Community Participation in Schools in Developing Countries: Characteristics, Methods and Outcomes

Qualifying Paper

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0.0. Acronyms and Abbreviations

Acronyms and Abbreviations	Meanings
ACE	Asociación Comunal para la Educación
AECO	Asociación Educativa Communitaria
AGE	Apoyo a la Gestion Eescolar
APE	Students Parents Association
APF	Associaciones de padres y familias
ASIF	The American Social Investment Fund
ASP	Autonomous School Program
BRAC	Bangladesh Rural Agriculture Committee
CRS	Catholic Relief Services
CS	Community School
CSAP-Ethiopia	Community School Activities Project
CSAP- Ghana	Community School Alliance Project
EDUCO	Educación con Participaión de la Communidad
EFA	Education for All
ERNWACA	Education Research Network for West and Central Africa
FAF	**Malagasy acronym for Parent-school partnership association**
FRAM	**Malagasy acronym for Association of Parents of Students**
GS	Government School
HH	Household
HRBA	Human Rights-Based Approach
NGO	Non-governmental organization
PBS	Pastoral Basic School
PROHECO	Proyecto Hondureno de Educación Comunitaria
PRONADE	National Community-managed Program for Educational Development
PTA	Parents Teachers Association
SARA	Support for Analysis and Research in Africa
SBM	School-based Management
SC	Save the Children
SDC	Social Development Committee
SMC	School Management Committee
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNHCHR	United Nations High Commission on Human rights
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WE	World Education

1.0. Introduction

This study examines evaluations of participatory approaches in developing countries[1] that involved communities in the decision making processes of schools. It aims to better understand the characteristics of community participation across diverse settings, the results attributed to participation, and the methods used by the studies reviewed. Using a human rights-based approach, it critiques the current approaches to community in school as practiced by the models in the study and offers an alternate model, fulticipation, as a way to improve the effectiveness of community participation. This paper is distinct from other reviews of this body of literature (Nielsen, 2007; Naidoo & Kong, 2003; Watt, 2001; Bray, 2000; Leithwood & Menzies, 1998; Rugh & Bossert, 1998) in its focus only on evaluations from developing countries and the use of a rights-based approach as a framework for analysis. In so doing it goes beyond the analysis of the reviewed programs to look at implications for rights and the implications of using a rights-based approach.

The review identifies 19 major decisions related to six areas of school functioning in which communities participate but finds that actual participation is concentrated primarily in building, maintaining and resourcing schools and monitoring teachers and budgets. Where communities participate, there are improved school facilities, increased accountability among school personnel, and improved capacity of participants. Together these contribute to increased student access, retention, and academic performance of students. At community and school levels concerns persist regarding the extent to which issues of equity are addressed and the extent to which capacity is enhanced beyond those who directly participate in school governance. I also find that the effect of participation at student and community levels remain narrowly defined and measured.

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[1] I am aware of the contested nature of the term 'developing countries' and share many of the concerns about the use of the term and the false dichotomy it creates. However, the alternate terms - south/north, third world, industrialized/non-industrialized and rich/poor - are as problematic (see discussion in Phillips and Schweisfurth, 2007).

The range of models and results which are described in this paper demonstrate that in order to be effective, participatory approaches must consider a number of factors including what (issues, decisions, and levels of involvement), who (represents the community), where (location in which participation occurs) and how these factors fit together. Like education, participation can become a tool that is used to perpetuate social inequalities and reinforce the illusion that social injustices are unalterable facts of life (Freire 2001). According to Hickey and Mohan (2005), this is likely where participatory approaches fail to address the issues of power and politics by giving insufficient focus to structures of injustice and oppression and treat participation as a technical method while ignoring its political dimensions. This assessment is applicable to most of the models I reviewed; most fail to define community and do not take cognizance of how politics, historical factors, social status and issues of power and privilege shape communities and who represents them. None of the models reviewed used a rights-based approach or was evaluated from that perspective. However, this analysis helps clarify how a rights-based approach to community participation in education would contribute to improved student, school and community outcomes beyond those resulting from using traditional approaches. I conclude that a rights-based framework lends itself to the possibility that the fulfillment of participation rights can serve three inter-related functions: meet local and global education goals; sustainably fulfill other social and cultural rights; and, empower communities. To this end I propose 'fulticipation' as a model for thinking about rights-based community participation.

Research Questions

Three questions guided this review:

1. *What are the chief characteristics of community participation in schools in developing countries?*

2. *What results do students, schools, and communities achieve when communities participate in schools?*

3. *What methods are used in measuring the effectiveness of community participation in schools by the selected studies? What outcomes are emphasized in these evaluations?*

Approach, significance and organization

This paper addresses the research questions by reviewing evaluations of models of community participation in schools in developing countries and offering a critique using a human rights-based approach (HRBA). In answering the research questions, it is hoped that this paper makes a contribution to understanding the characteristics of models that facilitate community participation in schools, the effects attributed to these models, and the common ways these models are studied. It should also provide a vision of how rights-based approaches can empower communities by creating effective avenues of participation.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. The next section provides a conceptual framework for the paper by reviewing literature on the human right-based approach and community participation in education, defining participation and community from a rights perspective and, reviewing some literature on school-based management (SBM), the dominant school-level mechanism through which communities participate. The third section describes the research design and the data that informs the study. The fourth section discusses the findings by research question. Each question is answered by first summarizing pertinent findings followed by a discussion from a rights perspective. The fifth section is a summary of the major findings and lessons learnt from the review with analysis using a rights-based approach. The sixth section provides a preliminary rights-based model for community participation in schools while the seventh section concludes with a synthesis of the overall findings and implications for future work.

2.0   Conceptual and Theoretical Considerations

A Human Rights Based Approach

The quality of education and other social supports provided in a country is inextricably linked to, among other things, the way the social systems are structured, the values that underpin the systems, and the extent to which existing political mechanisms allow the citizens to understand and influence the structure of the social system. Oftentimes the structures and their attendant processes are deemed blameless; failings of the system which affect citizens are treated as problems of the individuals and the response is the provision of services which treat social problems as individual failures. This deficit or welfare approach does not question the structural mechanisms and (flawed) systematic designs which prevent citizens from leading fulfilling lives.

In contrast to this deficit model, the human-rights based approach (HRBA) to development treats social problems as the results of socio-economic exclusion and focuses on the structural mechanisms that prevent citizens from accessing their entitlements (Oxfam America, 2001; Mitlin & Patel, 2005). The HRBA analyses situations based on a country's obligation to protect the rights[2] of individuals, empower people to demand justice (as a right) and provides communities with a moral basis for claiming entitlements (Nyamu-Musembi & Cornwall, 2004). The United Nations High Commission on Human Rights (UNHCHR) defines an HRBA to development as "a conceptual framework for the process of human development that is normatively based on international human rights standards and operationally directed to promoting and protecting human rights…[by integrating] the norms, standards and principles of the international human rights system into the plans, policies and processes of development," (¶ 1). While HRBA to development emerged in the

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[2] Rights are entitlements, legitimized by social structures and norms, which a person or group can claim from a group or institution (see Mitlin and Patel, 2005).

post-Cold War era of the early 1990s as a formal approach to development, the basic principles of rights-based approaches reflect the struggles for self-definition and social justice which have long been features of the political movements in developing countries (Nyamu-Musembi & Cornwall, 2002). Approaching development from this perspective requires linkages to and application of the human rights declarations and conventions chief among which are the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966), and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966)[3], the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1988) and the UN Declaration on the Right to Development (1986).

According to Hellum and Derman (2004) the provisions of the rights declarations and conventions fall into three categories or generations of human rights: civil and political rights (the right to participation, and the right to equality and nondiscrimination); economic, social, and cultural (ESC) rights (the right to health and education); and, solidarity rights (the right to development and the right to healthy environment). Rights are also thought of as positive or negative depending on the action required for their protection: negative rights require only that government refrains from violation (includes many economic, social and cultural rights) while positive rights (including civil, political and some ESC rights) require action to provide mechanisms for their fulfilment, (Green, 2001).

Over the last two decades HRBA has become increasingly visible in the work of most international development agencies - even while some of these organizations struggle to accept accountability for their negative impact on the fulfillment of rights globally (Nyamu-Musembi & Cornwall, 2002). Though development agencies define and apply HRBA differently, HRBAs are generally undergirded by the core principles of, universality

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[3] These three conventions form the International Bill of Human Rights (cited 4/5/08: http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Publications/FactSheet2Rev.1en.pdf)

and inalienability, indivisibility and interdependence, accountability, and participation (Theis, 2004; UNICEF 2004; UN, 2003). According to UNICEF (2004), the universality and inalienability of human rights means everyone has rights that can neither be voluntarily given up nor taken away. UNICEF explains indivisibility as equal status of all rights while interdependence and inter-relatedness connotes the connectedness of rights – realization of (or failure to realize) one right depends fully or partially on the realization of another. These principles, with their emphasis on equality and inter-connectedness, establish the communal and shared nature of rights. The principle of accountability requires specific performance measures, a duty holder owing performance, a rights holder owed performance and mechanisms for redress (Mokiber, 2001).

Participation has the unique role of being both a right and a core principle which underpins the process by which other rights are fulfilled. This is provided for by Article 27 of the UDHR and Article 25 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights which entitle citizens to participate in public affairs and decision making processes (UNHCR, 1996). A rights-based framework honors these principles and allows people to change the way they see themselves vis-à-vis government and the formal power structure; it reframes "problems" as "violations" which are neither inevitable nor tolerable (Oxfam America, 2001). It suggests that rights holders[4] can seek redress when violations occur and duty-holders must explain why violations happen and act to prevent recurrence. This partially explains the HRBA's emphasis on the development of the capacities of duty-holders and rights holders, local ownership of development processes, the use of community resources, capacity building, and sustainability (Theis, 2004). In so doing, citizens are

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[4] "Rights holders" are those who can make claims on others or institutions for the 'fulfillment' of their rights while "duty holders" are those with a duty to respect (refrain from actively depriving), duty to protect (not allow third parties to deprive others of their rights), and the duty to fulfill (create systems and infrastructure to guarantee rights). These sometimes overlap.

empowered in ways that allow them to make demands on established structures and are better able to live fulfilled lives.

Those who critique the HRBA argue that the shift in power relations required for successful implementation seldom occurs, global agreements are sometimes not enforceable in national courts or implementable within limited national resources, and global accountability mechanisms are inefficient (see Gaventa, 2006; Nyamu-Musembi & Cornwall, 2004; Theis, 2004). They suggest that the poor and marginalized are the least likely to access institutions set up to enforce rights. Others suggest that the political and conflictual nature of rights is not always addressed as a central issue for those working in development. For example, Miller, VeneKlasen & Clark (2005) argue that rights are pursued as part of a messy process of development and change where group rights conflict and compete. They argue that questions remain unanswered about HRBA's application in practice and the lessons it draws from other participatory approaches.

Despite its many weaknesses, a rights-based approach provides an entry point for analysis of the ways in which power imbalances prevents the excluded from enjoying secure and sustainable livelihoods and establishes an internationally agreed framework for strengthening the accountability of institutions, (Mitlin and Patel, 2005; Cornwall, personal communication 2009). Getting the state and its institutions to think of themselves as violators as opposed to simply viewing social problems as individual failures holds transformative implications for development. The central focus that rights-based approaches give to people reduces the likelihood that duty-holders can practice deficit approaches that react to symptoms of problems. The rights-based approach holds a greater possibility of helping to build sustainable structures and capacities to support equitable human development.

Participation within a rights framework

"Every person and all peoples are entitled to active, free and meaningful participation in, contribution to, and enjoyment of civil, economic, social, cultural and political development in which human rights and fundamental freedoms can be realized" (UNICEF 2004, 92).

This paper uses Catholic Relief Services (CRS) definition of participation: "a process through which stakeholders influence and guide development initiatives and the decision and resources that affect them" (CRS 2004, 11). While adopting this definition, it is also useful to consider participation continua developed by Arnstein (1969) and Shaeffer (1994) (in Bray, 2000) to help define the variations in participation (Table 1). Arnstein suggests manipulation as the lowest form and citizen control, a reversal of power, the highest form of participation. Shaeffer suggests 'use of service' as the lowest level and 'decision making at every stage' as the highest form of participation. However, in order for stakeholders to effectively "guide development initiatives", as is their right, there should be mechanisms to help communities engage and sustain their participation; neither Arnstein's nor Shaeffer's taxonomy provides for this support.

Table 1: The Participation Continuum

	Arnstein (1969) Ladder of citizen participation	Shaeffer (1994) Ladder for analysis of participation in education
	Citizen control	Participation in real decision-making at every stage (from identification to evaluation)
	Delegated power	Implementation of delegated powers
	Partnership	Delivery of service
	Placation	Consultation on particular issues
	Consultation	Involvement through contribution (extraction) of resources
	Informing	Attendance and receipt of information (implying passive acceptance)
	Therapy	Use of service
	Manipulation	

Source: Developed from data in Bray (2000).

As a positive right, rights-holders must be aware of their participation rights and the mechanisms created to enable access. One key implication, asserts UNICEF, is that "people are recognized as key actors in their own development, rather than passive recipients of

commodities and services" (93) through empowering strategies that build local ownership and reduces disparity and marginalization. When participation is approached from this perspective communities' members are empowered to challenge and change the structures that shape their existence and fulfill other economic, social and cultural rights.

