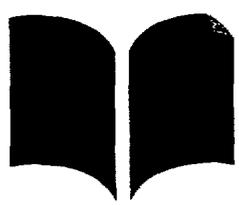


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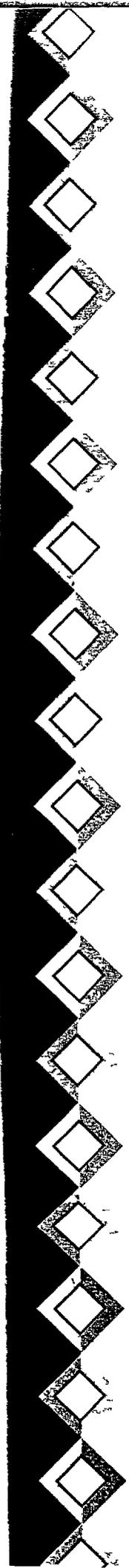
**Including Girls in Basic Education:
Chronology and Evolution
of USAID Approaches**

Conducted by

The ABEL 2 Consortium
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**Including Girls in Basic Education:
Chronology and Evolution of USAID Approaches**

Prepared by
Christina Rawley

Submitted to

ABEL Project
Creative Associates International, Inc
5301 Wisconsin Avenue, NW - Suite 700
Washington, DC 20015

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INTRODUCTION

While the number of children enrolled in primary schools in the developing world has increased markedly in the last two decades, the goals of universal primary education and equal access to primary education for both girls and boys have not been achieved. Some countries have witnessed an increase in the disparity between sexes at the primary level since 1970 (UNESCO 1991), in South Asia the gross enrollment ratio for girls lags by more than 25 percent behind that of boys (UNESCO 1991). Generally, progress in enrollment in developing countries remain slower for girls than for boys. Often, even when enrolled, girls are less likely than boys to complete primary school. Guatemala is a case in point. 75 percent of school age children enroll in primary school, but only approximately 54 percent graduate from sixth grade (Chesterfield 1991), by which point the ratio of boys to girls is 2:1 in rural schools (Nunez et al. 1991).

Missed educational opportunities for girls limits social and economic options for women, reducing the potential socio-economic returns of education investments in developing countries (Floro and Wolf 1990, Tietjen 1991).

Fewer girls in primary schools is a major contributor to poverty in low income countries. Evidence increasingly shows that ensuring girls have access to primary education has a strong positive effect on long-term economic growth, agricultural productivity, health and nutritional status, and environmental conservation (King 1990, Schultz 1989, 1991, Psacharopoulos 1989, Benavot 1989, Narayan 1993). A wealth of research correlates the enrollment rates of girls with lower infant and maternal mortality, longer life expectancy for both men and women, and lower fertility rates than countries with less educated women (Colclough 1982, Eiseimon 1988, Haddad et al. 1990, King 1990, King and Hill 1991). King (1990) also shows that, when comparing countries with similar per capita income and patterns of expenditures in the social sectors, those with larger gender gaps experience worse indicators of social welfare.

Purpose of the Study

This study chronicles the history of USAID's efforts since 1980 to achieve equal access to basic education¹ for girls and boys. It is organized around three central questions: What approaches

¹Basic education can take many forms, including formal schooling, vocational training programs, informal household education, and on-the-job training. USAID's emphasis on different forms of basic education has changed over the years. During the 1970s the definition included a broad range of experience and age groups in the formal and non-formal sectors. In the 1980s and 1990s, however, the definition became specific to the attainment of skills usually acquired in formalized schooling. Formal schooling is most amenable to policy so it is of particular interest to governments and to international institutions. Basic education for girls in this review primarily refers to levels of literacy and numeracy usually acquired in formal education at

have been used to include girls in basic education programs? What has been the extent of USAID support to include girls? What are the future trends in approaches to equitable basic education for all girls and boys?

Five sections follow this introduction. The first section of the paper begins with an examination of the chronology and evolution of USAID strategies supporting basic education for girls. This section also presents an overview of basic concepts on women in development (WID) and gender issues, framing the evolution of USAID's programming in girls' education within a broader historical context. The second section reviews funding trends for programs that focus on girls. Section three reviews selected basic education programs for girls. Section four presents sub-sector strategies, such as educational research, teacher training, staffing and administration, curriculum development, and classroom facilities. The conclusion presents major findings and suggests future trends in project and program development to meet the challenge of gender equitable basic education.

Methodology

Several methods were used in the collection of information for this review. First, a search was conducted of several specialized databases, including the Center for Development Information and Evaluation (CDIE) at USAID, the SARA library at Creative Associates International, Inc., and the SHARE database at the Harvard Institute for International Development. These databases provided the bulk of the documents used. A second source of information came from interviews with project managers and field personnel. Direct contacts with a number of USAID's partner organizations in girls' education programs ensured triangulation. These included UNICEF, UNESCO, the World Bank, the Aga Khan Foundation, and other NGO contractors and subcontractors.

Five studies published by USAID provided central background documentation. *Improving Access to Schooling in the Third World* by Anderson (1988), published by the Basic Research and Implementation in Developing Education Systems (BRIDGES) project, presents the first definitive overview including girls as a central concern. This was followed by two monographs published under the Advancing Basic Education and Literacy (ABEL) project that identified gender inequities in educational participation and the barriers limiting girls' educational opportunities. *The Economic and Social Impacts of Girls' Primary Education in Developing Countries* by Floro and Wolf (1990) and *Educating Girls: Strategies to Increase Access*

the primary school level, which includes grades 1 through 9, for the 6-14 year age group of females. However, other forms of basic education will be discussed, especially in the context of community-level education reforms.

Persistence, and Achievement by Tietjen (1991) These studies articulate the status and trends of educational policies and programs to increase girls' education

Two other reviews of assistance to education provided historical reference for the study *AID Assistance to Education A Retrospective Study* by Method and Shaw (1981) examines USAID programs over a twenty-year period, and *AID Policies and Programming in Education* by Rihani et al (1986) analyzes USAID policy cohesion in the field of education, drawing attention to the need for increased funding for basic education These studies, completed by Creative Associates International, Inc , provide background for this report on the chronology and evolution of USAID's approaches to including girls in basic education programs

The study does not try to present a comprehensive evaluation of USAID's support in girls' education for the following reasons No visits to project sites were made Conditions in the field vary sometimes significantly across regions and within countries, making it impossible to capture the true dynamics of any program from project documents Second, most of the work is under way and conclusive results are not yet available Third, USAID has changed reporting categories for education several times during the last two decades, no existing database contains complete project listings with gender-related actions in basic education For these reasons this study limits itself to highlighting initiatives and describing trends

SECTION 1 CHRONOLOGY AND EVOLUTION

Historically, USAID assistance in girls' basic education has been affected by forces that are both internal and external to the Agency. This section tracks the chronological evolution of various approaches to the provision of basic education for girls. It shows how the sector has influenced and been influenced by the Agency's implementation of Women-In-Development (WID).

Beginning in 1973, the Percy Amendment of the 1961 Foreign Assistance Act focused on integrating women into the economies of developing countries. Assistance funds were targeted to support activities administered by USAID's new Office of Women in Development. In the 1980s, several basic education initiatives were launched that integrated gender equity throughout project and program design and implementation. However, Agency response to the WID mandate was slow (GAO 1993). Only in 1996, with the signing of the WID Action Plan, did the Agency commit to integrate the agenda throughout USAID.

Pre-1988

Strategies used to address WID issues reflected changing perceptions of the development context. In the 1970s, there was concern that the exclusive emphasis on supply-side economic inputs was causing essential social and cultural factors to be overlooked. Projects that took social and cultural factors into account were found to have *twice* the economic rate of return of projects that didn't (Blumberg 1989). The participation and perspective of local people became viewed as essential in understanding their 'demands' and their socio-cultural environment. Development goals concentrated on welfare, equity and poverty mitigation.

The 1975 UN Decade for Women focused the energy of the international women's movement. The WID movement explored class and gender research as part of the "Basic Needs" paradigm, a perspective that holds that development should increase economic growth *and* equalize benefits. During the 1970s, non-formal education² (NFE) support³ reached more girls and women.

² Non-formal education (NFE) consists of structured, yet flexible, teaching and learning programs that are predominantly non-school in nature and seek to meet learning needs not covered sufficiently by existing institutions of formal education. NFE complements and supplements formal education, but does not replace it. Non-formal education often includes first-level, introductory or other types of education, thereby helping to extend educational and training opportunities to persons usually not involved in formal education. (Adams et al. 1984; Hoxeng 1980)

³ Estimated at \$60 million in 1977 (statistics are scant). 'The difficulty we have in subjecting NFE to adequate statistical descriptions is a partial illustration of some of its strong points. Many of the programs are small and hence are specifically suited to diverse needs, administrative costs are diffused and absorbed by other activities. Programs being small, can be changed easily (as opposed to the difficulty one

than USAID support for formal education in some programs, even when not specifically targeted⁴

In 1977, the Percy Amendment restated the role of women, not only in economic production, but also in family support and the overall development process. Five years later the *WID Policy Paper* (PN-AAL-777, Oct 1982) was issued. The paper outlined the rationale for overall WID policy, key sector policies, and responsibility for implementation of the directive. It built on a broadened view of female roles, emphasizing the need for girls' basic education sector assistance. The paper mandated the collection of gender disaggregated data. Additionally, USAID Bureaus and Missions were assigned responsibility for ensuring that (1) gender concerns and objectives were incorporated into all country program strategies, (2) specific programs and projects were designed and implemented to achieve gender-related objectives, and (3) the impact of programs and projects on women were evaluated. USAID was the first donor agency to issue such a policy.

Nevertheless, formal sector labor market needs continued to prevail in education planning. The majority of assistance targeted secondary and tertiary education. Two studies conducted in the 1980s pointed out the need for support to basic education and introduce new priorities in educational assistance for women in development (Method and Shaw, 1981, Rihani et al, 1986). But the overall emphasis remained on professional manpower development.

Post-1988

By the end of the 1980s, a dynamic environment had evolved, characterized by active research and practice on girls' education, as well as by increased donor funding. This period is marked by the beginning of a shift from 'WID' to 'gender' issues'. A distinction emerged between the sex of an individual, which is a biological fact, and gender, which is a social and cultural construct. A gender approach addresses issues of empowerment, taking into account the power relations existing between men and women and the social institutions and structures through which such relations are maintained. This change in approach recognizes that the roles and relationships of

faces in changing the curriculum of a national school system) and they are more apt to be terminated when their rationale for existence ends' (Hoxeng 1976)

⁴See for example 'National Study of Non-Formal Education in Lesotho' by Adams, Bastian & Makhetha (USAID 1982) and 'Evaluation of Toto-Kilemba Kenya' by Clark, Gakuru & Acierto (World Education 1979)

⁵The WID framework was first articulated in Boserup, E. 1970 *Woman's Role in Economic Development*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

women *and* men must be considered together, if equitable and effective development is to take place⁶

Focus on gender issues, rather than "women", rose as an important way of avoiding the marginalization of women, acknowledging that gender relationships are integral to the success of development processes in all areas. In education, this means that gender issues must be considered in order to understand the dynamics of the classroom, the school, and the household. Strategy discussions moved from narrowly defined access issues to larger questions involving the context and the quality of educational reform. In addition to quantitative analysis, where access is defined by econometric criteria, qualitative analysis has provided a focus where girls' participation is defined by highly contextualized models grounded in community and classroom-based data.

