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Evaluation of the Bank's Basic Education Strategy

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I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Although Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) has significantly expanded basic education enrollments during the past three decades, the quality of the education provided by the region's education systems remains inadequate (PREAL 2001). Furthermore, basic education is provided in an inefficient and inequitable way, despite countries' efforts to improve educational outcomes through a variety of reforms. In this context, this report summarizes the Office of Evaluation and Oversight (OVE) evaluation of the Bank's response to these challenges embedded in its education strategy.

1.2 The renewed social sector emphasis of the Eighth Bank's Replenishment (IDB-8) and the complexities ensuing from this mandate led the Bank to recognize the need for developing strategic planning frameworks to guide the use of Bank's limited resources to maximize their impact (IDB-8, page 14). The Institutional Strategy of the Bank (GN-2077 1999) asserts that the goals and objectives of Bank interventions "need to be kept current through a regular review of the Bank's strategies and operational policies." Thefore, the early evaluation of these strategies should be considered a crucial element of the Bank's strategic approach and strategy preparation learning process.

1.3 The complexity of the education sector and the existence of multiple strategy documents dealing with each educational level led OVE to limit this report to basic education, defined as primary and lower secondary.[1] Two strategies have been produced to guide the Bank's investments in basic education: "Supporting Reform in the Delivery of Social Services" (1996) and "Reforming Primary and Secondary Education in Latin America and the Caribbean" (2000). This report evaluates the design, implementation, and effectiveness of the Bank's strategies pertaining to basic education within the 1991-2000 period. In particular, this report analyzes the strategy documents' pertinence of the portrayal of the region's issues and problems; the robustness of their causal analysis of such *problematique*; the rationale of their design (as per guidance contained in the Institutional Strategy); the consistency of their approach with the strategic approaches of borrowing countries and of the strategic lines of action in basic education loan projects; and to the extent to which it is possible, to comment on the strategy in terms of its potential effectiveness and its efficacy.

1.4 In this report, Chapter II presents an overview of the evolution of LAC's basic education outcomes during the '90s and outlines some of the main obstacles to progress. Chapter III evaluates the strategy documents (explicit strategy) as a response to the sector *problematique*. Chapter IV evaluates the explicit strategy in terms of the degree to which it was implemented *de facto*, the extent to which the

[1] In this report, early childhood development programs are considered inputs for basic education. See Table A 1 for a description of the different ways basic education systems are organized in LAC.

loan documents provide information to evaluate the explicit strategy results, and the empirical evidence of the impact of some of the Bank's strategic lines of action at the school level, without dealing with attribution issues. Chapter V discusses the views of sector specialists on the design, dissemination, and usefulness of the strategy documents. Chapter VI summarizes the main finding of this report. Finally, Chapter VII offers recommendations for the development of future education strategies.

II. THE LAC BASIC EDUCATION SECTOR STATUS DURING THE '90S

2.1 This chapter describes the evolution of basic education outcomes in the region during the '90s and seeks to identify the outstanding challenges and key obstacles to improvement. Early childhood development and pre-primary programs are discussed in a section of their own, as increasingly, countries in the region are considering them part of their basic education systems.

A. General situation

2.2 The '90s witnessed a sustained effort by LAC countries to reshape their education systems in order to enhance the delivery of educational services.[2] Significant progress has been made in terms of increasing school enrollment. As a region, LAC is now close to making universal access to primary education (See Table A 2); and although the goal of assuring access to lower secondary for all children is still far from being reached, there has been substantive progress at this level as well (See Table A 3).

2.3 In spite of these efforts, the region's educational outcomes still lag behind (PREAL 2001), both in terms of the goals set by LAC at the beginning of the decade,[3] and in comparison to other countries with equal or lower per capita income.

2.4 Education systems are failing in the task of graduating children from basic education, even at the primary level (See Table A 4); they are inefficient (i.e., the number of years to graduate a child is considerably greater than the ideal (See Table A 5); and efforts to improve learning outcomes have produced modest results (See Table A 6).

2.5 The fact that LAC basic education lags behind is worrisome not only because education is a key element in promoting sustained development and in creating equality of opportunities, but also because globalization and technological change impose increasing pressures on education systems to produce better qualified individuals.

2.6 Lastly, even though LAC countries uniformly increased the percentage of their gross domestic product dedicated to the primary and secondary levels, expenditure per student at these levels is actually low (even after adjusting for

[2] In this paper we consider primary education the first six grades and lower secondary education the grades seven through nine. Basic education is comprised of primary and lower-secondary education.

[3] In the Jomtien Declaration (1990) LAC countries stated the following goals for the year 2000: a) to expand the scope of early development childhood programs, especially to poor and handicapped children; b) to universalize access and completion of basic education (8 years); and c) to improve the learning outcomes for a significant proportion of the population (in terms of acquiring minimum skills). Other goals stated in the Jomtien Declaration refer to adult education.

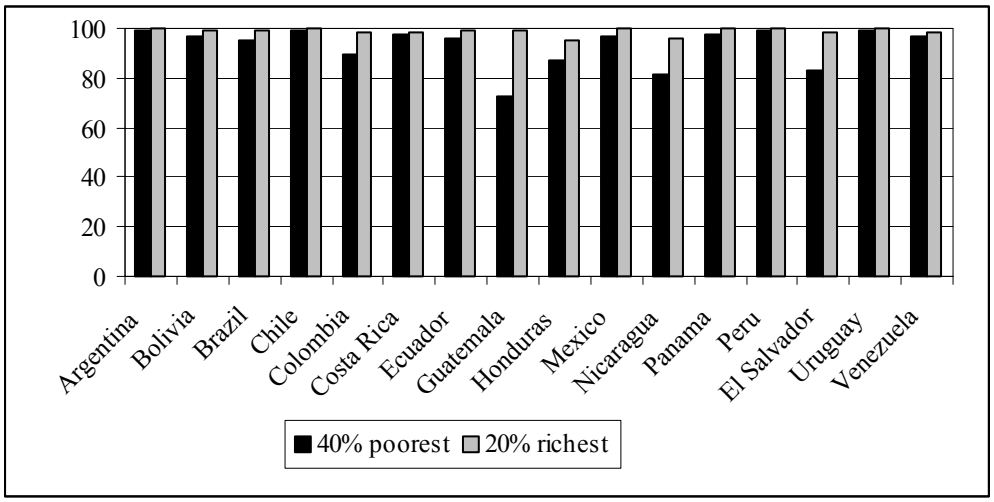
cost of living) compared to the expenditure per student in developed countries (Sancho et al. 2001). Current macroeconomic conditions call for fiscal adjustments, which may reduce the financial resources available to basic education. More and better may have to be done with less.

B. Heterogeneity within countries

2.7 Overall, enrollment disparities between males and females in basic education have been reduced; they are now negligible or minor for most of LAC.[4] In fact, in some countries, boys' educational outcomes are now below those of girls, they have higher dropout and repetition rates, and they score lower on standardized tests.

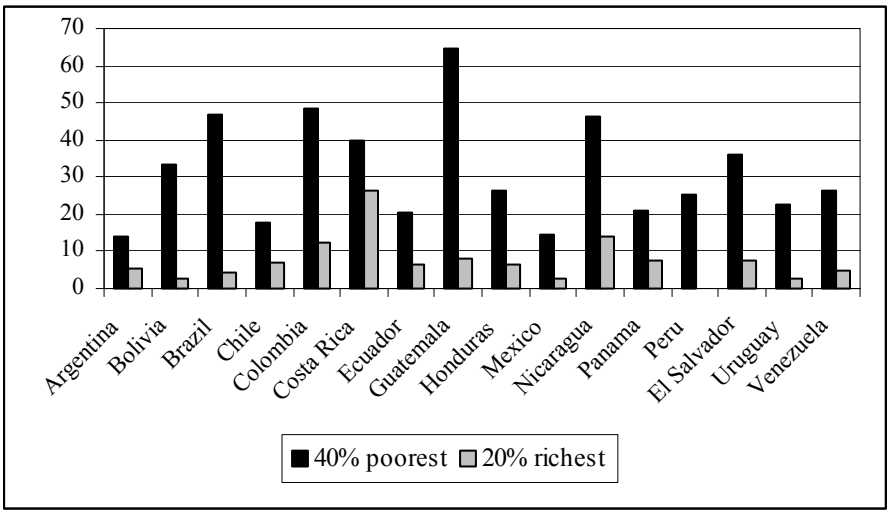
2.8 In all other dimensions, equity in education services delivery remains to be attained. The failures of the educational systems are especially noticeable among the neediest, i.e., the poor, rural, urban-marginal, and indigenous people. In the poorest countries in the region, a significant proportion of the poorest children of primary-school age are not enrolled in schools (Graph 2.1). There is a considerable gap in terms of the age-grade distortion between the poorer and the better-off children (Graph 2.2). Moreover, it is considerably less likely that they will finish at least five years of basic education (Graph 2.3). Higher repetition and temporary dropouts and late entry into the primary system account for these disparities.

Graphic 2.1: Percentage of 8 years old who assist to school

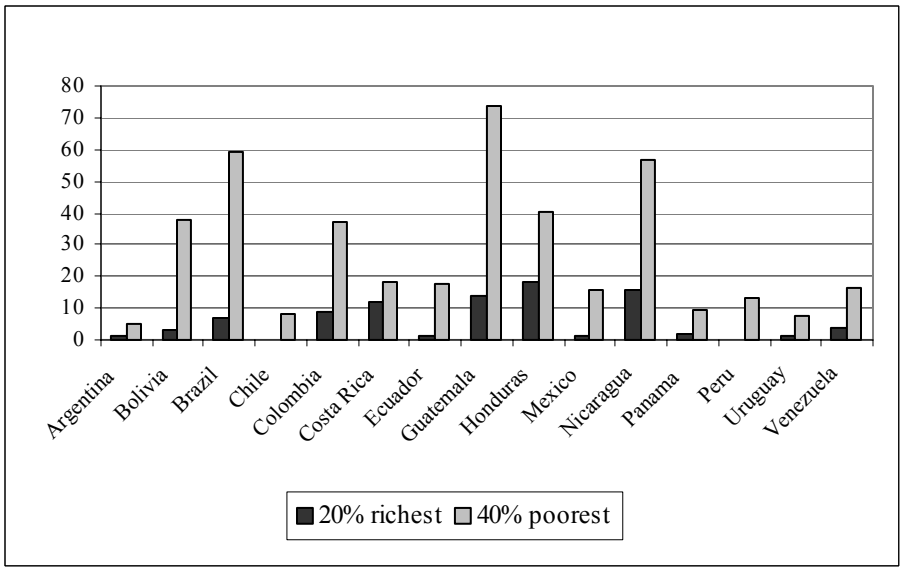


[4] The gender gap in some countries is still relevant vis-à-vis indigenous populations, although it is still low compared to the figures for Africa and East Asia.

Graphic 2.2: Percentage of 11 years-old behind (+2) official age



Graphic 2.3: Percentage of children 15-16 who have not finished 6 years of basic education, by income



2.9 Additionally, the quality of the education received by the children of the poor is much worse than that received by the children of the better off (See Table A 7). This reduces the benefits that poor parents perceive of sending their children to school, and helps explain their children's higher dropout rates.

2.10 Poor children are grossly under-represented at the lower secondary education level. The gap in completion rates with respect to better-off children is much higher than that observed at the primary level (See Table A 8). In some countries, however, low enrollment rates at lower secondary level are not exclusively a phenomenon occurring among the poor. In these countries a significant proportion of the 20% richest children are also out of school by age 15. This suggests that the demand for lower secondary education is low for many families that do not have

financial restrictions to keep their children in school. Low quality of education may be a key motivating factor in their decision to drop out of school.

2.11 Lower secondary education programs rarely take into account the needs of working students. In most LAC countries a significant proportion of the poorer children start working by the time they are 12 years old and most of them will be working by the time they are 16 years old. The typical arrangement of night classes is often the preferred choice to accommodate the conflicting needs of poor students. Rarely has there been an analysis of the trade-offs between increased access and potentially lower education quality embedded in this policy choice.

2.12 To reach the excluded requires additional and creative efforts. Moreover, it is crucial to understand the dynamics of the transition of children from school to the labor market in order to design pertinent, coherent, and meaningful educational policies for them.

C. Heterogeneity across countries

2.13 There are considerable differences between countries in terms of basic educational outcomes, resource availability, and efficiency in allocating these resources.

2.14 Countries in the region differ not only in terms of the percentage of the population that has access to basic education, but also in terms of the quality of the educational services they provide. These differences, however, do not necessarily reflect differences in per capita income between countries (See Table A 9).

2.15 This report argues that accounting for these differences is critical to the design of effective education strategies. Table 2.1 presents a proposal of how to group countries. Key classifying dimensions were: 1) the number of school-age children enrolled at the primary level, as a percentage of the total school-age population (net enrollment rate); 2) the average actual number of years spent by children in primary school before graduation, as a percentage of the ideal number of years (coefficient of efficiency); and 3) the evaluation team's judgment on the level of advancement of the reform process.[5]

[5] A greater focus on quality of education reform processes is behind the evaluation team's judgment. Lack of indicators on quality, allowing inter-country comparisons for all LAC countries, prevented the use of an objective indicator. The only regional-level effort to produce comparable indicators of quality has been undertaken by the Laboratorio Latinoamericano de Evaluación de la Calidad de la Educación (LLECE 1997), which included only thirteen LAC countries. The judgment made in this report to group countries is supported by LLECE's findings.