School-community within a rights framework

In this paper community refers to a group of people from a common geographic area(s), with shared use of an educational institution, and at least de facto agreement on the form and function of education. In addition to students, parents and members of the geographic areas from which students are drawn, the school community includes private, public and other interests that provide a service to the school. Hence, the school is an intersection of interests in education that brings the diverse groups together to form a school-community.

The community has contributive and distributive purposes; there are individual responsibilities to the community and community responsibilities to the individual (Willie, 2006). However, differences in ethnicity, race, religion, socio-economic status, and power fuel divisions which are replicated in and by education systems (Rose, 2003; Watt, 2001; Bray, 2000). This contributes to the marginalization of some groups and, in some places, community conflicts. A human rights-based approach can allow schools and other social institutions to focus on the shared humanity of a group and ensure that institutions do not further violate the rights of members. In so doing, it can increase the chances of inclusion regardless of economic, social and cultural differences. As Willie (2006) suggests, community members are inter-dependent though this is often not recognized or optimized. A rights-based approach could help community members better understand their connectedness and empower them to act to claim their rights.

Community participation and education reform

Community participation in, even control of, education pre-dates public compulsory schooling given that education was historically family- and community- based. Governmental responsibility for education started in the 19th century and became the norm in the mid-20th century – this was often done by taking control of or building on a system that was run by non-state actors (Bray, 2000). While Bray correctly identifies this practice as an illustration of the long history of partnership in education, it also illustrates decentralized origin of education systems in many countries.

With increased government control, community participation decreased. This was further compounded in many developing countries by colonial rule that not only failed to develop mechanisms for the participation of parents and communities, but excluded the majority of these populations from accessing an education. In fact, in most of these countries real control rested with the colonizing government oceans away - this in part gave rise to some of the initial protests and agitation for rights, long before the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). Additionally, in some countries the school/community disconnect was a bi-product of the 'professionalization' of education: teachers, as professionals, viewed communities as inadequately prepared to contribute productively and so separated themselves from communities. Hence, while professionalization was geared towards providing 'a better education' it exempted input from the people for whom education was being provided.

Over the last two and half decades, efforts to improve access, governance and outcomes of educational systems have given renewed focus to educational decentralization - transfer of some form of authority from a central body to local levels (Naidoo and Kong, 2003). Distinctions can be made in terms of the form, functional activities, geographic level

(national to sub-national to local) and the type and amount of power that is transferred. Decentralization facilitates community participation most directly when decision making is devolved to the school level. This is referred to as site- or school- based management (SBM), and is "a form of decentralization that identifies the individual school as the primary unit of improvement and relies on the redistribution of decision-making authority as the primary means through which improvement might be stimulated and maintained" (World Bank, 2007a, 2). The amount of power that is devolved to schools under SBM varies but ranges from a single area of autonomy to complete control at school level. The typical areas of decision-making that are devolved to school control include budget allocation, personnel management (including the hiring and firing of school staff), pedagogy, school maintenance, and the monitoring and evaluation of teacher performance and student learning (see UNESCO 2009; World Bank, 2007a; di Gropello, 2006). If truly empowered to influence and guide decisions on these issues, communities would not only fulfill their participation rights but reshape their education systems.

While formal decentralization through SBM occurred primarily in formal school systems, a growing number of organizations are establishing and managing "community schools." Community schools are usually created with the community to fill needs that are not met by the formal system (Watt, 2001; Miller-Grandvaux & Yoder, 2002). Communities control most aspects of the school including recruiting and paying teachers, approving curriculum, financing, and procuring materials. These schools are mostly in rural areas of developing countries that are not served by the formal education system. Usually they are absorbed into the formal school system after a period of operation.

SBM and community schools represent the primary ways through which communities participate in schools. While community schools are concentrated in areas

where the right to access education is not being met, their larger purposes, in addition to providing access to education, are consistent with the goals of increased efficiency and accountability, broadened democratization and community participation, power redistribution, resource mobilization, and increased responsiveness to local needs that SBM aims to foster (McGinn & Welsh, 1999, in Naidoo & Kong, 2003). These aims are also consistent with some of the principles of HRBA and show a congruence of purpose between educational decentralization reforms and HRBA to development. However, while goals are similar, the extent to which the implementation of SBM and community schools actually includes meaningful community participation remains contested.

Why community participation in schools?

According to the World Bank (2007a), quality and timeliness in the delivery of services will be enhanced where clients can hold providers accountable. This principle undergirds a lot of the thinking around the benefits of community involvement in schools. Watt (2001) argues that accommodating "the concerns, needs and interests of communities in education planning and management can help to generate strong demand for education, and improve enrolment, attainment and achievement" (1). The positive correlation between community participation in schools and outcomes for students, schools, and communities is confirmed by research from diverse settings including Latin America (DeSteffanno, 2006; Vegas, 2005), North America (Henderson & Mapp 2002; Epstein, 1997), Sub-saharan Africa (Watt, 2001), and south-east Asia (Mozumder & Halim, 2006). The relationships forged as part of community and parental involvement also go a long way in determining the culture, pedagogy and overall perception of students (Epstein, 1997; Noguera, 2001). These findings are supported by Henderson and Mapp (2002), who found, in the USA, "a positive and

convincing relationship between family involvement and benefits for students, including improved academic achievement" (24) which hold regardless of student age or family background. Bray (2000) and Rugh & Bossert (1998) report increased community interest in education, and increased equity in access to education for marginalized groups as benefits of community participation in schools. Another benefit which Colley (2005) observed in rural Gambia is "few disciplinary problems" – a finding of the parent involvement research from the US as well (see Henderson and Mapp, 2002). In Ethiopa, Edo, Ali & Perez (2002) report improved relevance of learning material, improved capacity of local NGOs, and improved access for women and persons with disabilities. However, probably of greatest interest to resource constrained developing countries is the potential of community participation to lower costs to the state of providing education by diversifying the funding base and shifting some costs to the communities.

The participation of communities seems to hold the potential to fulfill rights to education. However, Anderson (1998) suggests that access to governance structures which community participation provides might not affect decision making but results in contrived collegiality, reinforced privilege and greater control of participants. Bacharch & Botwinick (1992) even question whether participation isn't antithetical to equality arguing that "Any system that call for more than minimal participation will favor the active over the apathetic and the rich over the poor....Participation is inegalitarian," (in Anderson 1998, 23). This is consistent with one of the perennial concerns about community participation, elite capture: local notables dominate to the disadvantage of other members of the community (Chapman, Barcikowski et al. 2002). This is a grave concern. However, participation is not by its nature 'inegalitarian'; the problem rests with the distribution of social resources based on level of participation in contexts where participatory mechanisms do not allow for equity in access.

The potential benefit of a HRBA is to frame failure to access social resources as rights violations and demand the systematic building of mechanisms for empowered participation.

3.0 Research Methodology

Research design

The study is a review of literature on community[5] participation in primary and secondary schools in developing countries. The review includes research on community/school partnership, school-based management, local governance, and education decentralization. Terms such as 'community-school partnerships', 'community partnerships in education', 'school-based management', 'community schools', and 'community involvement in schools' were used to carryout a comprehensive search for empirical studies from developing countries published in English from 1998 to 2008. Two primary search strategies were followed. The first strategy entailed searching academic databases such as JSTOR, HOLLIS, Academic Search Premier, ERIC and the databases of international development agencies and journals. The second strategy comprised backward and forward searches: using documents acquired through strategy one to identify works cited and subsequent publications citing them. In addition, I contacted six authors of studies identified with the previous two strategies to request recommendations of other works to consider. This strategy yielded few studies beyond those already found but confirmed that I had identified the most salient studies in the field. This increases the likelihood that the studies in this paper are representative of the body of evaluations of models of participatory approaches published in English over the last ten years.

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[5] Initiatives that involve only parents are not included; there must be room for non-parents even if actual participants are all parents.

A subset of the studies identified from the strategies described above was selected as follows. First, a preliminary screening was done to ensure the studies contained information pertinent to the review. Secondly, a "methodological quality screen" (Villegas, 2006, 7) was applied to examine research design, sampling methods, data collection, selection of interventions, and data analysis. During this process the documents were grouped as low, medium or high priority (Villegas, 2006) based on their fit with the criteria (see Appendix 3). Documents that were clearly not a fit were excluded; those that were consistent with the criteria (high priority) were entered into a database. Medium priority documents were screened again at a later stage – some were included on a second or third screening.

This process yielded 36 studies of 21 models from 20 countries; multiple studies were included on 8 models. Two of the studies are cost effectiveness (Tietjen, 1999) or cost benefit analysis (Desteffano, Hartwell, Moore, & Benbow, 2006). Eleven of the models included were community schools and eight were community participation within formal systems. However, not all studies investigated defined models: five were studies of the effect of participation on education access and quality by ERNWACA, USAID and SARA[6](2002); one assessed the effects of participation on parents (DelAgnello, 2005); one evaluated the effect of a social investment fund (Chase, 2002); and one focused on community funding of education (Bray 1999). The studies included in the review are summarized in Table 2 with a more detailed presentation including purpose and methodology in Appendix 1.

Analytic Strategy

I first read and created a database with detailed notes related to my research questions and memos on analytic themes on each study. I used Maxwell's (2005) suggestion

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[6] They are cited in the paper as individual studies - Amevigbe, Tchamegnon, Kodjo, and Finou (2002); Baku and Agyman (2002); Kom, Tankwe, Ngamo and Tala (2002); Salami and Kpamegan (2002); and, Sangare and Diarra (2002) - to reduce risk of confusion.

of developing "organizational, substantive and theoretical" (97) categories and organized the data into a number of matrices by question (Khan, F. 2005). I developed matrices on types of participation, who participates, context, initiation, and participatory mechanisms (for Question 1); student (academic and non-academic), school, and community outcomes by study (for Question 2); and, study methods and purpose (for Question 3). These matrices allowed me to disaggregate the data in ways that were useful for my analysis.

The aim was not to answer each question with every study but to review a body of evidence that would allow me to identify general patterns related to each question. Nevertheless, given the nature of the first and third questions, most studies contributed to answering them. Question 2 shows wide variation in terms of the number of studies contributing to answering each aspect of it.

Table 2: Brief description of studies included in the study by model and author

Intervention Studied / Author(s)	Program Description	Types and Mechanisms for Participation
Decentralized Service Delivery Brinkerhoff with Keener (2003)	Parent-school partnership association (FAF) decreed in 2002; Madagascar government-community partnership for school development.	FAF: manages funds from govt. and liaise with community; FRAM - management committee of parents and students: hires and pays teachers. Community elects leaders.
Save the Children (SC) Community Schools (CS) - Carneal (2004) - Muskin (1999)	Community managed and resourced schools which teach a curriculum relevant to the local context.	SMC: manages schools; contribute to contents of the curriculum; pay two teachers and mobilize resources. Village appoint members
Armenian Social Investment Fund Chase (2002)	ASIF mobilize communities to address local needs.	Communities develop and submit proposals for a community service; communities provide 10% of project cost and a management mechanism
Parent Governors Chikoko, V. (2008)	School Dev Committee (SDC) established to govern affairs of non-government schools.	SDC: establish and assist operation of sch. (hire staff). Members: 5 elected Parent Governors (Chair), sch. leader and deputy, a teacher and a councilor.
Brazil: Effects of Participation on Mothers Delagnello (2005)	Schools choose means for parent and community involvement. School Site Councils the norm.	School Council: helps school governance but varies. Members: parents, principals, teachers, other school staff
Cost Benefit Analysis of Mali Com Sch, Sch for Life and Educatodos Destefano, Hartwell, Moore & Benbow (2006)	Three alternate education models. Shared features: serve marginalized groups, and use alternate delivery, management, accountability and staffing approaches.	School for Life Ghana – SMC decides day to day operation of the school. [C S Mali and Educatodos discussed under other studies.]
PROHECO di Gropello and Marshall (2005)	Aims to improve access. Targets rural areas 3km from another sch. with 25 pre- and primary children	AECO: comprised 6 community members. Builds and maintains schs.; hires, pays and monitors teachers; sets calendar; manages funds.
Autonomous School Program Gershberg (2002) King & Ozler (2005) King, Ozler, and Rawling Parker (2005)	SBM model as part of decentralization effort had 3 goals – community participation in educational admin, supplement government funding, improve efficiency of human and financial resources for schools.	Consejos directivos: consist 9 core members - 6 parents, 2 teachers, the sch director (chair) and 2 non-voting student reps. Councils control pedagogy, administration and finance, hire and fire teachers and directors; design school annual plan; assess and allocate fees on parents; approve school rules; modify curriculum.
PRONADE Gershberg, Meade & Andersson (2008) Marshall (2008)	Community sch model; aims to increase access in remote areas. Targets rural areas 3km from another sch. with 20 pre- and primary children	Comites Educativos: comprised 15 community members. Build and maintain sch; manage funds, nutrition and supplies; hire, pay and supervise teachers; monitor student attendance; and, set schedule and calendar.
Apoyo a la Gestion Eescolar (AGE) Gertler, Patrinos & Rubio-Codina (2006) Reimers and Cardenas (2007)	AGE supports parent and community participation. Provides funding to associaciones de padres y familia (APF) for school improvement and management.	APFS: help prepare and implement school improvement plans
EDUCO Jimenez and Sawada (1998) Sawada and Ragatz (2005)	EDUCO is a community school initiative geared towards improving access and quality in rural marginalized areas	ACE, comprised 5 elected community members, manage schs; deliver an agreed curriculum; contract, monitor and evaluate teachers (hire and fire); equip and maintain sch; monitor students
SMC, Pakistan Khan, F (2007) Khan, Shahrukh Rafi (2003)	SMC as Government policy nationally to facilitate improved community role in education	SMC: 9 members, including the head teacher (chair), teachers, parents and community members; Participate in decisions regarding students, personnel, pedagogy, curriculum, structure and operations, maintenance and resources