The year 1988 marked a turning point for both the education sector and the implementation of WID in the Agency. USAID began recasting strategies for basic education for girls.

- Congress established a set-aside for education in foreign assistance appropriations and mandated that 50% be committed to basic education that emphasized girls.
- WID action items were specifically mandated, including (1) the collection and use of gender disaggregated data in all program documents, (2) the requirement that country strategies, projects and programs be designed to demonstrably increase the percentage of female participants, (3) the percentage of women receiving benefits be proportionate to traditional participation in a given activity, or the proportion of the population.
- USAID introduced a new approach to development assistance using project and non-project modes of funding.

This package of mandates influenced the structure and depth of program support strategies as applied to basic education programs. Designs included pilot projects, large multi-faceted projects, targeted interventions, and education sector programming support.

⁶ WID strategies in the 1990s are characterized by a combination of approaches. Moser (1994) has identified three principal gender approaches to development practice: gender analysis, gender planning, and gender dynamics. Gender analysis (Anderson et al., 1988) is a diagnostic tool to identify gender-based divisions of labor and access to and control over resources. Gender planning (Moser and Levy, 1984) provides tools for diagnosis as well as translation into practice. Gender dynamics differs fundamentally from the first two in that it comes mainly from the experience of Third World grass-roots organizations. Its constituency is Third World practitioners rather than First World development personnel. The gender dynamics approach comprises highly participatory methodologies designed to empower women to recognize, analyze and address gender issues and emphasizes interpersonal skills that are highly interrelational and engage "not only the mind but the heart" (Aklilu, 1991; Balavon, 1991).

Before 1988, USAID project assistance worked directly to remedy specific weaknesses in the education sector. The most common forms of development assistance focused on discrete inputs and the use of supply-side variables such as school construction, textbook supply and teacher training. Although projects performed well, they were often designed and implemented with little client participation and did not continue after the project assistance ended.

Post-1988 approaches to gender intensive planning addressed problems endemic to the education system. A more sophisticated view of the system developed in which multiple actors were to be included in the process of increasing educational efficiency to include girls.

The commitment to girls' basic education may have varied from mission to mission, but gender issues began to be incorporated into non-project and project assistance alike, as part of a negotiation process with host countries⁷. The analysis of gender disaggregated data was also introduced in many countries as part of contract agreements, and benchmark systems were developed for measuring the results of girls' education efforts.

In 1989, USAID awarded the \$249 million Pakistan Primary Education Development Program in Baluchistan and the Northwest Frontier Provinces (NWPF), the first gender-extensive sectoral reform with girls' issues integral to its design and implementation. Originally planned as a ten-year program, it was transferred to the World Bank for support after 1993, following a Pressler Amendment application on Pakistan⁸. The World Bank continued support in Baluchistan without any alteration to the design, including the use of long-term technical assistance, which is not usually supported by World Bank projects, bearing witness to the program's solidity.

In 1990 the 'Gender Gap' in education was first defined as a determinant of social welfare and economic productivity of low income countries. Subsequently, the power of the gender variable became widely accepted and was further emphasized at the Education for All Conference in Jomtien, Thailand.

In 1991, a second extensive reform program was initiated, in Malawi, with the Girls' Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education (GABLE) program. GABLE and the Baluchistan PED program

USAID modes of assistance are classified in two types of interventions: (1) project assistance (PA) consisting of technical advisors, training, commodities and logistical support; and (2) non-project assistance (NPA), involving direct cash transfers to governments by donors. The cash transfers may be conditioned on the recipient government implementing a number of agreed-upon objectives to reduce gender disparities involving policy reforms, payments for improving information for policy decisions, support for progressive movements/forces. Refer to DeStefano et al (1995) and Tietjen (1995) for detailed discussions on this topic.

⁸The Pressler Amendment calls for a retraction of U.S. funding to any country involved in the development of nuclear armaments.

remain the first examples of an integrated gender-equitable approach to education policy and reforms

At the same time, attention for programs with non-formal characteristics increased as an effective means to provide access to education for girls. These include community-based alternative school delivery strategies such as the Escuela Nueva in Colombia (Schieffelin 1991), Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committees (Ahmed, et al 1993), and community schools in Pakistan (Thomas 1995, O'Grady 1994), Egypt (Hartwell 1996) and Guatemala (Chesterfield 1996)

A 1993 USGAO report (GAO/NSLAD-94-16, December 1993) described WID progress across all sectors as marginal. However, the report also noted that most activities that include women in the development process are in the areas of girls' education, health, and family planning. Between 1990 -1995, 64 percent of funding assistance for primary education included programs in which components were directed specifically toward the needs of girls and another eight percent of the funding was allocated for programs where gender issues were integrated throughout.

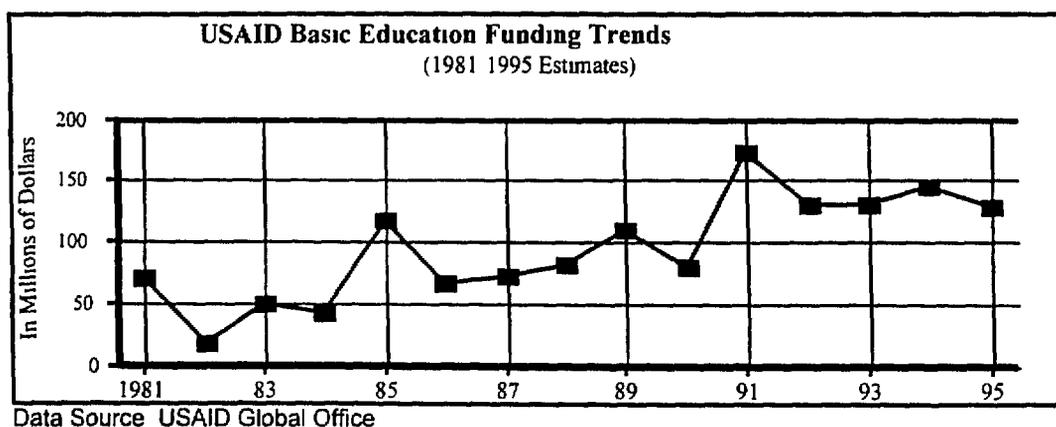
Leading up to the 1995 United Nations World Conference on Women, a new initiative was announced to promote girls' and women's education. The Agency published a request for proposals for girls' and women's education. In 1996, a Gender Plan of Action was signed by the USAID Administrator, mandating the integration of gender issues at all levels of the Agency. The Gender Plan of Action includes (1) the modification of strategic objectives to include better data indicators to measure impact on women, (2) the modification of personnel policies to include gender analysis requirement in recruitment, (3) the need for grantees and contractors to show capability for gender issues, (4) the need for reporting documents to address gender issues, and (5) the requirement that each mission review and revise procedures to insure that planning includes gender at all points stages. The Gender Plan of Action also established a WID Performance Fund administered by the WID office and a WID Fellows Program to support the development of technical cadres. The Girls' and Women's Education Activity was awarded in 1996 and the first USAID direct-hire education specialist was appointed to the WID Office.

SECTION 2: USAID FUNDING TRENDS FOR BASIC EDUCATION

Overview

USAID commitments to basic education amounted to nearly \$1.3 billion during the 15-year period from 1981 to 1995. Figure 1 shows two funding surges: one in 1985 and another in 1991. In 1985, a 37 percent increase occurred, largely as a result of increases in commitments to Central America and Africa. Leading the world-wide trend in increased support for basic education, USAID allocated \$174 million in 1991, an increase of nearly 50 percent over 1990.

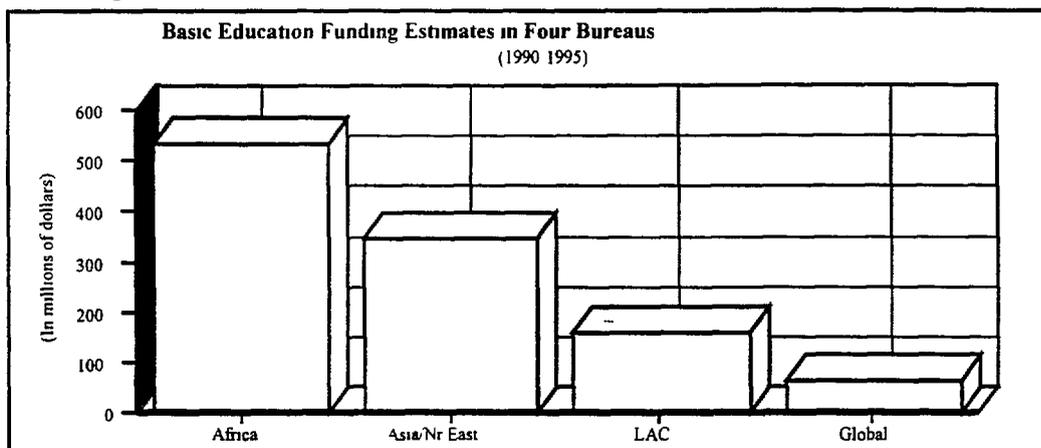
Figure 1



Funding Trends by Region

Commitments to USAID regional Bureaus between 1981 and 1995 are summarized in Figure 2. The Africa Regional Bureau was allocated \$534 million (42.5 percent), Asia/Near East received \$509 million (40.5 percent), LAC received \$157 million (12.5 percent), and another \$56 million (4.5 percent) was allocated to the Global Bureau to support basic education.

Figure 2 Regional Bureau Funding Trends



Data Sources 1995 USAID Congressional Presentation and Project Documents

Funding for Girls' Basic Education

Methodological Issues

Evaluating USAID's allocations for girls' basic education is a complex task, funding distribution figures are obscured by the absence of detailed tracking mechanisms for gender specific financial data

Data Sources

This overview is primarily based on obligation and authorized expenditure data taken from the *USAID Congressional Presentation Statistical Annex* for Fiscal Years 1990-1995

Appendix I presents the list of programs reviewed for this study, classified according to how integrated gender issues were integrated in program documentation. The following three levels were identified:

Type I, the *generic* or 'gender neutral' approach, includes programs intended to expand the overall supply of educational opportunities across all populations of school-age children.

Type II, the *differential* approach, acknowledges gender issues, and then identifies and targets specific interventions for girls to equalize educational access for under-served populations.

