Introduction

Since 1963 the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) has serviced the international education community by training administrators at its headquarters in Paris as well as in each of the world’s regions. From the beginning, the IIEP has published, in four or five languages, many of its reports and the conclusions from its training activities. It has also commissioned studies, which it thought would be useful for education and other administrators. The total number of publications since 1963 is in excess of 1400. These might be categorised into a variety of themes all underpinning IIEP’s mission to help Member States “improve the quality and effectiveness of their education systems” (IIEP website). These include Global Issues, Administration and Management, Economics of Education, the Quality of Education, Levels of Formal Education, and Alternative Strategies.¹

Over the last several years, IIEP has published an average of 37 books a year.² In the spring of 2005, the Reviews Editor of this journal received a large package of books from the IIEP with the request that each of them be reviewed in the journal. The Reviews Editor in association with the Executive Editor agreed and asked us if we would assist in this process. The package sent contained 22 titles published in 2004, although IIEP lists 36 published in 2004. We are not certain why these 22 were selected, nevertheless our review and our general impressions are confined to those received and reviewed. Each review will summarise what we believe to be the purpose of the work, and then mention impressions of some of its strengths and weaknesses. At the end we offer a few comments and general impressions.

Anderson, Lorin W. 2004. Increasing Teacher Effectiveness³

Like the book on cost/benefit analysis, this is an updated version of the author’s earlier IIEP publication of the same title in 1991. The book contains eight chapters. They include how to understand teacher effectiveness, the standards and structures of learning units, the classroom environment, classroom organisation, lesson structure, communications between students and teachers, student learning, and a final chapter on how to increase teacher effectiveness. However, each individual chapter has a sub-section on recommendations for teacher effectiveness. In the case of student learning,

---

¹Each macro issue might be broken down into more discrete areas. Global issues include general studies, development issues, HIV/AIDS, Education in Emergencies, Ethics and Corruption and the like. Under administration is housed: education administration, distance education, information and communication technologies, information and statistics, school mapping and school building, and teachers. We are not certain whether we counted all of the categories of IIEP emphases, but we found 30 of them listed.


³All publications are Paris: UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning.
for instance, the reader is told that “during presentations, teachers should use techniques that keep the students attentive and involved” (p. 104). In the chapter on communication, the reader is told that “presentations by teachers should be clear and understandable” (p. 93). In the case of classroom management and organization, the reader is told that “when introducing new content to students, whole class instruction, actively led by the teacher, is preferable to small group or individual instruction” (p. 68). At the end of the book when policy makers are addressed, they are told that “all [the different units in a ministry of education] should be concerned and can be involved in increasing teacher effectiveness. Above all, however, it is on those units responsible for curriculum and development and teacher training that the major onus falls” (p. 117).

With all due respect to the author’s notability on the subject, one wonders whether the book can serve its intentions. Much of the presentation may seem self-evident to practising teachers, and many of the more important levers which affect teacher effectiveness—terms of service, reward structures and professional voice in making policy—are ignored. Perhaps the most critical function of a ministry of education in promoting teacher effectiveness is its focus on strategy, not curriculum or instruction, but unless readers had experience outside of the curriculum and instruction network, they would not learn that from this book.


Authored by one of the most senior planners in the French government, this book is authoritative, experienced and timely. How to admit that planning in the past has been such a failure? The history is laid out clearly. Without using prices, manpower forecasting tended to oversupply skills that were not needed. While manpower forecasts may have been effective in an economy that was centrally administered, it was distortionary in an economy that was not. Manpower planning was effectively challenged by economic rates of return and other cost-benefit techniques, which were quickly adopted in high- and low-income countries alike.4

While the book is authoritative about the history of educational planning, its diagnosis of the present and its suggestions for the future contain three critical mistakes. For some reason ‘planning’ is assumed to be a monopoly of the state. There is no discussion of its use in the private sector where it performs a critical ingredient. There is acknowledgement that planning is correlated with the degree of decentralisation, and is made necessary by the mistakes from local institutions. No mention is made of the dangers of mistakes (often fueled by faulty assumptions) of the state itself. Lastly, the author’s idea about the problems of ‘developing countries’ having high birth rates and small ‘modern’ sectors is seriously dated.

**Bista, Min Bahadur and Stephen Carney. 2004. Reforming the Ministry to Improve Education: An Institutional Analysis of the Ministry of Education and Sports (MOES) of Nepal**

In every nation, education is the largest employer and is responsible for a myriad range of goods and services that need to be manufactured and distributed and information that needs to be collected, centralised and analysed daily. Those who have not been in charge of these functions often do not recognise its complexity and importance for a democracy. Those who manage the sector are employed in ministries of education; hence making a ministry more efficient can be a linchpin to making education more efficient, and democracy more feasible. This book is an interesting and readable account of a plan to make one such ministry more efficient.

The book is divided into parts devoted to context, analysis and long-term human development goals. Among its virtues is the attention played to nesting ministry of education reform (particularly the structure of incentives) within a broader civil service context. It breaks down key issues into logical categories: central, regional and district agencies, and individual schools. It describes the issue of women as important actors. Moreover, it includes measures for skill development and plans for human resource development.