Intervention Studied / Author(s)	Program Description	Types and Mechanisms for Participation
Harambee Kremer, Moulin & Namunyu (2003) Miguel & Gugerty (2004)	Local school committees raise funds through Harambees and build sch. for government to resource. Aims to expand education access and improve literacy.	SMC - managerial control of schools; sets fees, manages the plant; SMCs comprised of headmaster, a parent representative for each grade, local officials and a representative of the sponsoring body.
Educatodos Marshall, Mejia, & Aguilar (2008)	Provides primary and middle school education for adults using distance education.	Contracts 'promoters' work with community interest to set up learning centers. Community provides space for classes and work as facilitators.
Pastoral Basic School (PBS) Mfun-Mensah (2004)	PBS introduced in seven communities as a strategy to achieve EFA	PTA and SMC plan school schedule and cycle, recruit staff, and monitor students and staff. SMC comprised of six community members.
Community Sch. Alliance Proj (Ghana) Nkansa and Chapman (2006)	Aims to improve learning environment at the district and community; support increased community participation	SMCs: serve admin and supervisory role. Members: PTA rep, principal, traditional ruler, education officer, assembly man, and unit member
Decentralization in Cambodia Pellini (2005)	Clustering used to improve local participation; individual schools given budget to manage with community input.	Local cluster council. Members: a senior village leader, a community rep and sch. leaders. Councils dev. and implement sch. plans, and mobilize support
Redes Amigas, Ecuador Ponce (2006)	Aims to improve cognitive ability students through decentralized management and com. participation.	Directive council comprised of 4 teachers, 3 parents, and 1 community member. Controls administrative, pedagogical and budget decisions.
Com. Participation and Social Capital Pryor (2005)	Systematic establishment of SMCs and school appraisal meetings (SPAM)	SMC's composed of teachers, and local elite; SPAM used as public forum to discuss education issues
BRAC Samir, Sylva, and Grimes (1999)	Community based, non-formal education model; national curriculum adapted for rural context	SMC comprised of 3 parents, a community leader and a teacher. Monitors attendance (teacher and students), sets schedule, maintains infrastructure
Community Schools Activities Project Swift-Morgan (2006)	Project provides technical assistance and small grants to communities to build capacity of SMCs.	SMC: support school management. Community members provide resources, monitor student attendance; hire, fire, evaluate and pay teachers
World Education and Save the Children Community Schools, Mali Tietjen (1999)	SC CS model responds to education demand of the community; WE models absorb excess demand on govt. system. Shared features: construct and maintain schools; recruit and pay teachers; partner with NGOs	WE model has APE; SC has SMC: both manage budgets, select and pay teachers, oversee school operations, monitor students. In addition: - SC SMC: villagers appoint members; provides literacy training -WE APE: members formally elected, trained in accounts and management
Togo Study: Amevigbe, Tchamegnon, Kodjo, & Finou (2002)	Access, quality and community participation	Community participate in actions and decisions related to funding, resources, construction and repairs, school management
Study Ghana: Baku and Agyman (2002)	Access, quality and community participation	SMC: frequent participation in labor and material provision; less in curriculum
Cambodia Study: Bray (1999)	Household and community financing of education	SMC: collect and manage sch. resources; Avg. 5 members but range 3 – 11.
Cameroon Study Kom, Tankwe, Ngamo & Tala (2002)	Access, quality and community participation	Student Parent Associations (APEs) and PTAs
Benin Study: Salami and Kpamegan (2002)	Access, quality and community participation	APE: decision making through body; has legal powers and contractual status; financial contributions and provision of learning material for students
Mali Study: Sangare and Diarra (2002)	Access, quality and community participation	APE in all sch.; high participation in funding/labor, low levels in processes

4.0 Findings: Characteristics, Outcomes and Measures

In this section I present findings related to the three research questions. In the first part I answer the first research question by discussing characteristics of participatory models, rationales for introducing the models, the models' mechanisms to facilitate community participation, and the decisions these mechanisms are empowered to make; the second part answers research question 2 by looking at the effect of participation at three levels - students, schools and communities; the third part discusses the measures used in the evaluations (research question 3); and, the fourth is an analytic summary across the research questions. Throughout the discussion of the findings attention is paid to the extent to which the models fulfill the HRBA principles of universality and inalienability, indivisibility and interdependence, and accountability.

Characteristics of models of community participation in education

The key characteristics of community participation in schools identified in the models can be grouped into context and rationale, mechanisms for participation, and the types of decisions in which communities participate.

Context and rationale

Context varied significantly: from PBS serving nomadic populations in localized areas of Ghana to ASP implemented nationally in Nicaragua. While community schools were more likely to be in rural areas, participatory models in formal schools were more likely to be urban. A multiplicity of factors within the country motivates reforms that broaden community participation. Among the dominant issues in the contexts before reforms to broaden community participation are usually poor or declining quality of education, the need to expand access to hard-to-reach areas, harsh financial conditions, and social pressure to improve school governance.

However, the stated rationales for involving communities can be grouped into political and educational rationales. The most common political rationale for increasing community participation was improving "democratic governance" or other changes in governance mechanisms. For example, participatory mechanisms were expanded as part of Benin's (Salami & Kpamegan, 2002) and Cameroon's (Kom et al 2002) efforts to broaden involvement as part of larger democratic governance reforms. Political ideology was also a factor in some contexts. A change from a 'socialist leaning' to a 'more democratic' government in Nicaragua (Gershberg, 2002), independence from colonial rule in Kenya (Kremer et al 2003), a democracy–oriented transitional government in Ethiopia which wanted more locally responsive and democratically managed schools (Swift-Morgan, 2006) all helped to fuel increased community participation. These examples point to the explicitly political purposes that participatory approaches sometimes serve.

Educational rationales were varied and were explicitly stated as part of all the efforts that resulted in increased community participation. Large scale national efforts to decentralize education as part of broader education reform are key features in a number of contexts. Central to these large scale reforms are usually concerns about education access, quality, and relevance. Such was the case of in most contexts but explicitly stated in the rationale for reform in Mexico, Ghana, Mali, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Honduras.

Another educational rationale relates to the provision of education in hard to reach and marginalized areas, including disaster areas. In four cases, the models were developed to provide education to populations in areas affected civil wars and natural disasters. In El Salvador, EDUCO started during the civil war and continued in the post-war era as formal government policy; civil conflict in Cambodia led to increased reliance on community to fund education; civil war and natural disaster in Armenia informed the focus of the ASIF

program; and, in Honduras, PROHECO targeted in the areas devastated by hurricane Mitch. Reaching marginalized and underserved populations is also the rationale for establishing community schools models such SC CS Mali, PRONADE, CSAP-Ethiopia, and School for Life. This seems to underscore the role of community in securing the education of children when national mechanisms cannot function and gives even greater credence to HRBA's focus on building local capacity.

While most of descriptions of the context in which the models are implemented speak of economic hardship, funding of education was not explicitly stated as a rationale for increasing community involvement. ASP (Nicaragua) mentions community participation as a way to improve efficiency and financial management of schools. These veiled references point to an unstated economic rationale that seems to pervade these reforms. Additionally, references to efficiency, improved governance and management mask an accountability rationale that is often not explicitly stated. This signals a difficulty around publicly putting these forward as reasons the community should participate. From a rights perspective this would violate the principles of accountability and would require full disclosure of the motivations for community participation.

Overwhelmingly, community participation is offered as a fix for already problematic education systems and to serve political purposes. None of the cases involves an effective, high performing school or school system which opts for increased participatory mechanisms. Instead, it seems countries choose to increase community participation in an attempt to fix problems which the formal system created or has failed to deal with effectively. Like funding and accountability, there was an absence of any references to increasing participation as a way of fulfilling citizens' rights to participate. The pursuit of

increased community participation seems to serve primarily as a technical input for improved management and delivery of education.

Mechanisms for participation

All of the models reviewed have at least one school-based mechanism through which parents and other community members participate in decision making processes. The most common nomenclature for participatory mechanisms is School Management Committee (SMC). Others include Student Parent Associations (APEs), common among African countries and, Asociacíon Comunal para la Educación (ACE) primarily in Latin American models. Generally, they are management bodies that provide policy guidance and operational support to the functioning of the school. In some contexts, participation of communities is a legal requirement especially where linked to other decentralization efforts. Pakistan, Nicaragua, El Salvador, Honduras, Zimbabwe, Cambodia, Brazil and Madagascar have constitutional or other legal requirements for school-level mechanisms to facilitate community participation.

Composition of these governance bodies varies: the most common composition is the school principal/director, parents, teacher, and community representatives (see Table 2). The number of members ranges from 3 to 15 among the models in this study but most have 7-9 members. While rare, there are models (EDUCO, PRONADE and PBS) without school personnel on decision making bodies while some included the political leadership of the community (Clusters-Cambodia). Some models try to build-in checks and balances by making parents a voting majority while allowing the leader of the school to serve as chairperson. Still others try to maintain balance among the members with a chairperson appointed by the political leader or sponsors of the school. Three of the models (SDC,

Redes Amigas, and Clusters- Cambodia) are cluster-based (a group of schools from a geographic area) but membership is not significantly different.

The variations in mechanisms of participation provide a sense of the ways in which structured participation occurs and might point to the level of influence communities wield in each model. While the rare parent only or parent controlled management committee exists, the mechanisms are not closely aligned with the only broad-base membership body most schools have, the PTA[7]. While students have a right to participate, their participation in decision making committees was rare. Only three of the models include students in their decision making bodies. EDUCO and FAF/FRAM have students as non-voting members; this limits their impact on final decisions. Again, considering the emphasis of human rights-based approach on sustainability and the rights of children, this is an area of significant concern; involving students ensures their voices are heard and, hopefully, considered, as well contributes to the students' preparation for adulthood.

The other concerns from a rights perspective relate to the lack of a constituency to which the representatives are accountable. Representatives on management committees are not required to consult with the wider community in order to inform decisions. This raises a fundamental question: who should represent the community? Finally, the participants are given support to understand their roles but this is not done for the community more broadly. Hence, not only are the communities unlikely to contribute to or understand the roles of these decision making bodies, they are less likely to have the capacity to hold the schools and their representatives accountable.

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[7] Traditional PTAs co-exist with these management committees almost universally but their roles focused on mobilizing resources.

Table 3: Decision areas and decision points by model

	ASP Nicaragua	SC Com Sch. Mali	PBS, Ghana	PRONADE Guatemala	EDUCO El Salvador	WE CS Mali	Redes Amigas Ecuador	CSAP Ethiopia	Sch. for Life Ghana	PROHECO Honduras	Harambee Kenya	AGEs Mexico	FAF / FRAM Madagascar	BRAC, Bangladesh	CSAP Ghana	Clusters Cambodia	SMC Pakistan	SDC, Zimbabwe	Educatodos Honduras	Total No. by model (%)
Personnel Management																				
Pay Staff Salaries	*	*	*	*	*	0	*	*	*	*	*	0	*	0	0	0	0	?	?	11 (65)
Set teacher incentives	*	0	0	0	0	*	*	0	?	0	0	?	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3 (18)
Hire/Fire teachers	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	0	0	*	?	0	0	0	*	0	12 (67)
Supervise & evaluate teachers (monitor)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	?	?	0	*	*	0	*	*	0	14 (82)
Teacher Training	?	*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2 (11)
Pedagogy																				
Set class hours	*	*	*	*	?	0	?	?	*	?	0	0	0	*	0	0	0	0	*	7 (47)
Select some textbooks	*	0	*	?	?	0	*	?	0	?	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3 (20)
School Calendar	*	*	*	*	*	*	0	*	*	*	0	0	0	*	*	0	?	0	*	12 (67)
Curriculum	*	*	0	*	*	0	*	?	*	0	0	0	0	?	0	0	?	0	0	6 (38)
Maintenance and Infrastructure																				
Build/maintain sch.	*	*	*	*	*	*	?	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	0	*	*	?	16 (94)
Buy sch. material	*	*	*	*	*	*	?	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	0	*	0	16 (89)
Budget																				
Budget oversight	*	0	*	*	*	*	*	*	0	*	*	0	*	0	*	*	*	?	0	13 (72)
Budget allocation	*	*	*	0	0	*	*	*	0	0	?	*	*	0	?	0	?	?	0	8 (53)
Establish sch. fees	*	*	*	*	*	*	0	?	0	*	*	0	0	0	?	0	?	0	0	8 (50)
Mobilize resources	*	*	*	*	*	*	?	*	*	?	*	0	*	*	*	*	*	?	0	14 (88)
Planning & Policy																				
Setting goals	*	0	?	0	?	0	*	0	0	0	*	*	0	0	0	*	0	0	0	5 (29)
Dev plans/programs	*	0	?	0	?	0	*	0	0	0	*	*	?	0	0	*	0	0	0	5 (31)
Students																				
Monitor attendance	0	*	*	*	*	*	?	*	*	*	*	*	0	*	0	0	?	?	0	11 (69)
Total decision points by model (of 19)	17	13	13	12	11	11	10	10	10	9	9	8	7	7	6	4	4	4	2	

Key: * - is a feature of the model; ? - no information or uncertain whether this is a feature of the model; 0 – not included in the model.