2.16

Table 2.1. A country typology

		Net enrollment rate below 85%	Net enrollment rate 85 % and higher
Coefficient of efficiency below 75%		Group 1:	Group 2:
		El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua	Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Panama, Paraguay, Venezuela
Coefficient of efficiency 75% and higher	**Relatively less-advanced reform process**		Group 3:
			Belize, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guyana, Jamaica, Mexico, Peru, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago
	Relatively more-advanced reform process		Group 4:
			Argentina, Bahamas, Barbados, Brazil, Chile, Uruguay

2.17 **Group 1: Universalization, the unfulfilled agenda**. This group is characterized by having the lowest net enrollment rates of the region. The fact that these countries are among the poorest and the less urbanized in the region complicates the possibility of their education systems solving the low-access problem in the near future. They have to spend their very limited resources on children who are very expensive to reach by traditional methods. Additionally, these countries' education systems are the most inefficient ones in the region, and survival rates to the fifth grade are very low. These facts highlight the role that universalization still has for this group of countries as a device for improving the equity dimension of education.

2.18 **Group 2: The need to keep children at school more efficiently.** This group of countries performed well during the decade in terms of increasing primary level school enrollment. However, their coefficient of efficiency is significantly lower than that of other high-net enrollment countries. It is not surprising to observe a decrease over time in a country's efficiency measures along with increases in enrollment, as new enrollees are expected to be more likely to become grade-repeaters and to drop out of school. For such countries, even a small increase in any of these indicators may be deemed an important achievement. Nevertheless, the need for greater efficiency remains, as increased access is imposing new pressures on the financial viability of the education reform.

2.19 **Group 3: Reform to improve the quality of their educational services**. This group is close to universalizing primary education, both in terms of access and completion. Although in these countries there is still ground for improving the efficiency of their systems, the focus of concern is shifting to providing quality

education more equitably. The performance of their students is not satisfactory according to any standard.

2.20 **Group 4: The leading group in LAC, yet still lagging behind**. The main concerns of these countries are also quality with equity. The reform process in these countries has had more time to mature (it began during the early '80s). Furthermore, a fair amount of resources has been deployed in order to achieve those goals. Yet, the pace at which improving outcomes is taking place is slow in terms of what would have been expected given the amount of resources spent, the goals set by these countries, and compared to the progress of comparable countries outside the region.

D. Early Childhood Development

2.21 Differentials in learning outcomes are likely to reflect differences in initial endowments that children bring into school. These may take the form of "social capital" acquired at home but also of "readiness to learn." Children from the poor segments of the population are more likely to begin primary education with a disadvantage, having grown in a less stimulating environment than better-off children. Early childhood interventions seek to equalize these differentials and improve the equity dimension of the provision of educational services (Barnett 1998, Heckman 1999).

2.22 In this context LAC countries have considerably increased pre-primary enrollment rates during the '90s (See Table A 10). In spite of this accomplishment, most countries are still far from universalizing pre-primary education, and some of them are considerably far away from it. Furthermore, it is likely that many of those children who have been incorporated in the pre-primary education system were not the worst off. Consequently, inequities regarding the skills that children are acquiring in school may even have been magnified. For example, it is still considerably more likely for an urban child to receive pre-primary education than a rural one (See Table A 11).

2.23 Although most specialists argue that pre-primary education is a cost-efficient tool for improving educational outcomes, there are relatively few studies using developing countries' data.[6] While it is likely that early childhood interventions will improve educational outcomes at the primary level, higher investments in pre-primary education may imply lower investments in other programs aiming to improve primary education. Thus, there is an urgent need for studies assessing the cost-effectiveness of pre-primary education and other early childhood interventions for the region in a more solid and systematic way.

[6] Additionally, some studies show that the advantage of early pre-primary education may be diluted with time in school. For a discussion of the long-term effects of some early childhood education interventions see Garces, Eliana, et al. (2002).

E. Obstacles to Progress

2.24 It is broadly acknowledged that recent government efforts to reform basic education in LAC have fallen short[7]. Education authorities remain concerned about the evidence of low teacher quality and the prevalence of poor teaching practices that constrain progress. Symptomatically, teachers' proficiency in terms of competencies is rarely measured - most studies are based on crude characteristics of formal qualifications. Far from being a simple matter of measurement inaccuracies, this can carry real consequences. Career structures and hiring regulations are such that these crude measures are often the only ones available for personnel management. Little progress is reported toward the development of a quality assurance system with teacher evaluation, certification and re-certification, and a "professional career" structured around agreed-upon standards of practice and performance[8] (as often found in OECD countries).

2.25 The causes of poor teaching quality are multiple. Low achievement can be related to lack of content knowledge, low expectations, ineffective management of time, lack of materials, poor classroom discipline, limited repertoire of teaching strategies, and the persistence of a culture which tends to blame the student—not the teacher or the school—for children's learning difficulties. Contact time between teachers and students is often too short, and teachers feel isolated and deprived of support systems and the minimum resources required for effective teaching.

2.26 Studies analyzing the characteristics of those who decide to become teachers point to evidence of negative selection—the least qualified candidates are attracted to the teaching profession. Teachers also are poorly trained (pre-service and in-service) and they generally do not have incentives to perform. Wages and non-pecuniary benefits are not related to results nor do they function as adequate incentives to attract and retain good teachers.[9] There is consensus that efforts to improve the quality of teaching in the region should undertake a comprehensive approach: isolated interventions, such as short-duration teacher training, have been shown to have little or no impact on student learning.

2.27 It is recognized that the quality of education for the next decade will depend on the teaching competencies of today's existing staff. It is these teachers who will fill the bulk of the teaching positions in the near future. Education authorities' efforts to improve learning in the classroom require that their competencies be

[7] See PREAL (2001).

[8] Standards represent an attempt at describing, in measurable or at least observable terms, which competencies and practices are considered desirable to deliver the curriculum. Standards of practice express the "what," and standards of performance describe the level at which teachers demonstrate mastery of the practice: unsatisfactory, basic, professional, accomplished.

[9] A common concern is that the wage increases required to attract better teachers and achieve considerable improvements in learning may be too costly and potentially unaffordable. This raises a non-trivial issue: when are teachers underpaid? Often, teachers have career benefits that include significant non-pecuniary benefits: vacations, short length of workday, negligible unemployment risk, and generous retirement benefits.

upgraded. However, these efforts are constrained by demonstrably ineffective training practices and non-responsive institutional arrangements. The vision of a modern teacher-training program, focused on deepening teachers' content knowledge and integrating theory and practice through supervised internships in schools or innovative training formats, is still missing in most systems. There is an outstanding need to reform existing programs to restructure, re-staff, and reorient them toward an institutional flexibility that has not been evident to date.

2.28 During the '90s, as LAC countries sought to reform their education systems (See Table A 12) through school autonomy, decentralization, ownership, accountability, incentive systems, and evaluation initiatives. In spite of the region-wide support for education reform, the adoption of quality-oriented education reforms are hindered and distorted by political factors. Quality-oriented reforms face a more difficult political scenario than those faced by access-oriented reforms, due to three main impediments (Corrales 1999):

a. While access-oriented reforms generate concentrated benefits and diffused costs, quality-oriented reforms generate diffused benefits and concentrated costs. On the one hand, access-oriented reforms benefit newly enrolled students and their parents, teachers and teachers' unions, and bureaucrats whose budgets increase while their costs are absorbed by taxpayers. On the other hand, quality-oriented reforms benefit society at large and their benefits are mostly perceptible in the long run while their costs are borne by well-organized, politically competent groups: unions that lose privileges and non-accountability, bureaucrats in the central government who give up decision-making authority, education officials who must accept the embarrassment associated with recognizing failings in the system, and political parties who might lose the capacity to disburse patronage through the education system. Therefore, while access-oriented reforms find strong championship and do not have to face groups contesting them, beneficiaries of quality-oriented reforms are unlikely to turn into powerful champions for reform and lead to the rise of strong veto groups.

b. Education-policy *entrepreneurs* - political operators who find a way of pulling together a legislative majority on behalf of interests not well represented in government - are typically weak. This is because governments pursuing quality-oriented education reforms do not face sufficient incentives to persevere in their execution (their benefits are perceived in the long run) or high enough penalties for abandoning their commitment (for instance, the pressure faced from multilateral and other credit institutions by governments pondering abandoning economic reforms agendas). Evidence of weak education-policy entrepreneurship may be found in the high turnover rates in ministries of education. This weakness diminishes the government's bargaining power (between ministers and teachers' unions, for instance) and its capacity to counterbalance quality-oriented reform opponents.

c. The adoption of decentralization, often used by education reformers to enhance the efficiency and improve the quality of public services since the early '80s, raises a whole new set of political difficulties. As Weiler (1990) argues, the three main arguments for advancing decentralization—redistributing power, enhancing the efficiency of public services, and improving learning—conflict directly with the incentives of states to centralize authority. This clash between the inherent interest of states and the inherent goals of decentralization complicates the politics of reform adoption. Governments may pursue decentralization to transfer problems they are unable to solve to other entities. In fact, decentralization may simply imply a transfer of responsibilities to local systems, without providing them with the means and without assuring they have the capabilities to effectively assume these new responsibilities.[10] Most countries in LAC do not have a set of standards for the education system and a regular institutionalized system to measure progress toward meeting the standards. Few countries in the region have participated in international evaluations measuring the skills of children. Consequently, most countries lack the vertical coherence-building, quality-assurance, and accountability mechanisms linking the different levels and sub-parts of the education system: standards, measurement, performance contracts, and support systems and networks necessary for policy decisions made at the center (federal or state) to be instituted in the classroom.

2.29 Lastly, the demographic transition has opened a window of opportunity by creating a situation where resources can be liberated to finance the secondary education expansion, but also has created new challenges. The tendency is for the absolute number of students enrolled in primary schools to be constant or decreasing. Simultaneously, the demand for educational services in later grades has increased, especially for secondary education. Overall, the tendency points toward an environment where education systems will have excess of primary school teachers and a shortage of qualified lower-secondary teachers. Adjustments to conditions of excess of primary school teachers are often impeded by public sector career structures and union labor agreements. However, lack of progress in this area may compromise the internal efficiency of the education system.

[10] See Chapter IV for a discussion on how the *de facto* level of school autonomy—the ultimate degree of decentralization—may be constrained by the low capacity of school boards and principals to effectively implement the *de jure* school autonomy.

III. THE BANK'S RESPONSE

3.1 Faced with such broad challenges, the strategies sought to organize and prioritize the Bank's response and fulfill the lending target commitments recommended at the Santiago Summit of the Americas[11]. This chapter describes the Bank's response to the needs of the region during the '90s as depicted in its strategy documents. It also evaluates these strategy documents in terms of: 1) the pertinence of their diagnosis for the region's education sector needs, 2) the rationale of their design, and 3) the consistency of their strategic lines of action with respect to current borrowing countries' educational policies.

A. Description of the strategy documents

3.2 ***Supporting Reform in the Delivery of Social Services*** was the first formal strategy document ever issued by the Bank. Although it intends to be generic for all social sectors, its analysis is limited to health and education. It acknowledges that despite the region's significant public expenditure in education, attainment and performance are low when compared to other countries with similar income levels. According to this strategy, LAC countries' concerns for achieving equitable access to services resulted in expanded direct public provision of services through a single public provider. However, these services were characterized by centralized and hierarchical structures unresponsive to demand, incapable of achieving an efficient input mix, slow to innovate, and ineffective at motivating improved performance. This has produced a misallocation of resources leading to inequities and poor quality services. As a means of responding to these problems, and using the framework of institutional economics, the strategy document emphasizes restructuring the public financing organization. Its strategic objective is to improve the efficiency of social services delivery systems in the region by increasing the return to total-sector expenditures.

3.3 The lines of action proposed in this strategy document are: 1) decentralizing responsibilities and resources to increase provider accountability to clients, 2) placing emphasis on competition and encouraging private and local sources of supply, 3) improving the incentive system by rewarding outcomes, 4) budgeting resources in response to service demand, 5) making efficient use of information for decision making, 6) centralizing normative and evaluative functions and decentralizing execution, and 7) creating channels for stakeholder participation and social marketing.

3.4 ***The strategy for reforming primary and secondary education in Latin America and the Caribbean*** is specific to the education sector and does not focus on the system as a whole. Rather, it emphasizes the importance of the organization of the school as a key factor in the improvement of educational outcomes. It

[11] RE-245-1, p. 11.

characterizes basic education in the region as having serious problems of quality and equity due to substantive and organizational issues: deficient pedagogical skills of teachers, lack of textbooks and teaching materials, insufficient access to preschools, and excessive centralization and bureaucratic controls which stifle change and innovation at the school level. Its strategic objective is to improve quality and increase equity for all children.