Another virtue of this book is its candour. Weaknesses in the central ministry include mismatches between organisational structure and

---

4The author curiously attributes the invention of economic rates of return to “liberal economists in Anglo-Saxon countries” (p. 15) ignoring the honourable and unique professional contributions of Michel Debeauvais, Jean Claude Eicher, Francois Orivel, George Psacharopoulos, Torsten Husen, Hector Correa, Arthur Lewis, Jan Tinbergen, H von Thunen, and pioneers from many different parts of the world and language groups, all of whom were excellent economists.
organisational activities (hardly a small problem), staffing practices (with little induction education or evaluation), deficient communication and information systems and absence of monitoring or evaluation available either internally or to the public. Weaknesses in the district administration include one big one: the system is supposed to be decentralised but the district education officer has little authority, rendering his job to that of an administrator rather than a manager. At the school level, the main problem seems to be that the Resource Centre (RC) System (which has been the main policy of the government and many donors) “has not shown itself to be an appropriate vehicle for teacher or school development” (p. 224).

The question then becomes what to do about these significant failures. The book contains a long and detailed list of action items, all of which seem quite sensible—clearer job descriptions, better information, staff upgrading etc. The questions the book does not address, but which will seem obvious to many readers, are, what to do when none of the suggested action items are followed? What are the consequences for Nepal of an education system with such gaps in its management? What responses should be expected from those who contribute resources to the system from outside the country? There have been many discussions of basic rights to education. Is there not a basic minimum of administrative efficiency necessary for a nation to achieve basic education, and if so, what should be the consequences when the national ministry of education is below that minimum?

Briseid, Ole and François Caillods. 2004. Trends in Secondary Education in Industrialized Countries: Are They Relevant for African Countries?

Commissioned by the World Bank’s Africa region, the basic question this book tries, quite successfully, to answer is whether the experience in one part of the world is relevant to another. The book provides an overview of educational development in France, Britain and the growth in enrolment in (Western) Europe more generally. A second part is dedicated to current trends in secondary education in OECD countries. The last part is dedicated to the question at hand as to relevance. The book concludes that the relevance is quite high in terms of goals, flow and retention, transition to work, learning strategies, evaluation and assessment, governance and participation, costs and finance, and perhaps most importantly, in terms of curriculum. It points out that all curricula should have three purposes (teach traditional subject areas, social and personal skills, and ethical values), and that the priority should be on standards (publicly transparent). Although the educational problems and challenges in Sub-Saharan Africa are great, and that to be sure each nation is different, what this book reiterates is that for professionals, even across regions with vastly different monetary resources, the lessons are numerous and important. Africa may be different in many ways, but one should not go so far as to suggest that the lessons of Europe are irrelevant.

It was a wise decision of the World Bank to request this book by IIEP. In the 1990s, the Bank suffered credibility in the education sector (Heyneman, 2003) and today it seeks professional allies from among other donor agencies so that its arguments might be more effective in the education profession. This book accomplishes this task with clarity and candour. One wonders, however, why the question had to be raised at all. Has the development community become so polarised and insular that one would have to ask whether the experience of Europe is relevant to Africa? If so, it seems tragic.


In this work, the authors provide an overview of multigrade classes in the world, showing how some regions, specifically North America and Europe, have more historical experience with this model. However, they believe that the model is currently being used more for increasing access in developing countries focusing on education for all, where the perception of multigrade schools is mixed. In addition, they also attempt to isolate the causes that lead to success or failure of multigrade teaching in rural areas.

One concern with this work is that it seems to be an extended policy memo, and though the authors claim that the goal of the book is to aid educational planners to make decisions regarding multigrade schooling, one difficulty is that in countries where multigrade teaching is not popular, data are just not available. The authors provide many case illustrations of Columbia and Cambodia that are integrating multigrade classes into their system, and more general education profiles, such as Burkina Faso.

Throughout, the authors tend to use findings without citing a source. For instance, they say,
“countries where compulsory schooling is fully established show a correlation between age and grade and a low repetition rate” (p. 45); however, no attempt is made to show the sources of these findings.

The authors conclude that there are three causes of multigrade teaching failure: lack of political will, teacher motivation, and educational resources. To succeed, in their view, there must be political involvement, the right administrative conditions, (more flexible standards, clusters of small schools, school mapping, and teacher management, teacher conditions and materials); and ‘facilitating’ measures, such as organisational partnerships, parent–teacher associations, devolution and decentralisation.

The authors have a section on cost, which includes a disclaimer stating that there is a severe lack of financial data available. They say that “the costs are often hidden; they are unique to each situation, as in each case one must factor in what is available on site and the impact of construction, maintenance, teachers’ wages, etc. and it is not easy to draw general conclusions from the results” (p. 69). After summarising two studies which do provide cost information, they conclude by stating “in fact, the real problem is often not costs, but a lack of political will: in rural areas with scattered human settlements in many developing countries, the alternatives are not multigrade school or conventional school, but rather multigrade school or no school at all” (p. 75); however, they provide no factual evidence to support this conclusion.


The title is perhaps one indication of how myopic the development community has become, when a book is published with an unexplained acronym only a small percentage of the general readership would recognise (or perhaps care about). PRSP’s refer to Poverty Reduction (a favourite donor slogan) Strategy Papers. At the time this volume was written, donor agencies had produced 18 PRSPs. The purpose of this book is to inform the reader of how good those strategies were in terms of how they treat education.

