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Working Paper

Financing Education in Developing Countries: Philanthropic Organizations need to monitor their investment for impact

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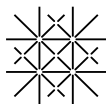
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**University
of Basel**

Center for
Philanthropy Studies



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**Financing Education in Developing Countries:
Philanthropic Organizations need to monitor their investment for impact**

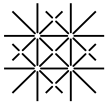
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Abstract

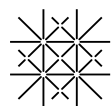
Philanthropic organisations (PO) are important partners in the context of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and in regard to capacity building for education in Developing Countries (DCs) especially regarding Goal 4 education and Goal 17 partnerships. The POs contributions in DCs are important but their own strategic intent and the development impact of their local partners in the DC needs to be better understood to ensure mutually successful cooperation.

This paper sheds light on the various contextual differences that might make a PO's investment difficult. For instance, a DC's strategic intent in terms of cooperation with POs is to ensure the development of a productive workforce, responsible citizens and to improve the country's deficits of its educational sector. A PO investing in education in a DC might have convergent and divergent objectives, which need to be addressed in order to avoid conflicts with the DC and possible premature ending of their cooperation.

This paper discusses the constraints and opportunities of providing educational services across borders. It makes reference to hurdles that need to be identified and appropriately addressed such as rules regarding trade in education services as defined by WTO agreements as well as other national rules which a PO investor needs to know, respect and manage such as labour rules covering teaching faculty, educational fees and scholarly grading systems.

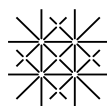
Investing by providing education to a DC can be successful under the condition that the PO develops and applies a comprehensive monitoring system that helps the PO understand and constructively manage the investment challenges at Meta, Macro, Meso and Micro level. This paper explains the different levels and provides suggestions how these multiple hurdles can successfully be overcome for the benefits of all parties involved in cross-border educational investment by a non-state actor (PO) in a developing country.

Keywords: Philanthropic Organisations, Investment in education in Developing Countries, Monitoring investment, State versus Non-State actor cooperation.



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1 Positioning of the Paper

This paper presents and discusses the planning of investment steps to be planned by Philanthropic Organizations who decide to finance education in Developing Countries (DCs). It describes how the POs can monitor their investments steps from home country headquarters all the way to the recipient country's targeted beneficiaries. The steps outline investment decisions that need to be carefully planned by the PO consisting of monitoring of meta-macro-meso-micro levels of investment and engagement.

Putting in place analytical tools and mechanisms to monitor such investment is crucial for the success of Philanthropic Organizations' investments who provide support to the educational sector of a Developing Country. Without careful and comprehensive ex-ante monitoring and preparations, POs are more prone to ignore important investments challenges and hence increase the likelihood that their investment ends in failure.

This paper does not focus on evaluation of PO investments and projects. Evaluations are ex-post measures to assess effectiveness and efficiency of technical cooperation projects. Picciotto (2011) and Callias et al (2017) discussed evaluations of PO extensively and identified the need to improve on PO aid evaluations. Monitoring can generate data that can be useful for subsequent evaluations but monitoring as such is crucial on an ongoing basis, not every 3-4 years when an evaluation might be planned and implemented.

In addition to the above clarification, when mentioning investment in education by POs, the authors mean investing by PO in not-for-profit technical cooperation support not for financial returns on investment. Some POs with hybrid structure (partially commercial mother company coupled with a non-for-profit NGO) might make inadvertently links between their philanthropic and commercial activities. Such possible hybrid structure is however not the focus of this paper.

2 Introduction

Monitoring has traditionally been used as an accountability mechanism by implementing agencies carrying out externally funded projects. Monitoring serves to track and manage data about inputs, activities, and outputs resulting from a project.

Bearing in mind the risks and opportunities of investing in education in DCs, POs would benefit from going beyond a small scale project monitoring approach and instead enlarge the scope of monitoring and create a comprehensive monitoring system that is better equipped to provide data and oversight over the longer-term effect of such an educational programme.¹

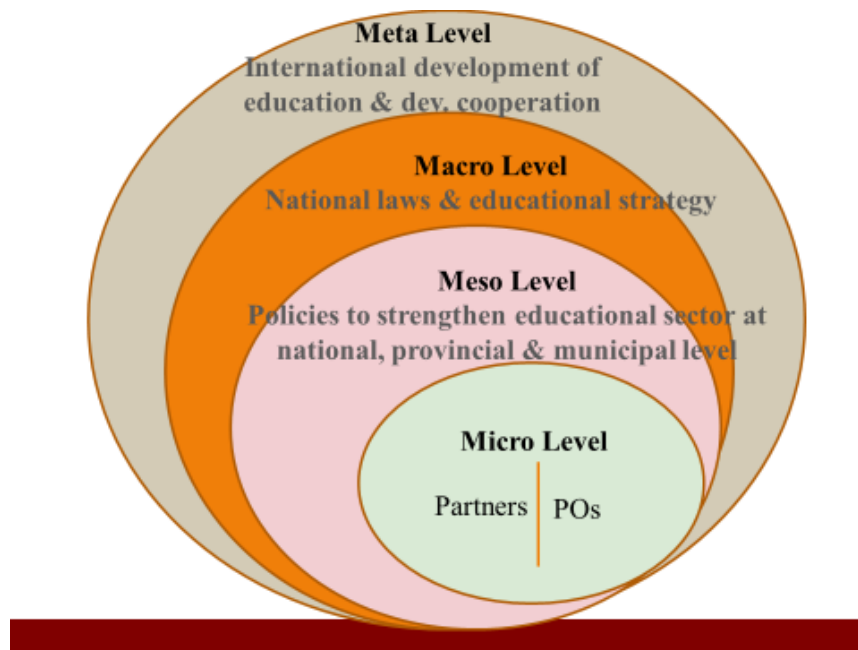
The paper applies a review method that combines a critical review approach with a comprehensive literature search and limited quantitative studies to produce "best evidence synthesis" (Booth, 2009). Building on models developed by sociologists (Raub & Voss, 2016), economists (Dopfer, Foster & Potts, 2004; Sheng, D; Geng, X; 2012), political scientists (Meyer-Stamer, J, 2003) and engineering scientists (Li, Bocong; 2012), the authors developed a Meta-Macro-Meso-Micro

¹ Reference made to the suggestion to create a monitoring system for SDG implementation see: Husch, Jerri; Saner, Raymond; Yiu, Lichia; Zeitz, Paul; Monitoring of SDG Implementation: Infrastructure and Methodology – Proposal for Action, CSEND Policy Brief No. 14 ISSN 2235-8048 Geneva, 27th June, 2014.



model to analyse the main factors when POs investing in a DC's educational sector should include in their risk analysis before taking operational decisions.