3.5 The strategy document proposes five major lines of action: 1) reforming school management to emphasize autonomy, accountability, and teamwork at the school level; 2) changing the way teachers are trained, operate, and are rewarded within schools; 3) providing adequate learning materials; 4) using information technology appropriately to improve learning and meet new labor market demands; and 4) targeting preschool to underprivileged populations.

B. Pertinence of the strategy documents' diagnosis

3.6 The diagnosis of both strategy documents are relatively weak in terms of: 1) providing empirical evidence supporting the causal link between problems identified and policy choices (one example is the lack of impact analysis evidence associated with school autonomy interventions; another example is the lack of empirical evidence on the effectiveness of prioritizing changes in organizational incentives) and, of equal importance, identifying those policies choices where the evidence is weak or non-existent and linking those to future policy evaluations; 2) in relation to the policy recommendations contained in the strategies that entail sub-contracting service delivery through non-government service providers, the strategies do not analyze or attempt to characterize the different markets where these providers operate nor make an effort to understand their capacity for absorbing the proposed additional demand for their services (for example, the market for private teacher training providers, the market for non-government education providers); and 3) describing more in depth the political economy issues relevant to basic education sector reform (for instance, the constraints imposed by university autonomy in reforming pre-service teacher training and improving teachers' competencies in the classroom or the constraints imposed by teachers' unions in reforming teachers' career structures to introduce performance-based contracts and improve incentives). While, the strategy documents do mention these constrains they would have benefited by articulating strategies for overcoming these constrains.

3.7 Furthermore, there are key areas that the strategies have only partially addressed in their diagnosis: 1) the transition between school and work and the problem of child laborers enrolled in basic education. This is a key issue affecting incentives to drop out and the quality of the education provided to the disadvantaged. 2) The role of tertiary education in the process of reform of basic education. As previously argued, improvements in teacher competencies are critical to ensure gains in education quality. Colleges and universities have a key role to play in the improvement of pre- and in-service teacher training for the primary and secondary levels. 3) The effectiveness of supply-side strategies in addressing demand

constraints limiting service utilization by the poorest. 4) Targeting the excluded, those living in remote areas, or those subjected to physical or developmental disabilities. Given the progress in enrollment achieved and seeking to reach true universalization of service provision, there is an opportunity for specific approaches designed to target those excluded.

3.8 The diagnosis of neither strategy are built upon an integrated methodological framework for improvements in learning. For instance, they do not discuss the importance of setting standards for the education system and measuring progress toward meeting them. OECD experience has demonstrated that this can only be achieved through a collaborative standard-setting process, gradually linking and articulating all the elements of the strategy – teacher competencies and development, career structure, working conditions and compensation, contractual agreements and evaluation – and working together and ensuring a continuous focus on learning outcomes at the classroom level.

3.9 Additionally, the diagnosis of the Social Services Delivery Strategy document has two critical deficiencies. First, its diagnosis is too general in three senses: 1) it only superficially differentiates between the two major social sectors, health and education, and does not describe in an accurate and integral way the main problems specific to the basic education sector, 2) it lacks a robust, LAC region-specific causal analysis of social sectors' performance and a graduated and differentiated situation analysis which acknowledges the variety of social sector performance among different countries in the region; and 3) it only provides a rather general diagnosis of the relevant problems. Two examples illustrate this latter point. The strategy document stresses the need to improve the incentive system under which service providers function, yet it is superficial in linking incentives to the competencies and career structures of teachers, school principals, school boards, and government agents.[12] The implications for career structures and professional development programs are not mentioned. Another example of the generality of the strategy document diagnosis is that while it identifies the need to enhance government delivery capacity by sub-contracting service delivery through non-government providers, it fails to minimally characterize and analyze the scope of existing non-government providers serving the poor or excluded populations, or the possibility that non-government providers may also be few or nonexistent. While the issues cited may be true for LAC, they also could be true for any developing region of the world. The second critical failure of the Social Services Delivery Strategy is that it concentrates on organizational issues, overlooking substantive issues and the connection between organizational and substantive issues. Overall, its usefulness is limited since it fails to adequately address the causal link between sector problems and organizational reform.

3.10 In contrast, the Primary and Secondary Strategy has a significantly better diagnosis, it provides a more focused and complete assessment of the basic

[12] In Chapter IV, this report provides evidence on how improving the quality of learning by providing teachers with better incentives to perform may be constrained by teacher competencies.

education needs in the region. It places more emphasis in the school as a level of the system. It provides a more in-depth analysis of the constraints to improve teaching, readiness to learn[13], and accountability among service providers. It acknowledges the heterogeneity of countries and the within-country differences. The Primary and Secondary Strategy, by focusing on learning outcomes at the school level, provides a clearer vision of final objectives, a more robust situation analysis, and a stronger causal link between instruments and the ultimate objectives than the Social Sector Strategy, i.e., learning in the classroom.

3.11 However, the primary and secondary strategy analysis did not: 1) articulate a more integrated methodological framework integrating standards of learning, assessment, teacher competencies, teachers' career development and incentives, and school management; 2) evaluate the role of school directors in teachers' performance and the effectiveness of school management plans; 3) provide a more differentiated analysis of the curriculum and teachers' competencies needs in primary versus lower secondary; 4) provide a more in-depth analysis of the nature and characteristics of the differences in outcomes across and within countries, especially given that equity is one of the Primary and Secondary document strategic goals; and 5) articulate, in a coherent way, the problem of improving quality while improving equity (footnote 14 implicitly shows that the diagnosis assumes that better quality will mostly benefit the poor).

3.12 Finally, both strategy documents do not sufficiently stress the extent and consequences of the existing education inequities at the interior of each country and it dedicates a relatively short space to characterizing the unequal provision of education in the region and to the strategic link between quality of education and equity.[14] The strategy documents oversimplify the potential impact that the demographic transition may have in the educational sector. It may indeed be a "window of opportunity," but the documents do not analyze the possibility of oversupply (at primary level) and undersupply (at secondary level) of teachers and other inputs. Nor do they analyze the constraints for countries to achieve the efficiency gains available due to the demographic transition.

[13] The Primary and Secondary strategy recognizes the importance of targeting preschools for children of ages 4 and 5 for underprivileged populations. But as many industrialized countries are extending preschool programs to younger children and incorporating a more comprehensive approach to early childhood education, an emerging issue for the region is how to ensure "readiness to learn" in a cost-effective way.

[14] As an example, the document states that, "improving quality will overwhelmingly benefit students from poor families, since any significant improvement in quality will result in noticeable advances in student progress and achievement for precisely those students." There is evidence that some policies aiming to improve quality may do so without reaching the poor. Chapter IV provides an example for the school autonomy case.

C. Analysis of the rationale of the strategy documents

1. Supporting Reform in the Delivery of Social Services Strategy

3.13 This strategy document seeks to improve the performance of the social sectors based on a set of general justifications that could be true for any developing region of the world. As it was mentioned before, the document does not differentiate between the substantive issues of the two major social sectors analyzed (health and education). It focuses only on organizational elements and does not elaborate on the interaction between organizational and substantive issues peculiar to each sector. The proposed strategic approach is not a useful mechanism to assist borrowing countries in the process of defining priorities according to their specific contexts and institutional capacities because it proposes an inflexible and single-faceted solution for improving outcomes rather than complementing organizational reform with substantive reform options to directly improve social sector outcomes, particularly for the poor.

3.14 Furthermore, the document does not specify how its strategic lines of action differ from the Bank's past experience. It does not clearly guide managers and staff on what to do that is new, and what to stop doing.

3.15 The discussion on how to implement the strategy is incomplete. For example, "incentives," a key strategic line of action, are seldom mentioned in the strategy implementation section. This may leave managers and staff unclear about what to do and how to achieve an incentives-based assistance package. This emphasis on adjusting incentives requires some qualifications since it may not be the cornerstone for effective social service sectors in all countries. In addition, it is not clear what types or levels of incentives are being advocated in the need for improvement.

3.16 Finally, the document lacks a discussion of the expected time frame associated with medium- and long-term objectives as well as an analysis of the financial and human resources implications for the countries and the Bank. Although the document mentions the importance of evaluation and the need to learn from experience, there are no explicit provisions for periodic reviews or for an evaluation of the results of the strategic lines of actions.

2. Primary and Secondary Strategy

3.17 A major strength of this strategy is its clear definition of its strategic goals. The selected priority areas provide a more balanced set of solutions than the Social Sector Strategy. This more comprehensive approach of the Primary and Secondary Strategy emphasizes reforming systemic aspects of the basic education sector, but it also identifies the need for reforming key education sector areas.

3.18 However, this strategy document also appears more as a common uniform solution rather than as a tool to help the countries and the Bank prioritize among

alternative policy solutions. In addition, the document does not define boundaries of what the Bank should stop doing.

3.19 The strategy documents lack a time frame for the proposed reforms, and the necessary organizational and institutional arrangements that should be developed within such a time frame. The strategy lacks an analysis of the financial and human resources implications for the countries and the Bank. Although the document mentions the importance of evaluation and the need to conduct periodic reviews, the plan of action for this strategy does not make a specific provision for evaluating the progress and results of the implementation of the proposed strategic lines of action.

D. The consistency between Bank strategies and strategic priorities of LAC countries.

3.20 The present strategies did not incorporate as strategic lines of action —or argue why not to incorporate– important strategic choices adopted by our client countries within the same time period in which the strategy was being prepared. Table 3.1 summarizes some of these ongoing efforts being undertaken by borrowing countries, which seek to place more content on quality education, and lists interventions for improving learning outcomes among the poor. It is important to note that this section does not intend to suggest that the effectiveness of all these interventions were fully known and demonstrated at the time the strategies were prepared, or that they should all have been included in the proposed strategy. The section merely seeks to stress that, at the same time in which the education strategy was being prepared, some of our Borrowing countries had decided or were in the process of deciding to adopt strategic lines of action that prioritized different policy choices. While some of these interventions are mentioned in the strategy documents, the documents did not explain why these experiences were not incorporated within their strategic lines of action.

1. The need to put more emphasis on education quality

3.21 A worrisome lack of progress in improving learning outcomes persisted over the past decade. The consensus is that education quality is unlikely to improve unless quality assurance mechanisms can be instituted. Efforts to define and adopt clear standards of learning, learning assessments, teaching competencies, teacher evaluation, and certification have been under way in Chile and Brazil since mid nineties. Also under way are efforts to link standards to reforms in teacher education and training.

3.22 Standards also are important because they can provide a framework to organize and understand the teaching and learning process, from the definition of the vision of what a child should be learning in the classroom to the specification of the competencies and behavior required of teachers (incentives), the needed textbooks and learning materials, and teaching methods and role of school directors.

Standards can help inform the teacher education process and enhance the accountability of the system.

2. The need for greater focus on the interaction between quality and equity

3.23 Below are examples of strategic choices among LAC countries suggesting the need to prioritize interventions that can change the way regular schools and teachers operate to improve outcomes among the poor:

a. Full-time schooling. Quality of learning is unlikely to improve, especially among the poor, as long as contact time between teachers and students remains limited to three to four hours per day. Efforts to move toward full-time schooling are ongoing in Chile and Uruguay.

b. Demand incentives to enhance school attendance. Programs such as Bolsa Escola in Brazil and PROGRESA in Mexico seek universilize enrollment and improve school outcomes, even among the poorest. By ensuring that the poorest children (the ones more likely to perform badly and drop out) remain in school, these programs require teachers to adapt their pedagogical methods and teaching strategies to ensure that these children learn.

c. Flow correction programs. These are remedial education programs that seek to accelerate students who are trapped in multi-year repetition cycles and help them complete the primary or elementary cycle. Such programs (the Programa de Aceleração in Brazil) are popular because of their potential scope for internal efficiency gains and are being considered in other countries.

d. Targeted interventions for improving learning outcomes among the poorest. The learning gap between the poor and non-poor has not declined (and may even have increased) during the past decade. The Programs Escuelas P 900 in Chile and Escuelas de Tiempo Completo in Uruguay (among others) are strategies which seek to improve learning among the poorest and worst-performing students.

e. Efforts to reach the excluded. Given that the region is close to universalizing school enrollment among 7- to 15-year-olds, efforts to reach the children who remain outside the system – those in situations of extreme poverty and vulnerability, living in remote areas, and with disabilities - need to be targeted specifically to their needs (i.e., take into account the determinants of non-participation). Mexico's Escuelas Comunitarias, which focuses on school-age children living in villages of 100 to 500 inhabitants, seeks reach children in remote areas. Brazil's Child-Labor Eradication Program (PETI) also shows promise in that it

seeks to address the needs of children engaged in the worst forms of child labor (those deemed harmful to the health and development of the child).

f. Minimum expenditure per student**.** It is often recognized that student learning is fundamentally constrained by the weak teaching competencies of the existing teaching force. It is also recognized that teachers in poor, remote, and rural areas often earn significantly less than their counterparts in the capital and urban areas. The need to attract and retain qualified and motivated teachers to these posts has motivated programs such as FUNDEF in Brazil that aim to ensure a minimum sustainable expenditure per student.