Explanatory Notes: 1) Models included are those that have clearly defined parameters in the study – I supplement some with additional information from other sources. 2) School for Life and WE CS are studied jointly with other models but treated separately here. **3)** Community schools are those **_underlined and italicized._**

Decision areas and decision points

Table 3 reflects six "decision areas" by 19 of the models[8] included in this study. The decision areas are personnel management, pedagogy, maintenance and infrastructure, budget, planning and policy, and student monitoring. Each of the six decision areas has sub-levels called decisions points; a total of nineteen (19) decision points are identified. While not exhaustive this provides an analytic framework, based on the data and findings from the literature[9], for understanding what decision making authority is available within and across models. It also provides a basis for a comparative analysis of what exists in the models against what is envisaged in a HRBA.

The number of decision points included in the models range from 2 (Educatodos) to 17 (ASP) with an average of nine decision points per model. Seven of the nine models with 10 or more decision points were community schools or had a community school origin. This is an important distinction between the community school and formal school models. This points to one of the advantages of schools developed in response to community need and the existence of a community orientation at conceptualization.

Funding Decisions and Infrastructure Maintenance

The five decisions most likely to be made by the models are related to budget and school maintenance. Responsibility for mobilizing resources is common (14 of 16 models) and reflects the unstated financial rationale that influences expanded community participation. Interestingly, while 15 models include budget oversight responsibilities only eight had authority to determine and collect school fees – probably reflecting a lack of trust in communities to charge fees that are not burdensome.

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[8] The table contains models with a defined school-level decision making body – excludes studies in which models are not clearly identified.
[9] These are based on a framework developed by di Gropello (2006) but expanded to reflect the data from the studies reviewed and the finding of King & Ozler (2005), World Bank (2007a), and UNESCO (2009) regarding decisions that are devolved.

Consistent with this financial (efficiency) rationale, responsibility for building and maintaining the school infrastructure is a feature of 16 models. In community school models, communities provide the startup costs and contribute to maintenance and support (including for teachers in some cases). Among these models, the contribution community makes to the initial costs vary widely. Tietjen (1999) found that while communities fund 62% of the initial cost in the World Education (WE) model, they fund only 7% of the Save the Children (SC) model. Amevigbe et al (2002) and Baku and Agyman (2002) found that community members contribute school building materials, labor and supplies, assist needy students, and assist teachers with wages and lodging. This seems to be one area in which communities are very comfortable: the Zimbawean Parent Governors, for example, considered it their core responsibility to the school (Chikoko, 2008). Community capacity and sense of duty in this regard could be used as an entry point to fulfill rights.

Some models try to minimize the cost to communities to prevent lack of capacity to contribute becoming a barrier to participation.   In the AGEs model from Mexico, financial resources for the activities communities implement and support for student attendance are provided by the government. Gertler et al (2006) found that parents participating in AGE report less financial burden and are better able to support their children's school attendance.

From an HRBA perspective, the kinds of decisions communities make about school budgets and maintenance should empower them to go beyond providing resources requested by schools to question allocation and suggest their best use. Done well, this area of decision making could radically shift how communities interact with schools as it is where community members feel most efficacious. The HRBA approach would broaden the participation of community members by building capacity and making the process more transparent. It could

be a stepping stone to other areas of involvement and contribute to the kind of sustainability and local ownership that HRBA emphasizes.

Student monitoring

Monitoring student attendance is an explicit role built into at least 11 of the models reviewed. EDUCO's ACE members visit classrooms as part of their monitoring function (Sawada and Ragatz, 2005) while PBS and CSAP-Ethiopia monitor student attendance but it is not clear how this is achieved (Mfun-Mensah 2004; Swift-Morgan, 2006). Some models require that schools maintain a minimum number of students (Harambee, EDUCO, PRONADE, and BRAC) and so management committees must be vigilant to ensure students are attending school.

The support provided by communities also includes monitoring the participation and performance of students. Gertler, Patrinos and Rubio-Codina (2006) report that AGEs' parents are provided with capacity building supports including participatory skills, information on the student's performance and ways parent can contribute to improved learning outcomes. Others found that parents and community members encourage attendance, support study outside classroom, advise students, provide assistance to needy students, and monitor and discuss dropouts, (Swift-Morgan 2006; Pellini 2005; Sangare and Diarra, 2002; Baku and Agyman, 2002; and, Amevigbe et al 2002). These show the varied ways in which communities, through management bodies and as a social responsibility, can contribute to lowering student attrition and improving performance. Hence, beyond access, community monitoring of students could help to fulfill the right to participate while contributing to improved student outcomes.
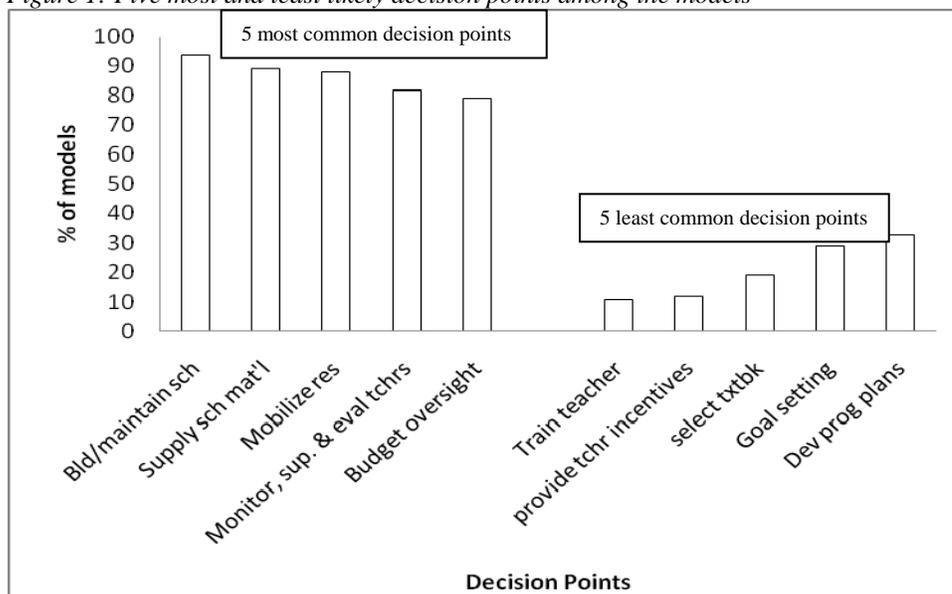
Pedagogical practices

This decision area was among the least likely to be included in the models. Twelve of the models allow for decisions to be made about pedagogy[10] on at least one of the four decision points. There is greatest likelihood of involvement in setting the school calendar – the only pedagogy-related decision point included in more than 50% of the models for which data is available (see Table 3). While the community school models seem more likely to have curriculum and learning materials developed and designed for the local context it is not clear that community is involved in these decisions. In some models the schools can modify curriculum and determine textbooks within ministry guidelines (Parker, 2005; King et al 2001). Others (Capacci 2004; Salami and Kpamegan 2002; Chikoko 2008) report that community members do not capitalize on spaces[11] for contributing to curriculum and administration for various reasons - including a perceived lack of capacity. For example, Zimbabwe's Parent Governors did not only refuse involvement in matters such as teacher appraisal, school personnel did not expect them to be involved (Chikoko). In light of Sangare and Diarra (2002) finding that community participation in the definition of teaching goals is positively associated with participation in other areas of school decision making, it seems both schools and communities are missing opportunities to build deeper relationship when they are not involved in these decisions.

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[10] Decisions regarding the curriculum, teaching hours, calendar, and textbooks used by the school.

[11] Gaventa, J. (2006) defines spaces for participation as "opportunities, moments and channels where citizens can act to potentially affect policies, discourses, decisions and relationships that affect their lives and interests," (24).

Figure 1: Five most and least likely decision points among the models

Personnel Management[12]

The power to hire and fire, supervise and evaluate, and pay teachers are central to the management of schools. This decision point is a part of two-thirds of the models with similar likelihood among community schools and formal school models. On the other hand, teacher incentives and training are the two areas least likely to be controlled by the models. As Figure 1 shows, only three models (ASP, Redes Amigas and WE CS) determine teacher incentives while two (SC CS and ASP) provide teacher training.

Like pedagogic decisions, communities seldom maximize the space to participate in personnel decisions. Swift-Morgan (2006), Khan, R (2003), Chikoko (2008) and Baku and Agyman (2002) all found that communities participate in these and other administrative decisions at a lower rate; they consider these the responsibilities of the schools and beyond their capacity to influence.

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[12] Personnel management concerns a range of decisions related to school staff especially teachers including salaries, incentives, hiring and firing, supervision and evaluation, and training.

Policy and Planning

The process of defining policies and developing a plan of work to achieve the policy aims is a critical level of decision making. However, it is one of the least common decision points in the models. Clusters-Cambodia and Redes Amigas are among the five models that allow for the school management bodies to set school policies and develop plans of action. It is noteworthy that all of the models that allow communities to participate in policy and planning are from formal school systems.

Understanding the models from a human rights perspective

While the models are developed to suit the needs of a specific context, it is still possible to see patterns that help our understanding of the whole without reducing the value of the individual model. They possess an interesting mix of features that underscore the widely recognized complexity of participatory approaches.

The most common decision points in the models relate to resources and accountability (see Figure 1). Building and maintaining schools and supplying school material are primarily resource related decisions; monitoring, supervising and evaluating teachers and setting school calendar are primarily accountability decisions; and, budget oversight relates to both. While resource and accountability concerns are features of all contexts, they were not highlighted in the rationales for increasing participation. The least common features cluster around the internal functioning of the education system and include teacher training, teacher incentives, developing program plans, selection of textbooks, and goal setting.

The mechanisms for participation provide interesting insights into who participate as representatives of communities. While the dominant model is balanced control in which there is shared power among parents, community, school, and government (Leithwood and Menzies, 1998), there were a number of models which comprised only community members

or parents or where they were the voting majority. The models provide significant space for communities and parents to be involved while teachers and other school personnel have less formal representation. As we will discuss later, this might not necessarily equate to more power (in practice) for parents or communities.

Communities have the opportunity to impact resource and accountability related decisions in most of the models but these opportunities diminish in relation to the teaching and learning processes. It is noted that even where some of these opportunities exist they are not capitalized on by communities and schools as they are seen as beyond the capacity of the community members. Both schools and communities are missing opportunities to build deeper relationships by exempting communities from some decisions or not giving them the wherewithal to maximize the opportunities. Where there is a lack of capacity, the school and the Ministry of Education are accountable for providing capacity building support to ensure communities can fulfill their right to participate.

A lack of capacity, real or imagined, on the part of the rights holder is not sufficient justification for the violation of that right. Hence, while the mechanism and opportunities provided by the models could contribute to the realization of rights, there is a need to ensure the rights holders are empowered to take advantage of the opportunities. Additionally, the opportunities should not be limited to any decision area but broadened to include all areas and decision points.

Given the range of mechanisms, types of decisions and motivations for developing participatory approaches, it is reasonable to assume that the effects will vary from model to model, place to place, and according to the level of the system. The next section examines the effects of community participation on students, schools and communities – my second research question.

The effects of community participation

In a HRBA, the underlying assumption is that fulfilling the right to participate will enable the students to claim and the communities to fulfill (and claim) their rights. Key rights-related indicators of results include student access and performance in education system; school fulfillment of responsibilities regarding governance and relevance; and community outcomes regarding a) duties in ensuring equity and protecting children and b) claims to knowledge of and ability to participate in social processes.

Building on the earlier discussion of participatory mechanisms and the types of decision they influence, I will now discuss the effects of community participation at student, school and community levels. I find that community participation generally has positive effects at all levels but there are a number of concerns on specific indicators, especially at the school and community levels. The first part of this section discusses students and finds that students' right to an education is better protected as reflected in generally positive effect of participation on access, retention and academic performance. The second part discusses school-level findings and concludes that schools develop better infrastructure, their teachers miss fewer days, and the education provided is of greater relevance to the community. The third part focuses on community level effects and finds that the participatory models increase knowledge and capacity of community representatives but might also result in greater inequity in representation in education decision making. The section concludes with a discussion of the implications when a human rights framework is applied.

Community participation's effect on student outcomes

Twenty (23) studies reported student-level results including access, equity, relevance, retention, attendance and academic performance. Not all of these studies evaluated all of the issues while the level of detail varies among those that do. However, a minimum of four

studies reported findings related to each indictor discussed here. For analytic purposes, results are grouped by outcomes related to a) educational participation and equity, b) relevance of the skills/knowledge gained in school, and b) academic achievement (subject matter mastery).

Educational Participation and Equity

Educational participation is a composite measure of student access, survival (measured by dropout, failure, retention and completion) and attendance. Data on educational participation and equity indicators were included in 14 studies of 12 models; three studies show mixed or negative results related to access and equity (see Table 4). Access[13] is among the most frequently stated rationales for increasing community involvement and one of the least contested areas in debates about the effects of community participation. As Table 4 shows, nine of the studies confirm that community participation positively affects access. Increases in access generally also meant increases in equity in the provision of education, as in most cases the programs are involved in increasing access among marginalized groups such as girls, remote rural dwellers and indigenous groups. For example, PRONADE schools serve 20% of the Guatemalan elementary population in 4551 rural communities (Gershberg et al 2008); through SC CS Mali, enrolment grew from three to 600 in the Kolondieba and Bougouni regions over four years (Muskin, 1999); and, ASIF positively and significantly affected enrolment in Armenia (Chase 2002). A number of the studies (Morgan 2006; Carneal 2004; Muskin, 1999; Swift–Samir et al 1999) highlighted the importance of community schools in addressing issues of equity especially related to gender and geographic location. Provision in close proximity to home, local teachers, and flexible

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[13] Defined as having a physical space in a school.

schedules and calendars are features of community schools that contribute to improved access and equity in access.