Figure 1: 4-Level Analysis



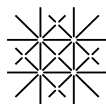
Source: Authors' illustration

Following the concept mentioned above and depicted in Figure 1 above, we suggest the following analytical levels. It relates namely I) Meta Level: Global trends in international education and development; II) Macro-Level: National laws, regulatory system and educational strategy of a beneficiary country; III Meso Level: Stakeholder of a DC's educational sector at national, provincial and municipal level; IV Micro Level: Monitoring of partnership relations with local service providers and performance assessment of the PO itself.

3 I: Meta Level Analysis

3.1 Development Aid in education by public and Philanthropic organisations

Financing education in developing countries through Overseas Development Aid (ODA) by bilateral donors or multilateral development agencies is often labelled as educational capacity building (CB) and institution development (ID). The main donors of ODA in the educational field



are The World Bank, The OECD, UNESCO and bilateral donors such as USAID, GIZ, SIDA, SDC, NORAD and CIDA.

Foreign aid from official donors totalled USD 146.6 billion in 2017, a small decrease of 0.6% from 2016 in real terms as less money was spent on refugees inside donor countries but with more funds flowing to countries most in need of aid, according to preliminary official data collected by the OECD.²

Most of the bilateral and multilateral donors providing CB + ID in education to Developing Countries (DCs) publish reports on their activities and make their project and programme reports available to the public.

This is less the case in regard to information about POs who are active in DCs in the field of education. Some POs publish activity reports but most of them who have relevant information do not necessarily make these reports publicly available. Hence, getting reliable data covering the whole sector of POs activities in development work is difficult to obtain.

The most relevant data on POs active in development aid has been collected and analysed by the OECD. According to the OECD's 2016 Data Survey on POs' participation for development, the following initial findings have been made public. The OECD survey focused on collecting detailed (activity-level) information from the most active and influential philanthropic foundations, funds, trusts and corporations involved in development co-operation.

The survey covered POs involved in either giving for developmental purposes to DCs directly or implementing intermediaries such as NGOs, multilateral institutions, research institutes and private enterprises. The initial results indicate that these aid flows amounted to USD 22.7 billion in 2013-15, or USD 7.6 billion on a yearly average.

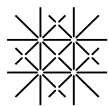
These figures are drawn from more than 100 private philanthropic foundations, notably from the United States, Canada, United Kingdom, Netherlands, Switzerland and other European countries, but also from other countries including India, Brazil and Mexico.³ According to the OECD preliminary study, the majority of philanthropic giving originated from North America (76%), the Europe-based foundations provided 18% of the total over the 3-year period and other foundations located in other countries and regions (India, Latin America, Africa, Middle East, Hong Kong and Japan) represented a smaller share of the total (6%). However, data collection from Chinese foundations is still on going.

According to the OECD survey, philanthropies targeted predominantly the health and reproductive health & population sectors which together accounted for 53% of the total giving over the period 2013-15, followed by education (9%), agriculture (9%) and government & civil society (8% - including human rights, gender, civil society development and transparency & accountability).

Findings of the 2017 OECD survey focusing on the educational sector of PO's indicate that the educational sector benefitted from around USD 1.5 billion over the three budget years 2013-15 representing 7% of total giving by POs. However, without contributions made by the Bill and

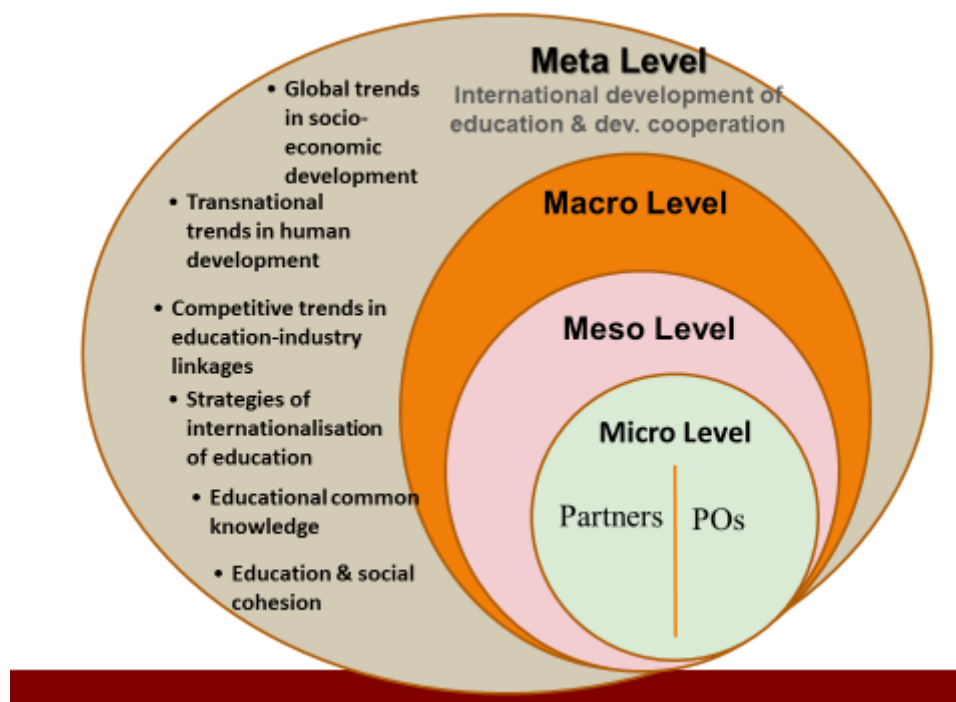
² <http://www.oecd.org/newsroom/development-aid-stable-in-2017-with-more-sent-to-poorest-countries.htm>