Table 3.1 Some examples of efforts by borrowing countries to improve quality and equity, not included in the Bank's strategic lines of action

Goal	Problem	Lines of action	Country experiences
1. To put more emphasis on quality of education	1.1 Quality is unlikely to improve unless quality assurance mechanisms can be institutionalized 1.2 Need to understand and organize the teaching-learning process	Institutionalize quality-assurance mechanisms: standards for learning, standards for teaching competencies, learning evaluation systems, teacher evaluation systems and certification	Chile, Brazil, and the Central American Education and Cultural Committee.
2. To focus on the interaction between quality and equity	2.1 Teaching time is unsatisfactory, especially for the poorest children 2.2 School attendance for the poor is unsatisfactory 2.3 Worst-off children are more likely to be trapped in multi-year repetition 2.4 The learning gap between poor and better-off children has not decreased 2.5 The extremely poor are still excluded from receiving education services 2.6 Teachers in remote and rural areas earn less than their urban counterparts	2.1 Full-time schooling 2.2 Conditional cash-grant programs 2.3 Flow-correction programs 2.4 Programs targeting children with worst learning outcomes 2.5 Programs targeting the excluded 2.6 Minimum expenditure per student	2.1 Chile (1996), Brazil (1996) (Lei de Diretrizes Básicas), Uruguay (1996) 2.2 Brazil (Bolsa Escola, 1995), México (Oportunidades, 1997), 2.3 Brazil (Programa de Aceleração, 1997) 2.4 Chile (Escuelas P-900, 1990), Uruguay (Escuelas de tiempo integral, 1996) 2.5 Brazil (PETI, 1996), Mexico (Escuelas Comunitarias, 1970) 2.6 Brazil (FUNDEF, 1996)

IV. WHAT HAPPENED IN PRACTICE?

A. Written Strategy Implementation in the Bank's Operations and Other Practices

4.1 A limitation related to the evaluation of the Primary and Secondary Strategy is that, while prepared and discussed in 1998, the Board only approved the strategy in 2000. However, it can be argued that the process of strategy preparation in the Bank is in practice a continuous process of consensus building among sector specialists of what works in the sector. The strategies would then represent snapshots of this process at different moments of time, and under this view, best practices would be incorporated into practice as the knowledge of effective interventions evolve over time. A causal relationship between changes in the Bank strategy and project design would then be difficult to establish. From this point of view, the purpose of our analysis in this section is twofold. It seeks to characterize the *de facto* strategy of the Bank, and to identify the extent to which Bank projects already incorporate or signal policy choices that the strategy documents latter on "made official".

4.2 Table A 12 shows a list of the thirty-two education investment projects approved between 1991 and 2000, which encompass basic education. Table A 13 presents the protocol used to analyze each project. This protocol consists of a list of lines of action that are either suggested by the strategy documents or have been used by the countries in the region over the past decade. Lines of action followed by each project were mapped into this protocol to address whether projects are using the lines of action suggested in the strategy documents and whether the projects are incorporating educational policies of the borrowing countries.

1. Are education investment projects incorporating the explicit lines of action of the Bank's Basic Education Strategy over the past decade?

4.3 As mentioned in Chapter III, there are two strategy documents related to basic education. Thus, project designers and implementers have been faced with two strategies that do not necessarily have the same priorities or recommend the same lines of action. The discussion in the following paragraphs seeks to understand how project design has adapted to this potentially conflicting guidance.

4.4 Some key lines of actions suggested in the strategies have rarely been included in project design:

a. Project interventions reallocating resources to obtain a higher return on educational expenditures (e.g., reallocating resources to non-salary recurrent components or according to the demand of services) have been rare and show a downward trend over the decade.

b. The same can be said of components aiming to assign a higher role to the private sector in the provision of educational services. There was practically no attempt to promote the participation of the private sector in the production and provision of textbooks and learning materials or in the establishment of teacher training institutes. Fostering the role of the private sector is neglected even in the provision of lower-secondary and pre-primary education, where there is a huge gap in coverage for most countries in the region.

c. Although approximately one-third of the projects include some type of intervention at the pre-primary level (curriculum development, school construction or maintenance), only one-half of them specifically target the poorest children.[15]

d. Even though many specialists consider them a highly cost-effective method for improving learning, especially among the poorest, there are very few projects that promote the use of information technologies such as distance teacher training or distance education.

4.5 Other lines of action recommended in the strategies have received slightly higher attention, but the analysis indicates these interventions were not designed in a fully articulated and coherent form:

a. One-fourth of the Bank's projects during the '90s contained some component directed to fostering the incentive system under which teachers and school principals operate. It is increasingly common among these projects to reward behavior such as reduced absenteeism, increased time on task, and school principal or teacher in-service training. Few of them, however, intend to put in place incentives schemes to link better teaching or better student/school results to better wages or other non-salary rewards. Furthermore, there is little attention to improving career structure and providing professional development opportunities.

b. Increasing teachers' and schools' accountability is another area in which many projects fail to address. To be accountable, a teacher has to know what is expected of her/him. Establishing standards for learning, teaching, and teacher training are relatively recent concerns of LAC countries. Most countries have not yet established such standards and very few projects (around 15%) included a component related to this area. Even though the majority of projects supported setting up student evaluation tests, the main purpose of such instruments is to provide information to central managers or to schools, in the best cases, rather than assigning responsibilities to or defining targets.

[15] Taking at face value the claim that the targeting mechanisms suggested were indeed effectively reaching the objective population.

c. More than eight of each ten projects reviewed have a component related to in-service teacher training. However, only one-third of them previously assessed teachers' training needs. Some projects promote the training of teachers in subject content and class management. Yet, few of them implement systems for continuous pedagogical support and training. There is consensus among specialists that the type of in-service training provided to teachers in the region has been quite ineffective in improving quality of education.

d. Improving equity is a key strategic goal that the design of projects has not addressed adequately. Although a great number of projects state that disadvantaged groups are the beneficiary populations, the development and support for targeted interventions to ensure that these populations in fact receive the expected project benefits are noticeably absent.

2. What are the most typical lines of action followed by education investment projects?

4.6 The review of Bank education projects in the '90s revealed:

a. Reforming the curriculum, developing textbooks and learning materials adequate to the new curriculum content, and training teachers for its implementation (around two-thirds of the projects) are among the most prevalent interventions supported by project design.

b. Two-thirds of the projects include a component aiming to decentralize the educational system. There is, however, a general trend over the decade to shift from promoting decentralization at province or municipality level to fostering school autonomy, which is very frequently accompanied by parental participation at the school level and training the school principal to improve his or her managerial capacities.

c. Along with the support for decentralization and recognizing the need to strengthen the institutional capacity of LAC, many projects include the training of federal and local agents and school supervisors. Only a few of them, however, were designed to assess the results obtained from this training.

d. Both strategy documents describe a trend moving from supporting school and classroom construction to supporting school maintenance. However, almost 80% of the projects reviewed include both school and classroom construction and school maintenance. A noticeable trend during the '90s is the shift from constructing primary schools to constructing secondary schools, which in fact responds to the significantly higher demand for such infrastructure investments across countries in the region.

e. As was mentioned previously, there is wide support for interventions aiming to test for student evaluation or gather data for better managing the

education systems (around 60% of the projects). However, few projects are designed to systematically collect this information or to provide the information to teachers and school principals and train them to use these data to improve teaching and school management.

f. Many projects encourage consultations with stakeholders and social marketing of the projects' interventions. There is a significant positive trend over the '90s to include this type of component in the Bank's projects.

4.7 Over the decade, there is an increasing trend for project loans to support interventions at the lower-secondary level and a decline in the proportion of projects which finance primary or pre-primary education. This tendency may be the result of the demographic shifts previously discussed, a consequence of the separation of roles with the World Bank, or a perception that "the biggest" problems in primary education are somewhat being already addressed A concern remains that projects may be focusing on lower secondary education prematurely and not sufficiently emphasizing gains in completion and learning outcomes at the primary level.

4.8 Lastly, few projects incorporate computer-related technology, and they do so at a pilot program level. This corresponds to the strategy recommendation about investing to study the potential impact of this technology as a learning tool. In fact, little data have been gathered to assess the impact of using computers as a learning technology to improve student outcomes.

3. To what extent is the design of education investment projects sensitive to the heterogeneity of conditions in the LAC region?

4.9 Following the typology of countries described in Chapter II, the analysis examines the design of projects grouped into the four country types[16] that range from relatively lower educational access, efficiency and quality to relatively higher levels.

4.10 The analysis of project design documents according to this country typology indicates some specific trends that differentiate between the two educational strategies.

4.11 Interventions proposed by the Social Sector Strategy (such as decentralization of functions from the central Ministries to the state or municipality levels, provision of incentives to teachers and directors, and interventions attempting to reallocate resources in response to service demand) appear to be more prevalent in the

[16] Group 1 includes 9 projects in El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras and Nicaragua; Group 2 includes 6 projects in Bolivia, Dominican Republic, Panama and Paraguay; Group 3 includes 11 projects in Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Jamaica, Mexico, Peru, Trinidad Tobago and Venezuela; and Group 4 includes 6 projects in Argentina, Bahamas, Barbados, Brazil, and Uruguay.

design of projects in Country Groups 2, 3, and 4, than in the lowest educational performing groups of countries.

4.12 Within the Primary and Secondary Strategy proposed interventions, the project analysis indicates little differentiation, except for two key areas: support for school autonomy and support for lower secondary levels. The importance of school autonomy appears to be inversely related to the degree of development of the educational systems of the countries. In other words, projects in the two lowest-educational performing countries are placing greater emphasis on empowering the schools to make decisions about managing their financial and human resources. This *de facto* approach suggests that project designers may be trying to compensate for a lack of institutional capacity by granting more control to school boards and parents.

4.13 A greater emphasis on interventions at the lower secondary level appears in projects among the more countries with more developed education systems (Groups 3, 4, and 5). However, the number of projects in Group 1 that are providing support for curriculum development, training, and construction of lower secondary schools has increased in recent years.

4.14 Finally, even though not many projects targeted preschool interventions to the neediest groups, as recommended by the Primary and Secondary Strategy, a higher proportion of Group 1 and 2 projects include this type of interventions compared to those for Groups 3 and 4.

4. Are Bank projects incorporating new strategic choices adopted by countries in the region?

4.15 As mentioned in Chapter III, the Bank strategies have failed to include new strategic choices made by some client countries. This is also true for the education investment projects approved by the Bank over the last decade.

4.16 In spite of the explicit goal to improve quality, IDB education investment projects have not paid sufficient attention to the experiences of countries such as Brazil or Chile that are successfully incorporating quality assurance mechanisms to provide the framework for organizing the teaching and learning process. Establishing norms and standards defines what a child should learn, the content and methods of teaching, and improves system accountability. The project analysis indicates that support for setting standards for student learning, for teacher competencies, or for the accreditation of Teacher Training Institutions is practically absent throughout the decade.

4.17 Similarly, most projects have not included specific practices of LAC countries that seek to attain quality education with equity. Some of these experiences are completely absent from the projects examined, for example: specific efforts to move toward full-time schooling and extend contact time between teachers and students (Escuelas de Tiempo Completo in Uruguay and Jornada Completa in

Chile), improve the learning outcomes of the low-performing schools (P900 in Chile), reach the excluded (Escuelas Comunitarias in Mexico, Child-Labor Eradication Program of Brazil), guaranteeing minimum expenditures per student (FUNDEF in Brazil), and flow correction programs (Acceleration Program in Brazil). There are other types of interventions, however, that are slowly being incorporated in some IDB projects such as providing incentives to enhance school attendance and targeted interventions to improve learning outcomes among the poor.

4.18 Lastly, the education strategy does not incorporate ongoing efforts by member countries to address education demand constraints facing poor households through cash-grant programs.

B. Evaluability

4.19 At design, education projects show a low average level of evaluability on the achievement of the strategic developmental goals of the Bank. A good number of projects do not even state indicators for achievement nor does evaluability improve at implementation. Moreover, Project Performance Monitoring Reports (PPMRs) do not provide reasonable information to judge progress in the execution of strategic goals.

4.20 To assess the degree to which the Bank's basic education strategy paid off in terms of reaching its developmental objectives, it is necessary that the processes of project design and implementation generate sufficient information to demonstrate that goals have been achieved. The results framework is a useful tool to assess the evaluability of projects.[17]

4.21 As described in previous sections, the explicit developmental goals of the basic education strategies are to improve the internal efficiency of the educational systems (Social Sectors Strategy) and the quality and equity of the education received by children in the region. This section presents evidence on the evaluability of these goals according to the results framework and completeness index methodology.

1. Results

4.22 The average ex-ante evaluability of these projects, as measured by the completeness index, amounts only to 32%. Moreover, more than one-third of the projects did not even have indicators to measure the achievement of outcomes. Needless to say, the proportion of projects that included baselines, milestones, and targets was quite low (19%, 5%, and 23%, respectively). In other words, most projects were not designed to provide sufficient information to judge impact.

4.23 Internal efficiency is considerably more evaluable (51%) than quality (28%) and equity (14%). It comes as no surprise that projects fare relatively better in setting

[17] For a detailed description of the Results Framework and the completeness index methodology see Annex B

up a framework for evaluation of internal efficiency, as Countries have systematically collected indicators for this outcome in later years. It is striking that half of the projects that stated a goal of improving education quality did not use learning tests that had already been developed.