Table 4: Student-level outcomes related to access, equity, survival and relevance by model/ study and direction of finding

	Positive	**Mixed / Neutral**	**Negative**
Access	Cambodia Study (Bray, 1999); SC CS Mali (Carneal, 2004; Muskin, 1999) PRONADE (Gershberg et al 2008) PBS (Mfun-Mensah, 2004) ASIF (Chase (2002); BRAC (Samir et al 1999) Mali study (Sangare and Diarra, 2002) CSAP –Ethiopia (Swift-Morgan, 2006)	CS Mali, SFL, and Educatodos (Destefano et al 2006) Harambee (Kremer et al 2003)	
Survival: Failure / Dropout Repetition / Completion	SC CS Mali, SFL, and Educatodos (Destefano et al 2006) PROHECO (di Gropello and Marshall, 2005) AGE (Gertler et al 2006) Educatodos (Marshall et al, 2008) BRAC (Samir et al ,1999) PRONADE (Marshall, 2008) Clusters-Cambodia (Pellini 2005)		Harambee (Kremer et al, 2003)
Attendance	CSAP-Ethiopia (Swift-Morgan, 2006) SC CS Mali (Muskin,1999) PRONADE (Marshall 2008)	Redes Amigas (Ponce, 2006)	
Equity	CSAP-Ethiopia (Swift-Morgan, 2006) BRAC (Samir et al 1999) PBS (Mfun-Mensah, 2004) SC CS Mali (Muskin, 1999)		
Relevance	ASP (Gershberg, 2002) PRONADE (Meade et al 2008) SC CS Mali (Muskin, 1999; Carneal, 2004)		

Key: Positive - finds an advantageous or similar effect of participation; Mixed - finds advantages and disadvantages; Negative - disadvantages only

The positive effects of community participation are also reflected in higher rates of survival to completion of the school level. Seven studies reported findings related to survival (dropout, failure, repetition rates and completion): six reported positive findings and one negative. Marshall (2008) found that PRONADE students completed faster while di Gropello and Marshall (2005) found that PROHECO improved repetition and dropout rates though differences were not statistically significant. Gertler et al (2006) found a significant effect of AGEs in reducing failure and grade repetition but no statistically significant effect on inter-year drop out. They suggest that the effect is explained by AGEs' motivation of students to study and parental involvement. The student monitoring role played by communities in 11 of the models and Pellini's (2005) finding that communities monitor and

discuss issues related to student dropout point to ways community involvement might help reduce attrition.

There are parallels with other findings on completion rates among community school models. Marshall et al (2008) found that odds of dropping out of Educatodos' are 42% less with each standard deviation difference in participation in a community project. DeStefano et al (2006) cost effectiveness study of School for Life, CS in Mali, and Educatodos found that access to education is cheaper in traditional public schools in Ghana and Mali; the three alternate education models produce more completers and, except in Mali, produce more learners than the traditional systems. In terms of cost to produce 3rd grade completers, School for Life was three times as cost effective, Educatodos was on par, but Mali's Community Schools were less cost effective.

The most important contributors to improved attendance were the communities' involvement in setting school calendars and the monitoring of students. However, it is also possible to infer linkages between attendance and findings related to improved parental capacity, reduction in teacher absenteeism and improved school physical infrastructure. It is also more likely that students will attend school if the material being taught is found to be relevant.

Relevance of what is learned

In addition to getting students into schools and keeping them there, the studies also report positive effects of some models (ASP, PRONADE, and SC CS Mali) on relevance of what students learn in schools. Relevance is improved by communities' input into the curriculum, textbook, and teacher recruitment. Studies (Carneal 2004; Muskin 1999) speak of schools and teachers as less mysterious and the immediate applicability within the communities of skills and knowledge.

Overall, educational participation, equity and relevance related outcomes are favorably impacted where mechanisms for community participation are in place. Some models are generally consistent with a rights framework in providing an education that is culturally relevant, attends to issues of equity, and considers the local purposes for which the education can be applied.

Academic Achievement

Twelve (12) studies reported findings related to student academic achievement; most report favorable or no statistically significant differences in results for schools with community participation. Seven of the studies reported effects for mathematics – four were positive and statistically significant while three had no significant effect. The effects on language test scores were similar: 4 of 6 report positive effect, one was negative and significant and the other showed no significant effect. Some studies were less clear cut. For example, Poncé (2006) examined Redes Amigas' effect on Math and language scores for non-indigenous and indigenous students. He found, among second and fourth graders, a positive significant impact of the program on non-indigenous math and language. He found no significant effect on indigenous students' performance in either subject at any grade.

Multiple studies of the same model often yielded different results. For example, two of the evaluations of ASP had different findings regarding effect on students' academic outcomes. Parker (2005) found that autonomy has a positive significant effect on third grade math but no significant effect on Spanish scores. Among sixth graders, she found the ASP effect significant and negative: students scored 3.7-4.1 points lower. In their ASP study, King and Ozler (2004) found that *de jure* autonomy (officially participating in ASP which Parker studied) had no effect on student Math and Spanish achievement at primary and secondary levels but *de facto* autonomy (applying autonomy-like decision-making) positively

and significantly affected both subjects in primary schools but no effect in secondary. They suggest that de facto autonomy's effect can be attributed to decisions on administrative issues; achievement was not significantly correlated with pedagogical decisions or teachers' level of influence.

EDUCO is also the subject of two studies[14] and again some results differed. Jimenez and Sawada (1998) found that EDUCO students had lower test scores in Math and languages but the differences were not statistically significant. They conclude that correcting for selection effects, EDUCO are "indistinguishable" from traditional schools. In their study of EDUCO, Sawada and Ragatz (2005) found a positive and statistically significant EDUCO effect on teacher effort; this in turn had a significant effect on math and Spanish scores.

Table 5: Effect of community participation on student academic outcome by subject and grade

Subject	Mathematics						Language*						Other**		
Grade	2	3	4	5	6	T	2	3	4	5	6	T	2	3	T
ASP (King and Ozler, 2005)						+						+			
ASP (Parker, 2005)		+		--				0		0					
BRAC (Samir et al 1999)		0												0	
CS Mali (Muskin, 1999)		+	+			0		+	+			+			
EDUCO (Jimenez & Sawada, 1998)						0						0			
EDUCO (Sawada & Ragatz, 2005)			0					+				+			
Ghana Study (Baku & Agyman, 2002)				+						+					
Mali Study (Sangare and Diarra, 2002)								+							0
PROHECO (di Gropello & Marshall, 2005)								+				+			+
PRONADE (Marshall, 2008)								0				--			
Redes Amigas (Ponce, 2006)	M	M						M	M						
Togo Study (Amevigbe et al, 2002)															0

Key: + positive statistically significant effect; -- denotes a negative statistically significant effect; 0 denotes no statistically significant effect; M – mixed i.e. a result that is not consistent for sub-group but no overall effect is reported. Grades: T represents total or overall sample result while numbers represent grades at which tests are administered. *Language tests varied but were primarily Spanish and French; **'Other' includes Reading, Lifeskills, writing and Science

The Samir et al (1999) study of BRAC programs found a significant difference in the percentage of BRAC students (69.2) meeting the EFA criteria compared to those of the

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[14] There is a ten year difference between the two studies unlike the ASP studies which were both done in 2005.

formal system (51.3). BRAC children also outperform formal and never schooled children in life skills/knowledge, writing, reading, and numeracy but the difference in numeracy and reading was not statistically significant. Compared to peers in formal system they found that BRAC students were 2.62 times more likely to complete basic education, 3.58 times more likely to have life skills and 2.7 times more likely to have writing skills.

There were three studies of the effects of community participation on academic outcomes that were not focused on a specific model. Sangare and Diarra (2002) found in Mali that mathematics scores were highest in schools with low or high levels of community participation; scores were lowest where participation was average. Overall, there was a significant, though weak, relationship with math and no statistically significant relationship with general knowledge. Similar studies in Togo found a strong positive correlation between participation and student achievement (Amevigbe et al 2002) and in Ghana a positive effect of community participation on grade 5 math and language (Baku & Agman 2002).

Beyond access and survival, the studies suggest community participation positively influences or has no statistically significant effect on student achievement. This is important from a rights perspective as it implies that students are being given the preparation required to move to other levels of the system or to pursue life goals that require an education. Of concern would be the focus on tests as the sole measure of academic ability, a concern that increases with the limited subjects in which tests are administered.

What do these studies say about community participation and student outcomes?

Overall, the studies suggest community participation positively affects student outcomes. More than a half of the studies found overall positive effects of participatory models while the remainder were either mixed or found no significant effect. These studies show a positive overall effect on student achievement including greater access, higher rates of

retention and completion, and comparable or better academic outcomes. Hence, even though these models do not apply a HRBA to their work, their results at student level are consistent with what a HRBA would consider desirable outcomes for the areas evaluated.

Community participation's effect on schools

In this section we explore the ways schools, the site of involvement, are affected by participation: what school-level effect do the studies attribute to communities' participation? The most consistent findings across the studies that provide data regard improved school infrastructure and accountability[15] (including teacher attendance). Other areas in which there were results from multiple studies are teaching practices, equity, and the teachers' perceptions of participatory models. As Table 6 shows, the findings included a number of unfavorable effects at school level, primarily related to critical rights principles of equity (discussed in the next section) and accountability.

School infrastructure and relevance

There is general agreement that community participation contributes to improved school infrastructure. While only a few models reported this effect, it is generally accepted as an output of participation (Gertler et al 2006; di Gropello and Marshall 2005; Kremer et al 2003; and Muskin 1999) and is consistent with the decision points that the models were most likely to include. Beyond access, less agreement exists on how these improved physical environments contribute to academic outcomes (Gertler et al) and the efficiency of participatory approaches that incentivize increased access (Kremer et al).

Four studies (Gershberg et al 2008, Carneal 2004, Gershberg 2002 and Muskin 1999) reported increased relevance of schools and their curricula to the lives of students and their

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[15] Accountability is broadly defined as acting consistent with professional responsibilities and in the students' best interests. It includes teacher absenteeism, teaching time, and fulfilling roles on local school councils.

communities. Community members attribute the increased relevance of schools to more flexible school calendar, shorter days, and improved understanding of schools' purpose. These have direct implications for the form and function of schools.

Table 6: School level outcomes by indicator and study

	Positive	**Mixed / Neutral**	**Negative**
Accountability (Teacher absence/ attrition)	Cameroon study (Salami & Kpamegan 2002) FAF/FRAM (Brinkeroff, 2003) EDUCO (Sawada and Ragatz 2005; Jimenez & Sawada, 1998) ASP (King & Ozler, 2005) PROHECO (di Gropello & Marshall, 2005) PRONADE (Marshall, 2008) AGE (Gertler et al 2006)	SDC (Chikoko, 2008)	PRONADE (Gerhberg et al 2008) SMC-Pakistan (Khan S, 2003) SMC/SPAM (Pryor, 2005)
Pedagogy (material, time, methods)	ASP (Parker, 2005) CSAP-Ethiopia (Swift-Morgan 2006)	PRONADE (Marshall, 2008) CS Mali (Muskin, 1999)	
LSC / Leadership	PRONADE (Gershberg et al 2008) ASP (King & Ozler, 2005; King et al 2001)		SMC- Pakistan (Khan, S, 2003)
Equity			SMC-Pakistan (Khan, F, 2007) SMC/SPAM (Pryor, 2005) AGE (Reimers & Cardenas, 2007)
Relevance	CS (Carneal, 2004; Muskin, 1999) ASP (Gershberg, 2002) PRONADE (Gershberg et al, 2008)		
Resource & Infrastructure	ASIF (Chase, 2002) PROHECO (di gropello & Marshall, 2005) ASP (Gershberg, 2002; Parker, 2005) AGE (Gertler et al 2006) CSAP-Ethiopia (Swift-Morgan, 2006)		Harambee (Kremer et al, 2003)

School accountability

One way schools show they are accountable and committed to fulfilling a child's right to education is by providing opportunities to learn. Basic measures of these are teacher's presence at school and time spent teaching. At least six studies (Sawada and Ragatz, 2005; King & Ozler 2005; di Gropello & Marshall, 2005; Marshall, 2008; Gertler et al 2006; and Jimenez & Sawada, 1998) provided information on the effect of community participation on teaching time and teacher absenteeism. All found that the programs they evaluated taught for more hours and or had more school days. Marshall (2008) reports a positive effect of this additional time on learning: in PRONADE schools it is associated with

a 0.04 standard deviation difference in math achievement. Sawada and Ragatz found that less teacher absence in EDUCO schools contributed an average of almost 10 additional hours of teaching time annually. They suggest that increased teacher effort is probably linked to the hiring and firing power of community members.

Jimenez's earlier work with Sawada also found that teachers missed fewer days and hypothesized similarly that monitoring by community contributes to reduced teacher absence and more time in school for students, (Jimenez and Sawada 1998). While di Gropello and Marshall (2005) also found less absenteeism among PROHECO teachers, they found no statistically significant difference in teaching time. The comparison schools spent twice as much time on administrative tasks and four times as many days attending union meetings. PROHECO teachers missed more days due to training, taught for fewer hours, and spent less time with parents. Like Sawada & Ragatz (2005) and Jimenez & Sawada (1998), di Gropello & Marshall (2008) suggest that there might be a positive PROHECO effect on effort by teachers but their data are inconclusive.