³ <https://www.oecd.org/dac/financing-sustainable-development/development-finance-data/Preliminary-results-philanthropy-survey.pdf>



Melinda Gates Foundation, the total amount invested in education would only amount to 0.6 billion USD. More than half of this amount concerns vocational training, higher education and education residual category (education policy/unspecified purpose within the education sector/education in general). Over a half of the total sector giving concerns activities with a global/multi-continent scope, in/for India, Nigeria, Mexico, Ethiopia, South Africa and other Developing Countries. The funds are predominantly channelled through NGOs, universities, research institutes etc. Development cooperation in education for developing countries is very much embedded today in the post 2015 Agenda that replaced the Millennium Development Goals that lasted from 2000-2015. The international agreement called 2030 Agenda started in 2015 and will run until 2030.

Figure 2: Meta Level Analysis

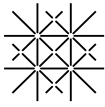


Source: Authors' own illustration

3.2 Opportunities within the context of the SDGs

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) consist of 17 Goals, 169 Targets and 232 indicators that will be used to measure the implementation of the SDGs.⁴ The SDGs are a transformative undertaking of the whole world community and are based on a comprehensive three dimensional orientation. The SDGs should help the 193 UN member countries embark on an indivisible

⁴ Most of the indicators have been defined, some are still in the process of being finalized. For more information on the indicators, see: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/indicators-list/>



approach focusing on sustainable environmental, social and economic development in all member countries, rich or poor, north or south, east or west.

All member countries of the United Nations have signed on to the 2030 Agenda. With this signing, countries agreed to do their best to implement the SDGs in its own national territory as well as support the implementation of the SDGs at its sub-national level (provinces, municipalities). In addition, all countries agreed to conduct reviews of its implementation every four years on a voluntary basis and provide support for monitoring of their SDG implementation.

Sustainable Development Goal 4 is the education-related goal of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Its overall aim is to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all - be that people living in developed or developing countries. Education is also included in other SDG goals such as health, growth and employment, sustainable consumption and production, and climate change.

Underneath this goal, there are nine targets ranging from providing quality and sustainable primary, secondary, and early childhood education, as well as promoting tertiary, technical education, literacy, and numeracy, for both men and women in their youth and adulthood. The targets for Sustainable Development Goal Four on education are listed in the Annex

The SDG 4 targets cover a range of governance issues such as ensuring equal and non-discriminating access to education to ensure quality education for all. What stands out is the emphasis put on real skill acquisition as the core of learning outcome, i.e., Targets 4.4, 4.6 & 4.7. Therefore, SDG 4 has moved the bar higher, no longer satisfied with outputs such as enrollment, but included the impact of education and learning on individual's capacity to function productively in the society. Such a qualitative oriented performance measure puts a more nuanced demand on the designing and implementation of monitoring.

Countries are expected to translate the global policy objectives into national action plans. A typical process of setting a national SDG strategy consists of identifying a country's most urgent needs, its long-term development goals, and how to finance the country's SDG strategy.

Part of the process of implementing the SDGs is the setting of a SDG strategy through consulting important stakeholders (business, NGOs, academics, media, and social leaders). Participation of stakeholders at different stages of SDG implementation should be seen in the spirit of 2030 Agenda to safeguard policy relevance, fairness and accountability. In this sense, other actors who intend to support a DC's implementation need to take account of this participation principle in formulating their own educational programmes.

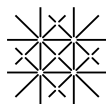
Leading International Organisations involved in providing development aid in education for DCs have developed their own websites pertaining to education and often link their activities in the educational sector to the SDGs. The leading multilateral organisations involved in education are UNESCO⁵, OECD⁶, and the World Bank⁷ and other NGOs and academic institutions who have created their own education and development websites.

POs intent in financing education in a DC should be aware of the recipient country's SDG strategy particularly in regard to SDG 4 (education) but also in regard to other SDG goals with strong

⁵ <http://en.unesco.org/sdgs>

⁶ <http://www.oecd.org/education/>

⁷ <http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/education>



educational components such as health, growth and employment, sustainable consumption and production, and climate change. Callias et al (2017) give several examples of national SDG strategy and how POs can find mutually beneficial partnerships for development projects in education in DCs such as Ghana, Columbia, Kenya and Zambia.

3.3 Options to financing of education within the SDG/AAAA context

Implementing the SDGs requires a lot of financial resources. In order to achieve these 17 goals, very substantial financial investment are required. According to the 2014 World Investment Report (WIR) by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), approximately \$ 4 trillion will be required every year in developing countries alone for the SDGs to be achieved by 2030. Given the current levels of investment in all SDG-related sectors by both public and private bodies, developing countries face a funding gap of \$2.5 trillion per year.⁸

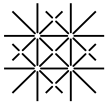
Negotiations about financing development were held in Addis Ababa in July 2015 shortly before the adoption of the 2030 Agenda during the Third International Conference on Financing for Development also called the Addis Ababa Action Agenda (or short AAAA). The AAAA was designed to complement the financial side of the 2030 Agenda. The UN General Assembly adopted the AAAA outcome document on 27th July 2015 (A/RES/69/313) shortly before the Agenda 2030 was adopted on 25th September the same year.

Point 42 of the AAAA agreement directly addresses the POs. It states:

“We welcome the rapid growth of philanthropic giving and the significant financial and non-financial contribution philanthropists have made towards achieving our common goals. We recognize philanthropic donors’ flexibility and capacity for innovation and taking risks, and their ability to leverage additional funds through multi-stakeholder partnerships. We encourage others to join those who already contribute. We welcome efforts to increase cooperation between philanthropic actors, Governments and other development stakeholders. We call for *increased transparency and accountability in philanthropy*. We encourage philanthropic donors to give due consideration to local circumstances and align with national policies and priorities. We also encourage philanthropic donors to consider managing their endowments through impact investment, which considers both profit and non-financial impacts in its investment criteria.” (AAAA, point 42, page 21, *Italic added*).