The authors explain that the PRSPs are a way of integrating all interventions designed to reduce poverty. In the 1960s, this was the underlying assumption of ‘integrated rural development;’ in the 1970s this was the underlying assumption of the ‘basic needs’ strategies. The authors do not evaluate the strategy; instead, they confine themselves to whether the strategies are educationally credible and whether as strategies they are compelling. The PRSPs fail on both grounds. The authors point out that educational interventions (more teachers, better textbooks, abolition of fees etc.) are listed without a sense of viability. They are sceptical about whether PRSP strategies have accounted for uncertainty in implementation. What happens, they ask, if the financial projections are not realised? What happens when all HIPC (funds for highly indebted countries) have been exhausted? How can we be sure, they ask, whether funds for education will not be allocated to other sectors?

The problem with this book is that it is too gentle. Perhaps for reasons of international organisational diplomacy, the words are too academic. This book, with its important questions, belongs in the category of an audit report. It is not that the public should not know about the inadequacies of the PRSPs; it is just that the questions about these strategy papers are so profoundly important that an academic publication does not do them justice. It appears as advisory when it should have taken on a role of administrative enforcement.


HIV/AIDS continues to grow as a major concern. Though the impact of HIV/AIDS on education systems affects both learners and providers, only recently have discussions of HIV/AIDS prevention moved out of the health and into the education sector. Carol Coombe assembles a collection of 10 essays that discuss, illustrate, and examine the intricate relationship between HIV/AIDS and education. Though much of the information provided is common knowledge to many working within the sector, this work gathers in one volume the range of issues, stakeholders, and recommendations, and could serve as a great introduction to people new to the field, including some educators, researchers and educational planners.

Chapter 1 explores the relationships between HIV/AIDS, poverty and education through a crisis management lens. Michael Kelly’s Chapter 2 discusses the role that formal education can and should take in preventing HIV transmission. Chapter 3 strives to lead the dialogue away from discussion on the impact of HIV/AIDS on human resources and schools, to the systemic issues that
arise in an education system plagued with the disease. The author suggests that “the issues for governments and Ministries of Education (MOE) need to be seen within a context in which radical changes need to be put in place, if the education system is to deal both with the internal effects of the epidemic on institutions and respond to a changing external set of needs” (p. 61). Chapter 4 provides an investigation on mainstreaming HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa. Chapter 5 is a study on the influence of social capital on HIV/AIDS and gender equality intervention programmes in two schools in Durban, South Africa. The next chapter shares conclusions on an Internet “experiment” that created “interactive virtual e-dialogues” on HIV/AIDS among 600 Sub-Saharan Africans (p. 138). Chapter 7 brings in a more psychological perspective, investigating children’s coping mechanisms, and how this knowledge should be applied to those affected by the impact of HIV/AIDS. Chapter 8 discusses increasing access to primary education in areas that are severely impacted by the epidemic, and more specifically, to the large number of orphans found in those regions. Chapter 9 questions the role of schools in preventing HIV/AIDS when it is found that much gender-based violence occurs in African schools. The final chapter, “UNESCO and HIV/AIDS: Ten Lessons” brings together much of the findings of this collection in one succinct listing.

This collection suggests a variety of policy, classroom and community strategies on HIV/AIDS prevention and coping with the impact of the epidemic on education. Even though the authors convincingly describe the magnitude of the problem, the articles do not address other issues that affect decision-making procedures. For example, even though it is agreed that there is an HIV/AIDS crisis and that schools should or could play a role in prevention, in many countries education is already underfinanced and undersupplied with materials and teachers. The discussion of HIV/AIDS and education is lacking in breadth by excluding the questions of viability, opportunity costs, and the effect that focusing on HIV/AIDS education will have on other aspects of education, such as financing and quality.

Duru-Bellat Marie. 2004. Social Inequality at School and Educational Policies

This extraordinary book attempts the impossible. It tries to summarise one of the most complex and most misunderstood areas of education policy. It lays out the origins of our understanding of inequalities in terms of chronological development, and it discusses inequalities within families and within schools. It then attempts to summarise our understanding of the impact of organisations and ‘feasible’ policies to open up the system. Lastly, it lays out a summary of the policies which it calls well beyond the remit of the school, but which in fact seem, such as parenting education, parallel with education policy.

The book addresses the question of the school’s role in regenerating inequality over a lifetime, and concludes that social inequalities in life “derive from many other mechanisms... and that schools intervene intermittently to correct (where possible) inequalities of opportunity among children” (p. 88). Unlike other analysts who may be more popular, this author does not try to hold schools accountable for purposes and goals to which they have not been assigned and which more reflect the personal agenda of the scholar (Heyneman, 2005). Unfortunately, the text is so very dense (perhaps because of its translation) that many who should read and learn from this book, won’t.

Fägerlind, Ingemar and Görel Strömqvist (Eds.). 2004. Reforming Higher Education in the Nordic Countries: Studies of Change in Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden

Seven chapters include cases of five nations with one chapter of background and a concluding chapter about the future of the Nordic higher education changes. In the 1980s, one might have concluded that the most significant changes in higher education policy were emanating from the United Kingdom, Australia or New Zealand. A set of liberalising macro-economic policies, in conjunction with higher expectations of public service delivery and user choice, affected health, social security, unemployment compensation, and education. Some might presume that these changes were largely confined to Anglo-Saxon nations with similarly liberalising economic policies and assumptions about competition being healthy for the public sector services. Those who hold to such assumptions should read this book carefully.