4.24 Although the level of evaluability of more recent projects is low, there has been improvement over time. The average completeness index for those projects approved before 1995 was 19%, and increased to 38% for those projects approved in 1996 or later.

2. PPMRs

4.25 Turning the analysis to the PPMRs we find that one-fourth of the strategies' development objectives stated in project documents were not mentioned at all in the PPMRs. The ex-post evaluability showed no significant difference with the ex-ante evaluability of projects comparing only outcomes that appeared both in the project document and in the PPMRs.

4.26 However, the average ex-post evaluability of projects was slightly higher than the ex-ante evaluability (38.25%). This apparent contradiction is due to the fact that often less-evaluable objectives are dropped from the PPMRs.

4.27 The analysis performed with the results framework takes at face value the information stated in project documents and PPMRs. An additional step was taken in which the data provided by the PPMRs were judged subjectively. According to the judgment of the reviewers, only 52% of the indicators used in PPMRs to justify their rating on the progress of individual components were consistent (i.e., they were a reasonable measure of achievement). Accordingly, only 49% of the impact indicators were consistent.

4.28 Overall, the analysis demonstrates that projects are not designed to be evaluable; it also demonstrates that the Bank PPMR system is not adequate to track progress in the implementation of the sector strategies. Consequently, an evaluation of the direct impact of the strategy is not possible with the instruments available in the Bank monitoring systems. To provide further guidance about the effectiveness of the policies prioritized in the sector strategies, the next section analyzes the effects of selected strategic actions on educational outcomes.

C. Evidence on the school-level delivery and impact of some of the Bank's strategic education policies

4.29 Without consideration of attribution, this section presents evidence on how some of the Bank's strategic education policies have been delivered at the school level and on the impact of these policies, where impact is measured in terms of school-level learning and parental perceptions. This approach is offered as an alternative to assessing the impact of the Bank's strategy on educational outcomes, which would imply making strong assumptions about the attribution of cause, effect, and directionality of policy change. This section also builds on the current strategy

documents in that it provides empirical definitions of concepts found there but left loosely defined.

4.30 The discussion in this section is based on the preliminary conclusions derived from three background papers prepared by OVE: "Child Labor and School Achievement in Latin America", "Decentralization and School Achievement. International Evidence on the Role of School Autonomy and Community Participation", and "Evidence of the delivery and impact of education policies at school level."[18]

4.31 The first two papers draw their conclusions from the LLECE data (OREALC/UNESCO) using data for 11 Latin American countries. The data for the third paper were gathered from learning tests on mathematics and language given to a sample of fourth grade students in Honduras, Paraguay, and Peru,[19] and from questionnaires given to teachers, school principals, children who responded the tests, and their parents. These questionnaires gathered socio-economic information; characteristics of teachers, school principals, and schools; and information on school management, school autonomy, and parental perceptions of how education outcomes have changed in later years. The background papers contain detailed discussions on sampling, representativeness of the sample, and the methods used for data analysis.

1. Regardless of attribution, how have some of the Bank's strategic education policies been delivered at the school level?

4.32 The more striking inequities in the delivery of educational inputs are seen in the provision of satisfactory school conditions (hygiene, illumination, temperature, noise level, and security), school resources (libraries, sport and recreation areas), and classroom and learning materials (blackboards, classroom libraries, textbooks).

4.33 There were no significant differences in the degree of autonomy across countries, other than differences in school autonomy de jure (See Table A 14). However, rural and poor children attend schools that are significantly less autonomous de facto than those attended by their urban and better-off counterparts. These results imply that local factors, rather than norms and regulations, condition the degree of autonomy found at the school level. It seems reasonable to assume that the urban and comparatively richer schools are in a better position to actually put autonomy to work for them. That is, they have greater capacity to exercise their autonomy.[20]

[18] This papers are available for download at OVE's intranet page, under "On-going work."
[19] Countries were chosen according to the following criteria: one country per IDB region, countries in which the Bank has a significant portfolio in the education sector, and countries which ranked low on LLECE's study.
[20] The background papers present an empirical definition of school autonomy and discuss a method for its computation.

2. What is the impact of these policies on learning outcomes at school level?

4.34 Socio-economic factors (as measured by level of education of the head of household, whether or not an indigenous language is spoken in the home, whether the child works, and what "endowments" the household has) are the most important for explaining learning. Seen in this light, demand-side programs compensating for the economic disadvantages faced by children from lower income strata may be among the more effective interventions to enhance learning among the poor.

4.35 Having a younger and better-trained school principal, especially if she has became principal through a competitive process, and having adequate infrastructure, school resources, classroom and teaching materials, and textbooks, are significantly correlated with better student learning. That school and classroom conditions and availability of learning materials follow socio-economics exacerbates the problem of inequitable provision of adequate education.

4.36 The study also finds that pre-service and in-service teacher training do not significantly affect student learning. This result is particularly relevant for two reasons. First, it calls into question many initiatives to universally raise the level of teacher preparation to the tertiary level. Justifications for such a move are based on the notion that a higher level of content knowledge will improve learning results. However, preparation at the tertiary level tends to favor the theory of teaching over the practice of teaching and all but remove any serious contact with the classroom as a requirement of study, thus sacrificing essential elements of good teaching. Second, it highlights the fact that few countries in the region, including those in the sample used here, systematically evaluate the training needs of their teachers and dimension of in-service training accordingly and monitor the extent to which the training is implemented in the classroom. Additionally, in-service teacher training often is associated with reductions in time-on-task, which decreases any potential positive impact of the training.

4.37 There is a positive, although small, effect of school autonomy on learning. However, when school autonomy is treated as an endogenous variable, this positive effect becomes insignificant. Most models of school autonomy assume that autonomy in decision making improves the teaching-learning process in that it provides schools with the degree of freedom necessary to make changes and improvise where central authorities will not, and holds them accountable for ensuring that children master core content and standards. However, school autonomy may expose processes of resource allocation and planning to politics. Furthermore, local boards often control budgets of considerable volume, particularly as measured against local realities, and priorities may not always be put on education. This finding is particularly worrisome given that, as it has been previously discussed in this report, school autonomy is one of the most common Bank interventions, especially in the poorest countries.

4.38 Preliminary results of this study indicate that school management, independent of the degree of school autonomy, does indeed matter for learning.[21] That said, management can only go so far in obtaining results and cannot compensate for the lack of trained teachers or quality materials. Indeed, the data tend to point in this direction. It appears that school management has a differential effect on learning in math and in language. This may indicate that teaching mathematics is more difficult than teaching language and requires deeper subject knowledge and competencies and perhaps even better texts and pedagogic supports.

4.39 Results also show large and consistent adverse effects of child labor on achievement in all 11 countries. Even occasional child labor has significant negative effects on test scores, although the higher the intensity of child labor, the more severe the consequences on school achievement. Children who sometimes work outside the home score significantly lower than children who never work in the labor market. Children who frequently work outside the home score significantly lower than children who never work. These estimated adverse impacts of child labor on cognitive achievement are of similar magnitude to estimates of the impact of child labor on wages earned as an adult. Therefore, these results suggest the need to establish an integrated approach to quality for the poorest children, one that recognizes the transition from school to the labor market.

3. What do parents demand from their education systems?

4.40 Perceptions provide a useful indicator of the quality and relevance of services provided. In this regard, this study found that poor parents in urban areas were far more likely to indicate that situations within the school had worsened over the past three years. When rendering a judgment on factors that improve outcomes, parents in rural areas were more likely to focus on factors related to quality. However, only a few extremely poor, rural parents stated that quality of education was a factor in determining that school outcomes had improved, and were more likely to select better infrastructure as a factor for improvement.

4.41 The one factor that was singled out the most by parents who claimed things had improved within their schools was infrastructure (35%). In second place was "teacher characteristics," but did not mention the impact of their teaching on outcomes (33%). Quality ranked third with 17%.

4. Implications for the Bank's strategic approach

4.42 The results of this study call attention to several assumptions embedded in the strategies which may lack strong empirical support and may require a more

[21] School management is defined in this report as the process by which resources, particularly human resources, are coordinated within the school by the school principal or the school board, independent of the degree of school autonomy. It includes leadership capacity; means of communication between teachers, parents, and school authorities; how the planning process is established; and the degree of teacher satisfaction and motivation promoted by non-salary means.

detailed analysis than in the current strategy documents: the need for solid teacher competencies and how these competencies should be defined, taught, and certified; the conditions under which school autonomy unleashes creativity and innovation at the school level that, in turn, leads to better learning results; and a deeper examination of factors associated with good school management and the role of school directors.

4.43 In relation to the debate on school autonomy, it is remarkable that while prioritized in the strategy, a review of the empirical evidence found little support in its favor. It should be noted that a reassessment of policy recommendations in favor of school autonomy is also occurring in the United States. Recent education reform programs in Texas, California, and New York City have, in all cases, moved away from school autonomy and toward devolving greater quality assurance responsibilities to central managers, on one hand, and parents on the other.

4.44 Additionally, interventions focused on compensating for low socio-economics may have high payoffs in improving educational outcomes. Given the proven success of cash-grant interventions in improving enrollment, they should be explored as an explicit strategic line of action. They may be particularly relevant for child laborers, the more disadvantaged children' population.

4.45 A key element noticeably absent from the strategy documents is an analysis of processes through which educational policies reach—or do not reach—the poor.

4.46 Finally, it is critical to understand what parents demand from the educational system. They may place different weights on outcomes than those placed by policy makers. Making sure that their demands are served could enhance their motivation to play a more active role in and place a higher value on their children's education.

V. THE VIEWS OF SOCIAL SECTOR SPECIALISTS

5.1 The views of Bank staff[22] working in the design and implementation of education projects provide an important dimension in the analysis of strategy formulation and implementation. Overall, the Primary and Secondary Education Strategy distinguished itself in that the majority of the specialists appreciated and benefited from the discussion and consultation processeses that were part its preparation, and broadly speaking displayed a significant degree of ownership for the strategy.

5.2 However, specialists are often critical of the strategy formulation processes, but recognize that the Primary and Secondary Strategy is more focused and precise than the Social Sector Strategy. They point out specific weaknesses in the adequacy of the strategy documents' sector diagnosis that do not pay sufficient attention to the heterogeneity of conditions in the region and to the influence that a particular institutional and political context within each country may have on educational outcomes. Sector specialists' opinions emphasize the need for a more detailed country analysis, especially among Caribbean countries, and suggest that the strategy should analyze groups of countries according to their level of development instead of the region as a whole.

5.3 The importance of conducting periodic revisions and developing a consultative process that includes borrowing country governments and Bank staff is a widely held view among the specialists. In their opinion, such a consultative process would make the strategies less prescriptive by better articulating strategic choices that respond both to the sector reality in a particular country as well as to the Bank sector policies and country programming priorities.

5.4 The specialists' perspectives also help to understand some of the issues identified in the analysis of project design (Chapter IV, Appendix A). The relatively low level of familiarity with the strategies, especially with regard to the Social Sector Strategy, may help explain why projects designed over the last decade tend to follow more closely the Primary and Secondary Strategy than the Social Sector Strategy.

5.5 Sector specialists find that the current basic education strategy documents have played a limited role in the Bank's work. They recognize that the stages of strategy preparation have been instrumental in consolidating institutional knowledge among specialists during that period, and that the strategies (particularly the Primary and Secondary Strategy) have helped in providing a framework for policy discussions with government counterparts. However, there is a generalized consensus among specialists about the need to provide better

[22] Electronic surveys were sent to all thirty-eight social sector specialists who currently work or had worked on education projects. From the thirty-four specialists who responded to the survey, ten are from headquarters and twenty-four are from country offices.

guidelines for implementation. Suggestions for improvement in this area focus on strengthening a consultation process with specialists, particularly with country office specialists; developing operational guidelines for strategic priorities based on the evaluation of Bank experiences and best practices; and improving dissemination mechanisms both within the Bank as well as with government counterparts.

VI. SUMMARY

6.1 Over the last decade, the Bank prepared two strategy documents that provide guidance for basic education activities in the region: "Supporting Reform in the Delivery of Social Services," approved in 1996; and the "Strategy for Reforming Primary and Secondary Education in Latin America and the Caribbean," approved in 2000. These two strategies were prepared without explicit Bank guidance regarding the expected content and scope of a strategy document. It was not until 1999 that the Bank provided a framework for sector strategy development in the form of the Institutional Strategy, GN-2077. As part of an institutional effort to update the education strategy this report seeks to analyze the design and implementation of these strategies as instruments to guide and improve the effectiveness of Bank activities in the sector.

6.2 **Education in the Region**. Universalizing adequate basic education implies guaranteeing access to, participation in, and completion of primary and lower secondary education of a minimum quality. As a region, LAC has gotten closer to universalizing access to primary education and, although assuring access to lower secondary for all children is still far reaching, there has been substantive progress at this level as well during recent years.

6.3 However, education systems are failing in graduating children from basic education, they are highly inefficient, and by any measurement, efforts to increase the quality of education have produced rather modest results. Furthermore, equity in education services delivery is still overdue. Moreover, it is crucial to understand the demographic dynamic of the school-age population and the transition of children from school to the labor market in order to design pertinent, coherent, and meaningful educational policies.