POs are welcomed to contribute to the development challenges of the DCs and hence to the Sustainable Development Goals. At the same time, the AAAA paragraph cited above gives clear indications as to what is expected of POs active in development support particularly in regard to transparency, accountability and cooperation with governments and other development stakeholders. In view of the prevailing organisational culture of confidentiality, POs involved in development would benefit from transforming their organisational culture towards a more transparent and participatory organisational culture. Making their respective investment projects

⁸ http://www.unece.org/fileadmin/DAM/ceci/documents/2014/PPP_Newsletter/newsletter_06_content_2_WEB.pdf



and programme impactful could be a step toward the right direction. After all, private investment in the education sector is about producing “public goods” in a beneficial manner.

The same considerations also hold in regard to the kinds of partnerships that POs can engage in. SDG Goal 17 aims to strengthen the means of implementation and to revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development through the development of inclusive institutions at all levels.⁹ These partnerships are defined by Goal 17 and is target 17 as consisting of the following:

17.17 Encourage and promote effective public, public-private and civil society partnerships, building on the experience and resourcing strategies of partnerships
(p.27/35)

Philanthropic giving fall under Civil Society Partnerships with public and private sector partners. Work has been done in terms of good practices for governing such private-public partnerships, which could be extended to include philanthropic-public partnerships. However, if a PO is closely linked to a Corporation or a Corporations’ own Foundation, the PO’s role might be considered as that of a hybrid form which in turn could cause difficulties in regard to transparency as described above in the citation pertaining to the AAAA agreement and in regard to the proper form of governance.

Leaving aside hybrid versions of PO, the question remains as to how a PO wants to finance its educational development activities in DCs. Will it be based on 100% own finances or will it be through some form of Public-Private-Civil Society Partnership involving financial participation of third parties as e.g. government entities, corporations or local foundations? Response to such capital ownership question will affect the interpretation and assessment of accountability, public disclosure (transparency) and governance system.

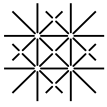
Whether the solution will be public, public-private or through society partnership, the solutions should build on the experience (proven track records) and the resourcing strategies of partnership, which as stated above, should be transparent, inclusive and participatory. Should these criteria be applied, monitoring will then need to address these questions regarding operational rules and procedures applied for decision-making and throughput management, in addition to the traditional review of the inputs and outputs compliance.

It is important to take into account that some PPPs involve capital injection by partner governments that is inherently risky since it could lead to further indebtedness. Poor financial management coupled with weak institutions have landed many Least Developed Countries (LDCs) in the past decades with unsustainable debt. In other words, whether public, private, public-private, or society based - all financing of SDG goals carry the risk of indebtedness if countries do not carefully assess the potential short, medium and long-term risks of indebtedness.

POs should hence carefully select the kind of financing they want to use for development assistance in DCs in order to avoid putting the countries into worse off financial positions. As Target 17.4 states:

“Assist developing countries in attaining long-term debt sustainability through coordinated policies aimed at fostering debt financing, debt relief and debt

⁹ Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015,
http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/70/1&Lang=E



restructuring, as appropriate, and address the external debt of highly indebted poor countries to reduce debt distress.”

Inviting other partners to add their own finances be that loans or equity for a planned educational development project could be a strategy to increase a POs financial leverage and increase economies of scale especially if a PO operates in a large DC and wants to reach a larger segment of the population. However, such PPP could also carry longer-term financial risk for the PO especially if such educational projects are intended to serve the poor and marginalised population and are fully financed by a foreign PO. User-pay-principles, which might be necessary for meeting longer-term financial viability, cannot apply here.

Trust building and keeping trust also entails adequate transparency on the side of the PO. A PO might be linked to a Foundation, which in turns could be controlled by private sector Company with commercial interests in the DC earmarked for educational investment thereby creating a form of hybrid POs. Not to be transparent on possible hybrid complex relations might lead to a loss of trust on the side of the DC partner country.

4 II: Macro Level

4.1 Implementation of education within a regulatory system in developing countries at national level.

POs planning to engage themselves in supporting education in developing countries or wanting to re-assess the risks and opportunities of financing education across borders should take into consideration the fact that all countries- developed or developing- have their own regulatory framework. This framework governs the countries’ educational sector and POs should accept it, respect and work within the spirit of long-term and mutually beneficial partnership.

Building on Lim & Saner (2011) and Saner (2015), the following observations about the educational market offers orientation to POs intend in financing education in developing countries or interested in re-assessing their role and participation in DCs educational sector through a cost recovery business model.

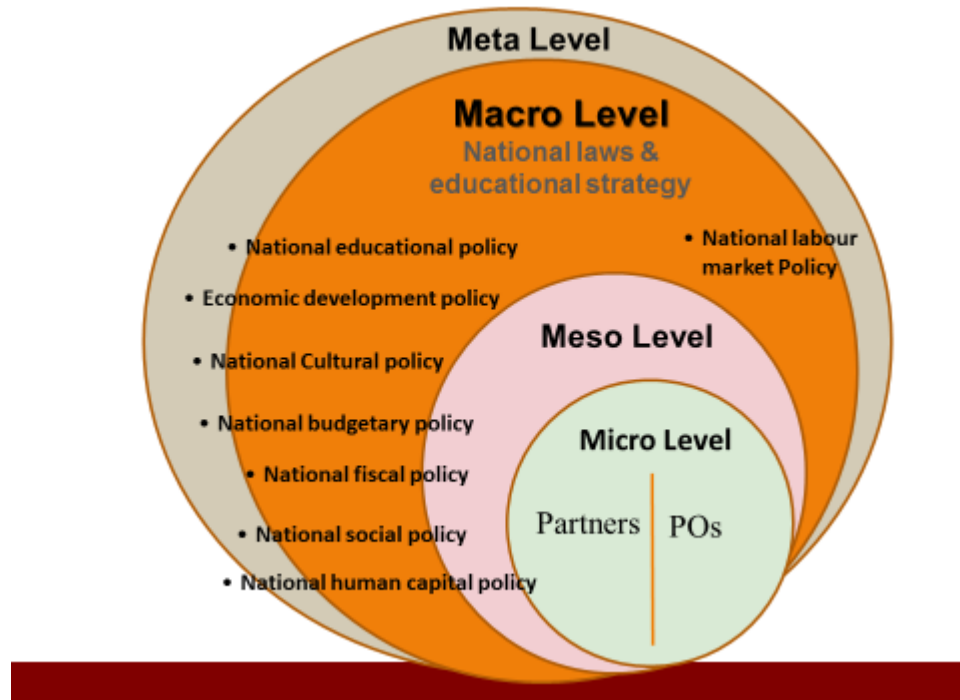
Demand for education has grown rapidly in developed and particularly in developing countries. Private education has taken a more prominent role, with growing numbers of for-profit institutions, as well as private philanthropic institutions, in the education sector.¹⁰