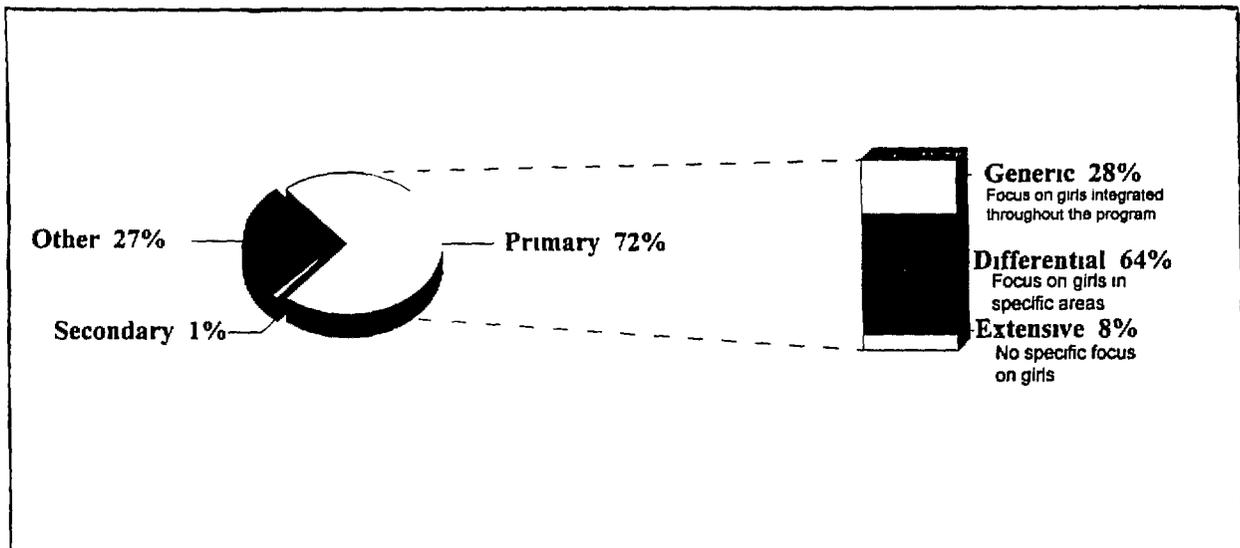
Type III, the *extensive* approach, includes programs where gender issues are central to the development of sectoral reform strategies that address inequities throughout the system. The rationale for this approach is that interventions are interrelated and can affect -- and be affected by -- many segments throughout a system.

Findings

Between 1990 and 1995, estimated funding for primary education reached 72 percent of the total authorized expenditures for education. This represents a significant increase from the previous decade when obligations for primary education were as low as 11 percent (Rihani, *et al* 1986: 26). Secondary education accounted for one percent of the total, and 27 percent was allocated for 'other' higher education, including tertiary as well as various development support training programs.

Figure 3

Authorized Expenditures for Education (Primary, Secondary, and Other)
and Percent Girls Central Focus of Basic Education Program Funding (1990-1995)

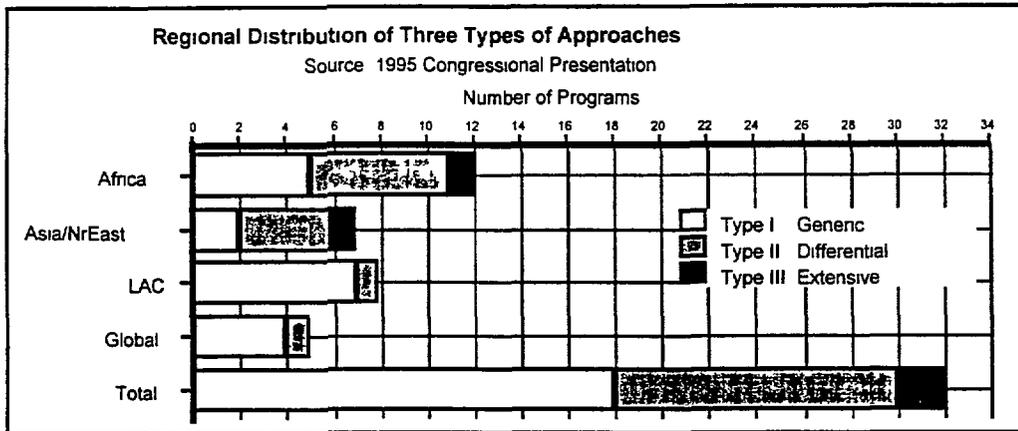


Source: Primary and Secondary Education figures from USAID Congressional Presentation FY 1990-1993, 1995. Percentage for girls calculated from total amount of programs specified for girls basic education.

Gender issues were specifically included in programs totaling an estimated 72 percent of the authorized expenditures for primary education. Eight percent of this amount went toward gender extensive programs, 64 percent to differential programs, and 28 percent to programs in which gender was not specified.

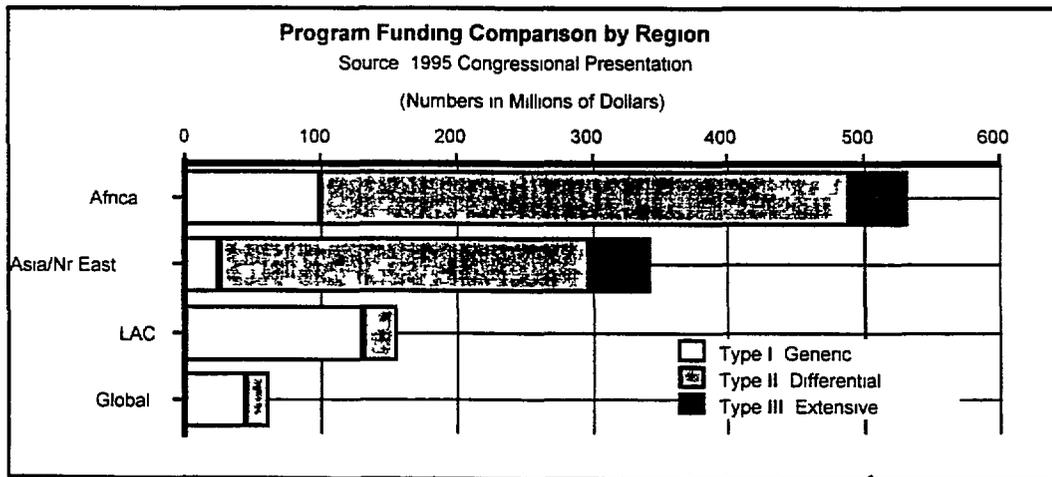
The regional distribution of numbers of programs is illustrated below in Figure 4. Of 32 programs and projects reviewed, the majority (14) were Type I, eleven were Type II, and two were Type III.

Figure 4 Typology of Numbers of Programs by Region



The majority of funding, with a sum total of \$705 million (64.1 percent), supported programs that were gender-intentional to varying degrees. The gender categories indicate levels of concern for girls' education listed in program documents. However, only a portion of the money for the category 'differential' is used for girls. Conversely, those that fall in the 'generic' category do not necessarily exclude contributions to girls' education efforts. Specific examples are discussed later in this paper. The distribution of funding for gender-intentional programs varies considerably across regions as shown below in Figure 5.

Figure 5 Typology of Girls' Education Funding Comparison by Region



The statistical data contained in the USAID *Congressional Presentation FY 1995* indicate severe cutbacks for basic education. Allocations for basic education increased from only 11.3 percent of the sector budget in 1983 to 72 percent of the sector budget for the period 1990-1995. Between 1990 and 1991, sectoral allocations increased by 50 percent. However, since 1991 there

has been a downward trend estimated funding for 1994 (\$116 million) was actually lower than 1985 funding (\$117 million)⁹

Given the strong evidence of high returns on investment in girls' basic education, particularly in low income countries, the current environment of funding retrenchment for basic education can have harsh consequences across all sectors

Regional cutbacks go as high as 90 percent in the case of the Bureau for Asia and the Near East Other reductions include 45 percent for the Bureau for Global Programs¹⁰, 44 percent for Africa, and 35 percent for LAC The portfolio held by the Bureau for Africa implies that in the future, girls' education will be a focus in a wide majority of programs that remain on record in that region after 1995 However, the overall implications of severe funding decreases do not bode well for achieving universal education for all

Funding in the education sector is not consistent with the overall mandate originally stated in the 1985 *Blueprint for Development* for increasing primary school enrollment to above 90 percent for girls by the year 2000 In spite of increases in assistance to programs for girls, only 36 percent of the education Program Assistance Approval Documents reviewed (1988-1995) include girls' education as a target, indicating a need for greater attention to gender issues in the design process

Basic education funding has grown focused on primary education, with one percent of the authorized expenditures for education allocated to secondary education As larger numbers of students progress from the primary level, greater expectations will arise at the secondary level Furthermore, gains in returns on investments increase substantially with the number of years of schooling For example, women in Malawi who completed secondary education had a fertility rate of 4.4 as opposed to 6.7 for women with one to four years of schooling and 6.2 for women with five to eight years (Government of Malawi, 1992 in Wolf 1995)

⁹ In addition the dollar value has decreased by 25 percent since 1985

¹⁰ Not including the Girls' and Women's Education Activity awarded in 1996

SECTION 3. REVIEW OF SELECTED USAID PROJECTS AND PROGRAMS

A survey of over two hundred education projects and programs between 1980-1995 provided data for this review of selected USAID projects and programs. Thirty-eight primary education programs in particular were analyzed for their attention to equity issues (See Appendix I). A final set of programs for which evaluations had been conducted, representative of a range of programs around the world, was selected. The purpose was to examine USAID's approaches to promoting basic education for girls. The programs are the following:

Asia/Near East

Egypt Basic Education Project Pakistan Primary Education Development (PED)

Africa

Malawi Girls' Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education (GABLE)
Mali Basic Education Expansion
Guinea Education Reform

Latin America

Guatemala Basic Education Strengthening Project (BEST)

The Egypt project focuses on school demand and school supply as an example of a targeted intervention. Guatemala, Guinea, and Mali provide examples of multiple interventions targeting girls. The Guatemala review focuses on the development of local constituencies and improved classroom practices. The activities in Mali demonstrate the results of an equal intake policy, and social marketing & media campaigns. The programs in Pakistan and Malawi provide examples of extensive and mainstreaming approaches as part of a total strategy of educational reform.

Annexes 1-2 present an overview of these programs in chronological order according to the start date, showing the conditions¹¹ upon which the assistance was given, interventions, and results in terms of increased enrollment for girls.

