ACR-220: **Achievements in Building and Maintaining the Rule of Law**

TO ORDER FROM THE DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCE CLEARINGHOUSE:

- Please reference the document title and document identification number (listed above the document titles on this page and on the cover of this publication).
- USAID employees, USAID contractors overseas, and USAID sponsored organizations overseas may order documents at no charge.
- Universities, research centers, government offices, and other institutions located in developing countries may order up to five titles at no charge.
- All other institutions and individuals may purchase documents. Do not send payment. When applicable, reproduction and postage costs will be billed.

Fax orders to (301) 588-7787 **Attn:** USAID Development Experience Clearinghouse (DEC)

E-mail orders to docorder@dec.cdie.org



PN-ACR-222

Office of Democracy and Governance

Bureau for Democracy, Conflict, and Humanitarian Assistance

U.S. Agency for International Development

Washington, D.C. 20523-3100

Tel: (202) 712-1892

Fax: (202) 216-3231

Internet: http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/democracy_and_governance/

Intranet: <http://inside.usaid.gov/G/DG/>