While the Nordic nations maintain very high assumptions about the role of the state in providing social welfare, and while the Nordic countries are hardly uniform, this book makes clear that they
have all radically altered their policies in higher education. Management is based on results rather than inputs; flexibility in response to demand is rewarded; and judgment is based on institutional competitiveness with domestic and international rivals and labour market clients. Education structures in the Nordic countries differ from other parts of Europe. While Sweden has developed an integrated system consisting of the entire post-secondary sector, Finland has maintained a ‘binary’ set of institutions with specialised functions and responsibilities. Distinctions between vocation-specific institutions and academic institutions have narrowed and in many instances are no longer meaningful. Perhaps most revolutionary however is the tendency for each Nordic nation to have opened up the competition for research funds and to have pioneered evaluation though organisations (FINHEEC, EVA, NOKUT, etc.) autonomous from the Ministries of Education. About future policy, the editors feel that the path is inevitable. They point out that the entire Nordic region is “tied to the global post-industrial society both culturally and economically; the role and function of universities in all the Nordic countries reflects global and international needs” (p. 261). Although some may interpret this future as a tragedy, others may see it simply as universities living up to their traditional functions. The value of this short, informative, and well-written volume is that it demonstrates that the Nordic nations are right in the main stream of higher education competition for excellence, efficiency, and equity.


The underlying thesis for this seminar and its papers is worthy of attention. As explained by the author and IIEP director, the origins of public schooling can be traced to the growth in the nation state and the need to provide some form of homogeneous experience and hence fashion a shared past and a future commonality. But nation states today are being significantly challenged (Heyneman and Todoric-Bebic, 2000), and it is not so clear as it once was that the schooling experience is inevitably positive with respect to social cohesion (Heyneman, 2000). This book reports on a symposium that discussed this issue, and is divided into three sections. The first covers the ‘general picture’—population trends and tendencies, changes in ideology, and institutional arrangements including local control, welfare benefits, and the like. The second section contains a discussion of ideal strategies with case studies of each—multicultural (such as Canada and Mexico), integrative (France), and parallel (such as Cameroon). The third section deals with the macro-influences in diversity—the influence of technology from ‘above’ and the influence of immigrant mindsets from ‘below’. Section four deals with the role of planners in terms of teacher training, educational content, language of instruction, and school organization. Section five, consisting of panel and other discussion, tries to draw conclusions from the previous discussion.

The topic chosen for this report could hardly have been more important for understanding the challenges of international education policy. Many of the essays included are certainly worthy of our attention. Among the noteworthy are Levin and Belfield’s analysis of school organisation, Braslavsky’s discussion of the sensitivity of curricular content, Inglis’ introduction to the overall challenge of the post-nation state era, and Daswani’s discussion of the ‘better or worse’ impact of education on societies facing diversity. The weakest section is the one on conclusions. For whatever reason, it seems easier to discuss ‘ideal’ types that are worthy of emulation (Cameroon) rather than the examples of those that are worthy of criticism (Northern Ireland? Bosnia?). None of the articles asks the question of what role the international community may have to play, given a case of schooling that threatens social cohesion and lays the underpinning for international conflict. Analysis remains mired in the nature of the problem and silent on the nature of the solution.


In an era of increased decentralisation, the idea that strong leadership affects the quality of education has become an important topic of discussion. This report compiles a series of studies that were presented at a seminar in 2000 on the role of head teachers in improving school management. Data were provided on head teachers in the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Pakistan, Nepal and Bangladesh. The purpose was to provide comparative information on roles and
functions, how head teachers are managed, and what the authors see as the main problems and innovations in school leadership in Asia.

Not surprisingly, the authors find that there exists much diversity among head teachers, and that there are many challenges which hinder head teachers from becoming good managers. The bulk of the report consists of a list of education policies, data on structures and administration, and roles and responsibilities regarding head teachers in the various countries. The information is provided without regard to either reader attention span or interest, and the list's purpose tends to be lost.

The final chapter provides a helpful summary of the main problems—autonomy and support, the lack of authority to hire and fire, and the lack of adequate financial resources. Specific management issues discussed include lack of in-service training and incentives. Recruitment of head teachers appears to be a hindrance, because experience is stressed over management skill, and head teachers seem to have problems coping with new powers of school management committees and parent associations (p. 136), suggesting that as their functions in Asia, as with OECD countries, broaden into new arenas, it does so with some difficulty. The chapter concludes with a listing of major innovations in structure, personnel management, training, and finances.

The conclusion provides useful lessons regarding the implementation of school-based management models and the increased role of teachers. The authors worry that the policies have been implemented as "a result of copying seemingly successful external models"; that at times the central government attempts to pass down much responsibility to the head teacher; and that policies must be site and context specific (p. 147). In addition, they claim that policies of higher expectations for head teachers having increased authority but have not been accompanied by changes in the regulations that would make that new authority legal. This mismatch between expectations in new authority and the legal basis for new authority might be the most important issue uncovered by this book.