Egypt The Basic Education Project (1981-1991)

The Basic Education Project is an example of a program that isolated a supply side variable, school construction, to increase girls' access to education in rural areas. To determine the most efficient approach, the program first supported a resource survey to determine the demand for

¹¹ Performance conditionalities and covenants are used by USAID to disburse grant funds in non-project assistance contingent upon a government's meeting specified, pre-arranged conditions mutually agreed upon during contract negotiations.

schools related to parental expectations for girls, the results of which were used to decide on criteria for school placement

Over the ten-year period of the program, 1,949 schools were built (nearly 50 percent more than the targeted goal of 1300) Grade one enrollments for girls increased by 29 percent and 15 percent for boys, compared with eight percent and three percent respectively at control sites The dropout rate also decreased faster in grades two through six at the new schools, with larger decreases in dropout rates for girls than for boys In total, there was an increase of 60 percent in girls' rural primary school enrollment during the period of the program¹²

The final evaluation document¹³ pointed out, however, that classroom overcrowding remained a problem double shifts were practiced in all 150 schools visited by the evaluation team, compounding the maintenance problems of already overtaxed facilities The evaluation recommended additions to existing schools to relieve oversubscribed classrooms

Beginning in 1989, the program also supported in-service teacher training for 10,000 teachers, as well as the establishment of two major reform units, one for planning and another for curriculum and instructional material development These areas were not specifically linked to improving girls' education and no evaluation was made of the possible effects on girls

The Egypt program shows that access for girls can be increased by determining the demand for schools related to parental expectations for girls first, and by then using the information in combination with school mapping techniques to decide on criteria for school placement

Pakistan The Primary Education Development (PED) Program (1989-1993)

The PED is an example of an extensive approach to mainstreaming girls' education issues in program design and implementation PED is the first comprehensive program used by USAID for any of the development activities in girls' education, involving private sector involvement, a female promotion program, an organizational structure for NGOs and community participation, as well as teacher training, and curriculum development

¹ Robinson, W M N Makary, and A Rugh 1987 *Fourth Annual Report of the Study of USAID Contributions to the Egyptian Basic Education Program* 2 vols Washington, DC Creative Associates International, Inc

¹³ See 'Final Evaluation of the Basic Education Project' (1991) prepared for USAID by Creative Associates International

The initial agreement¹⁴ for the Pakistan PED program included conditions on the negotiated policy and action benchmarks, as well as policy and institutional changes in Baluchistan and NWFP, focusing on primary school participation rates

The PED program design specified four long-term advisors in each province, including a Chief Technical Advisor (CTA), as well as a teacher training specialist, a curriculum materials development advisor, and an advisor to help develop an education management implementation system (EMIS)

Differences in the physical setting and in system readiness in the two provinces affected the development of plans for girls in several ways. Forty percent of the villages had a primary school for girls within one kilometer in NWFP, while in Baluchistan only six percent of the villages had a primary school for girls within one kilometer, there were many well qualified teachers in NWFP, while in Baluchistan it was difficult to find even an eighth grade pass girl, and in NWFP there were female DEOs and a female Director of Schools, while Service Rules in Baluchistan prohibited a woman from being promoted to most positions at Grade 18 and above, thereby automatically excluding them from becoming either DEOs or directors¹⁵. The case of PED illustrates how the funding program can provide a leverage to create a rationale used in both provinces to bring about change and to meet their program goals

As in Egypt, a human resource survey was first conducted that showed that, contrary to conventional wisdom, the majority of villages wanted schools for girls. This survey was used to plan sites for school construction and 2000 schools were built (60% for girls). The survey was also used to identify areas where innovative programs involving community participation could be developed to address the needs of educating girls in remote areas

Because of traditional restrictions on female travel, a Mobile Female Teachers Training Unit was established in rural areas to train local girls as teachers. Communities responded positively to this approach and 900 teachers were trained by the mobile unit. Further community support was institutionalized through an NGO, the Society for Community Support to Primary Education in Baluchistan. The board of directors is made up by representatives of the various tribal, religious, and income groups in the province and are 80 percent female

The Society was established to assist the government in training District Education Officers (DEOs) to empower communities and assess community readiness to organize schooling. Community organizers work in the field to identify women with a grade level of education who

¹⁴ Program Approval Agreement Document (PAAD), 1988

¹⁵ The Primary Education Development Program Final Report, September 1994

would be willing to be trained as a community school teacher. The community proceeds through several steps to demonstrate commitment. After the first year, the school qualifies for government certification and financial support.

Community schools have improved access, decreased the gender gap, and improved the quality of girls' education. Thomas (1995) shows community schools saw an average increase of 87 girls between 1992 and 1994, whereas other schools averaged a negative growth of -25. The gender gap narrowed: the boy/girl ratio fell from 2.8:1 to 1.7:1 in community school clusters during the same period.

Children in community schools consistently out-perform children in non-community schools in tests administered for Urdu and Math. This is remarkable in that student/teacher ratios tend to be higher in community schools than in non-community schools and community teachers tend to have less education than non-community school teachers.

The PED Program in Baluchistan also helped develop a curriculum cell and trained staff to participate in the development of gender-sensitive materials using their own desk-top publishing systems. One of the results was a tool kit with illustrated flash cards to teach reading through participatory methods such as group learning activities.

At the end of the fourth year, Baluchistan succeeded in formally establishing a Directorate for Primary Education with openings for women at all levels, increasing opportunities for their participation in the education system. PED demonstrated increased access and retention for girls and boys in overall rates and in particular parts of the project, such as community schools.

Malawi: The Girls Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education Program (GABLE)

The Office of Sustainable Development in the Bureau for Africa pioneered an approach called Education Sector Support (ESS) programming. The primary themes emphasized in ESS are (1) the assistance is given in support of national reform, (2) budgetary support is conditioned on performance on mutually established terms, (3) a systems approach to educational change is adopted in which reform of the entire education system is seen as necessary for sustainable improvement (DeStefano et al. 1995). The overall outcome in terms of increased participation rates in conjunction with government-led actions, has been impressive in most countries. System-level impacts can be seen in policy reform, institutional reform, and school/classroom change.¹⁶

¹⁶ For further discussion see especially Tietjen (1995)

In the case of Malawi, GABLE has forced reform efforts to focus on gender -- school fees were eliminated for all children, the school girl pregnancy policy was revised, and a community-based school policy was enacted -- all of which contributed to a substantial 64 percent rise in gross enrollment ratios for girls

Social mobilization efforts have taken place at the national, district, and community levels. Early in the GABLE program, the Theater for Development (TFD) troupe was pioneered to identify community concerns and solutions about girls' education, and develop messages to share with other villages. TFD is organized at the University of Malawi. Students who have been trained in participatory theater make up the research and performance troupes. The researchers and performers provide 'village profiles' of the educational, cultural, geographical, economic and attitudinal characteristics of the villages. The information is gathered while developing the performances with local people. The troupe engages the community in discussions that build support for girls' education. The mobilization campaign is designed to identify constraints to girls' primary education and to establish ownership of those constraints. Once the owners recognize the constraints as something they have the power to alleviate, the USAID project works with them as they develop ways to rectify the situation through a series of research, motivation, and training activities.

Ministry field workers in each district - Primary Education Advisors (PEAs) and Community Development Assistants (CDAs) - then develop messages to overcome these constraints, which are aimed at different target groups - parents, teachers, peers, local leaders, etc. CDA/PEA training also includes group discussion techniques, role model identification, participatory workshop strategies, facilitating, and action plan development.

Working with their counterpart community field worker, the CDAs and PEAs then run village workshops with local leaders, school committees, and teachers to familiarize them with GABLE's goals, discuss with them the constraints to girls' education, and develop action plans. Local leaders mobilize the community to take action - for instance, to build a bridge over a river so that children can cross it to go to school in the rainy season. School committees play an active role in keeping children in school, keeping the parents informed, and making sure that school improvements are supported by the community. Teachers develop strategies for alleviating the constraints to girls' education in different ways, for example, by visiting parents every month to give them a progress report on how their children are doing in school, or by working with each other to determine how to manage group learning in their classrooms. It is at this point, when local leaders, school committees and teachers begin working out their action plans, that attitudes begin to change.

Research in Malawi showed that girls' achievement is hindered by classroom practices (Davison and Kanyuka 1990). Teachers often pay more attention to boys, calling on them and rewarding them more often than girls. Pupils are often streamed by gender, girls are placed in home

economics classes, and boys in science classes. Teachers often communicate their belief that girls are less capable of academic achievement, particularly in mathematics and science.

The establishment of a Gender Unit at Malawi's curriculum development center, the Malawi Institute of Education (MIE), was an important step. The Unit's work is facilitated by the fact that Malawi is undergoing a complete revision of its primary curriculum. A lecturer posted at the Malawi Institute of Education provides pre-service and in-service teacher training on gender sensitivity as well as technical assistance to the various teacher training colleges, curriculum writer workshops and the Ministry.

Data was analyzed on how schools work against girls' attainment. Discussions were held with educators and policy-makers throughout the system. The data analysis also showed how girls' participation was interrelated with curricula and teacher behavior. Furthermore, seminars and training sessions were held to coordinate curriculum writers, teachers, school officials, and district, regional and national administrators. Teachers and school administrators were trained to understand how girls are disadvantaged in schools, and to revisit policies to enhance girls' participation.

Mali The Basic Education Expansion Program - BEEP and Guinea Education Reform

Like GABLE, the Basic Education Expansion Program (BEEP) in Mali has implemented social mobilization campaigns that include theater groups, radio songs produced by a popular female singer, seminars and workshops. Other participatory approaches are being pioneered in Guinea, involving villagers in discussions of what can be done to improve girls' and rural children's access and retention. Groups that are the most often not heard, such as women with school-age children, parents with non-enrolled children, and girls who have never enrolled, are encouraged to express their opinions and ideas.

In Guinea, education reform focused on (1) training, retraining and re-deploying teachers, and (2) school rehabilitation and construction, while (3) studying household factors involved in enrollment decisions, and (4) preparing a national plan to identify strategies and interventions and programs to increase girls' participation. Novel measures included an equity committee and publicity campaigns. The pregnancy policy was revised to allow girls to return to school after childbirth. Female primary teachers who had been teaching at secondary level were redeployed at the primary level. Following this, the gross enrollment of girls in primary school increased by four percentage points, and repetition rates declined dramatically.

Guatemala The Basic Education Strengthening BEST Project (1986-1998)

The BEST project is an example of a differential approach using multiple interventions to target girls, in particular indigenous populations in rural areas of the country. Strategies include the

development of a training program on girls' education for Ministry of Education officials and teachers, the development of girls' education motivational materials, and the implementation of a pilot girls' education project to test a number of intervention packages

The original design included the integration of girls' education in 16 activities. A WID advisor was appointed, but the position was only half-time and cut off from the policy-making process. In 1993, following the completion of a mid-term evaluation and an intensive reprogramming of USAID funding, the Girls and Women in Development (WID) activity became part of the "Alternative Methodologies" component of BEST. A WID office was established in the Ministry of Education to monitor all project activities related to gender, run workshops, train teachers, and fundraise to sustain activities beyond the end of the project.

The BEST project relies entirely on local advisors and private sector organizations to provide most of the support services. The Director, Deputy Director, and Curriculum Specialist in the GWID office now are all full-time technical assistance positions held by Guatemalan women, including one of ethnic origin.

Technical assistance components of the program were used to collect baseline data. This was followed by a year-long campaign to engage the interest of leaders in all sectors, including businesses, private organizations, government ministries and local groups. That effort led to a national conference for policy makers on girls' education. The conference participants formed a national commission to develop a national needs assessment and action plan for girls' education. USAID is cooperating with six other public, private and international donors in implementing a community-level project that addresses a range of obstacles to girls' participation. Approximately 35 businesses, PVOs, and NGOs are now promoting girls' education activities through *Fundacion Eduque a la Nina and Eduquemos a las Ninias*. More than 72 percent of the funding for these programs came from public and private-sector sources.

In 1993, the Minister of Education created a policy statement and strategy on girls' education as well as a five-year scholarship program for rural, indigenous girls. \$500,000 were allocated for the first year. The President of Guatemala identified the education of girls as a priority issue in the national plan.

The Nueva Escuela Unitaria (NEU), a pilot program for multigrade schools in rural Guatemala, uses collaborative learning, peer teaching, self-instructional guides and other active learning techniques through sixth grade. The teacher is not always the central focus of the classroom, and children are encouraged to use their imagination (e.g., writing stories, making drawings of animals in the community, etc.). By contrast, traditional schools rely on repetitive exercises and drills, with the teacher as the main focus of learning. Copybooks are not used for stories, but for writing drills.