In most economies, education at the primary and secondary levels is still predominantly public. In the OECD area, for instance, on average 91 percent of primary and 85 percent of secondary school students are enrolled with public institutions. Similarly, high percentages can also be observed in developing countries.

¹⁰ Private philanthropic institutions are considered here as not-for-profit institutions that rely on a combination of gifts and fees.



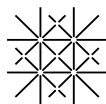
Figure 3: Macro Level Analysis



Source: Authors' own illustration

Given its importance for human and social development, governments throughout the world tend to consider instruction up to a certain level – commonly primary and secondary education – as a basic entitlement. It is thus normally provided free of charge, or with a nominal fee, by public authorities and, in most economies, participation is mandatory.

The situation changes, however, with respect to higher education. Even though students enrolled at publicly funded institutions still outnumber those in private institutions, over the last decade, private providers have made significant inroads at both the national and international level. Today, private institutions globally account for some 30 percent of all students in higher education (Altbach et.al, 2009, pp. xi-xiii). In some regions of the world, private higher education institutions are part of a fast-growing international education market. The private sector represents slightly more than 10 percent of total tertiary enrolments in Spain and France and about 30 percent in Poland, the US and Mexico (Vincent-Lancrin, 2009, p. 261). In Asian economies, such as Japan, Korea, Indonesia and the Philippines, over 75 percent of enrolments are with private education providers, while in Mexico, Brazil, South Africa and Chile it is about 50 percent (Altbach et.al, 2009). One of the most remarkable developments in the African continent's higher education system is the mushrooming of private colleges. However, the demand for access is still far from being fulfilled, with a total enrollment of rate of about 5 percent of eligible school leavers in higher education (ibid.).



Under the WTO General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), services in trade is defined as being conducted under four modes of supply.¹¹ These four modes capture all possible means by which education can be supplied internationally.

Under mode 1, services are supplied into a territory without the presence of the supplier. In education services, international distance education would fall under mode 1. In terms of education services, mode 2 (consumption abroad) has traditionally been the most common way by which trade in educational services occurs. This mode covers the situation where a student moves abroad and consumes education services whilst in another territory. In recent years, mode 2 has been supplemented by mode 1 (cross-border supply of education). The possibilities for such transactions have clearly expanded with the advent of the internet, as well with franchise/twinning arrangements between a foreign provider and local institution.¹²

Mode 3 (commercial presence) describes the situation where the service supplier establishes commercial presence in the territory in which it supplies services. The establishment of foreign campuses, for instance, would fall under mode 3. The last mode of supply, mode 4 (movement of natural persons) reflects the situation where a natural person, as distinct from a juridical person, supplies services in a foreign territory. Situations falling under mode 4 would include the movement of teaching staff either as the direct supplier of the service or as employees of a foreign institution established in that territory.

Table 1 categorises the various ways by which education service transactions fall under the four modes of supply. In some cases, the correspondence between forms of education delivery and modes of supply are relatively straightforward such as in the case of study abroad (mode 2) and traditional distance learning (mode 1), or academic mobility (mode 4). However, some of the newer arrangements often involve a combination of two or more modes of supply and are difficult to categorise. For instance, twinning and franchise arrangements have similarities to a branch campus in terms of the face-to-face education provided, but the foreign provider establishes no commercial presence (mode 3). All physical facilities are owned, and staff recruited, by the local institution while the foreign institution provides teaching formats, materials, quality control, supervision and evaluation.

¹¹ The four modes of supply are mode 1 (cross-border supply), mode 2 (consumption abroad), mode 3 (commercial presence) and mode 4 (movement of natural persons).

¹² In a franchise/twinning arrangement, the student is enrolled by the foreign institution but completes a substantial part of the study programme at a local institution. In most arrangements, in order to complete the programme the student has to travel abroad and undertake the final year of study at the foreign institution. The local institution, provides the physical facilities and teaches the programme of the foreign institution, but does not confer any degrees or academic qualifications. The foreign institution may ensure quality through on-site supervision and/or the direct involvement of its faculty staff. Through such franchise/twinning arrangements, a local institution can dramatically increase the choice of courses available to students in their country of origin. The student has the advantage of obtaining a foreign qualification at significantly reduced cost.

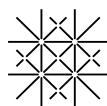


Table 1: Modes of Supply in GATS/ES

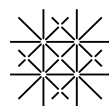
Mode of supply	Explanation	Examples for ES
1. Cross-Border Supply (Mode 1)	The provision of a service where the service crosses the border (does not require the physical movement of the consumer).	Distance education; Virtual education institutions; Education software; Corporate training through ICT delivery.
2. Consumption Abroad (Mode 2)	Provision of the service involving the movement of the consumer to the country of the supplier.	Students who go to another country to study.
3. Commercial Presence (Mode 3)	The service provider establishes or has presence of commercial facilities in another country in order to render service.	Local university or satellite campuses; Language training companies; Private training companies, e.g. Microsoft, CISCO, etc.
4. Presence of Natural Persons (Mode 4)	Persons travelling to another country on a temporary basis to provide service.	Professors, teachers, re-searchers working abroad.

Source: OECD/CERI (2002a) p. 6.