6.4 **The Bank's Response.** Although both strategies agree that the key priority for the region is to improve quality and increase equity, they differ in the level of detail of their diagnoses of the region's needs, in the identification of causal links between issues identified and proposed solutions, and in the definition and operationalization of outcomes. Both strategy document diagnosis of the relevant issues and problems for the region's education sectors overlooked some key issues and provided a partial picture for others. The Primary and Secondary Strategy, by focusing on learning outcomes at the school level, provides a clearer vision of final objectives, a more robust situation analysis, and a relatively stronger causal link between instruments and ultimate objectives than the Social Sector Strategy.

6.5 The strategies did not include important steps often associated with the process of strategy formulation. These are: a) The elaboration of a robust analysis of the sector's needs, recognizing substantive and institutional aspects and the social, demographic, economic, and political differences between and within countries;

b) the identification of alternative potential solutions based on the experience of the countries and of the Bank, including clear causal links, defining what works, what does not work, and areas that need further study; c) establishing priority objectives with specific time frames and budgetary implications for the countries and for the Bank; and d) including a system for monitoring and evaluation that provides information for improved management (lessons learned) and accountability.

6.6 While the development process of neither strategy can be judged fully adequate, a judgment of the soundness of these strategies also requires an assessment of the extent to which the present strategies reflect the choices and best practices effectively adopted by the LAC borrowing countries throughout the past decade. The written Bank strategies have ignored specific on-going efforts carried out by many LAC countries, which seek to place more emphasis on quality education and to foster interventions for improving learning outcomes among the poor. The present strategies seem more an instrument for proposing a common uniform solution, rather than a tool to help the countries and the Bank prioritize among alternative policy solutions. They fail to incorporate key strategic choices which have been adopted by our clients' educational policies in their efforts to improve both education quality and learning outcomes among the poor.

6.7 Both strategies ignore the problem of child laborers enrolled in basic education. The diagnosis incorporated in the strategies also does not place sufficient emphasis on the unsatisfactory rates of completion of primary and basic education and the persistent inequalities in learning outcomes among children of different socio-economic groups. The same is not observed when we analyze the education policies of LAC client countries.

6.8 Lastly, the education strategy does not sufficiently incorporate ongoing efforts by member countries to address education demand constraints facing poor households through cash-grant programs. Since the strategy was approved, these programs have moved to the mainstream of education strategies in LAC countries. In the Bank, this mainstreaming has not taken place although it is gaining significantly in importance; however, these programs remain more associated with social protection and poverty reduction projects than education projects.

6.9 **Bank practice.** A review of the projects prepared over the decade demonstrated that strategy documents were only partially reflect the priorities revealed in project preparation, as loan project design only partially reflected strategic lines of action. For instance, few projects sought to change the incentive systems under which actors of the education process operate or target pre-primary interventions to the neediest. However, incrementally, projects followed more closely the Primary and Secondary Strategy document. Additionally, the review of the projects found that their design did not adequately reflect differences in borrowing country conditions. The exceptions were school autonomy interventions that were more common in poorer countries and lower secondary

interventions that were more common in the relatively more developed borrowing countries.

6.10 The Social Sector Strategy provides surprisingly little implementation guidance on the policy recommendations proposed, especially given the innovative content of policies such as those related to incentives and government financing of non-government provision. The Primary Education Strategy more explicit in identifying tools and mechanisms for implementation, but falls short in specifying, for example, how to provide effective support for improving school management with school autonomy.

6.11 **Evaluability.** The analysis of the extent to which projects are capable of measuring the effects of strategic interventions on educational outcomes is not promising. At design, education projects show a low average level of evaluability on the achievement of the strategic developmental goals of the Bank. A good number of projects do not even state indicators for achievement of outcome goals (such as quality and equity). Evaluability also does not improve at implementation. Moreover, the Bank's PPMRs are not providing adequate information to judge progress in the achievement of strategic goals.

6.12 **Evidence on Impact of Education Policies at School Level.** Taking into account that it is not possible to measure the impact of the bank strategies in terms of results, as an alternative this report sought to evaluate the evidence of impact of key policy recommendations contained in the strategy documents on the education programs of a selected group of client countries. More formally it sought to answer the following questions:

6.13 To what extent have countries implemented policies recommended in the strategy, regardless of attribution? What is the impact of these policies on learning outcomes in the region? Do these policies reach their intended targets in a uniform or differentiated way? What do stakeholders demand from their respective education systems?

6.14 The data largely confirm that the policies recommended by the strategy have been implemented, albeit to varying degrees, in the countries under study. That said, the study also finds that the level of implementation of these policies varies both within and between countries, reflecting differences in prevailing socioeconomic conditions, educational inputs, and managerial capacities. In estimating the impact of various inputs on learning, the study validates the importance of having the basics – from adequate infrastructure to texts and learning materials – in place. It also finds that other, perhaps higher-level reforms, also play a key role, such as managerial capacities at the school level and parental participation.

6.15 The report finds little empirical support demonstrating the potential impact of school autonomy on learning to justify the priority it received in the strategy. We note that a reassessment of policy recommendations in favor of school autonomy also is occurring in the United States. Recent education reform programs in

Texas, California, and New York City have, in all cases, moved away from school autonomy and toward devolving greater quality assurance responsibilities to central managers, on one hand, and parents on the other. These reforms also seek to ensure that local school directors devote more time to pedagogical-related tasks. All of these changes are consistent with the evidence analyzed above.

6.16 The evidence calls attention to several issues that could benefit from more detailed analysis, such as the impact and cost-effectiveness of demand-side interventions; the need for solid teacher competencies and how these competencies should be defined, taught, and certified; the conditions under which school autonomy unleashes creativity and innovation at the school level that, in turn, leads to better learning results; and a deeper examination of factors associated with good school management. Evidence also suggests the need to establish an integrated approach to education quality for the poorest children, one that recognizes the effects of the transition from school to the labor market, and make explicit the supply and demand constraints to schooling.

6.17 **Views of the Specialists**. Overall, the Primary and Secondary Education Strategy distinguished itself in that the majority of the Sector specialists appreciated and declared to have benefited from the discussion and consultation processeses that were part its preparation, and broadly speaking displayed a significant degree of ownership for the strategy. However, they find that the current basic education strategy documents have played a limited role in the Bank work. They recognize that the stages of strategy preparation have been instrumental in consolidating institutional knowledge among specialists during that period, and that the strategies have helped in providing a framework for policy discussions with government counterparts. However, there is a generalized consensus among specialists about the need to provide better guidelines for implementation.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

A. The formulation and updating of sector strategies.

7.1 **Promoting Strategies as Learning Tools**. The main weakness of both the Primary and Secondary Education and Social Sector strategies is that, by not recognizing that a strategy is fundamentally a hypothesis on how to efficiently and effectively achieve the Bank's goals, they did not acknowledge the incompleteness of the information available to policy makers and the high level of uncertainty embedded in project design vis-à-vis sector diagnosis and program effectiveness,. The proposal of prioritizing organizational incentives (Social Sector Strategy) and school autonomy (Primary and Secondary Strategy) are good examples of this problem; in both cases the diagnosis did not sufficiently link the problem with the solution, and in neither case empirical demonstrable evidence of the effectiveness of the proposed solutions was presented. *Overall, the analysis emphasizes the need to focus greater efforts to defining what is known and what is not known and in clarifying the role of the Bank in the learning processes necessary to bridge the policy knowledge gap in the future. Future strategies need to acknowledge the weakness of the empirical evidence supporting each specific policy recommendation and propose the robust learning process necessary to mitigate the risks associated with the adoption of policies underconditions of uncertainty about their impact*.

7.2 While the preparation and implementation of sector strategies can bring significant benefits to the Bank (increasing a focus on management by results and priorities, bringing more coherence to sector and country dialogue, promoting the identification and dissemination of effective sector policies and practices, promoting technical and policy-based dialogues within the Bank and with development partners), the effectiveness of the process requires a methodological discipline and the prioritization of the necessary resources to be devoted to the task lacking in the strategies just reviewed.

7.3 **Improving the Strategy Preparation and Implementing Processes**. This evaluation exercise found that the preparation and implementation of both strategies left critical steps out or did it incompletely. First, the Social Sector Strategy objectives did not clearly prioritize outcome improvements (with the associated risk that the reform would then become the objective). Additional deficiencies included: sector diagnosis incompletely executed; lack of a robust empirically based causal analysis relating issues, policy interventions and empirical evidence of expected impact; no analysis of the policy alternatives rejected; little account for the heterogeneous needs and issues permeating different countries and regions within countries; insufficient integration of on-going country strategies and experiences into the strategy; little effort to distinguish substantive versus organizational and institutional sector issues; insufficient operational guidance for the implementation of the proposed policies

and lines of action; lack of a risk analysis of the proposed strategy, and an analysis of what is possible in a proposed time-frame. Additionally, monitoring indicators were not available, the cost of the strategy was not estimated, and no time-bound action plan was proposed. *The Bank urgently needs to review the process of future strategy formulation and revision in education. While addressing all these recommendations might require significant resource commitment, it can be argued that the Bank cannot afford the alternative of preparing strategic documents that lack added value and effectiveness*.

7.4 **Ensuring Evaluability.** Furthermore, to assess the degree in which the strategic objectives are being achieved, it requires that the design and implementation of basic education projects generate sufficient information to measure progress toward improvements of the efficiency, equity, and quality of educational outcomes. The evaluability analysis illustrated that more than one-third of the projects approved during the decade lacked indicators to measure educational outcomes at the project design stage. And, the prospects for assessing outcomes further diminish during project implementation. About one-fourth of the projects that defined strategic development indicators in project design did not do so in the corresponding project performance reports. Furthermore, an analysis of the consistency of the ratings with the qualitative information provided in these reports indicated that in only about half of the projects the information provided supported the level of ratings assigned regarding progress toward development objectives. Because projects are not designed to be evaluable and the PPMR system (specially since the format of the PPMR does not permit an effective tracking of the indicators) does not provide adequate progress information, the Bank is missing the opportunity to learn if the strategic priorities are being effective. *The Bank needs to review and modify its project evaluation design and monitoring system to ensure that appropriate mechanisms are put in place to assess the implementation and effectiveness of its strategic process.*

B. Substantive Education Policy – Future Strategy Design

7.5 **Addressing Outcomes Through Integrated Approaches**. A review of the literature reveals the consensus, in the region and within the education literature, that efforts to improve education quality should undertake a comprehensive approach. Isolated interventions, such as those focused on teachers (training, incentives), organizational changes toward greater school autonomy, distribution of materials, or introduction new technology, have been shown in isolation to have little or no impact on student learning. There is also consensus on the need to implement a set of standards for the education system and a regular institutionalized system to measure progress toward meeting them. These would include vertical coherence-building, quality-assurance, and accountability mechanisms linking the different levels and sub-parts of the education system - standards, measurement, performance contracts, and support systems and networks - necessary for policy decisions made at the center (federal or state) to be operationalized at the classroom level. These are initiatives ongoing in Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, and Uruguay, and the Bank challenge has been and will

continue to be how to collaborate with these initiatives and help to disseminate them. *Future education strategies need to further incorporate ongoing efforts in the region to develop integrated approaches with standards of learning and quality assurance mechanisms within departments of education*.

7.6 **Including the Excluded**. The LAC region has distinguished itself in the previous decade by its remarkable progress toward universalizing school attendance. The consequence is that the task that remains often involves sub-populations being excluded due to vulnerabilities related to poverty, belonging to indigenous groups, living in remote locations, or the incidence of learning disabilities. In all of these cases, efforts to include the excluded require selective policies, i.e., the ability to target sub-populations. Similarly, sector diagnosis has demonstrated the persistence of low learning outcomes among the children of the poor, and the negligible progress to correct or improve them. Initiatives in Brazil, Chile, Mexico, and Uruguay demonstrate the feasibility of design and scope of impact of interventions. *Future updates of the education strategy need to mainstream these experiences into education policy dialogue.*

7.7 **Coordinating Supply- versus Demand-Based Policies.** The strategies also did not integrate the consensus among LAC countries (as demonstrated by policy priorities) and researchers that strategies which focus on addressing supply constraints in the provision of education of reasonable quality are constrained in their effectiveness to reach the poorest and excluded populations. While demand subsidies are mentioned in the strategies, the evaluation literature has demonstrated that the effectiveness of these programs is limited if these programs are considered as isolated interventions solely from the perspectives of safety nets or social assistance. *There is a need to better integrate these policy proposals (often present in poverty and safety net strategies) fully into the Bank's education strategies.*

7.8 **Government versus Non-Government Providers**. It is broadly accepted, as was proposed by the Social Sector Strategy, that government capacity is fundamentally limited and that the government is a demonstrably inefficient provider of education services, especially to the poor. It also is accepted that efforts to separate the government roles of financing from those of the provision of basic education services could contribute to improvements in the overall quality of government expenditures and access to services, as further argued in the Social Sector Strategy. However, previous evaluations have demonstrated that to guarantee the effectiveness of the initiative it is important to fully understand and characterize each specific market for non-government provision of education services under discussion. More broadly, each time strategies or projects propose to intervene in a market, at a minimum they need to characterize it and evaluate the effects of the intervention. Unfortunately this was found lacking in the strategies and projects reviewed. *Future strategies and projects, which choose to propose non-government delivery of services, would benefit from a robust analysis of the rates of utilization of non-government providers, quality differentials between government and non-government providers, cost*

differentials, and differences in the geographical distribution. (For instance, are non-government providers accessible to the poor and in remote areas? If not, what strategy would be employed to mobilize those markets?) Such an analysis would help reduce the implementation risks associated with these initiatives.