One year after the start of the NEU program, an evaluation on democratic behavior¹⁷ concluded that girls in NEU schools rated higher than children in ordinary schools on turn-taking, directing others in an activity, and receiving positive feedback on their performance. These qualities indicated egalitarian beliefs, leadership, and interpersonal effectiveness respectively. In the second year of the NEU program, children were asked to identify as many uses as possible for common household and school objects to determine levels of creativity. Both boys and girls in the NEU program scored higher than children in traditional schools, but the trends were not as clear for boys as they were for girls.

¹⁷ Improving Educational Quality (IEQ) 1996

SECTION 4 PROGRAM STRATEGIES

Institutional Capacity Building

Policy Research, Administration and Management

Focusing on girls' education requires that the institutional capacity for policy research, administration and management be improved. Policy research, or solution-oriented research, gathers and processes empirical evidence to help determine that a proposed solution is possible within a given context. Traditionally, research in this area has relied almost exclusively on quantitative methodologies. However, USAID programs in girls' education have made greater use of qualitative methodologies that provide information on cultural processes affecting girls' access to education.

While both quantitative and qualitative research depend on technical assistance, efforts have been made to develop local research capacities. The GABLE program supported the development of a gender research unit at the University of Malawi. Programs studied for this report show a lack of capacity for in-house assessments of project work. Because of the many innovations involved, this undermines the understanding of their effectiveness and appropriateness for further implementation on broader scales.

- Workshops on the use of empirical data in planning and decision-making were offered in countries such as Pakistan, Malawi, and Guinea. The aim is to train female officers who are eligible for assistant director or head-mistress positions in basic management skills.
- Quotas were drawn up to facilitate the promotion of female employees in Pakistan, where both women and men gained access to professional training and study tours. Age limits and minimum qualifications were adjusted so that more female teachers could be hired.
- New job-specific management skills and procedures have been introduced such as classroom observation skills and evaluation, as well as improved teaching practices, access to new teaching materials, and study tours in developing countries and industrialized countries alike.

As seen earlier, community school management proved effective for increasing girls' access to school in rural areas of Mali and Baluchistan.

Gender Units and Equity Committees

Government-led initiatives have established gender units and equity committees in Guatemala, Guinea, Malawi and Mali. While covering diverse functions and housed in different institutions, the gender units are generally charged with researching gender issues, thus advising ministry decision-makers on reform measures to improve girls' participation. They also often implement gender-support activities, such as training and information campaigns. Pregnancy policy reforms in Guinea and Malawi can be traced directly to these 'in-house' girls' education advocates. In Guinea, research on the demand for girls' schooling in rural areas conducted by the Ministry of Education's 'Equity Committee' has provided the basis for a national dialogue on girls' schooling and is informing the development of the national strategy to improve equity.

In Pakistan, USAID efforts have focused on establishing provincial directorates with full administrative and fiscal authority, rather than the creation of gender units. To eliminate redundancy, attention was placed on forming a directorate for primary education that addressed gender equity and inherent issues of power and authority that previously had plagued the system with respect to girls' education.

Stages/Institutions	Popularizing	Targeting	Integrating
Government Ministry of Education	Establish WID unit Guatemala	Recognition of girls and women in government plans, education projects	Integration of women's participation in sector programs for girls' basic education, integration of women in ed sector plans Pakistan Malawi
Professional University Research Institutes	Establish WID unit, Research on girls/women Malawi	Technical assistance to girls' education projects management assistance to education projects	Analysis of women's roles in society and education, integration of gender perspective in analysis Malawi
Non-Government NGOs & PVOs	Advocacy of girls as beneficiaries Guatemala Pakistan Malawi	Advocacy of girls as future women workers Malawi	Advocacy of girls' future roles within and beyond the household Malawi

Information Systems (EMIS and GIS)

Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) -- i.e., managed annual school census and resource surveys conducted at the community level -- can provide reliable data using qualitative as well as quantitative indicators. In Pakistan, household survey data has been published in a daily planning calendar diary and distributed within the Ministry down to district level.

Empirical evidence shows this method has been effective in instances where officials seeking to further their own political careers were pushing for school construction in their hometowns. By referring to the statistics in the diary, the MOE was able to show that there were enough schools in the particular area, and convince officials that construction would be redundant.

School mapping and Geographic Information Systems (GIS) have also been used to present graphic mapping analyses which were useful in determining locations of schools for the benefit of girls in both Pakistan and Egypt. One mapping exercise in Baluchistan showed that, contrary to the popular belief that parents would not allow their daughters to walk to school, parents wanted them to go to school so badly that girls were actually walking longer distances to schools than boys¹⁸.

Although a great deal of money has been spent on management information systems in many countries, their use has been limited because the technology is more advanced than the human capacity to use it. In many countries, long-term advisors have needed to sustain the effort.

Building Advocacy Through Policy Dialogues and Networking

Governments, donors and regional institutions have organized conferences, workshops, seminars and other types of fora to exchange of educational experience as a way to mobilize societies around the issue of girls' basic education. Social mobilization campaigns can convince parents of the importance of girls' education to the individual, the family, and society. Mobilization campaigns have greater chances of success when they are tailored to country-specific needs, delivering clear messages to well-defined audiences. Some campaigns need to focus on primary education. Others may not, focusing instead on retention or completion. Some may seek to increase demand by strengthening parent support, while some target supply issues by underscoring the importance of having schools closer to communities. Publicity campaigns have been launched in Guinea and Mali with information and entertainment programs on girls' education on radio and television featuring local celebrities.

Mobilization of Partners

Partnerships between the public sector and nongovernmental agencies, business, the media, religious groups, women's organizations, teachers' associations, and parents' associations has been an important focus of USAID's approach. These partnerships heighten public awareness and provide a continual reminder to commit to girls' education.

¹⁸ Spicer in MidTerm Report World Bank 1996

In Pakistan the Frontier Education Foundation in NWFP assisted the private sector in establishing educational institutions and provided grants and loans to private schools. In Baluchistan the Education Foundation helped establish girls' community schools.

The Physical Environment

The physical environment in which learning takes place has a critical impact on girls' access to education. In the formal system, school-based classrooms are the most common physical environment for learning. Enormous amounts of money have been used for school construction. For example, over 60 percent of the total \$250 million allocated for the PED Program in Pakistan went to school construction. Yet, simply building schools has not guaranteed girls' participation. Some conditions are more culturally desirable for girls. Schools must be located within a reasonable distance to girls' homes. The facilities need to include water and latrines. It may also be necessary to create boundary walls around the schools for protection. Architectural spaces that are clean, safe, and inspire trust, such as the community home schools and mosque schools in Pakistan or the adobe schools in Honduras, have proven to help increase girls' participation rates.

Teacher Training

Empirical evidence world wide shows that recruiting female teachers enhances girls' enrollment. From a statistical viewpoint, it is difficult to establish causality between female teachers and female enrollment, but international cross-sectional data suggest a positive correlation between improvements in enrollment parity figures (number of girls per 100 boys) and the proportion of female teachers. This association does not weaken when the data is disaggregated by region or limited to similar income levels.

However, the same cultural constraints that require women to teach girls often make it difficult to attract women to rural teaching posts where the shortage of female teachers is most acute.

Experience in Pakistan and Mali shows that it is possible to find good female teachers to work in rural areas by easing formal educational requirements, providing training, and posting women teachers in their communities and near their homes. Women may be hired as para-professionals, with fewer formal qualifications but greater aptitude and motivation. Lower formal qualifications often restrict teachers to the lower primary grades, but in-service teacher training can give them a chance to upgrade their skills. Research indicates that teachers' knowledge of subject matter is more important to children's learning than traditional quality indicators, such as formal qualifications and experience. Thus, the combination of motivated female assistant teachers (who have a stake in the village where they are settled) and active in-service training and supervision can provide a suitable solution to the shortage of women teachers in rural areas.

Curricula and Instructional Materials

Curriculum Presentation

The presentation of curricula and teacher practices are two areas where gender biases inhibit girls' participation in the classroom. Instruction materials have been developed to embrace culturally specific and gender sensitive techniques. Gender bias can be found in the way girls and women are portrayed in teaching materials. Textbooks play a powerful role in determining how children understand themselves in relation to their family, their community and society at large, particularly when instructional materials are the primary source of information about the world. Gender bias can manifest itself in

- Visual images used to portray girls and women to provide role models,
- Words used to describe girls and women, boys and men, social roles, activities and functions,
- Examples used for practice and illustration,
- Links between curricular objectives and instructional materials

Classroom Coordination of Teacher Training, Curricula, and Instructional Materials

The coordination of teacher training and curriculum materials development is a critical part of increasing gender sensitivity in classroom practice, and has often been overlooked. Girls' participation can be increased through improved teacher quality, adapting curricula and teacher training, insuring the provision of textbooks, and appropriate instructional materials in formal classroom structures as well as in informal and distance education programs (O'Gara, 1996)

The process of increasing gender sensitivity entails three principles. First, successful interventions involve changing classroom behavior as well as changing the official printed curriculum. It is not enough to revise textbooks -- teacher training is essential. Second, the integration of gender sensitivity into the curriculum requires a long-term collaboration process rather than one-shot interventions. Third, gender sensitivity addressed within the larger context of helping schools better achieve their overall curricular objectives is more effective than simply targeting the underachievement of girls.

Coordinating Community, District, Regional and National Efforts

Innovative partnership approaches have been developed that have proven beneficial for girls. The flexibility of the systems approach where private and public, formal and non-formal, local

communities and donors collaborate has spawned a host of programs that have shown promising results

Educational programs with non-formal education aspects have been introduced in several country programs, mostly at the local level with active support from parents and other members of the community. In Mali and Baluchistan, communities have formed their own schools to the benefit of girls.

Community Involvement

USAID projects have promoted involvement of local communities and the devolution of powers from a central authority to regional and local authorities to foster support for education. Localization has become an essential element in successful educational interventions in several countries studied.

In Guatemala, Malawi, Mali, and Pakistan localization has meant greater participation by the local community in the local school system. This has led to a better knowledge of the educational system, closer linkages with the school, and more parent involvement in decisions affecting schooling. A positive correlation between increased community participation and a higher percentage of enrollment and retention of children, especially girls, has been noted in community schools established in Pakistan and Mali.

The government of Uganda has employed a combined approach of community and school incentive grants to redress problems of girls' persistence. The original idea was to award grants to schools that had shown commitment to promoting girls' schooling, with the stipulation that the grant money would be used to improve the school quality and increase girls' persistence. A recent evaluation has indicated that the program is plagued by design flaws. It strayed off course by including all disadvantaged children as beneficiaries (not just girls), and has lacked coordination between the community mobilization component and the school component.

The BEEP project in Mali worked in conjunction with Save the Children/USA (SCF-US) in Mali to pilot their village school program in Kolondieba, a rural district of Mali. By its third year, the project had become the main provider of education in the district. Villagers and school committees attribute the success of the schools to the fact that children can go to school in their own village, rather than boarding in another village. The curriculum is relevant to village needs. Parents have a say in how the school is run.