Arguably, the foreign institution remains the service supplier and the course is taught at distance with the assistance of the local partner. This form of programme mobility, which can sometimes be combined with a pure distance online course, tends to correspond to cross-border supply (mode 1). Consumption abroad (mode 2) can also be involved in such arrangements, as the student is often required to study abroad at the foreign institution to complete the programme. The movement of personnel (mode 4) may also be necessary for supervision or instruction purposes.

Participation of foreign educational service provider, be this a privately owned school or a philanthropic organization, could face different forms of operational obstacles that are often not immediately identifiable. The most often reported obstacles are four, i.e., prohibition for foreign providers, administrative burden and lack of transparency, fiscal discrimination, and lastly, accreditation/recognition discrimination. Examples of these barriers are presented in Table 2. POs planning to finance education or provide education directly in developing countries need to be aware of these possible obstacles and inform themselves about the WTO/GATS/ES commitments that the respective beneficiary country has taken. These commitments give a clear indication as to what foreign organizations- private, publically, socially owned, can do in the targeted developing country, and to avoid breaching local laws and regulations governing the respective local educational sector.

Education policy cannot be limited only to the consideration of free choice and price efficiency criteria. Social cohesion and good citizen behaviour such as democracy and ethical values are as important as top-level scientific research or lucrative business degree programmes. Governments cannot opt out of such responsibilities. Education requires a multi-faceted approach in order to guarantee adequate provision of education services for various target groups and to ensure



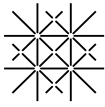
access to education for the less privileged. Such a multi-developmental perspective is even more necessary for developing countries who often lack financial resources and technical know-how in the field of education.

Table 2: Typology of Barriers to Trade in ES

Barriers to trade		Examples and modes of supply concerned
1	Prohibition for foreign providers	- No possibility for foreign supplier to offer its services (all modes of supply)
2	Administrative burden and lack of transparency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Domestic laws and regulations unclear and administered in unfair manner (all modes of supply) - When governmental approval required for foreign suppliers, extremely long delays encountered; when approval denied, no explication given, no information about necessary improvements to obtain it in the future (all modes of supply) - Denial of permission for private sector suppliers to enter into and exit from joint ventures with local or non-local partners on a voluntary basis (modes of supply 1 & 3)
3	Fiscal discrimination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Subsidies for education are not made known in a clear and transparent manner (all modes of supply) - Repatriation of earning is subject to excessively costly fees and/or taxes for currency conversion (all modes of supply) - Excessive fees/taxes imposed on licensing or royalty payments (modes of supply 1 & 3)
4	Accreditation/recognition discrimination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No recognition of titles delivered by foreign providers (all modes of supply) - No recognition of foreign diplomas (mode 2 of supply) - No accreditation delivered nationally for foreign providers (modes of supply 1 & 3)

Source: UNCTAD (2009), p.218-219; Data reported to the WTO Secretariat. Foreign affiliate trade statistics (FATS) describe economic activities of foreign owned firms in the local economy and provides an indicator mode of 3. Outward turnover represents total sales by firms of the reporting country in host economies.

Aligning themselves with the SDGs and particularly SDG4, it would be in the interest of the PO and the beneficiary DCs that the educational services provided by a PO to a developing country leads to a strengthening of the local educational system and not to a deepening of domestic divisions based on class, ethnicity, religious credence or political affiliation.



4.2 Implementation relations with a DC government and interest groups at national level.

POs providing financing for education in developing countries need to know the DC's government and civil society counterparts. As discussed in the previous section, some countries have very open educational sectors and markets while other countries are comparatively speaking closed to foreign investors or service provider be they commercially oriented private educational schools or universities or philanthropic organizations.

In order to get approval to operate in another country, different forms of government licenses have to be obtained in order to be allowed to provide educational services. Access to the beneficiary's educational sector can be limited to a specific subsector, e.g. primary, secondary or tertiary education, or to a specific province, city or educational service sector like teacher training, providing school material, building schools or laboratories.

Should the POs decide to be operational in a beneficiary country, work permits have to be obtained, living quarters be found and local staff recruited. In case of operating schools in a DC, the PO has to specify the local educational requirements. For instance, foreign teachers working in a DC need to fulfil local requirements, for instance, appropriate academic track record, degrees, successful past teaching record and often language proficiency in the official language.

When preparing for a project or programme in education in a DC, POs should assess whether the local counterparts welcome cooperation with a foreign partner and understand what the local counterparts' view are in regard to participation in the educational market by a foreign private actor such as a PO. Are they in general in favour of liberalisation of education or more leaning towards considering education as a public good to be provided and managed solely by the state.

Countries are known to be either more oriented towards opening of their educational sector while other countries are known to be more closed and protectionist (Saner, 2015). As depicted in figure 4 below, Anglo-Saxon countries like the USA, UK, NZ and Australia are open educational markets. Other countries like Belgium, Italy, and the Development Group 77 are more closed to the idea of private educational schools and foreign investment or presence in their countries by foreign educational actors while large emerging economies like China and India are keeping a middle ground between both possible educational governance options.

Within countries, developed or developing, professional associations like teachers unions or school principals might have also strong political positions in regard to participation in their educational system by foreign educational providers be that foreign private or public schools or philanthropic organizations.

It would hence be equally called for by a PO operating abroad to monitor the political positions of important national counterparts and representatives of the educational sector in the partnering DC. The clustering effect of country's policy preferences is presented in Figure 4.