Others (King and Ozler 2005; Parker, 2005; Gertler et al 2006) also suggest that participatory approaches contributed to reduced teacher absence and in this way contribute to improved accountability. Other facilitating factors include regular discussion of teacher attendance and discipline (EDUCO); monitoring use of funds and holding tribunals for leaders who dominate spending decisions (FAF/FRAM); and community discussion of education issues (Cluster-Cambodia). Still Gershberg et al (2008) found that widespread illiteracy and generally weak capacity in some PRONADE schools contexts affects teacher selection and evaluation. They report that in some cases it is the teacher who starts the school, convenes the management committee and, as the only member of staff, control

school administration. In such a context it is extremely difficult to hold the school accountable – it requires more than opportunities to participate.

Empowering communities to hold schools accountable also puts a strain on the relationship between teachers and community members. Khan, S. (2003), Gershberg et al (2008) and Ponce (2006) found that teachers and their unions consider the SMCs a threat because of their monitoring roles and the powers to fire. Unions are especially concerned about the effect of local control on their negotiating capacity and the long term implications of the low salaries and short term contracts some models offer. King et al (2001) found that ASP teachers were concerned about losing power to parents and lack of influence on administrative and pedagogical matters. At the same time parents were feeling more influential which might explain why in some models teachers do not participate in the councils as they should (Gershberg 2002) or use their positions to minimize the number of meetings (Khan, S. 2003). Invariably, where the opinions of the teachers are known, the ways in which community members, especially parents with children in the schools, participate in the decision making process and the effectiveness of the councils will be significantly affected.

Other school level findings included pedagogical approaches (practice of teaching including methods, processes, and content) on which three studies reported findings. Two studies found similarly that teachers in the PROHECO (di Gropello and Marshall 2005) and PRONADE (Marshall, 2008) models were less likely to use student centered approaches. Both also found that teachers in PROHECO and PRONADE were less likely to check all their children's homework. While di Gropello and Marshall found no significant differences in teaching methods or processes they found that the PROHECO schools were less likely to use real life examples or learning dynamics in their teaching. The third study investigated the

extent to which teacher practice actually changes when the community requests it. Salami and Kpamegan (2002) found that teachers change their practices around half of the times (48%) after a community intervention related to inappropriate teacher behavior, exams and punishment.

What do these studies say about community participation and school outcomes?

This section underscores the important role that participation plays in ensuring the rights-based principle of accountability and how this contributes to protecting children's right to education. The consequence of lack of accountability on the part of any of the stakeholders could be dire as Pryor (2005) found from his work in Ghana. He suggests that the lack of school accountability to the community resulted in the community 'checking-out' as their interests were not being served. The challenges associated with ensuring accountability are also in evidence and points to a need for participatory approaches to be accompanied by capacity and trust building among the stakeholders. As a positive right, it is critical that the provision of opportunities to participate be coupled with increased capacity for both the school and community personnel.

Community participation's effects on communities

Faced with low support from teachers and their unions, a new Guatemalan government in 2003 decided to terminate the PRONADE program (Gershberg et al 2008). The program had clearly increased access and was very popular with communities. On learning of the government's intent, communities protested and forced the government to continue the program. Knowledgeable of the education their children were receiving, the community was willing to act to change it. Gershberg et al found that parents in

PRONADE schools displayed a greater sense of ownership and pride in their schools and believe supervision of teachers[16] contributes to improved student outcomes.

The question of how participation affects communities is important to consider in a human rights framework as communities hold both rights and duties and so have a responsibility to demand the fulfillment of rights. To this end, community capacity is important in order for them to hold schools, districts and governments accountable, and fulfill the rights of children. This section explores how participating communities are affected by their participation in schools. The discussion focuses on the major findings related to building social processes and capacity and issues of issues of equity – the other major findings related to accountability were discussed earlier.

Table 7: Effect of community participation at community level

	Positive	Mixed / Neutral	Negative
Accountability	FAF/FRAM (Brinkerhoff, 2003) ASP (Gershberg, 2002) AGE (Gertler et al 2006) EDUCO (Sawada & Ragatz, 2005 and Jimenez & Sawada, 1998) Educatodos (Marshall et al, 2008)		SMC/SPAM (Pryor, 2005)
Building social processes (Empowerment) and Capacity	ASIF (Chase (2002); Brazil – Mothers Participation (Delagnello, 2005) ASP (Gershberg, 2002) PRONADE (Gershberg et al 2008) AGE (Gertler et al 2006) SMC-Pakistan (Khan, F 2007) SC CS Mali (Muskin, 1999)	CSAP-Ghana (Nkansa & Chapman, 2006) SMC-Pakistan (Khan, S 2003)	SMC/SPAM (Pryor, 2005)
Equity	SC CS Mali (Carneal, 2004)	CSAP-Ethiopia (Swift-Morgan, 2006) SMC-Pakistan (Khan, F 2007) PBS (Mfun-Mensah, 2004)	Cambodia Study (Bray, 1999) AGE (Gertler et al 2006) Harambee (Kremer et al, 2003 and Miguel, & Gugerty, 2008)

Key: Positive - finds an advantageous or similar effect of participation; Mixed - finds advantages and disadvantages; Negative – primarily disadvantages

Building social processes and capacity

Like the PRONADE participants, Delagnello's (2003) study of mothers in Brazil found that their involvement as individuals affected multiple aspects of their lives. The mothers, most unemployed outside the home, reported a range of effects related to how they

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[16] PRONADE teachers have an attendance rate 30% higher than other schools nationwide (Cely et al 2003 in Gershberg et al 2006.)

"perceive and feel about themselves", participation in other social processes, and acquisition of knowledge and skills related to parenting, interpersonal relationships, school functioning, vocabulary, literacy and policy. Some skills were developed as part of the process while others were the result of deliberate capacity building efforts. These findings mirror those for AGEs (Gertler et al 2006) and SMC-Pakistan (Khan, F 2007): the process of involvement helps to build social capital and allows for a more complex relationship among the participants and with the school.

Consistent with a HRBA's emphasis on participant empowerment, several of the models underscored the transformation in the capacity of participants which occurs as part of the process of participation. Muskin (1999), Tietjen (1999), and Carneal (2004) work on CS in Mali found that the process validates the community's competence. They suggest that collaboration in building schools creates community cohesion, develops capacity to mobilize around community needs, builds social capital, and empower those participating in SMCs, especially women. Given the similarity in approach between SC Mali and CSAP (Ghana), PBS, CSAP (Ethiopia), PRONADE, Harambees, and ASIF, it could be inferred that they have similar effects on communities. Chase (2002) suggests that models such as ASIF underscores power of community participation to "change community attitudes [and encourage] people to solve local problems through their own efforts" (234).

However, most of the models do not deliberately try to build capacity of the general community. A more common practice, though not universal, is for representatives of governance bodies to receive role-related training. Since initial involvement of communities is facilitated by external agents, it is important that communities are capacitated to sustain these participatory processes. This is not helped by communities identifying community schools as owned by the funders (Carneal, 2004) or communities being forced to accept

externally imposed models (Mfun-Mensah 2004). A HRBA emphasizes the importance of developing local capacity beyond the representatives in the formal decision making process. The principle of local ownership, sustainability and accountability cannot be achieved in the long term without broad-based community capacity building.

(In)equity in selection process, management committee membership and girls' education

The research reviewed suggests that the way community participation is approached can contribute to reinforcing some inequities. Equity issues at community level[17] center around design of initiatives, membership of the local management bodies and providing education for girls. One contributory factor is the design of programs with pre-requisites for qualification. The pre-requisites for communities and their schools to participate in some programs reinforce inequity as it exempts those least likely to meet resource and capacity requirements. Reimers & Cardenas (2007) found that Mexico's SBM program pre-requisites contributed to the exclusion of schools that were least cohesive in vision, least able to develop a proposal, and located in communities where it is most difficult to raise local matching contributions. Reimers and Cardenas suggest that without attention to helping the weakest schools (and communities), these programs help those who need the intervention the least. The Harambee, EDUCO, Community Schools in Mali, Redes Amigas, ASIF and PRONADE models have similar pre-requisites of an initial community or school investment. This is a design issue that must be addressed to ensure participatory approaches do not perpetuate the conditions they aim to change.

The composition of decision making bodies shows that while the presence of community members in the decision making process can help ensure equity, it could

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[17] Some of the equity issues relate to schools but all are discussed here as it improves organization of the paper

reinforce or even exacerbate inequity. These bodies are frequently dominated by the wealthy and most powerful of a community (Kremer et al 2003; Khan, S 2003; Khan, F 2007; Pryor 2005), and males (Gershberg et al 2008; Bray, 1999; Khan, F, 2004; Swift-Morgan, 2006). One explanation for the preponderance of local elite is the leverage that they will provide in advocating for external resources as well as becoming benefactors. As Kremer et al (2003) and Pryor 2005 suggest, this is problematic as the elites may use the committees to maintain the status quo by setting fees and conditions that they know will exclude some groups.

Male domination of management committees is widespread: in Ethiopia women participate less and in fewer domains than men (Swift-Morgan 2006); in Cambodia only 11 of 70 SMCs had women representatives (Bray, 1999); in Ghana, while women are more trusted and more likely to be involved, males dominate leadership (Nkansa & Chapman, 2006); and, in Guatemala, (Gershberg et al, 2008) participation of women is low, especially indigenous women. Hence, as Khan, F (2007) found, presence on councils does not mean voice; the power differential does not change simply because everyone sits at the same table. Some school level factors also contribute to further inequality. Khan, F. (2007) found for example that principals, as council chairs are given additional powers to document meetings, set agendas, and appoint office holders. These principals often contribute to excluding marginalized groups by refusing to appoint them as office holders. The studies reporting on issues of equity show that schools are not fulfilling their potential to contribute to improved equity and generally contribute negatively in this regard

Apart from Gershberg et al (2008) and Miguel & Gugerty (2004), none of the cases dealt explicitly with the participation of local indigenous populations or more generally the ethnic make of decision making bodies. It would be important to get this kind of information given the findings of Miguel & Gugerty (2004). In examining the relationship

between ethnic diversity and local funding of primary schools and community wells in Western Kenya, they found that ethnic diversity is negatively correlated with school funding and quality of school facilities. They conclude that collective action is more difficult to achieve among ethnically diverse groups.

The third issue of equity which the studies raise regards communities' attitude towards educating girls. Surprisingly few studies addressed this issue directly. Evaluations of CSAP-Ethiopia (Swift-Morgan, 2006) and SC CS in Mali and (Carneal, 2004) found increased understanding among parents of the need for educating girls. Two of the models, CS in Mali and BRAC, have strategies built in to encourage girls' access. Hence, implicit in a community's decision to establish a school using these models is the inclusion of girls.

The human rights principles of equality and inalienability suggest that the models reviewed would need to be more systematic in their efforts to improve equity at community level. While there are ways in which equity at the student level is improved, especially regarding gender, this is not the case at the school and communities levels. The models fail to facilitate participation of marginalized populations including women, indigenous populations, the poor, the less educated and youth. From a rights perspective failure to include these groups is a rights violation and must be addressed through systemic change.

What do the studies say about community participation and community outcomes?

The two major effects of community participation highlighted in this section related to equity and building social processes and capacity. Communities benefit primarily in the forms of the skills gained by individuals who are members of formal structures with very little known about how these benefits transfer to the rest of the community. One troubling finding is that there remain numerous barriers to equity in participation and even when given

access, marginalized groups might not be heard. So while most of the models create spaces for communities to participate, these spaces reflect the power relations of those surrounding and entering them (Gaventa, 2006). As Gaventa suggests, persons should not only have the right to be present in a space but to shape it.

Understanding the effects of community participation from a rights perspective

Gaventa's position is consistent with a HRBA. A HRBA approach would suggest that participants shape and are shaped by the space as a requisite part of being empowered to effectively participate and fulfill community's contributive and distributive purposes (Willie, 2006). These are clearly missing in the opportunities to participate in the cases reviewed. Participation is geared primarily towards making the schools better, a necessary but not a sufficient purpose of participation given its potential to broaden freedoms and develop critical citizenship (Miller et al 2003). Most models lack systematic capacity building for participants and the school-communities to be truly empowered in managing their affairs.

The general pattern across the three levels of outcomes might be explained as follows. Community participation affects decisions and processes related to school conditions, accountability, relevance and generally improved quality of school level factors. These improved school level changes contribute to student outcomes that are also generally positively affected. This is very simplistic but it does point to a likely theory of change which starts with communities having opportunities to purposefully influence educational processes. Very little is known about the internal processes of the participatory mechanisms but a major component missing from the models is systematic capacity building among decision makers and community members more broadly. There are also many unanswered

question regarding how other rights, beyond education and participation, are affected. These are areas of added value that a HRBA would ensure.

There is ongoing debate about how to measure community participation's effects. Given the nature of participation and communities, how do we know what effects to attribute to participation? In the next section I review the methodological approaches of the studies reviewed in order to answer my third research question.

Methodological approaches to measuring community participation's effects

The aim in this section is to describe the methodological approaches used in the studies reviewed and point to patterns and gaps in order to help further understanding of how community participation's effectiveness is assessed.   I do not evaluate suitability of methods; see Gertler, Patrinos & Rubio-Codina (2007) for an extensive discussion on evaluating SBM.