Karim, Shahnaz, Claudia A. Santizo Rodall, and Enrique Cabrero Mendoza. 2004. Transparency in Education: Report Card in Bangladesh, Quality Schools Programme in Mexico

Transparency in Education includes two studies on corruption in education in Bangladesh and Mexico. This work is placed within an IIEP series whose framework is based on the Medium-Term Plan for 2002–2007. The objective of the series is to "improve decision-making and the management of education systems by integrating governance and corruption concerns in methodologies of planning and administration of education...it seeks to develop methodological approaches for studying and addressing the issues of corruption in education, and collect and share information on the best approaches for promoting transparency, accountability and integrity" (pp. 6–7).

The findings in Bangladesh are interesting. The authors used a Report Card survey to pick up public perceptions of corruption, both quantitatively and qualitatively, and found that corruption is rampant in the primary education system in various incarnations, including charging extra school fees, entertaining municipal office officials, etc.

The Mexican study analyses the Quality School Programme in 25 schools in five states. The QSP deconcentrated certain responsibilities to the school level and to local stakeholders in an attempt to improve the quality of schools, and to promote transparency and accountability. The authors, however, claim that this programme was "not designed with the purpose of ending specific situations where corruption could be present, but rather to contribute to fighting them" (p. 79). The authors focused on measuring the levels of transparency, accountability, and social participation in the schools sampled. The findings were generally positive, and efficiency within the schools did increase, though social participation was not as influential as the researchers had hoped. This book covers a deeply important but sensitive topic, and does so with candour and professionalism.

Levačić, Rosalind and Peter Downes. 2004. Formula Funding of Schools, Decentralization & Corruption: A Comparative Analysis

This comparative study examines the opportunities for corruption in a decentralised education system using formula funding of schools. The authors, using a questionnaire and "e-mail debate" base their work on the experiences of Australia, the United Kingdom, Poland and Brazil. The assumption this work is based on is that by decentralising education systems, increasing the local levels self-management, and increasing the levels of funding
transparency, the risk of corruption would be reduced.

The findings presented in this work are applicable to many discussions of corruption, and their use should not only be limited to readers interested in formula funding. To reduce corruption in educational administration, training of local stakeholders in the financial system is a key element. However, most of the sample found that formula finding was technically complex to a degree that made transparency and accurate understanding of the processes difficult.

Other lessons include the admonishment to collect financial data accurately. The study provides examples from countries using different strategies and technologies to ensure this. All measures to avoid instances from fraud need to be avoided as well. In addition, auditing procedures must be enacted to provide degrees of accountability to the procedures. Unfortunately, the authors were unable to find specific examples of fraud and corruption, and claim that this is because “either not much education fraud is taking place or because it is not recorded by the authorities under a separate heading. Nevertheless, it has been possible to give examples of fraud which have occurred in spite of all the procedures in place” (p. 17).

Brazil was the only example where specific examples were recorded and accessed by the researchers. Perhaps this relates to their authors’ belief that one of the most important predictors of found corruption and fraud is not the details of school finance, but the historical and cultural context of the country.

Levy, Jan S. 2004. Student Finance Schemes in Norway: A Case Study

This book consists of eight chapters. They provide the country context, a general overview of student finance since 1947, recent changes, how the system is administered, the private returns on education, alternative objectives for student finance schemes, and some general conclusions. Because of Norway’s high revenues (derived largely from petroleum exports), its low and falling population base, and its high consensus over social welfare, the private cost of attending higher education is largely limited to opportunity costs. Because of its unusual (perhaps unique) macro-economic circumstances, Norway has sufficient public resources to meet the all three objectives for higher education—increased access, increased quality, and increased equity, all publicly financed. Much of this book consists of a description of the quite effective system of student loans designed to assist students defray opportunity costs. The chapter on private returns is perhaps the most interesting. The book mentions with pride that although those with university education earn more than those who do not have university education, those with the most university education do not earn over 1.5 times those who do not have any university education alone. In fact, the author goes on to say that the low earnings differential is heavily influenced by the means testing within student finance. If higher educated graduates earned considerably more than others did, the author says, they would “have a stronger case than other groups in wage negotiations for an increase in their salaries” (p. 38). Norway’s system of universal public financing of very high quality and high access higher education may be useful to consider as an ideal for nations with similar macro-economic conditions, but one wonders what lessons might be learned by those nations whose public resources are not as adequate.

Onsomu, Eldah Nyamoita, John Njoroge Mungai, Dramane Oulai, James Sankale, and Jeddidah Mujidi. 2004. Community Schools in Kenya: Case Study on Community Participation in Funding and Managing Schools

This study is a description of the Kenyan education system, with a focus on the community schools in the urban areas of Nairobi. The authors provide information on the distinctive features of each type of school, including government/public, private, Non-Formal Education (NFE) (community schools that receive technical support from the municipal government), and community schools which do not. The tables include useful information on management, funding, registration, curricula and school fees, among other things.