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Table A 1: Structure of Basic Education Systems in LAC

Country	AGES																
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Argentina	k	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s		
Bahamas	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s			
Barbados	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s		
Belize	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s			
Bolivia		k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s		
Brazil		k	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	
Chile		k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s		
Colombia	k	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s			
Costa Rica			k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	
Dominican Republic				k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	
Ecuador			k	k	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s		
El Salvador					p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	
Guatemala			k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s	s
Guyana		k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s			
Haiti	k	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s		
Honduras					p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s		
Jamaica	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s			
Mexico*	k	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s		
Nicaragua	k	k	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s	
Panama		k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s		
Paraguay		k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s		
Peru	k	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s		
Suriname		k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s	s	
Trinidad y Tobago **	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s			
Uruguay	k	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s	s	s	s	s		
Venezuela	k	k	k	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	p	s	s			

Source: World Data on Education 2001
** Recently increaded a first year to k and made all k compulsory*
*** Source for compulsory education: International Association of Universities/UNESCO*
k: pre-primary; p:primary; s: secondary (shadowed implies compulsory)

Country	Beginning of decade				End of decade			
	GER	GER Year	NER	NER Year	GER	GER Year	NER	NER Year
Argentina	106	1990	96	1987	120	2000	107	2000
Bahamas	102	1990	96	1991	91	1999	100	1999
Barbados	93	1990	78	1991	110	2000	105	2000
Belize	112	1990	94	1991	128	2000	100	2000
Bolivia	95	1990	91	1991	116	2000	97	2000
Brazil	106	1990	86	1991	162	2000	97	2000
Chile	100	1990	**88**	1990	103	2000	89	2000
Colombia	102	1990	69	1991	112	2000	89	2000
Costa Rica	101	1990	86	1990	107	2000	91	2000
Dominican Republic	97	1990	-	-	124	2000	93	2000
Ecuador	117	1990	90	1990	115	2000	99	2000
El Salvador	81	1990	73	1989	112	1999	81	1999
Guatemala	78	1990	68	1992	102	2000	84	2000
Guyana	98	1990	93	1990	120	1999	98	1999
Haiti	85	1990	22	1990	-	2000	-	2000
Honduras	108	1991	84	1991	106	2000	88	2000
Jamaica	101	1990	96	1990	100	2000	95	2000
Mexico	114	1990	100	1990	113	2000	103	2000
Nicaragua	94	1990	72	1990	104	2000	81	2000
Panama	106	1990	91	1990	112	2000	100	2000
Paraguay	105	1990	83	1990	111	2000	92	2000
Peru	119	1990	92	1988	128	1999	104	1999
Suriname	100	1990	88	1988	127	2000	92	2000
Trinidad and Tobago	98	1990	91	1990	100	2000	92	2000
Uruguay	109	1990	91	1991	109	2000	90	2000
Venezuela	96	1990	88	1990	102	2000	88	2000

Table A 2: Primary Gross and Net Enrollment rates

***Source**: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.*

***Note 1**: Gross enrollment rate, at any given level of education, is defined as the number of pupils enrolled in such level of education (regardless of age) as a proportion of the population of the relevant official school-age. Notice that all countries in the region have gross enrollment rate above 100 percent. This implies that nowadays their systems have the capacity to incorporate the entire school-age population.*

***Note 2**: Net enrollment rate, at any given level of education, is defined as the number of pupils of official school-age enrolled at such level of education as a proportion of the total population of the relevant official school-age. It is important to notice that because of repetition and dropouts, high net enrollment rates do not imply high graduation rates. For the Chilean case, NER under-represent the percentage of children of primary-school age enrolled into the basic education system due to a significant proportion of 6-years old attending pre-primary education. The proportion of children 6-13 years old attending any type of school is practically 100%..*

Table A 3: Gross Enrollment rates at lower and upper-secondary levels

Country Name	Beginning of decade		End of decade	
	GER	Year	GER	Year
Argentina	71.1	1990	89.1	1998
Bahamas, The	92.2	1990	86.8	1996
Barbados	87.3	1990	105.0	1998
Belice	41.3	1990	53.8	1998
Bolivia	36.6	1990	40.0	1996
Brazil	38.4	1990	82.6	1998
Chile	73.5	1990	85.3	1998
Colombia	49.8	1990	53.3	1998
Costa Rica	41.6	1990	48.2	1997
Dominican Republic	40.2	1990	66.2	1998
Ecuador	55.3	1990	56.2	1998
El Salvador	26.4	1990	49.8	1998
Guatemala	23.1	1990	33.4	1998
Guyana	83.4	1990	78.5	1998
Haití	20.9	1990	29.3	1996
Honduras	33.4	1990	32.0	1996
Jamaica	65.3	1990	89.9	1998
Mexico	53.3	1990	70.5	1998
Nicaragua	40.5	1990	50.1	1997
Panama	62.6	1990	68.5	1996
Paraguay	30.9	1990	50.7	1998
Peru	67.3	1990	80.8	1998
Suriname	--	--	--	--
Trinidad and Tobago	80.4	1990	80.3	1998
Uruguay	81.3	1990	88.3	1998
Venezuela, RB	34.7	1990	39.5	1996

Source: World Development Indicators 2002

Note: Most of the efforts to systematically gather data on secondary level enrollment rates for LAC countries do not allow for disaggregation of lower and upper secondary figures. However, individual country data indicates that enrollment rates at lower-secondary level are considerably higher and have grown much faster than those for upper-secondary level.

Table A 4: Percentage of children who complete 6 and 8 years of education

Country	Beginning of the decade			End of the decade		
	15-16 years old with at least 6 years completed	18-19 years old with at least 8 years completed	Year	15-16 years old with at least 6 years completed	18-19 years old with at least 8 years completed	Year
Argentina	--	--		96	79	1999
Bolivia	--	--		80	72	1999
Brazil	37	33	1988	61	54	1999
Chile	--	--		95	91	1998
Colombia	85	76	1990	74	66	1999
Costa Rica	83	46	1991	85	52	2000
Ecuador	--	--		89	60	1998
Guatemala	--	--		49	30	1998
Honduras	64	28	1992	70	29	1999
Mexico	84	68	1992	91	73	2000
Nicaragua	--	--		57	38	1998
Panama	91	68	1991	94	75	1999
Peru	--	--		81	67	2000
El Salvador	--	--		60	50	1999
Uruguay	93	77	1989	95	78	1998
Venezuela	81	58	1989	88	66	1999

Source: Social Information Service, Research Department ,IDB, Using Household Surveys.
Note: Surveys are nationally representative except for Argentina and Uruguay which only cover urban areas.
Note: Direct information on graduation is scarce, and its computation through cohort methods is complicated given that it requires information on the number of children in the first grade of secondary and it assumes that those children leaving the system at that grade did not graduate.

Table A 5: Primary survival rates to grade 5 and Coefficient of Efficiency

Country	Survival rate to grade 5	Year	Coefficient of efficiency	Year
Argentina	94	1997	89	1997
Bahamas	100	1997	-	-
Barbados	100	1997	-	-
Belize	72	1997	76	1997
Bolivia	50	1997	55	1998
Brazil	66	1997	78	1997
Chile	100	1995	92	1995
Colombia	59	1997	71	1997
Costa Rica	89	1997	84	1997
Cuba	95	1997	95	1997
Dominican Republic	-	-	-	-
Ecuador	72	1996	80	1996
El Salvador	59	1996	63	1995
Guatemala	51	1998	51	1998
Guyana	93	1991	90	1991
Haiti	41	1997	47	1997
Honduras	58	1997	61	1997
Jamaica	96	1989	90	1996
Mexico	85	1998	94	1998
Nicaragua	51	1996	53	1994
Panama	-	-	81	1988
Paraguay	71	1997	70	1998
Peru	87	1998	80	1997
Suriname	100	1987	-	-
Trinidad and Tobago	96	1997	93	1995
Uruguay	98	1995	88	1995
Venezuela	89	1995	60	1995

Source: "Education for All. A decade of education: 2000.

Table A 6: Results in International Student Assessments

Country	LLECE		TIMS	
	4th grade Math	4th grade Language	8th grade Math 1995	8th grade Math 1999
Argentina	269	282		
Bolivia	245	233		
Brazil	269	277		
Chile	265	286		392
Colombia	258	265	385	
Cuba	353	349		
Dominican Republic	234	232		
Honduras	231	238		
Mexico	256	252		
Paraguay	248	251		
Peru	229	240		
Venezuela	226	249		
Singapore			643	604
Iran			428	422
South Africa			354	275

Source: PREAL (2001)

Note 1: In 1997, 13 LAC countries participated in the First International Study of Quality of Education. Learning tests on mathematics and language were applied to children in these countries. According to PREAL's report (2001) "The lowest fourth of Cuban students performed above the regional average. Only the highest scoring students from other Latin American countries matched the achievement of students in the lowest two quartiles in Cuba –a difference typically found between rich and poor countries. Meanwhile, Chile and Colombia –which have scored poorly on worldwide tests– got average scores on the regional test, suggesting that most Latin American countries would do poorly in global tests as well."

Table A 7: LLECE Results in 4th grade Math by Mega-urban, urban and rural status

Country	4th grade Mathematics				4th grade Language			
	Median	Mega-City	Urban	Rural	Median	Mega-City	Urban	Rural
Argentina	269	292	269	253	282	296	283	259
Bolivia	245	249	248	239	233	246	237	223
Brazil	269	273	269	257	277	286	277	265
Chile	265	263	268	246	286	283	292	264
Colombia	258	262	252	263	265	276	261	258
Cuba	353	358	353	341	349	358	347	335
Dominican Republic	234	246	231	232	232	257	228	227
Honduras	231	242	239	225	238	257	249	227
Mexico	256	269	261	249	252	272	260	243
Paraguay	248	--	256	243	251	--	265	243
Peru	229	240	235	220	240	257	252	247
Venezuela	226	226	226	224	249	261	248	222

Source: LLECE (1997) Own computation

Table A 8: Percentage of children completing basic education by income group

Country	15-16 years old with at least 6 years completed		18-19 years old with at least 8 years completed	
	40% poorest	20% richest	40% poorest	20% richest
Argentina	94	99	61	93
Bolivia	62	92	53	85
Brazil	40	93	29	88
Chile	91	100	84	97
Colombia	63	90	52	91
Costa Rica	81	89	47	46
Ecuador	82	98	45	83
Guatemala	26	84	6	69
Honduras	60	83	16	52
Mexico	84	93	57	86
Nicaragua	41	83	18	65
Panama	91	96	57	94
Peru	82	98	69	93
El Salvador			37	83
Uruguay	88	90	66	94
Venezuela	83	96	57	87

Source: Social Information Service, Research Department ,IDB, Using Household Surveys.
Note: Surveys are nationally representative except for Argentina and Uruguay which only cover urban areas.

Table A 9: Pre-school Gross Enrollment rates

Country	Beginning of decade	Year	End of decade	Year
Argentina	51	1991	57	1998
Bahamas	100	1990	100	1997
Barbados	73	1991	89	1997
Belize	24	1990	27	1994
Bolivia	32	1990	46	1998
Brazil	48	1990	55	1998
Chile	82	1990	98	1996
Colombia	13	1990	35	1998
Costa Rica	61	1990	82	1998
Cuba	101	1990	96	1998
Dominican Republic	18	1992	34	1998
Ecuador	42	1990	63	1998
El Salvador	21	1990	40	1998
Guatemala	26	1991	47	1998
Guyana	89	1990	92	1996
Haiti	34	1990	-	-
Honduras	13	1991	16	1997
Jamaica	79	1990	-	-
Mexico	65	1990	76	1998
Nicaragua	12	1991	26	1999
Panama	53	1990	76	1996
Paraguay	27	1990	77	1998
Peru	30	1990	60	1998
Suriname	79	1990	-	-
Trinidad and Tobago	-	-	-	-
Uruguay	43	1990	56	1998
Venezuela	41	1990	54	1999

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Online data set and "Latin America and the Caribbean. Regional Report" 2001. Except for Bahamas and Barbados, where data was gathered from "Education for All. A decade of Education" 2000.