Designs and Methods

Appendix 1 shows the studies grouped by broad methodological approaches (qualitative, mixed and quantitative). There is an interesting mix among the three types of methodologies: 9 used mixed methods (employing both qualitative and quantitative methods), 12 used qualitative and the remaining 15 used quantitative methods.   The quantitative studies explicitly addressed the challenge of separating out the effects of community participation from other factors. Given that none of the programs built an impact evaluation component into their designs, most of the studies used quasi-experimental design to create counterfactuals. In order to address concerns around sorting and selection biases, researchers used matching estimation - propensity score matching (3), matched comparisons (2), and pipeline matching (2) – instrumental variables, and difference in

difference estimates in their designs to separate out program effects. Most used multiple approaches to ensure they are getting the best estimates of effects of community participation. Only one study (Kremer et al, 2003) had a randomized trial component – done to provide comparative data for the discussion of the economic efficiency of Harambees. In addition to attention to improving accuracy of estimates through design, advanced statistical analyses including principal components analysis, multi-level modeling, logistic regression, and fitted odds ratio. Only two studies used solely descriptive analysis.

Evaluations tended to use the universe of program schools against a random sample from the comparison group. All studies used random selection to determine control schools and in selecting students for testing. One issue worthy of further exploration regards the evaluations involving community schools. Most of the studies of community schools (EDUCO, PROHECO, PRONADE) create a counterfactual from government schools. This suggests that without the program schools, students would be in government schools. However, in most of these communities, no school existed before the intervention and that would still be the case without the intervention. It would seem then that the counterfactual in most cases would be 'no school'. As done in the study of BRAC and CS Mali, the out of school population should be considered as that would be the fate of most students in these programs. There is a need for the evaluations to consider more than the participatory nature of the schools; the very existence of these schools is a major result of participation and should not be overlooked.

Mixed methods studies were more akin to the quantitative studies – in questions, analysis and reporting – than the hybridized version they are supposed to represent. The expected telling of nuanced stories using the two types of data was not always forthcoming. While these studies include extensive discussion of the quantitative methods they use, the

qualitative methods discussions are truncated. It confirms a quantitative bias as well as a continued struggle with effective design of qualitative research. While some made for interesting designs (Bray 1999; Gertler et al, 2006) by their diverse data sources and methods, others (Muskin, 1999) did a better job of integrating findings from multiple sources.

As a group, the qualitative studies were very similar in design: data collected from multiple schools and stakeholders in a rural community using semi-structured interviews, observations, focus groups, and document analysis. There was one ethnographic study; the others collected data primarily through short visits to the research sites by a team whose primary researcher is usually an outsider. Considering the issue that these studies explore, it would seem that other qualitative research methods (participatory action research, for example) would aid effectiveness and data quality. Considering the nature of qualitative research, it was surprising to find that five studies included more than five sites – one included 12. Four of the studies (Khan, F 2007; Carneal 2004; Delagnello, 2005; Chapman & Akukwe, 2008) were dissertations or based on dissertations and might contribute to the scope and richness of the data contained in them. With the exception of these dissertations, analytic strategies were not explained. Choice of sites was largely purposive or based on convenience but studies applied some objective criteria to the selection of participants.

Gauging Effectiveness

Most of the quantitative and mixed methods studies were focused on student performance and teacher factors (influence, absenteeism) with fewer giving attention to attrition, dropout and failure, days missed, and teacher performance. Student performance was primarily assessed through standardized tests in math and languages; reading, science, life-skill/knowledge, general knowledge and use the usefulness of school content to household were each included in one study. Only one quantitative study (Reimers and

Cardenas, 2007) focused on equity issues explicitly and two studies focused on costs (Tietjen, 1999; DeSteffano et al 2006). Predictably, the qualitative evaluations predominantly asked questions related to how the mechanisms were functioning (Gershberg 2002; Pryor, 2005), equity (Khan, F 2007; Khan, S, 2003) capacity change within the participants (Delagnello, 2005), and sustainability (Nkansa & Chapman 2008).

What is not measured?

The focus on academic outcomes, especially of quantitative studies, crowds out the other areas potentially affected by community participation – student motivation, discipline, civic and social responsibility, school climate, and social and emotional development. Quantitative approaches ignored community level variables, with the exception of Chase (2002) and Miguel and Gugerty (2004). While Delagnello (2005) explored participation's effect on participants and Pryor (2005), Chase, and Pellini (2008) investigated implications of interventions for social collective action, they focused on the individual participants. Given the nature of the communities in which most of these models are implemented, it would be worth investigating how community participation affects the community beyond those who are participating directly – this would be a key question from a human rights perspective. Finally, questions about power and sustainability, were not investigated though these are central to the outcomes of participatory approaches.

5.0. Looking Back – A Summary of Findings

Examining the major findings of the studies by model shows that community participation favorably affects student, schools and communities (see Table 8). All nineteen models had study findings related to student outcomes – 13 are positive and six are mixed. A similar pattern holds for schools and communities regardless of research method. There were two studies that reported generally negative findings – both related to the ways community participation may further inequality. The consistency in findings across methods underscores the effect of community participation. Table 8 shows that five models were investigated by multiple studies of different methodologies: the direction of the findings was similar where they report on the same outcome.

The studies reviewed provided insights into the research questions and pointed to areas for additional work. On the matter of where communities participate and the kinds of decisions they are involved in making, most of the models have control over significant decisions related to budget, personnel, and infrastructure but less so regarding pedagogy, student monitoring and policy and planning. The decisions made related to these areas and the level of representation by the community members and parents vary widely. While communities have access to the decision making space there is less certainty about how they influence decisions. Additionally, since there are questions about equity and quality of participation, some school-level participatory mechanisms do not give community members a real chance to fulfill their right to participate.

The effect of community participation on students, schools and communities was generally favorable at all three levels. Community participation helps to fulfill the right to access an education in schools in which attainment and achievement are similar to or higher than others in the context. It also increases the accountability of schools by reducing teacher

absenteeism, increasing teacher effort and these generally seem to contribute to improved student academic performance. Student academic performance, measured by test results, was better or not statistically significant compared to those of other schools and was positively associated with outcomes related to failure, dropout, attendance, access and completion. As such, participation contributes to communities fulfilling their responsibilities for the education of children and the accountability of schools. However, there remain concerns around the extent to which equity is enhanced at community level and whether community benefits extend beyond those participating directly.

Table 8: Favorability of Participation by Methodology and Outcome Level

Intervention Studied / Author (s)	Methodology	Outcomes								
		Students			Schools			Communities		
		+	±	--	+	±	--	+	±	--
Community Sch. Alliance Proj (Ghana)	Qual					*?			*	
FAF/FRAM (Decentralized Service Delivery)	Qual				*			*		
SDC (Parent Governors)	Qual		*			*			*?	
Community Schools Activities Project (Ethiopia)	Qual	*			*			*		
Pastoral Basic School (PBS)	Qual	*				*			*	
Clusters- Cambodia	Qual					*?		*		
School for Life	Quan				*			*?		
PROHECO	Quan	*			*				*?	
Redes Amigas, Ecuador	Quan		*		*				*?	
BRAC	Quan	*			*			*?		
EDUCO	Quan (2)	*	*		*			*?		
Harambee	Quan (2)		*			*		*?		
Educatodos	Quan (2)	*				*			*?	
World Education Community Schools, Mali	Quan	*			*			*?		
Autonomous School Program	Qual				*			*		
	Quan (3)	*	*		*					
PRONADE	Qual	*			*			*		
	Quan		*							
SC Community Schools, Mali	Quan					*				
	Qual	*			*			*		
	Mixed	*			*			*		
SMC, Pakistan	Qual					*			*	
	Mixed					*			*	
Apoyo a la Gestion Eescolar (AGE)	Quan						*			
	Mixed	*			*			*		

Key: +: primarily positive finding; ±: mixed of positive and negative findings, and; -- primarily negative findings; *? Author's imputation
Notes: Contains 19 models from Table 4 by study design and outcome by level (student, school and community)

Given the range of complex and varied methodologies used in these studies, it is more likely now than ever that the results we now see represent the true effect of participatory approaches. Nevertheless, real concerns about what is being measured and the appropriateness of the measures used persist. The major concerns identified by this study relate to the need to focus on a wider range of student, school and community outcomes. Other questions for future evaluations include:

- How does community participation in schools affect other rights of community members? Which benefits extend beyond the participants?

- What are the long term effects of community participation on students, schools and communities?

- What role should students play in community/school partnerships?

- How does participation initiated by school system differ from participation initiated by communities?

6.0. Looking Forward: Fulticipation[18] - Towards a rights-based model

At their core, the concepts of participation, rights, education and community are directly associated with power in its various forms. While decentralization shifts location of power and allows community space to participate, it is often not accompanied by the resources (including capacity) required to maximize its effectiveness. The models reviewed showed numerous examples of increasing community decision making authority without ensuring communities have the capacity required. Despite this, the overall effect of community participation is on par with or better than that of traditional approaches. However, the rights-based approach implies that participation can help create empowered communities while operationalizing the rights to participation and education. Hence, approached from a human rights perspective, community participation is potentially transformative.

However, the transformative power of community participation can only be achieved if, by design, the approach to participation challenges the fundamental frameworks within which partnerships occur and is explicit about participation as a transformative process. Proposed below is the preliminary conceptualization of an approach that could frame schools' role in community participation. The framework describes progressive levels of participation with each level being more advanced than the other in terms of its capacity to influence social change. Fulticipation, the preferred model, is informed by lessons from the models reviewed and Hickey & Mohan (2005) and Miller et al (2003) work on participation as citizenship.

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[18] I borrow from Jamaican youth who argue that *full parti*cipation is a contradiction in terms. Fulticipation connotes giving of total self in respectful relationships of equals. I equate it with partnership.

Table 9: Preliminary models of community participation in schools

Models	Manipulation.	Involvement.	Engagement	Fulticipation
Key Features	A small group of stakeholders are in control. They consult if convenient and to placate those who may demand a space. Contribution of stakeholders is mandated and is focused on extracting as much as possible from community. Community rarely claims its rights; right to participate violated.	A central source of control sets and guides the agenda. Participation at the behest of one party (who also determines participants). Forms of participation are primarily extractive and participants have no say in decision making. No explicit capacity building opportunities. No youth roles. Community demands rights; right to participate is acknowledged but not fulfilled.	Systematic, varied opportunities to participate, including in some decisions. Center controls the agenda, local contribute to most decisions; no input in strategic direction. Participation by a wide cross-section and capacity building occur as part of the process and through ad hoc trainings. Youth rarely included and sustainability is suspect. Laws protect the right to participate but treated as a technical project input.	Right to participate guaranteed to all citizens and citizens accept it as their responsibility. Capacity building is ongoing; citizens are empowered. Agenda setting and decision making areas are open to all citizens or their representatives; strong accountability mechanisms are in place. Youth are integrally involved in decision making - school and community prepare them. Local organizations developed; contribute to sustainability and community capacity in doing rights-based analyses.
Fit with models reviewed	None of models fits this level	Models with limited decision making; focus on community contribution.	The majority of models fit here.	None fits. ASP is closest but too weak on capacity building, accountability to community and sustainability.

Meeting the very high standard of "active, free and meaningful participation in, contribution to, and enjoyment" of rights (UNICEF 2004, 92) requires that participation goes beyond contribution to an education project. Schools, because of their unique position in most communities, can be critical players in helping communities realize the right to participate while fulfilling children's right to education. In most developing countries they are often better resourced than other community institutions and have more good will towards them. In the fulticipation model, the school is central to the community; there is reciprocity in the relationship and they serve as a space for contributive and distributive functions (Willie, 2006). This model also integrates participation into the education of youth and gives citizens the tools to reshape power structures. Its rights-based perspective allows for inclusion of the political aspects of participation and making critical linkages among participation, accountability and citizenship, (Nyamu-Musembi and Cornwall, 2004). This is a very preliminary treatment of the concept; I will further develop it during my dissertation work.

7.0. Conclusion

This study brings to the fore a range of approaches to engaging communities in school governance that have been implemented and evaluated. It finds that the overall effect of participation on student, schools and communities in the models reviewed is positive or, at worst, neutral. However, as Reimers (1997) notes, school autonomy and local participation are not panaceas; providing opportunities to participate do not automatically transfer to positive results. This study also found that access to space for participation sometimes furthers community inequality and perpetuates the marginalization of some citizens. This is due in part to the continued use of participation as a technical input in development processes and the failure to invest in truly building communities through participatory processes that incorporate the rich, diverse, chaotic messiness that oftentimes characterize communities. This requires a framework that considers students, parents and communities as rights holders, citizens, with an entitlement to participate.

The rights-based perspective, flawed and messy as it is, offers one framing that helps with rethinking community participation. Schools offer one mechanism through which community participation for the fulfillment of rights can be approached. Done effectively, the implications for education, communities and societies more broadly include more equitable distribution of power and more empowered communities that help to shape social processes and institutions, including schools.