The village school model recognized that the problem of access to education was not a result of the lack of demand, but was due to the inability of the ministry to supply teachers, even where the villagers had built the school on their own. Because of this situation, many communities, as well as associations and individuals, had already started their own schools. The BEEP / SCF-

US collaboration was the first systematic attempt to help villages create their own primary schools

Under the SCF-US model, communities build the schools with local materials, except for tin roofs and latrines, which are supplied by SCF-US. SCF-US also supplies desks, blackboards, and the first year's supply of notebooks and pens for students and teachers. The village pays teacher salaries at a negotiated level an amount they decide on, as well as school maintenance. Student fees are about \$0.20 a month, SCF-US provides one month of initial teacher training and an annual two-week in-service seminar. SCF-US staff visit the schools once a week. The local education authority also visits schools regularly.

Because villagers 'own' the schools, they differ from state schools in several critical respects. The school year begins after the harvest in November and ends with the planting season in May. Classes are held for a few hours both in the morning and in the afternoon, to accommodate more children. Students are recruited from the village, with an emphasis on gender parity. Teachers are from the village, and may have six years of schooling or less, sometimes only in literacy training. Bambara is the language of instruction, until the third grade, when French is introduced. The curriculum includes health, work, local history and folklore, as well as reading, writing, and calculating. The school management committee is made up of locally selected village notables and parents, one of whom must be literate. It handles all the management decisions.

These schools have no gender disparity, and their attendance rate is high. Promotion rates are much higher than in the state schools. Although village schools have not yet been formally evaluated, classroom observations are that the children are doing well in reading and writing Bambara. In the four schools that have begun to teach French (that have been in operation for three years), children seem to be doing at least as well as the children in state schools.

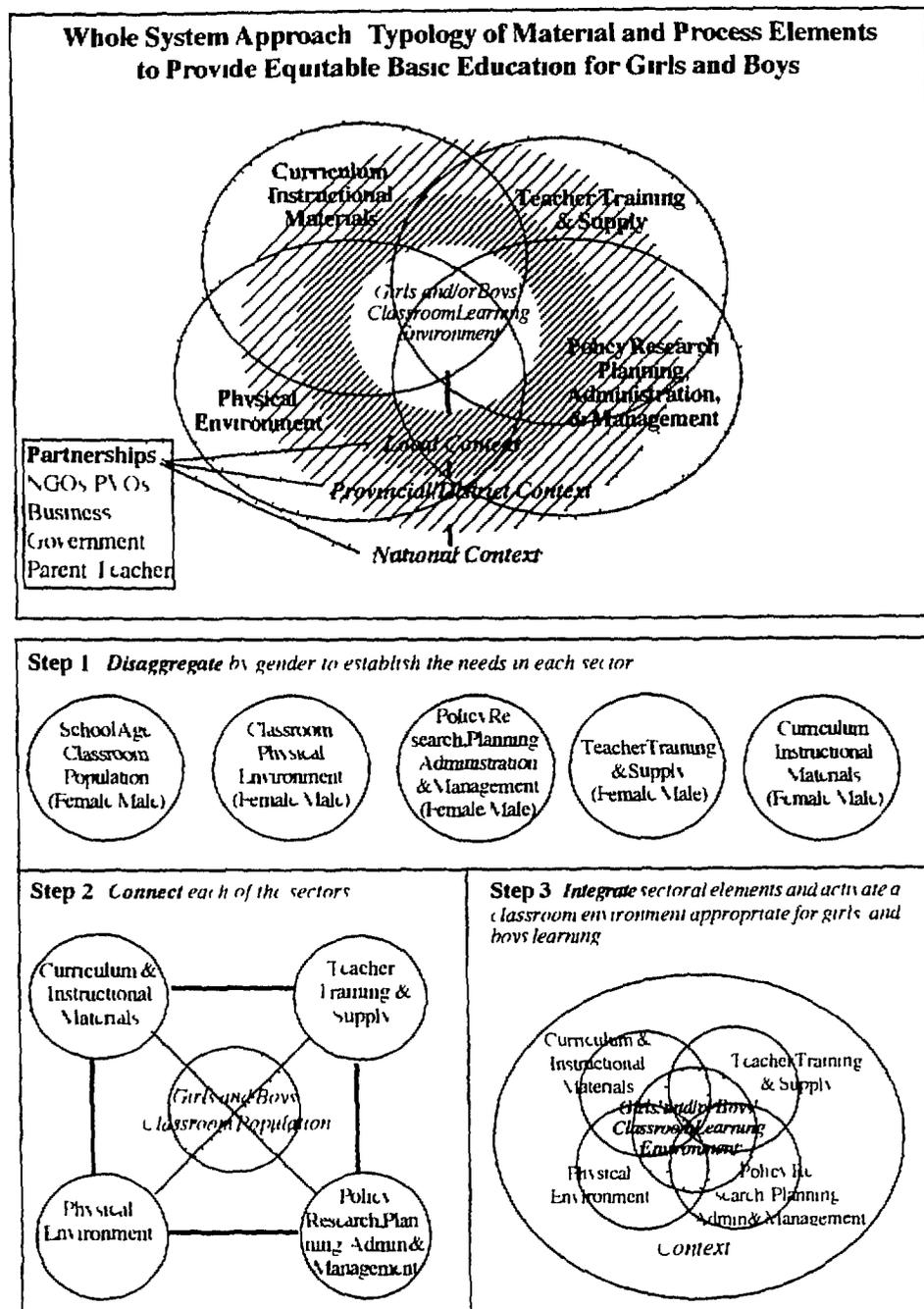
USAID brought the success of these schools to the ministry's attention, with the result that the ministry made all alternative schools official, which means that they are eligible for government funding, and that children from village schools, which only go as far as third grade, can go on to state schools.

SECTION 5: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A Whole System Approach

Trends in strategies to include girls can be summarized in a gender framework that focuses on three key approaches illustrated below in Figure 6. Programs take place within a system of interacting elements that form a whole through an iterative three-step process: disaggregate, connect, and coordinate.

Figure 6



The dynamics of a system include the physical and societal forces that produce change in the community. A dynamic education system operates (1) within diverse populations -- girls and boys in both rural and urban areas, from different socio-economic and cultural backgrounds, (2) through various interrelated factors in the physical school environment as well as management and teaching/learning processes and (3) is driven by individuals involved in the school system, as well as by society at large¹⁹

Planning for gender equity summarized above in the upper square of Figure 6 presents the classroom at the center of a much larger system where most of the barriers to girls' education originate. The context of reform is depicted by three concentric shaded areas from the inner circle village/community context to the provincial/district context to the national context at the outer ring. Within these rings are the PVOs, NGOs, Governments, Businesses and other bodies with religious, cultural, social and political norms and behaviors concerning the value and roles of women in society. This forms the base upon which education subsector area circles are overlaid: teacher training, curriculum and instructional materials, policy research, planning, administration and management and the physical environment provided by school facilities.

The classroom is central to the model and ideally, is where the four sector areas converge to support an environment in which girls will learn. As the eye moves away from the central focus, the overlay of the four sectors is reduced. The extent to which the circles overlap, or interrelate for compatibility at all levels determines the success of the reform in terms of achieving goals of gender integration to increase equitable access, quality and efficiency for sustainability.

The lower square in Figure 6 illustrates the step process. Step 1, the collection of gender specific variables in all areas of the education system in order to establish the needs, Step 2, making the connections between all areas, and Step 3, integrating elements within the system to provide a mutually supportive learning environment for girls and boys in the classroom.

The first step is to *disaggregate*, to identify the distinct particulars of constituent parts within the whole system. Specifically, qualitative and quantitative data need to be collected to understand what differences occur in participation rates among girls and boys. Data on who comes to school should be collected for each grade level, disaggregated by gender, location so as to pinpoint issues of poverty, remoteness and ethnicity, and, if appropriate, by ethnic group. When examining the issue of school usage, data should be collected on the number of females and the number of males in school, out of school and dropout rates. This will very quickly show whether there is a significant educational disparity in the community.

¹⁹ This definition of a system is adapted from Senge (1990)

Approaches to collecting disaggregated data include quantitative and qualitative research methodologies that contribute to a more complete understanding of the educational context (Kane 1995, 1995a, Sutton 1996, VanBelle-Prouty 1993, Wolf 1995) Ethnomethodology to data collection recognize the importance of events and occurrences of everyday life Interactive research methodology recognizes the participation of 'the researched' in the research process The 'researched' can help choose the methods, decide the focus should be, and interpret the results Such research methodologies emphasize

- Placing the researcher on the same critical plane as the 'researched',
- Recognizing 'realities' as multiple diverse, and situated in systems of belief that continually adjudicate between them,
- Seeing the 'researched' as including the category and experiences of 'girls/women' as well as boys/men's behaviors
- Analyzing the structured and repetitive inequalities in social life, and
- Recognizing differences among girls and women, as well as the different ways women can gain an education

The second task is to *connect* Often the relationships between the men and women are determined by their values What values are associated with the jobs, activities and roles that different sexes, classes, or ethnic groups perform? Do these activities reflect and embody deeply held social or religious beliefs or are they based on convenience? Are these values rigid, or are they undergoing change? These values may affect gender relationships and interactions between community organizations and local and national NGOs or government agencies Within the education sector itself, information needs to be gathered on the relationships between students (girls and boys) and teachers (female and male), and other factors such as the curriculum, school facilities and costs

Finally, there is a need to *integrate* in partnership with the different constituents inside and outside the educational system mutual relationships for compatible change or interaction Policy research, curriculum, teacher training, and physical environment need integration Integration also needs to take place among constituents in private and public sectors at the household/community level, state or district level and national or international level

The coordination of the multiple elements in an education system is emphasized in a dynamic systems approach to improving educational opportunities for girls Using a typology of four strategic areas where gender variables are central to the model, Figure 6 above illustrates (1)

policy research, planning, administration and management, (2) physical environment, (3) curricula & instructional materials, and (4) teacher training within several contextual domains

Institutional Approaches

Three types of approaches are evident in USAID programs to include girls. Examples of all three exist simultaneously. However, the emphasis evolved chronologically from a 'generic' approach to a 'differential' WID approach to an 'extensive/mainstreaming' gender approach. The three approaches are

Type I Generic A 'generic' approach assumes that educational equality can be achieved for girls and boys by extending the supply of resources -- more schools, more teachers, more books

Type II Differential The second approach, termed 'differential,' incorporates a WID emphasis, either by establishing discrete projects focused entirely on girls, or targeting them within larger projects

Type III Extensive/Mainstreaming The third approach, termed 'extensive', incorporates a gender emphasis based on the importance of targeting *and* mainstreaming attention to girls in all institutional areas and sector activities from project design to implementation

Annex 3 identifies the three approaches and their features. The WID/gender approaches are different, but they are not mutually exclusive. Institutional approaches can be as important as the institutional strategy in designing and implementing education programs for girls. A strategy is context-specific. Therefore the culture and socio-economic conditions, the type of institution (NGO, governmental, university), along with the level of focus -- local community, district, regional, or national -- must all be considered.

USAID has followed two strategies: opportunities and equity. *Equal Opportunity* strategies, compatible with the WID approach, aim at reforms on behalf of girls and women within the existing educational structure for stronger female presence and representation in education. *Gender Equity* strategies, compatible with the gender approach, seek to empower female pupils, by placing additional value on personal experience and cooperation.

Many problems beset girls' education. Gender planning is marginalized, separated from mainstream educational planning. Both the hardware and software aspects of education projects are poorly integrated. There are insufficient female teachers or administrative staff, which limits the involvement of village women in areas where tradition may prevent them from interacting with male staff. The time, duration and location of schooling may not take female needs into account.