** There seems to be a conflict between UIS sources in the case of Chile. Their regional report shows a GER of 74 in 1998.*

*** For Guyana, EFA shows a GER in 1990 of 69*

Table A 10: Pre-primary gross enrollment by urban-rural and poor-non poor status

Country	VERY POOR		POOR		NON-POOR		TOTAL	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Brazil	59	42.1	62.8	44.8	79.3	60.6	70	45.1
Colombia	49.7		52.1		69.5		59.7	
Costa Rica	4.3	1.5	3.2	1.5	16.1	6.3	9.5	2.7
Chile	32.5	11.3	32.6	11.2	45	23.7	38.2	14.2
Ecuador	21.1	18.3	28.5	19.7	41.9	25.5	36.5	21.3
El Salvador	41.2	29.9	43.5	30.8	66.5	37.8	57.9	32.3
Honduras	32.2	31.6	31.3	30.2	39.6	28.9	36.5	29.7
Jamaica	80.1	73.8	83.6	76.5	93.2	87.8	89.1	79.5
Nicaragua	16.1	5.6	20.3	7.6	46.7	22.2	38.6	11
Peru	36.2	37.5	36.8	38.4	57	56.5	47.7	40.8

Source: Wordl Bank, Educational Change in Latin America and the Caribbean, 1999 Annex D.

Table A 11: Characteristics of the educational systems

	National system of evaluation of quality of education			Decentralization		MIS or GMS
	First year	Number of tests applied	Disseminated to	Period	Level	
Argentina	1993	8	G, U, P	1989-1995	S	1993
Bolivia	1996	1	G, U, P	1995-2001	M	
Brazil	1990	5	G, P	1988-?	S, M	1990
Chile	1989	17	G, U, P	Early 80s	M	
Colombia	1991	4	G, P	Mid 90s	M	Late 90s
Costa Rica	1991	4	G, P			Early 90s
Dominican Republic	1991	2	G			No
Ecuador	1996	4	G, U, P	1993-1996	M	
El Salvador	1993	2	P	1996	S, M	1997
Guatemala	1997	4	G, U, P	1996	S	1996
Honduras	1997	4		1997	S	1996
Mexico	1996	5	G, U, P	1992	S	1990?
Nicaragua	1996	1		1993-1998	M	1996
Panama	1985	4		1995	S	
Paraguay	1996	2	G, U			
Peru	1996	2	G, U	1985	S	1998
Uruguay	1996	3	G, U, P	Centralized		Early 90s
Venezuela	1998	1		1989-1999	S	1997

Source: PREALC 2001

1) The number of tests intends to give a measure of how institutionalized the evaluation systems are. However, this variable could be over-stated because some countries apply evaluate different assignatures in different examinations.

2) Through time, Mexico and Dominican Republic have changed the populations the information is disseminated to. The data presented in this table refers to the last examination.

3) Question marks may indicate either than information was not readily available or that countries have centralized systems or lack an information system (in progress).

Table A 12: Education Projects Approved 1990 - 2000

Project Number	Year	Project Name
DR0122	1991	IMPROVEMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION SYSTEM
CR0132	1991	QUALITY IMPROVEMENT OF THE EDUCATION
JA0016	1992	PRIMARY EDUCATION IMPROV. PHASE II
BA0017	1992	PRIMARY EDUCATION PROJECT
PR0025	1993	PRIMARY EDUCATIONAL STRENGTHENING
VE0090	1993	MODERNIZ. & STRENGTH. BASIC EDUCATION
BO0013	1994	EDUCATION REFORM PROGRAM
ME0170	1994	ELEMENTARY EDUCATION PROGRAM
AR0122	1994	EDUCATION SECTOR REFORM AND INVESTMENTS
BH0007	1994	IMPROVEMENT OF PRIMARY/SECONDARY EDUCAT.
ES0083	1995	MODERNIZATION OF THE EDUCATION SECTOR
HA0028	1995	PRIMARY EDUCATION
DR0101	1995	BASIC EDUCATION IMPROVEMET PROGRAM, II
PE0116	1996	EDUCATION QUALITY IMPROVEMENT
BR0167	1996	SECUNDARY EDUCATION IMPROVEMENT
UR0107	1996	MODERNIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION
GU0037	1997	PROJECT SUPPORT ED. REFORM
HO0078	1997	BASIC ALTERNATIVE EDUCATION
PN0069	1997	EDUCATION SECTOR PROGRAM
CR0044	1997	PRESCHOOL AND LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION
ME0052	1997	DISTANCE EDUCATION PROGRAM
ES0108	1998	EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY SUPPORT PROG.
ES0110	1998	EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE
HA0038	1998	BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAM
EC0125	1998	EDUCATION QUALITY IMPROVEMENT
BA0009	1998	EDUCATION SECTOR ENHANCEMENT PROG.
NI0090	1999	EDUCATION PROGRAM REFORM PREPAR.
CO0142	1999	NEW SCHOOL SYSTEM PROGRAM
TT0023	1999	SECONDARY EDUCATION PROGRAM
HO0141	2000	TRANSFORMATION OF BASIC AND TERCIARY EDUCATION PROGRAM
PR0117	2000	BASIC EDUCATION STRENGTHENING
JA0059	2000	BASIC & PRIMARY EDUCATION PROG. III
PE0170	2000	SECONDARY EDUCATION IMPROVEMENT

Table A 13: PROJECT PROTOCOL

A. Decentralizing decision-making
1.State or municipality level
1. Project intervention
2. Pre-existed decentralization
2. Enhances school autonomy
1. Personnel decisions
2. School maintenance/supplies
3. Pedagogical
3. Parent/school management committees
1. Teacher Monitoring - check absenteeism, number hours in school.
2. School maintanance/supplies
3. Parental Motivation - ensure that children come to school.
4. School management plans to improve outcomes
5. Improves the supervision system
1. Administrative
2. Pedagogic
B. Advancing the regulatory framework, as well as developing norms and standards
6. Establishes or improves standards for student learning
7. Curricula improvements
1. Primary
2. Secondary
3. Preschool
8. Teaching standards
9. Curricula improvements for TTIs
1. Primary
2. Secondary
3. Preschool
10. Accreditation of TTIs
11. Teacher carreer structure and development
C. Building planning and management capacity
12. Advances national and local planning
13. Training of managers
1: School directors and Coordinators
2: Supervisors
3. Federal and local government agents.
D. Improving the incentive systems
14. Links salaries, rewards and hiring practices to school directors' performance
1. Primary
2. Secondary
15. Seeks to attract and retain better teachers
16. Links teacher's incentives to performance
1. Teacher competencies
2. Student performance
3. School performance

17. Links teacher's incentives to reduced absenteeism and increased time on task
1. Absenteeism
2. Increased time on task
3.undesired posting
4.housingallowance
18. Incentives to the demand of educational services
1: Scholarships;
2: Conditional cash grants
3. Nutrition Programs
4. Transportation
19. Incentives to the supply of educational services (private sector)
1: Schools
2: TTIs
3: Encourage private provision of textbooks and learning materials
E. Increasing the efficiency of educational spending
20. Reallocating resources to non-salary recurrent components
1. Mentiones
2. Measures
21. Reallocating resources to the poor
1. Mentiones
2. Measures
22. Reallocating resources according to demand
1. Mentiones
2. Measures
23. Cost sharing for school maintenance, textbooks
1. Mentiones
2. Measures
24. Reform the central administration to improve efficiency
1. Organizational Reform
2. Administrative Reform
3. Information Systems
4. Policy and Personnel Rules
5. System consolidation(staff/schools)
25. Increase public expenditures for basic education
1. Mentiones
2. Measures
26. Decrease the unit cost per student/hour, at the school level
1. Adequate student/teacher ratio
2. Increase yearly learning time at reduced cost
3. Reduce repetition and dropouts
4. Extends coverage thru distance education
5. Support private education for the neediest
6. Others

F. Information systems, feedback and evaluation
27. Previous existence of information or evaluation systems
1: EMIS; PMIS; CMIS;
2.GIS
3. Student Evaluation System
4. Teacher Evaluation System
28. Establishes or improves information systems
1: EMIS; PMIS; CMIS;
2. GIS
29. Establishes or improves evaluation systems
1. Student Learning
2. Teacher competencies
30. Use of information/evaluation systems
1. To government agents
2. To schools (EMIS)
3. To schools (Student assessment)
4. To the general public
31. Promotes evaluation capacity
32. Contract non-government institutions to conduct student evaluation
33. Studies the potential effect of specific programs (pilot studies).
G. Ownership
34. Consult with stakeholders
1: Teachers;
2: Parents;
3. Local leaders;
4: Government Ministry;
5. Industry
35. Social marketing of products
H. Improves equity by targeting a significant proportion of disadvantaged populations.
36. Urban Poor
1. Mentions group
2. Identify explicitly
3. Targeting mechanisms
37. Rural Poor
1. Mentions group
2. Identify explicitly
3. Targeting mechanisms
38. Women
1. Mentions group
2. Identify explicitly
3. Targeting mechanisms
39. Ethnic groups
1. Mentions de group
2. Identify explicitly
3. Targeting mechanisms

I. Improves the quality of teaching and learning/40a.School projects funded
40. Remedial actions for repeaters/dropouts
41. Promotes feedback to teachers through the student evaluation system
42. Asseses the teacher training needs
43. Pre-service training-
1. Content
2. Classroom management
3. Classroom practice
4. Emphasis on problem-solving
44. In-service training
1. Content
2. Classroom management
3. Remedial actions for below required competencies
4. Emphasis in problem solving
5. Train in multigrade methods
6. Train in early childhood
7. Train in mother tongue
45. Certification for non-teaching professionals
46. Continued pedagogical support for teachers
1. Central support
2. Teacher networks
47. Preschol targeted to neediest children
J. Improves physical facilities
48. New school construction, additional classrooms, reconstruction
1. Primary
2. Secondary
3. preschool
49. School improvement and maintenance (major and minor repairs)
1. Primary
2. Secondary
3. Preschool
K. Provides textbooks, learning materials and libraries
50. Improving the availability of textbooks, learning materials and libraries
51. Promotes sust. instit. and budg. arrangements to finance T,L,L; see non-salary E20
L. Uses communication technologies.
52. Distance teacher training.
53. Distance education of students to improve access or quality.
54. Education and training through computers and related technologies.
M. Level targeted by project
55. Pre-primary
56. Primary
57. Lower-secondary
58. Upper secondary
N. 59. Poverty Targeted-estimated low income beneficiaries
COMMENTS

Table A 14: De Jure Autonomy

	Hiring Teachers	Hiring Principals	Teacher Promotions	Salaries	Investment	Maintenance	Books	Curriculum	Generation Resources at School	Participation of Families
Argentina	Province	Province	Province	Province	Nat'l/ Province	Province	Province	Province	Yes	Yes
Bolivia	National	National	National	National	National	School	National	National	Yes	Yes
Brazil	State/Mun	State/Mun	State/Mun	State/Mun	State/Mun	State/Mun	State/Mun	State/ Mun/School	Yes	Yes
Chile	Municipal	Municipal	State	National	Municipal	Municipal	National	National /School	Yes	Yes
Colombia	Department/ School	Department	Department	National	Municipal	Municipal	Municipal	Department	Yes	Yes
Cuba	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	National	No	Yes
Dominican Republic	National	National	National	National	National	School	National	National	Yes	Yes
Honduras	Department/ School	Department	National	National	National	School	National	National	Yes	Yes
Mexico	State	National	State	National	National	State	National	National	Yes	Yes
Paraguay	National	National	National	National	National	School	National	National	Yes	Yes
Peru	State	State	State	National	National	State	Families	National	Yes	Yes
Venezuela	Nat'l/State /Mun	Nat'l/State /Mun	National	Nat'l/State /Mun	Nat'l/State /Mun	Nat'l/State /Mun	Families	Nat'l/State /Mun	No	Yes

Annex B1: Formula to calculate the ExPost Evaluability Index

(This formula describes the degree of information provided by projects)
Source data is OVE's Results Frameworks and Evaluability Matrices.

Given a 0,1 matrix of M rows and (N + **1**) columns such that M x **(N + 1)** = **K '**.
The *ExPost Evaluability Index* is calculated as

$$GeneralExPostEvaluabilityIndex = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^{K'} X_j}{K'}$$

If the goal is to generate an *Evaluability Index* just for Outcomes or Outputs or alternatively for Indicators/Baseline/Targets/Milestones/Progress within each of those categories (i.e., outcomes or outputs) the dimensions of the matrix M x (N + 1) will change accordingly.

For Example

If Project NN0000 consists of the following evaluability matrix based on its results framework:

		Indicators	Baseline	Milestone	Target	Progress
Outcome	i	1	0	0	1	0
Outcome	ii	1	0	1	1	1
Output 1	1.1	1	0	0	1	0
	1.2	0	0	1	1	0
Output 2	2.1	0	0	0	0	0
	2.2	1	1	1	1	0

A number 1 in the matrix denotes information provided/available based on the project document, PPMR/PCRs and Sector Specialist Consultations.

The Complete ExPost Evaluability Index = 14/30
M x (N + 1) = 30
$\sum_{j=0}^{K'} Xj = 14$

The ExPost Evaluability Index for Outcome = 6/10
M x (N + 1) = 10
$\sum_{j=0}^{K'} Xj = 6$

The ExPost Evaluability Index for Output = 8/20
M x (N + 1) = 20
$\sum_{j=0}^{K'} Xj = 8$

The ExPost Evaluability Index for Output Targets = 3/4
M x (N + 1) = 4
$\sum_{j=0}^{K'} Xj = 3$