The authors collaborated with Kenyan Ministry of Education officials, and the study is intended to be generalisable to other UNESCO member states. The authors focus on the community schools located in “economically deprived settlements of suburban Nairobi areas.” They find that there are approximately forty thousand students in community schools, or 17% of the total enrolment in the greater Nairobi areas.
The authors point out that most of the literature on community schools is descriptive and focuses (only) on the developing world. The authors say that community schools “are recently an important part of education in sub-Saharan Africa” (p. 11) because of the historical tradition of community schooling in the region. But an impetus for community schooling is now not historical tradition but the inability of government to provide financial and technical resources. They highlight other studies on African community schools and the role of community schools in achieving Education-for-All (EFA).

The study uses predominantly qualitative primary and secondary sources, including interviews with stakeholders. The school sample was small, focusing on only nine schools, but with a total student enrollment of 5311. The sample included four government schools, three community schools, two government/community schools, and one private school. After a description of how they vary and function, the authors provide a list (distributed by the Kenyan government and the donor community) of how they help management and supervision, lower costs, supply teaching staff, and educational materials. Based on qualitative data, their findings might best be treated as suggestive. There are, for instance, no comparisons of retention, graduation rates, or academic performance between different types of schools. Though it is suggested that community schools are sorely under-funded compared with government schools, the authors do not focus on the fact that, because they are created and supported by parents and civil society, community schools may have higher retention and graduation rates. Because this study is focused on issues of educational finance, many other questions regarding community schools in Kenya are unanswered.

There were multiple typographical errors in the text, including missing spaces and punctuation marks. The only references used were from IIEP-UNESCO, USAID, and the Kenyan government.

Ouma, Wangenge G. 2004. Education for Street Children in Kenya: The Role of the Undugu Society

Originally a Masters’ thesis, Ouma’s study includes four chapters on the role of the Undugu Society of Kenya (USK—a local non-governmental organisation) in providing education to street children. Ouma argues that USK provides an effective non-formal education mechanism for the growing number of children who are unable or unwilling to attend public schools. The author investigates the characteristics of street children and describes the learning environment of the USK schools. USK schools are located in the slums, provide free meals to its students, and generally employ qualified teachers and encounter many difficulties. Of primary concern are the lack of financial security, inadequate teaching materials, and lack of parental, community and learner involvement and participation.


The Education for All (EFA) initiative contained plans and targets of many kinds, eventually including most of the special interests within the education sector. Vocational skill training for out-of-school youth and adults is one of them. The question is whether a nation, so poor that it has difficulty supplying opportunity for children of formal school age, could design and implement a program of universal vocational skill training in addition. Plans were drawn up for four pilot projects in Nepal, Lao Democratic Peoples Republic, Mali and Senegal. A seminar to discuss the plans and their results was held in Paris in January of 2004; this book is the result of that seminar.

The book contains chapters on the background to the project, country presentations, thematic discussions and the relationship between adult skills development and the EFA process. Of the 97 pages, 14 are dedicated to a list of acronyms, names of those attending the conference, and the agenda. The summary, however, was surprisingly candid for a meeting consisting mostly of vocational and technical education personnel, all with interests to see a programme for adult vocational skills expanded. For Senegal: “Overall the conditions required for implementation of more ambitious skills development programmes are lacking” (p. 27). For Mali: “Despite recent efforts, Mali’s current vocational training system remains under-developed” (p. 44). For Nepal: “The institutional arrangements and the budget provisions required to implement the policies and plans are seriously lacking” (p. 36).

The book’s drawback is that it does not face up to its own findings. The question of whether it is justified to add adult vocational schooling to the already daunting task of finding sufficient resources for basic education for all is never asked. Nor, when
the quite negative results arrive, is the question raised as to whether such a priority, regardless of its merits in general, is appropriate within the context of EFA. A more courageous book would have had to face that reality.

Shattock, Michael (Ed.), Evgeni Kniazev; Nikolay Pelikhov; Aljona Sandgren; and Nikolai Toivonen. *Entrepreneurialism and the Transformation of Russian Universities.*

This interesting volume is the outgrowth of a project sponsored by the European Union. The project itself coordinated activities of 15 higher education institutions, including one in Stockholm and another in London. Its original purpose was to encourage ‘good practice’ in the participating universities. But as the project went on, the editor notes, it was noticed that while ‘chaos’ was not inaccurate as a characterisation of the sector, in fact Russian higher educational institutions had adapted to extraordinary challenges and had initiated new creative forms unknown in the west and deserving of attention to a wider audience. Hence, this volume.

The book lists 37 contributors and is divided into five sections. The first, called an introduction, is far more than that. It contains articles on the nature of entrepreneurialism in a context when all societal institutions are being challenged and radically shifting, an article on the changing nature of how the federal government funds universities, and one on the political economy of higher education. The second part contains six articles on strategic management within Russian universities—their strategies in approaching the new educational markets, the particular problems of a technical university, and the changing nature of universities and regional authorities. This latter issue, noted 8 years ago (Heyneman, 1997), is the subject of the five articles in a separate section. There is a section on non-state income, and a final section on internationalisation and academic mobility which includes issues of cross-national labour markets, cooperation across universities (all government-funded), and a final question about whether the Bologna process is a ‘dream or a reality’.