To remedy the situation, gender considerations should be addressed during the first stage of the reform process. If not included at this point, it is more likely that they will be excluded at later stages as well. It is also more effective to involve women in decision-making about curriculum, teacher training, and other choices rather than attempting later to utilize systems not suited to their needs. Where inappropriate practices have been established, education has been found to make little or no difference.

Both quality and quantity are important when planning educational access. Increasing the inclusion of women in all areas of the education system, including administration and management, teaching, research and curriculum development, may not alone provide for their effective participation. The way women are chosen, whether they receive training, what their actual roles consist of, as well as the power vested in the roles are also important. Strategies for promoting women's participation include field-based procedures, combined with action research and on-going monitoring and evaluation using culturally appropriate methods.

Participation (Demand) and Opportunity (Supply)

Research and development of basic education projects for girls rely on two basic dimensions: opportunity and participation. Opportunity refers to the supply of educational resources such as schools, instructional materials, and teachers. Limited access often results from limited educational resources. When this is the case, policy-makers try to supply the greatest educational product for the lowest possible cost. This means that difficult choices must be made among educational priorities and alternative means of pursuing these priorities explored. However, experience shows that supply-side economic inputs and technology transfer *alone* do not create equitable economic and social development.

The second dimension of providing basic education for girls, participation, refers to the understanding of 'demand side' social and cultural needs. Participation -- initial enrollment, retention, involvement in classroom life -- is determined by cultural, familial and individual factors that facilitate or inhibit the demand for girls' education. The interaction between opportunities and participation is what determines equitable levels of education for girls.

At the national level these terms are convenient for macro analyses and cross-system comparisons of girls' access to formal education. They highlight different patterns of opportunity versus participation and access versus retention, according to geographic origin (rural-urban, remote-accessible) or income background (wealthy-poor). Increasing experience from non-formal education and community schools experiments show that the interaction between opportunity and participation, or supply and demand, is highly reciprocal and cannot be easily categorized or disaggregated.

Educational opportunity and participation are rarely the result of a single factor. The basic dimensions are increasingly being considered within 'whole systems' perspectives. Whole systems are multidimensional by nature and acknowledge the interrelation of education with the environment, the economy, and political and socio-cultural factors.

Lessons from Innovative Approaches

- An effective strategy to improve educational access and quality is to form partnerships with parents, teachers, the private sector and NGOs. Governments have a key role to play because support is needed for teachers, schools, and other inputs such as learning materials.
- Devolution of authority to local communities improves school quality for both girls and boys. When governments develop ways to help communities develop their own schools, providing effective primary education, the access of girls to education improves even in situations of perceived low demand. Communities are often willing to pay the cost of schooling their children in a locally relevant context. Ministry quality control remains important to maintaining school credibility.
- The cooperation between teachers and parents is key to girls' participation rates in both public and private schools.
- The type of participation that makes most sense varies with the school's environment. The most obvious is the difference between rural and urban contexts. Village communities are more clearly defined and tight-knit than urban neighborhoods. They assume a greater role in running their schools, budgeting for building maintenance, monitoring teacher attendance, buying materials and promoting the school within the community. By contrast, urban communities may have more of a monitoring role as they interact with teachers to raise accountability and performance.
- Social, cultural and historical relationships between women and men are essential to participatory strategies in any context. Educational planning should take gender into account in decision-making processes, and promote democratic decision-making for men and women alike.
- Female participation matters at all levels of the education system. The participation of women in research design and implementation is essential to promoting girls' basic education. For example, female project staff can meet with rural women in areas where women will not attend meetings; male staff will not meet with female staff.

- The physical environment is important. Parents often are more concerned about a daughters' safety and traditions and therefore pay attention to the physical environment in which their daughters are educated--the distance to the school, and the sanitation, security and seclusion of school buildings are important factors. Physical inputs such as supply of water pumps and/or suitably designed latrines can be the most important elements to consider to improve girls' basic education.
- Community-based schooling and home schooling in rural and urban areas can increase school quality and cost efficiency because parents contribute more and because teachers become accountable to parents for observable results. Relevance, ownership, and community commitment improve school access for girls.

When Less Is More

Necessity is the mother of invention, and programs focusing on girls' basic education provide lessons on how to use minimal resources efficiently. Girls' education programs have received substantially less than their share of monies in basic education.

Some reforms cost little but have high returns. Flexible timetables to service the girl students' needs are effective interventions with no direct costs. Allowing school committees and parents' associations to decide when school should be in session and for how long ushers in a changed relationship between the school and the community. It also makes it easier for families to address the opportunity costs of enrolling their children in school.

- Schools can accomplish more with less by doing less. Carefully focused curricula that teach fewer lessons carefully also improve schools. In some communities, literacy and numeracy are taught in as little as one-third the teaching time of official public schools, by teachers with less formal education than their official counterparts. This contrasts with official curricula that are often overloaded with subjects and fail to devote sufficient time to the acquisition of basic skills. In addition, booklets or primers are often more effective than textbooks, conveying a focused curriculum at a lower cost.
- Less training can also mean more female teachers. Education reform efforts usually assume that higher quality instruction requires higher qualifications. Experience in several countries indicates that student achievement improves with less qualified teachers when the curriculum is focused and the relationship between the school and the community is redefined. Para-professionals selected from the community, with short pre-service and in-service training, and strong supervision can be effective teachers.

Broadening Participation

NGO/community partnerships characterized by regular and open communication and cooperative planning are mutually reinforcing. USAID support has worked through PVOs to involve local NGOs and parents' associations in reforming the relationship between schools and communities. As a result of the involvement of a variety of actors, local support for school improvement can become widespread, local institutional capacity for supporting educational reform develops, local advocates for education reform emerge, and the government's perception of the nature of its relationship with these various partners changes.

- Community-based schools have successfully encouraged the expansion and improvement of primary education for girls. Successful community school programs provide cases which other countries and programs need to examine as USAID pursues working through public-private partnerships to address the basic education needs for girls throughout the world.
- The system changes in decision-making that are required for sustainable basic education can be brought about through processes based on the commitment of individuals and groups. A client-focused perspective at the household and community level is an starting point of sustainable development.

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Annex One
Selected USAID-Assisted Interventions & Mandates, and Other Milestones/Events
(Domestic & International) Supporting Girls' & Women's Programs

Year	USAID Developments in Basic Education USAID Assisted Programs	USAID WID and Milestone Events (Domestic & International)
1973 1974 1975 1977	During the 1970s emphasis in education projects on supplying labor market demands Equity issues focused on urban /rural disparities Non formal education resources structured toward participatory activities in teacher training rural education including radio correspondence education	<p><i>Percy Amendment directed US foreign assistance to focus on integrating women into the economics of developing countries</i></p> <p>WID Office created USAID</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •UN Decade for Women Conference Mexico City •Percy Amendment restated to recognize women s role in economic production family support and in development overall
1980 1981 1982 1984	<p>Trend turns away from non formal education toward formal education programs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •First study of USAID education assistance (Method & Shaw/CAII) identifies need for basic education support •Egypt Basic Ed Project for school construction for girls •Botswana Primary Education Improvement Project I for primary school teacher training Lesotho Instructional Materials Resource Center Project providing teaching materials that provide positive role models Zimbabwe Books for New Literates project providing reading materials for new literates and semi literates (~0% women) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Cameroon Support to Primary Education Project contribute to training primary teachers •Liberia Improved Efficiency of Learning Project developing teaching materials that provide positive role models for girls •Nepal Radio Educational Teacher Training Project 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender Gap first defined & named as feminist bloc emerged in 1980 US elections (Smeal/NOW) •WID Policy Paper USAID is first donor agency to issue a policy directive mandating the collection of sex disaggregated data asserting that inadequate understanding of women s role within and beyond the household leads to inappropriate project design and implementation The WID Policy Paper instructed all country strategies to involve women and all USAID consultants to address women s issues •Equal Rights Amendment falls three states short of ratification •First comprehensive review Women s Education in the Third World Comparative Perspectives published (Kelley & Elliot, eds/SUNY)
1985 1986 1987 1988 1989	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •USAID Blueprint for Development mandates primary school enrollment to 90% for girls by the year 2000 •Second Study of USAID education assistance(Ruhan et al /CAII) identified disjunction between policy and programming for basic education especially for girls • A Manual for Integrating the Gender Factor Into Basic Education and Vocational Training Projects (Anderson/USAID) presented a process for addressing gender inequities in basic education •Guatemala Girls Scholarship Program launched <p>Congress established a set aside for education in foreign assistance appropriations & mandated that 50% be committed to basic education with emphasis on girls</p> <p><i>Female Access to Basic Education Trends Policies & Strategies</i> (Cuadra, Anderson et al HIWID/USAID) characterizes gender gap in school enrollment rates</p> <p><i>First extensive girls basic education reform program launched w/USAID funding (PED/Pakistan)</i></p> <p><i>Afghanistan Home Schools for Girls</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Mali reform efforts launched to increase girls GER leading to the creation of a division specializing in girls ed 	<p>U N World Conference on Women Nairobi</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Development Fund for Africa initiated •USAID introduced use of PA and NPA modes of funding •USAID mandated explicit WID action items included collection and use of sex disaggregated data in PA and NPA modes documents & requirement of all country strategies projects and programs be designed so the percent of female participants would be demonstrably increased and percent of women receiving benefits would be proportionate to traditional participation in a given activity or the proportion of the population

Year	USAID Developments in Basic Education USAID Assisted Programs	USAID WID and Milestone Events (Domestic & International)
1990 1991 1992 1993 1994	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic and Social Impacts of Girls Primary Education in Developing Countries study published by USAID (Floro & Wolf/CAII) • A I D s Office of Education convened a workshop to analyze material on quality basic education with a focus on girls <i>Primary Ed Program in Ghana launched</i> • <i>Guinea Education Reform Program launched</i> • <i>Second extensive girls basic education program started (GABLE/Malawi)</i> • Programs with characteristics of non formal education (Escuela Nueva, BRAC) gain attention for girls participation <i>Benin Child s Learn/Equity Program launched</i> • Educating Girls Strategies to Increase Access Persistence & Achievement study published by USAID (Tietjen/CAII) • <i>Uganda Primary Education Reform</i> • Girls education is credited by a USGAO report as an area where activities that benefit women & include them in the development process are most notable • <i>Ethiopia Basic Education Program launched</i> • <i>Nepal Basic Education Support Program launched</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender Gap in education first defined and named for use as a determinant of social welfare and economic productivity of Third World countries (King/World Bank) the power of the gender variable becomes widely accepted • Education for All Conference Jomtien Thailand emphasized girls basic education • How Schools Shortchange Girls AAUW Report published • USGAO report characterized progress by USAID in the incorporation of gender issues across all sectors as marginal • U N Conference for Populatin & Development in Cairo discusses fundamental importance of girls education
1995 1996	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community schools become a focus for increased equity • Girls and Women s Initiative announced • <i>Cambodia Primary Education Prog launched</i> • Girls and Women s Education Project Awarded 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen mandates the education of girls & women • U N World Conference on Women Beijing China Gender Plan of Action signed by USAID Administrator

