
Notes

Executive summary

1. All dollar amounts are US dollars unless otherwise indicated.

Chapter 2

1. This is the fundamental argument in Berhman and Birdsall (1983), who show that private returns to the quality of education are higher than private returns to the quantity of education.

2. This study included only 3 developing countries in a sample of 39 countries. Expenditures on schooling were not correlated with student performance on the tests.

3. In fact, market distortions in developing countries typically keep the marginal private return, if not the average private return, high compared with that in developed countries. In Egypt, for example, the government policy of guaranteeing public sector jobs to all secondary school and university graduates ensured high marginal private returns, especially to higher education. But these rates were independent on the quality of education, the productivity of the graduates (a function of human capital, motivation, and complementary inputs) and whether there was real demand for their skills in the public sector. The policy probably reduced the demand for and pressure on the educational system to transmit learning and skills as opposed to simply certifying graduates (Birdsall, London, and O'Connell 1999).

4. For more on poverty traps, see UN Millennium Project 2005a.

Chapter 4

1. Primary completion is the total number of students successfully completing the last year of primary school divided by the total number of children of “graduating age” in a given year. In some cases, completion is measured as true “survival” to the end of a five-to six-year school cycle; in other cases, completion is measured using a proxy (enrollment in the final grade of the cycle). Primary completion rates used in this section are those provided by the World Bank.

Chapter 5

1. Large portions of chapters 5–7 are excerpted from Lewis (2004).
2. Enrollment is a poor indicator of learning; it is used here only because better indicators, such as the proportion of children completing primary school and measures of learning achievement, are unavailable for many countries.
3. Low-income countries are defined here as countries eligible for International Development Association (IDA) lending from the World Bank. Includes IDA and blend countries.
4. In Uganda the government measured its performance in getting resources transferred equitably to schools, found it lacking, and took corrective action.
5. The CIET (1999) Social Audits provide additional quantitative measures by country.
6. It should be noted that not all countries consider education highly corrupt. In Latvia and Romania, for example, education was ranked as one of the least corrupt, so circumstances vary.

Chapter 6

1. Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Benin, Cambodia, Cameroon, Chad, China, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Iran, the Republic of Korea, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malawi, Mali, Morocco, Mozambique, Myanmar, Niger, Pakistan, Rwanda, Tajikistan, Uganda, and Yemen participated in the program.
2. Central American Health Institute, www.icas.net.
3. Although researchers attempted to control for underlying differences between the participants and nonparticipants, doing so remains a methodological challenge and should be taken into consideration in interpreting the results.
4. See "From Promises to Action: Recommendations for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women" (UN Millennium Project 2004b), which also discusses increasing opportunities for postprimary education.
5. Much of this section is based on Lewis 2004.
6. Eighty-one percent of Caribbean countries provide teacher to pupil ratios, suggesting that these countries have more difficulty obtaining population figures.

Appendix 2

1. This appendix is a summary of the civil society e-discussion the task force initiated to gain a better understanding of civil society's thoughts on education. The e-discussion took place from July 12, 2004 to August 1, 2004. These comments are based on an earlier version of the report, and the current version incorporates many of the comments.
2. The majority of these participants were part of the previous online dialogue on the gender equality report. One hundred and ninety-nine new people joined the group, and approximately 18 unsubscribed.

Appendix 3

1. This report was written by Maria Beatriz Orlando, research associate at the Center for Global Development.
2. Main sources of information: The World Bank; United States Agency for International Development; Academy for Educational Development; Inter-American Development Bank; Asian Development Bank; African Development Bank; Basic Education Coalition; United

Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization; United Nations Children's Fund; Research Triangle Institute; Save the Children; Programa de Promoción de la Reforma Educativa en América Latina y el Caribe; Creative Associates; and Care International.

3. Education reforms in Chile during the 1990s included several sectorwide initiatives that were implemented successfully under the General Education Improvement Programs (Proyectos de Mejoramiento Educativo), which provided funds for reforms at the school level. Schools applied for a fund (\$3,060–\$10,205, depending on enrollment) to implement an improvement project (see De Andraca 2003). In Uruguay, a World Bank project finances full-day schools (De Andraca 2003).

4. The implementation of school vouchers in Colombia was restricted to secondary education. However, this program contains education reform features that are relevant to primary education as well. This program was one of the largest voucher programs in the world (including developed countries) and one of the best designed and evaluated. In spite of the significant positive impact of this initiative the program was discontinued, perhaps for budgetary reasons.

5. Other comprehensive reforms in Southern Africa have been undertaken in Benin, Guinea, Malawi, and Uganda. All of these reforms have had good results in terms of increasing enrollment and improving quality.