The editor’s supposition is basically correct. Russian universities and administrators have demonstrated an extraordinary degree of innovation and professional commitment in an environment of massive change; they have jettisoned many administratively dead programmes and instituted many new creative curricula. The strength of Russian higher education is obvious within this book. Mirroring the new economy, higher education institutions have fashioned dozens of independent solutions to the lack of insufficient public resources. They have offered services to private companies. They have begun to appeal to private oligarchs for donations. They have successfully garnered many programmes of foreign assistance from Western Europe. They have raised tuitions and fees in rapid response to labour markets, and they have quickly priced their programmes in conjunction with demand. More importantly, Russian universities have shown a surprising level of internal managerial innovation in terms of fashioning faculty salaries, cross-subsidisation from one field to another, and decentralisation.

The problem with this book is its infatuation with survival, and inattention to sustainability. The fact that Russian universities play a role in regional development is comparatively unimportant when the regions themselves are subservient to central authorities. Without taxation independence, regions will never have the wherewithal to fashion proper regional higher education institutions. The book also bypasses the gaps in Russian university governance. How are the new resources generated by universities to be reported to the public? The book is silent on the issues of corruption, university transparency, and accountability. None of the authors ask how should universities be taxed? How should universities acquire clear ownership over their property, so necessary for collateral in borrowing for capital investment? What should be the legal distinction between for- and not-for-profit universities? How are Russian universities fashioning long-term capital campaigns, endowments portfolios, and research strategies? How are universities positioning themselves, as are Chinese universities, for the international competition for international prestige in generating new knowledge. As laudable as Russian universities are, to read this book one would think that the research function of universities did not exit. The lesson from this book is clear. While they have survived, the road to sustainability is long and Russian universities have a long way to go.


Nepal is currently trying to achieve Education For All (EFA) by developing a non-formal education
the Ministry of Education is structured and the range of NFE programmes available in Nepal, and it lists the donors involved in funding and implementing NFE programs. Compared with the Kenyan community school study, this work more specifically compares the functioning of the out-of-school program (OSP) with mainstream education. The authors describe the socio-economic factors affecting school-age children in Nepal, although the conclusions are based on tracer study data that are eight-years old and may not be reliable.

The analysis includes a very detailed description of the OSP, including infrastructure, unit costs, and comparison of OSP, primary education curriculum and learning outcomes. Though there are many constraints to the OSP (child, household, and administrative factors), the authors claim that “the OSP succeeded in providing educational opportunities to children, especially to females, to meet their basic learning needs” (p. 101). This analysis includes both qualitative and quantitative data, and provides a comprehensive picture of the OSP and Nepalese education. However, it fails to address the obvious question stemming from the OSP results as to whether NFE is an acceptable mechanism for achieving EFA, in lieu of formal education.


With a few exceptions—the Philippines, the US, and Latin America—government provision of higher education was virtually the norm until the 1980s. Today however, private higher education is available virtually everywhere. Only in Western Europe does higher education remain a state monopoly. But knowing that private higher education is burgeoning is hardly enough to understand it. Questions about it include how it is financed, what subject matter is offered, to what extent it rivals public higher education, what is the level of its quality, and whether it reduces or increases equity of higher education access. These were some of the background questions to this seminar, held in Georgia in 2002, and the papers published in this book.

The book itself consists of an introduction and a general essay on ownership, plus a series of case illustrations from the Russian Federation, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Kenya and Bangladesh. Commonalities across countries may outnumber differences. Private higher education helps absorb unmet public demand. Student life is more ‘peaceful’ than at large, often more politically active public universities. Private universities offer more flexible and responsive curricula, whereas public universities are likely to be burdened by more administrative constraints. In addition, private universities offer a choice, particularly to the growing middle classes who have sufficient disposable income to afford it.

But there are differences too. In Bangladesh, private universities are legally registered as not-for-profit organisations, whereas in other cases, particularly in the former Soviet Union (McLendon, 2004) the term private university is synonymous with being a proprietary school. Private universities differ in the degree to which they derive income from anything other than tuition and fees, or whether they engage in any function other than teaching.

This book leaves important issues unaddressed. There is no mention of tax status and the degree to which private universities are treated as simply another business. There is no mention of corruption. There is no analysis within specific institutional categories. Is it possible, for instance, that foreign branches (outposts of UCLA in Tbilisi, for instance) operate in ways distinct from universities which have been established by international institutions (Central European University or the American University in Central Asia); and are these two types divergent in important ways from those universities which are family owned? Is there a continuum with respect to level of administrative autonomy? Private universities in Bangladesh and Kenya control their own curriculum, but in Kazakhstan curriculum in private universities is still within the purview of the Ministry of Education. To what extent can private universities admit the number and kind of students on their own authority and to what extent are admission decisions made for them? To what extent do private universities set the level of their tuition and fees, pay salaries according to their own criteria, open and close their teaching sessions on their own time schedules. So different are the circumstance of private universities that the term ‘private’ may no
longer be meaningful as a category. These differing characteristics are evident within the case studies in this book, but not in the summary.

**West, Robert C. 2004. Education and Sector-Wide Approaches in Namibia**

Critics of development assistance have sometimes suggested that projects are led by external agencies, are unco-ordinated with local authorities, and divorced from their support. Education Sector-Wide Approaches (SWAPs) were designed to counteract these tendencies. SWAPs are defined as a mechanism ‘where all significant funding supports a single sector plan under government leadership’ (p. 25). SWAPs are intended to reduce transaction costs and ministry workloads. This book is intended to illustrate whether a SWAP approach has worked in Namibia. While the author is positive about the quality of working relations and communication between donor and recipient, his general conclusions are pessimistic.