Annex Two
Selected USAID Basic Education Programs Promoting Girls' Education

Start Date/Country Program \$ Program Support Purpose/Conditionality	Interventions	Results Girls' Outcomes
No 2630139 (1981 1991) Egypt School Construction Total Program Support \$190 M Purpose Increase enrollment through school construction	Resource Survey conducted School mapping completed 1 949 schools built	Rise in female participation in rural primary schools increased from 36% to 42% of total enrollment
No 5200374 (1986 1998) Guatemala BEST Total Program Support \$25 7 M Purpose Improve quality access efficiency and equity	Baseline data collected National commission formed 5 year scholarship program for rural indigenous girls initiated Gender office established Pilot programs	3143 scholarships to girls at the elementary level 319 secondary level (1989 1994) w/lower dropout rates & higher rates of promotion (77% from 1989 91)
No 3910497 (1989 1993) Pakistan Primary Ed Dev (PED) Total Program Support \$46 2 M Purpose Provide equitable access for girls improve quality and efficiency Increase girls enroll x198% Conditionality Establish separate primary education directorate • train female employees to assume senior policy and decisionmaking positions at the provincial level	Human resource survey 2000 new schools (60% for girls) 900 female teachers trained EMIS established Inst mats gender sensitive Directorate established w/openings at all levels for women Education Foundation Established	18% annual rise in recurrent budget 30% rise in girls enrollment 11% increase in completion rate
No 688603/6880258 (1989 1998) Mali BEEP Total Program Support \$21 M Purpose Improve efficiency of education system Conditionality Increase girls GER	Equal intake policy for grades 1&2 Social marketing & media campaign Establish national & regional gender units Teachers trained in gender issues	47% rise in GER 75% rise in 1st grade admissions 64% rise in 6th grade pass rate
No 675602/6750223 (1990-1997) Guinea Education Reform Total Program Support \$48 8 M Conditionality Increase girls GER	Equity committee established Publicity campaign conducted	51% rise in GER 89% rise in 1st grade admissions 16% decline in repeater rates
No 612605/6120237/6120240 (1991 1997) Malawi GABLE Total Program Support \$43 5 Conditionality Increase girls access & completion Goal Increase girls GER & retention	Fee waiver for girls Pregnancy policy revised Social mobilization campaign launched Gender unit established Gender bias eliminated from new materials	47% rise in GER (130% jump in GER in 1994 95 school year) 75% rise in 1st grade admissions
<p>Examples of significant interventions but not the complete list for any program</p> <p>^bOutcome reflects changes experienced in an area during the period of the project It is difficult to quantify impact of a particular intervention often data are not differentiated between USAID financed projects and other projects and/or events However in all of the programs listed USAID was instrumental in introducing the gender variable in strategic planning at the national level for the first time</p>		

Annex Three
Features of Three Approaches to Including Girls in Basic Education

Approaches/Features	Type I Generic Gender Neutral	Type II Differential WID Emphasis	Type III Extensive/Mainstreaming Gender Emphasis
Access to Education	Based on uniform needs (male by default)	Targets needs of girls in discrete projects or within larger projects	Integrates attention to girls in all aspects of education programs & considers gender relationships (girls/boys)
Advocacy	No stated advocacy based on sex differences	Advocacy of girls as beneficiaries	Advocacy of girls as contributors
Welfare Orientation	Boys and girls are equally advantaged or disadvantaged according to socio-economic groups	Girls as needy poor left out welfare recipients	Recognizes girls as source of strength empowers girls to be active agents
Institutional Response	No specific focus on girls (favoring boys by default)	Creation of WID units Focus on discrete inputs for girls in specific areas	Focus on integrating girls in all aspects of design & implementation and on empowerment
Research Approach	Quantitative (supply side oriented) Use of aggregated statistics Decontextualized concern for universal validity	Quantitative and qualitative Statistics disaggregated by sex Contextualized concern for validity at local level	Qualitative and quantitative research Statistics disaggregated by sex and gender role relationships explored Highly contextualized concern for validity at local level
Planning Approach	Global/national top down approach to planning	Global/local participatory approach to planning with upward downward lateral communication	National/district/local participatory approaches with upward downward lateral communication
Teaching	Male and female teachers show preference to boys (recognize boys contributions remember boys names)	Preference to training female teachers Teachers seek to engage female students (particular focus on girls contributions and names)	Train female and male teachers to engage in learning as an interactive process among girls and boys (recognize contributions and names of both girls and boys)
Curriculum	Based on uniform needs--largely recognizes boys in lessons textbook stories illustrations girls remain invisible	Based on special needs of girls recognizes girls in lessons textbook stories illustrations depict female role models that prepare girls for motherhood	Actively engages girls and boys in collaborative studies lessons textbook stories illustrations role models that prepare girls and boys for resolving differences family life and economic productivity
School Facilities	Formal structures reflecting hierarchy conforming to top down approach (desks and chairs in uniform rows facing in one direction)	Easily accessible to girls formal and informal structures in communities and homes Emphasis on cleanliness colorful environment, designed to increase group learning	Easily accessible to girls and boys-- Formal and informal structures in communities and homes Emphasis on health aesthetics designed to increase group collaboration

Annex Four

Summary of USAID Basic Education Active Projects
(In Thousands of Dollars)

Region/ Country	Project Number	Title	Initial Year	Final Year	Auth Am't	Planned Am't	Obligations to 1993	Expenditures to 1993	Obligations FY 1994	Expenditures FY 1994	Obligations FY 1995	Expenditures FY 1995
Africa Region												
Benin	680602	Child's Learn/Equity(NPA)	1991	1998	55500	55500	36000	10000	12000	5000	75000	12000
	6800208	Child's Learn/Equity(PA)	1991	1998	11000	11300	7350	878	12000	336	1600	3347
	6800212	Prim Ed NGO Pro (PENGO)	1994	1995	4993	4993			3193		1800	1500
Botswana	6330240	Prim Ed Improvement II	1986	1991	4187	4187	4187	3877				310
	6330254	Basic Ed Consolidation	1991	1995	8850	6950	6950	547		2049		2100
Ethiopia	6630014	Basic Ed System (NPA)	1994	2000	8000	8000			8000			8000
	6630015	Basic Ed System (PA)	1994	2000	30100	30100			8000			3000
Ghana	641602	Prim Education (NPA)	1990	1993	32000	32000	32000	19000		8000		5000
	6410120	Prim Education (PA)	1990	1991	3000	3000	3000	853		919		742
	6410128	Prim Education II (NPA)	1995	1999		30000					3500	
Guinea	675602	Education Reform (NPA)	1990	1997	29139	29139	29139	7647		9375		7292
	6750223	Ed Sector Reform (PA)	1990	1997	19700	19700	5700	1769	5000	1090	6000	2500
Lesotho	632602	Prim Ed Program(NPA)	1991	1995	18600	13913	11582	6082			2331	5500
	6320225	Prim Ed Program (PA)	1991	1995	6400	5407	4859	1089		1210	548	1500
Malawi	612605	GABLE (NPA)	1991	1997	20500	20500	14000	9000	6500			6500
	6120237	GABLE (PA)	1991	1997	10000	10000	6000	584		1035	1200	1800
	6120240	GABLE (NPA)	1991	1997	13000	13700					8500	
Mali	688603	Basic Ed Exp (NPA)	1989	1998	3000	3000	3000	1000				2000
	6880258	Basic Ed Exp (PA)	1989	1998	21000	41000	15000	10521	5000	3067	5000	7000
Namibia	6730003	Basic Ed Reform (NPA)	1991	1992	11000	11000	11000	6000		5000		
	6730006	Basic Ed Reform (PA)	1991	1999	18337	18337	1000	369	11750	287	2500	2000
So Africa	6740302	Ed Support & Training	1986	1997	48547	48547	22236	12780	5500	5103	3000	3000
	6740314	Basic Ed Reconstruction	1992	1997	50000	50000	13000	2164	19100	4981	11000	7000
Swaziland	6450230	Ed Policy Mangmnt&Tech	1989	1995	7102	7102	5559	4008	1141	734	402	482
Uganda	6170131	Prim Ed Reform (PA)	1992	1999	75000	25000	5588	232	2300	1616	1000	1500
	6170132	Prim Ed Reform (NPA)	1992	1999	75000	75000					10000	
Regional Totals					533955	577375	237150	98400	99484	49802	133381	84073
Asia/Near East Region												
Afghanistan	3060202	Education Sector Support	1986	1995	49200	44575	43984	48651		5231		
Cambodia	4420116	Primary Education	1995	1998	30000	30000					3973	3500
Nepal	3670168	Basic Education Support	1994	1999	4000	8000			4000		1500	1200
Pakistan	3910497	Primary Education Dev	1989	1991	249250	46250	45850	32617		11388		
Egypt	2630139	Basic Education	1981	1989	190000	186000	185149	182227		1609		
Yemen	2790074	Education Services	1987	1993	11300	5350	5082	4025		517		
Lebanon	2681336	Education Support	1985	1993	24381	25381	24347	21338		1653		137
Regional Totals					558131	345556	304412	288858	4000	20398	5473	4817

Continued

Summary of USAID Basic Education Programs*

In Thousands of Dollars

Region/ Country	Project Number	Title	Initial Year	Final Year	Auth Am't	Planned Am't	Obligations to 1993	Expenditures to 1993	Obligations FY 1994	Expenditures FY 1994	Obligations FY 1995	Expenditures FY 1995
LAC												
Bolivia	5110597	Radio Education	1988	1992	1909	1847	1746	1647		99		
	5110619	Interactive Radio	1991	1996	5000	5000	2966	1715	1252	1137	426	1200
Dominican Rep	5170251	Private Prim Ed	1990	1997	5500	5500	4163	2021	973	836	355	1050
El Salvador	5190357	Basic Ed	1990	1998	33000	32904	21160	5906	850	8184	3964	6956
Guatemala	5200374	Basic Ed Strength	1989	1998	25700	17186	11448	3000	2845	3132	4500	
Haiti	5210190	Incentives	1986	1996	25200	25200	15444	13346	3000	892	4292	5000
Honduras	5220273	Prim Ed Efficiency	1986	1996	24850	25586	22507	16058	1610	2123	470	3958
	5220388	Basic Ed Skills Train	1995	1999		10000				1200	900	
Jamaica	5320155	Prim Ed Assist II	1990	1995	5600	5600	3894	1590	1082	1652	624	1800
Nicaragua	5240329	Basic Ed	1992	1998	30000	30000	11500	1657	4805	3376	1000	5188
Regional Totals					156759	158823	94828	46940	16417	22631	16531	25152
Global												
	9365818	Lcam Tech	1984	1995	13770	10000	10589	10634	1000	390		449
	9365823	IEES II	1984	1994	17500	17500	15666	15213	40	484		
	9365832	BRIDGES	1985	1992	10000	7100						
		ABEL	1989	1998	17000	18918	6120	4583	1677	1504	4053	2920
	9365836	IEQ	1990	2000	7500	9500	2759	1647	1350	1531	1475	1475
	9365831	Info Cleanhouse	1988	1993	1633	1378	1377	1203		173		
Totals					67403	64396	25922	22646	3067	3692		
Grand Totals					1267048	1101575	618328	408193	122968	91292	155385	114062

*Source USAID Fiscal year 1995 Congressional Presentation Statistical Annex (BRIDGES added)