6. Fuller and Rivarola (1998). See Patrinos and Ariasingam (1997) for a discussion about decentralization in education provision.

7. For a complete survey on school effectiveness see Scheerens (1999), Saunders (2000), and Pineros and Rodriguez (1999).

8. Other countries in Latin America have implemented similar evaluation systems. De Andraca (2003) summarizes evaluations of initiatives in Argentina (SINEC, established in 1993), Brazil (SAEB, implemented in 1990), and Costa Rica (since 1989).

9. In Iran, UNICEF finances a program tailored to the needs of rural working girls. The key elements to its success are promotion in the community, flexible hours, careful selection of female teachers, safe locations, interactive methods, and appropriate educational materials. In China, another UNICEF program provides basic education for out-of-school adolescents. More information on these projects can be found on UNICEF's Evaluation Database (<http://www.unicef.org/evaldatabase/>).

10. This program is based on the Nueva Escuela Primaria (New School) implemented successfully in Colombia since 1975. In Colombia, the Nueva Escuela has significantly improved access to and quality of education in rural areas. Multigrade schools have been implemented in several Latin American, Asian, and African countries. Costa Rica started a pilot multigrade school project in 1995. In the Dominican Republic, multigrade schools are a tool to improve equity (see multiphase program described below). For more on Latin American countries implementing multigrade schools, see De Andraca (2003). For more on multigrade schools in Africa see UNICEF (2004c).

11. De Andraca (2003) has more information about this project.

12. See World Bank (1999b, 2003a) and PREAL (2003).

13. This project is supported by UNICEF. Helgesson (2001) points out the great gains in education access thanks to COBET. One remaining challenge of this project is how to place COBET graduates in the formal school system (few children continue to secondary school).

14. This project is also supported by UNICEF. COPE's methods and materials have been evaluated and considered highly effective (Deweese 2001). However, the program suffers from high rates of failure and desertion, in part because it remains as a parallel alternative to the formal school system (Deweese 2001).

15. This program has had remarkable success and students are able to advance two to four grades in one year (De Andraca 2003).

16. The African Girls Education Initiative is a partnership among countries, donor governments, and UN agencies (UNESCO and UNICEF) launched in 1994. The initiative helps countries develop policies and programs that respond to the specific nature of their girls' education challenges. This program has helped produce girls enrollment increases in Guinea (15 percentage points), Senegal (12 percentage points), Benin (9 percentage points), and Chad in short periods of time (UNICEF 2003).

17. The project faces obstacles to finding dedicated staff and motivating regional officers (Sarti Malone and Haihambo-Muetudhana 2002).

18. The World Food Programme has supported similar programs around the world. For more information see World Food Programme (2003b).

19. School fees have also been eliminated in Kenya, Malawi, and Tanzania. Enrollment increased drastically after this measure in all three countries in a very short period of time. The jump in enrollment caused crowded classrooms and created new challenges for education quality (UNICEF 2004c).

20. According to the World Food Programme (2003a), the increase in enrollment for girls was 197 percent. Student attendance and dropout rates were also positively affected.

21. The Inter-American Development Bank is supporting these programs. (www.iadb.org).

22. The World Bank's cumulative lending for early child development programs increased from \$100 million in 1990 to approximately \$1,100 million in 2000.

23. The World Food Programme school feeding programs alone covered 15.6 million children in 64 countries during 2002. See World Food Programme (2003b).

24. For more information about this program see Smith and Wexford (2000).

Appendix 4

1. In some countries the net enrollment ratio will miss underage children who have passed through school and graduated before the expected age for finishing primary school. Though the numbers of such children can be significant in some countries, for most countries they are a very small share of the total. Thus for the Middle East and North Africa in 1999/2000 more than 69 percent of children in Lebanon and 35 percent of children in Morocco entered school one year later than the official entry age, whereas in the United Arab Emirates almost half the new entrants to primary school were one year younger than the official entry age. In Sub-Saharan Africa, by contrast, only six countries had more than 10 percent of children entering before the official age for entry (though this may be affected by age rounding).

2. ISCED was revised in 1997. ISCED 1997 introduced a division of upper secondary programs into ISCED 3A general education and ISCED 3B technical education. ISCED 4 covering postsecondary, nontertiary programs was also introduced. Primary education cycles (ISCED 1) are largely comparable before and after 1997, but comparison is very difficult for secondary (ISCED 2 lower and ISCED 3 upper), which may include programs that were subsequently classified as ISCED 4 after the introduction of the 1997 classification. UIS is undertaking a major program of work to evaluate the impact of the 1997 change.

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