West provides detailed descriptions of the education system in Namibia, including an historical context. These descriptions are overly detailed, especially in its account of the progress made or not made within the system, leading to concerns of generalisability to other contexts. He provides a summary of the experience and the effect and further need of SWAP on various areas. He ends with a list of 10 recommendations for the education in Namibia. The larger question, again, is unaddressed: If SWAPs fail to ensure recipient ‘buy in’ to an externally financed plan of improvement, what can?

**Woodhall, Maureen. 2004. Cost-Benefit Analysis in Educational Planning**

Thirty-five years ago, the IIEP published this guidebook. They have now published it again on the grounds that it is as relevant today as it was before. While there is a plethora of alternative sources for cost-benefit assumptions and methods available today, there are few other sources with the same degree of clarity and good common sense about how and why to measure economic costs and benefits with methods, which are universally available and tangible. The author is among the gems in Comparative Education. She is widely known for her explanations that are free of unnecessary jargon, acronyms and statistical models. This edition has an important new section that includes the ‘objections to cost-benefit analyses’.

Concerning this issue the book is inadequate. It includes three of the most prevalent criticisms (i) methodological weaknesses, (ii) incomplete coverage, inadequate reporting of results, and (iii) non-comparability of studies, but it fails to mention the more telling problems. These stem from the fact that rate of return results cover only one of four relevant categories of questions whose answers are necessary before making investments in the education sector. Rate of return data cover issues of (i) horizontal expansion, but (ii) vertical expansion in quality, (iii) expansion of specialised learning programmes, or (iv) the returns from an investment in a change (introduction of standardised examinations or contracting for private provision of educational equipment and reading materials for instance) (Heyneman, 1995). The author remains appropriately devoted to economic techniques, but says little about the political or economic cost of errors in judgment (such as the suggestion to shift public resources away from higher education). It is important that the IIEP recognise the contribution of economic analysis; but it is also important that the IIEP recognise the costs of simplicity in operational inexperience. The reader will garner the former from this important book, but not the latter.

**Conclusion**

Although we have not reviewed all of the books published in 2004, our review does cover 60% of them and hence, a few overall impressions may be justified. Over the years, IIEP has undergone many changes. Nevertheless its programme of publications has remained a mainstay, and the products continue to reflect broader purposes and reveal IIEP’s strengths as well as some of its problems.

The first question, which occurs to us, is the breadth of coverage. The publications try to cover so many topics and priorities, that no matter what the organisation, it would seem difficult to maintain quality standards across them all. Standards for usefulness of the publications in fact differ substantially. Some would seem pointless to all but the least discerning of readers; others seem pioneering. How might the outside reader tell the difference?

A second question concerns financing. Nine (40%) of the 22 books we reviewed were financed
by external organisations. If budget were not a constraint, if IIEP could determine the titles for its publications solely on its own authority, would the titles which we reviewed be the same? One would seriously hope not. Many titles seem to reflect the interests of the financing organisation more than the demand of the profession itself.

This is too bad. While IIEP claims to serve the interests of its ‘member states’, which include virtually all countries, in reality it has become a specialised donor agency for ‘developing’ countries. Its publications reflect that. But over the years developing countries have changed. They are not isolated from other sources of information on educational planning. During the cold war, IIEP publications were the sole source of professional dialogue in many parts of the world; but that era is over. Today, IIEP has no monopoly. Countries, including ‘developing’ countries, can go to many sophisticated sources. Given these changes in access to information, what unique role is there for IIEP publications? Being confined to developing countries, publications of IIEP confine themselves to a small part of the world of education planning, and may have isolated themselves from important developments.

We found that many publications posed the right questions but avoided discussing the ramifications of the answers. There appears to be a gap in the degree to which these publications offer a dialogue. Although IIEP cannot duplicate a major publishing house, nor can it seek new knowledge as a major university, it need not mirror the views and publications of other donor agencies.

It might be well to develop a new purpose. It might be useful for IIEP to circulate intelligent yet provocative works which challenge commonly held views in the profession as well as other agencies. It might be well for it to challenge the commonly held views within ‘developing’ countries about themselves. And it might be useful for it to engage with educational issues of concern in industrialised democracies. Given what we have read from 2004, it may be time for IIEP to ratchet up its level of innovation and to live up to standards of dialogue not based on the needs of some countries but based on the needs of the professional community more generally.

Appendix A

For each review see Table A1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Series</th>
<th>Financial Sponsors of Publication Costs</th>
<th>Book</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Table A1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Series</th>
<th>Financial Sponsors of Publication Costs</th>
<th>Book</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mechanisms and strategies of educational finance</td>
<td>UNESCO and several member states</td>
<td>Onsomu, Eldah Nyamoita, John Njoroge Mungai, Dramange Oulai, James Sankale, and Jeddah Mujidi. 2004. <em>Community</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table A1 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Series</th>
<th>Financial Sponsors of Publication Costs</th>
<th>Book</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quality education for all</td>
<td>UNESCO and several member states</td>
<td><em>Schools in Kenya: Case Study on Community Participation in Funding and Managing Schools.</em> Paris: UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning. IIEP Working Document</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>