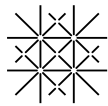
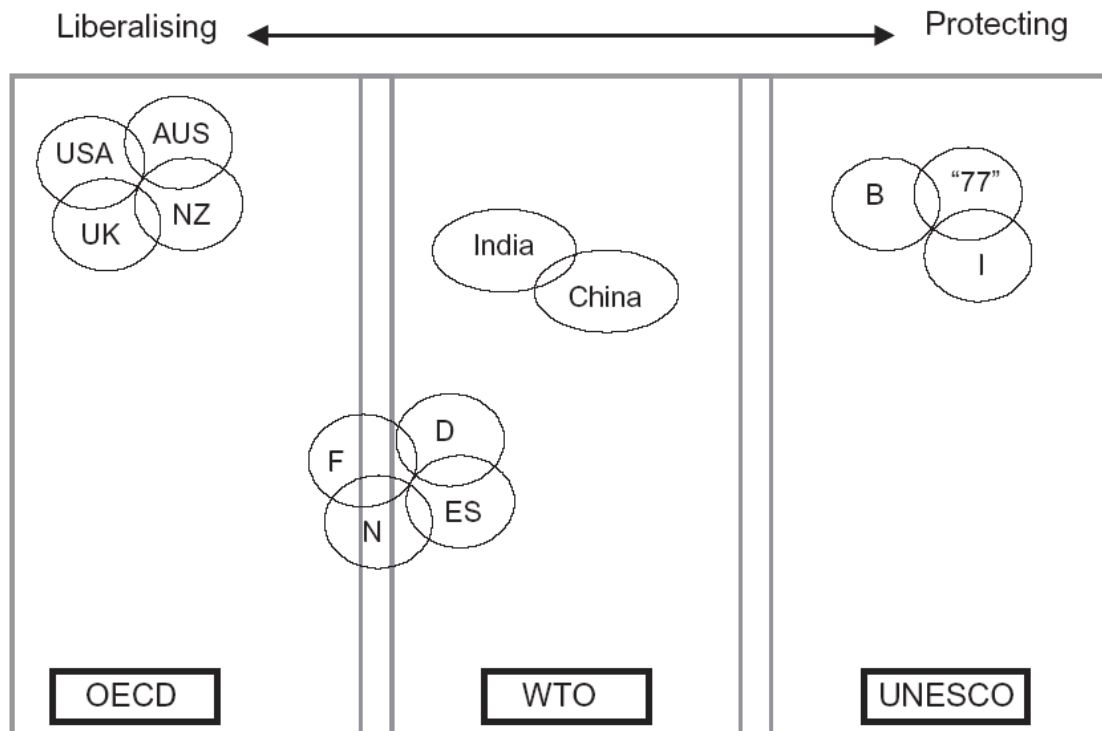


Figure 4: Policy preferences regarding Education by country groups



Source: Saner, 2015, p. 21

Private donors have favoured support to specific and innovative global or regional initiatives but they have had difficulty coordinating their activities with those of sector ministries and official aid agencies. Administrative, fundraising and advocacy costs have grown. A rapid rise in field offices and project implementation units has boosted salary levels well above those of civil servants, thus draining talent away from government agencies. Domestic administrations are already overwhelmed by the administrative burdens imposed by official aid donors have had a hard time coping with the coordination requirements imposed by the upsurge. The problem has been getting worse (Picciotto, 2011, p 10).

POs engaged in providing education to Developing Countries have convergent and divergent interests compared with privately owned commercial schools and universities. However, depending on the type of investment planned in DCs, local governments and interest groups might see no difference between commercially oriented Western private schools and universities. Hence, POs need to assess the attitudes and positions held by the governments and interest groups in the beneficiary country in order to avoid costly conflicts and instead focus on mutually beneficial forms of cooperation and partnerships. A mapping of the policy preferences regarding education is presented in Figure 5.

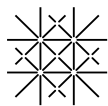
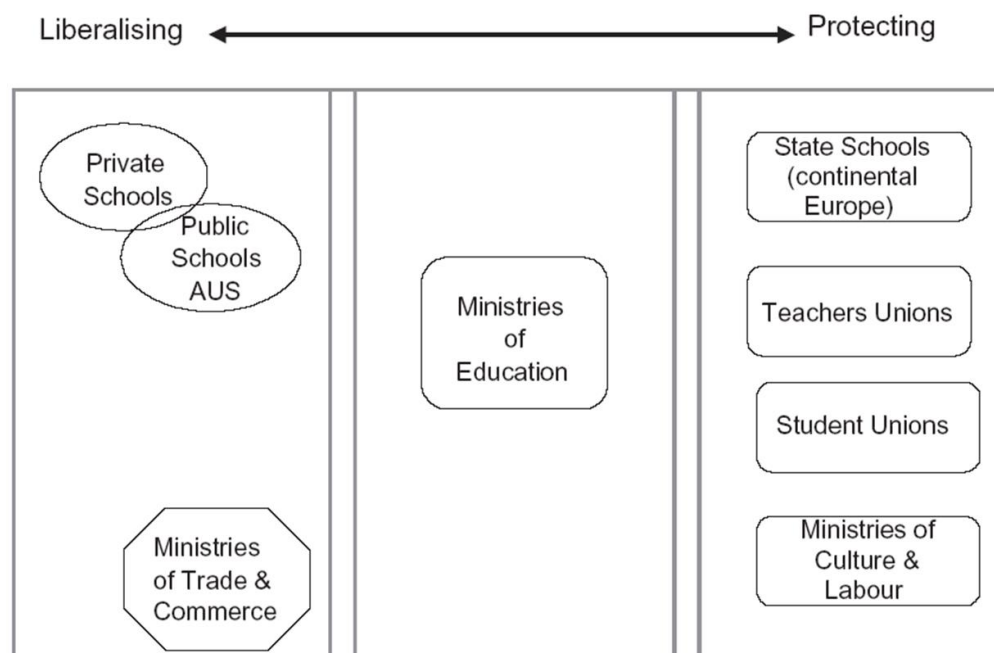


Figure 5: Policy preferences regarding Education by Interest Groups



Source: Saner, 2015, p. 22

5 III: Meso Level: Monitoring quality of delivery by a POs local partners

Philanthropic organisations often involve civil society organisations in their operations. However, some of them are still on a steep learning curve and suffering the same growing pains that DAC donors endured during their formative stage. While some private philanthropic organisations are more finely attuned to the circumstances of their development partners than traditional donors are, others are still using archaic technical assistance modalities poorly adapted to domestic capacity needs. (Picciotto, 2011, p.14).

A lot of education provided to DCs by POs is based on training for instance of teachers, school principals and educational government officials. A useful way to monitor progress and implementation of agreed educational performance objectives can be done through quality assurance systems.