8.0. References

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9.0 APPENDICES

9.1 Appendix 1: *Studies reviewed by purpose, design and sample*

Interventions /Authors	Purpose	Design and methods	Sample
Bray (1999)	examine the scale and nature of household and community financing of primary education in Cambodia	Mixed: quantitative - surveys and qualitative – focus groups, case studies	Phase 1: 2 sites – Takeo Province (rural) and Phnom Penh (uHRBAn); head teachers and parents complete questionnaire then attend workshop where focus groups occur. Phase 2: 8 case studies in 4 provinces; 6 workshops with 8-10 schools each from diverse community – participants bring completed questionnaires
Salami and Kpamegan (2002) Access, quality and com. participation	to assess the impact of community participation on basic education access and quality.	Mixed - primarily qualitative with descriptive stats	Study done in three communities of varied economic and educational development. Survey included 1332 parents and 184 teachers selected by stratified random sampling.
Baku and Agyman (2002) (c.) Access, quality and com. participation	To establish the extent to which the level of community participation affects access and quality of basic education	Mixed: Quantitative: knowledge tests, questionnaires; Qualitative – group discussion, observation, doc analysis	4700 respondents including 3635 1st and 5th graders; 642 community members; 215 parents; 108 school and 83 administration questionnaires completed by 200 persons.
Sangare and Diarra (2002) (d) Access, quality and community participation	To discover the Malian pattern of participation in developing the educational system, identify the where participation occurs, and measure its impact on access and quality of education	Mixed: qualitative - content analysis; quantitative - multivariate analysis	Five study areas, 3 communities in each, of varied geography and ethnicity. In each community 160 interviewees including 100 members of the community, 10 community leaders, 10 basic edu. officials and 40 students
Amevigbe, Tchamegnon, Kodjo, & Finou (2002) Access, quality and com. participation	Identify and evaluate the effect of community participation on quality, funding, and participation in education processes	Mixed: quantitative - correlations, multiple regression; Qualitative - interviews	Country zoned into 4 clusters; 6 sch communities selected from each zone based on set criteria. Respondents: 235 parents/guardians/community members
Gertler, Patrinos & Rubio-Codina (2006)	Examines the impact of the AGEs on intermediate school quality indicators (grade failure, grade repetition and intra-year dropout) among rural primary sch	Mixed: Quantitative: difference in difference average (treatment estimates); Qualitative - interviews	AGEs supported schools (1998-2001) identified through CONAFE database and controls selected from sch started in 2002-04 Sample of 2,580 AGE treatment and 3,258 AGEs control primary schools – all rural, serving indigenous students
Khan, Shahrukh Rafi	Evaluates implementation of government SMC/PTA policy and the effectiveness of NGO schs in incorporating participation compared to public sch	Mixed: quantitative – descriptive statistics; Qualitative: document analysis, field visits and lit. review	National representative sample for Survey.
Miguel and Gugerty	Examines the relationship between ethnic diversity and local public goods in rural Kenya	Mixed: Quantitative: OLS and Instrumental variable estimate; Qualitative - interviews, observations and review historical records	Survey of over 6000 student (12-18 y.o), 861 teacher, and 100 school questionnaires in 100 (of 337) schools in Busia and Teso districts. Schools selected by School Assistance Project.
Muskin, J	Measures academic performance and internal efficiency and satisfaction with community-run schools	Mixed: (Case study) Qualitative: focus groups with parents; Quantitative: survey of students and HH	349 3rd and 4th grade students from 13 CS and 347 from 12 GS in south Mali randomly selected, tested in reading and math; 100 GS and 124 CS HH administered knowledge test on student actions at home.
Akukwe, G. and Chapman, D.	investigate sustainability of PTA and SMCs beyond the project funding, and how differences in communities about post funding sustainability map onto synthesis model of sustainability	Qualitative: semi-structured interviews	6 communities selected by convenience sampling based on project and contextual factors; completed 109 interviews with 11 sets of stakeholders - head teachers, teachers, school management committee, PTA executive members, parents, religious leaders, assemblymen,

Interventions /Authors	Purpose	Design and methods	Sample
			circuit supervisors, and unit committee members
Brinkerhoff,D with Keener S.	An analysis of the dynamics of administrative procedures, accountability mechanisms, and resource allocation authority in de-concentrated districts	Qualitative: semi-structured interviews, case studies	4 sch. and 5 health posts in two districts that have high poverty and cultural diversity and involved in expenditure tracking survey. Interviewed NGO, church, elected officials, parents, FAFs, FRAMs, teachers, central and district authorities
Carneal, C Capacci	To gain more integrated understanding of the voices and variety of notions and practices associated with community schools	Qualitative: document analysis, semi-structured interviews, observation, focus groups	12 villages (4 where schools started purposively selected plus 8 others) in Kolondieba; interviews with 204 children (124 CS students, 37 drop-outs, 43 never attended) 217 parents and guardians, 13 teachers, 45 SMC members, 11 international NGO and 6 LEA staff
Chikoko, V. (2008)	study the role of parent members of the SDC in school decision making	Qualitative: multi-site case study; interviews, observation	Cluster of five primary schools; in each, group interviews with parent governors, one-to-one interview with SDC teacher rep., observed a SDC-parent meeting
Delagnello, L V	investigate context in which participation takes places in Brazilian schools and the effects parents attribute to their involvement	Qualitative: observation, interviews (three-interview series), focus groups	Purposeful sampling of sites with institutional mechanism for participation; 2 schools in Porto Alegre; observed school council meetings; interviewed parents, school administrators, dept. of education personnel; focus groups with teachers and mothers
Gershberg, A (2002)	Examines the benefits, pitfalls and politics of the process of implementing ASP in Nicaragua.	Qualitative - interviews and observations	Interviews with stakeholders and observation of committee meetings.
Gershberg, Meade, & Andersson (2008)	Explores how the PRONADE and PROESCOLAR models provide management authority to community members - explores accountability in community involvement in management	Qualitative: semi-structured individual and group interviews	2 PRONADE and 2 PROESCOLAR schools, old and new, in rural Guatemala in poor communities with different language and academic literacy skills; interview local and central ministry officials and policy makers, academics, development workers
Khan, F	Assess the effect of school councils on social capital in rural communities and their role in bringing about change	Qualitative: interviews, observations, document analysis	8 school councils, purposively selected, 4 boys and 4 girls' govt. schools partnering with NGOs; 94 interviews with school council, govt. and CSO personnel; 16 obs. and doc analysis.
Mfun-Mensah, O	investigate some of the issues involved in local management of schools	Qualitative: interviews, observations, document analysis	42 stakeholders - Purposive selection of 2 local chiefs, school administrators, coordinator of PBS, district education officers, and assembly member; random selection of students, NGO staff, parents, PTA, SMC, community members
Pellini, A (2008)	analysis of the spaces for participation by communities in Cambodian schools	Qualitative: observations, semi-structured interviews, lit review	
Pryor, John (2005)	Explores the micro-level applications and implications of Ghana's decentralization policies	Qualitative: ethnography; interviews, observations	Ethnographic study of Akurase in rural Ghana
Swift-Morgan	What constitutes community participation in schools? What is the impact of these various forms of participation on educational quality and access?	Qualitative - interviews, focus groups	8 schools in 8 rural communities in SNNPR region – 4 from each of 2 zones, 2 from each of 4 woredas (districts). 200 interviewees: teacher and administrator, male community members, female community members, primary students, and SMC/PTA stakeholder groups interviewed at each school; also interviewed woreda officers.
Chase, R (2002).	Investigates the targeting and household and community effects of the Armenian Social Investment Fund where it supported the repair or building	Quantitative: integrated household survey; propensity score matching, pipeline matching	Nationally rep. sample of 3,600 HH – oversampled where ASIF was active (completed and approved (pipeline) projects). Compares communities where projects were completed, HH in propensity matched communities and

Interventions /Authors	Purpose	Design and methods	Sample
	of schools and water systems		unmatched randomly selected HH.
di Gropello, E and Marshall, J. (2005)	assesses the effect of PROHECO community schools on first order outcomes of teaching and learning environment and second-order outcomes of student learning	Quantitative: multivariate analysis	Population of PROHECO schools and UMCE data on two control groups. CONTROL 2003 - survey in 120 school with 1,100 3rd graders includes teacher and school directors survey; students tested in math, Spanish and science. CONTROL 2002 created because of concerns about 2003 group; second control group from 2002 data but used different instruments.
Destefano, Hartwell, Moore, & Benbow (2006)	Cross-country analysis of how complementary models affect access, completion and learning	Quantitative: cost effectiveness study	Calculated based on project documents and individual cases studies by the authors
Jimenez and Sawada (1998)	Assesses EDUCO using measures of outcome (math, language scores and days missed by student due to teacher absence) at the third grade level	Quantitative: Estimates production functions for 3rd grade outcomes; Heckman 2 stage model (correct selection effects)	Data collected by MINED from 311 schools, 1555 students, 596 ACE members in 162 municipalities in 1996; sample consisted 897 3rd grade students from 38 pure & mixed EDUCO and 154 pure & mixed traditional rural schools
King and Ozler (2004)	"an attempt at unbundling design implementation aspects of decentralization in measuring the reform's effect on learning outcomes" (3)	Quantitative: matched-comparison, education production function, matched school-household survey	Sample of 80 ASP and 46 non-ASP schools selected; sample of 10-15 3rd (primary) or 2nd year (secondary) students randomly selected and surveyed in each school (info obtained on their families). Replenished sample resulted in 1,873 students; 1211 participated in achievement tests
King, Ozler, and Rawling	Investigates which schools were most likely to participate in ASP and effect of participation on schools	Quantitative: matched-comparison, multivariate analysis	See above (King and Ozler, 2004). In addition, the principal, one to two teachers, and 2 council members at each school were interviewed.
Kremer, Moulin and Namunyu (2003)	Explores efficiency of the incentives created by Kenya's school finance system	Quantitative: financial analysis and randomized trial	14 schools in Busia and Teso districts randomly assigned – treatment group received Child Sponsorship Program
Marshall (2008)	Examines student achievement in rural Guatemala, test mechanisms that explain gap in performance of indigenous students and analyze dynamics between traditional public schools and PRONADE	Quantitative: student achievement production functions, achievement decompositions.	58 rural schools in three states based on ethnic composition; selected cohort of 249 students previously tested in a 2001 study
Marshall, Mejia, and Aguilar	analysis of attrition causes among participants in EDUCATODOS	Quantitative: multivariate analyses, event history, discrete time survival analysis, odds ratio	390 Learning centers divided geographically into 45 clusters of 6-10. 8 clusters (55 centers) randomly selected. Recreated history of centers. Individual and focus groups with dropouts of 15 operating, former participants of 8 closed, enrollees in 15 functioning, 30 facilitators of 20, and observed 12 centers.
Parker, C	Have changes in autonomy, particularly those related to teacher incentives, led to improved student outcomes?	Quantitative: impact evaluation, multi-level modeling	Nationally rep sample of 3rd and 6th graders in 134 schools selected by stratified random and all tested in math Spanish; teachers, parents, school directors, and council members surveyed
Ponce, J	Aim: evaluate the effect of Redes Amigas on math and language performance 2nd and 4th graders	Quantitative: quasi-experimental; Pipeline comparison design and propensity score matching; education production function	Collected student, school, teacher and HH data using multi-stage cluster random sampling design (1st select network/quasi-network, then schools, then all 2nd and 4th graders). 1464 2nd and 1317 4th graders in primary schools were interviewed and evaluated using standardized tests in math and language
Reimers and Cardenas	Explores how SBM in the Programa de Escuelas de Calidad contributes to reducing inequity	Quantitative – descriptive stats from secondary data set; survey of principals;	National QSP database; survey of 153 principals and 164 teachers working QSP schools
Samir, Sylva, and Grimes	investigates the impact of BRAC on raising basic educational standards for rural children	Quantitative: multivariate analysis – logistic regression, fitted odds ratio	Simple random sampling to select 720 10-16 y.o., 120 boys and 120 girls in each of the following categories: BRAC graduates, never attended

Interventions /Authors	Purpose	Design and methods	Sample
			school, and students with 3 years or more of formal schools in 5 rural areas
Sawada and Ragatz (2005)	explores the effects of decentralization on administrative processes and teacher behavior and how these affect student outcomes and education quality	Quantitative: uses propensity score matching	Data collected by MINED from 311 schools, 1555 students, 596 ACE members in 162 municipalities (of 262) in 1996; after removing uHRBAn and private schools, sample consisted 897 3rd grade students from 37 pure EDUCO and 96 pure traditional rural schools. Also surveyed teachers, parents, sch directors and PTA
Tietjen (1999)	to describe and compare the cost of SC and WE models of community school in Mali with the government-run schools in order to better understand the costs and funding sources	Quantitative: cost analysis study	Administrative data from NGOs, government and donors

9.2. Appendix 2: Evaluations / Studies Reviewed

Amevigbe, P., Tchamegnon, J., Kodjo, KL., and Finou N., (2002). Togo. In ERWACA, USAID and SARA (Eds.) A Transnational view of basic education: Issues of access, quality and community participation in West and Central Africa. Washington D.C.: USAID.

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9.3. Appendix 3: Criteria for the Selection of Studies

A: Pre-requisites for consideration
- Available in English (as the author is not sufficiently proficient in any other language)
- Distributed beyond the organization(s) or individual(s) who prepared it;
- Addresses participation of communities (not parents, families or caregivers only), and;
- Based on primary data collected for a study of community participation in schools.

B: First Screening
- Is the purpose of the study clear?
- Is the problem clearly defined?
- Are research questions clearly stated and sufficient to measure the phenomenon?
- Are research methods adequately described (description of how data was collected, participants studied, sampling procedures, data collection instruments used and conditions under which data were collected)?
- Is the unit of analysis specified clearly?

C: Second Screening
- Are the limitations of design, sampling, data collection, and analysis described?
- Are analytic frameworks consistent with the evaluation questions or hypotheses under study?
- Are negative findings presented?
- Are text and tables, figures, and graphs consistent?
- Are the conclusion limited to study's unit of analysis in that findings are applied only to the sample, setting, and programs included in the research?
- Are potential rival explanations of findings considered?
- Where comparisons are made to other studies, do the researchers adequately illustrate the similarities (in sample, setting, intervention)?

(Sources: Based on Fink, 2005 (in Villegas 2006, 9) and Katzer, Cook and Crouch, 1998).