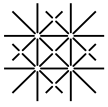
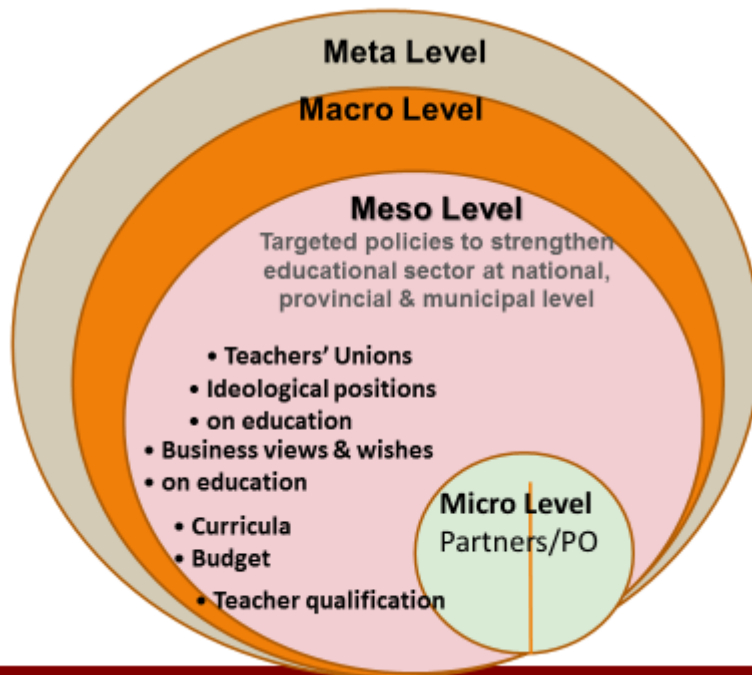


Figure 6: Meso Level Analysis



Source: Authors' own illustrations

Defining quality in education and training and deciding on possible accreditation of service providers is a complex and contentious issue. Educational services are intellectual goods, which are embedded within the cultural and historical context of their native country or continent. "Consumer" often find it difficult to assess the value and quality of the education offered in other countries and sometimes have difficulties in distinguishing serious educational services providers from cheap "diploma mills".

Accreditation and quality assurance have been developed and applied in most developed countries for quite some time including the non-formal education and training sector (Yiu & Saner, 2009). For example, in the United States, accrediting schools and regulating recognition of degrees has been a common procedure since the beginning of the 20th century.

In most of the cases, professional associations do accreditations, verifying the subjects taught in their respective skills area. In Europe, this kind of assessment is a more recent concern. In the 1990's, a few countries - most of them in the northern and eastern parts of the European continent - started to evaluate their higher education sector (institutions or educational programmes) often in conjunction with governmental reform efforts, e.g. within the concept of New Public Management, starting in the 1970s and 1980s.

Ten years later, with a very few exceptions, the European countries have all created some form of accreditation/evaluation agencies. The Bologna Declaration (1999), whose aim is to create an integrated education area across the European continent, could lead to, among others, the

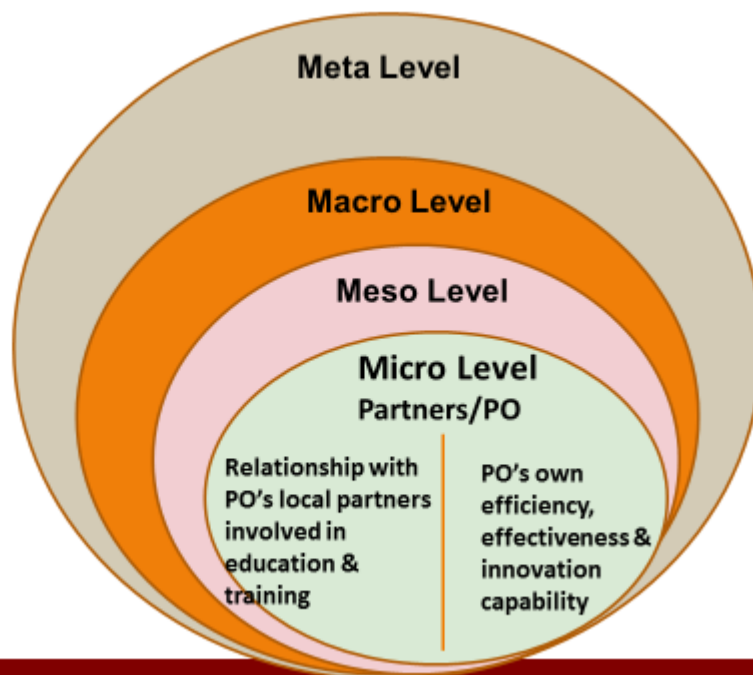


creation of such accreditation agencies, to make sure that the quality of education supplied in the committed countries is guaranteed at comparable levels¹³.

6 IV: Micro Level: Monitoring of the Philanthropic Organisations own performance

The final element of monitoring by POs is monitoring its own internal performance and ability to learn from its own projects and programmes in the educational sector in developing countries. A PO's own staff and a PO's board members need to be informed about the performance of its own staff and operations in a continuous and transparent manner. There are four areas of feedback, which are necessary to be taken into account by a PO.

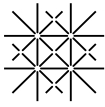
Figure 7: Micro-Level Analysis



Source: Authors' own illustration

First, are the educational services delivering the learning outcomes for the students, families and communities in terms of acquired new competencies? Secondly, is the education contributing to the economic vibrancy and social mobility of the families and communities that benefit from the PO's services in terms of employability, employment and liveable wage? Thirdly, is the schooling being supported by the PO encouraging individual student's desire and motivation for learning? Lastly, does the school provide learning opportunities to the staff and teachers and helped embark

¹³ One of the objectives of the Bologna Declaration is the "Promotion of European co-operation in quality assurance with a view to developing comparable criteria and methodologies.", Joint declaration of the European Ministers of Education, "The European Higher Education Area", 19th of June 1999, Bologna, p. 2.



on lifelong learning?

In addition to monitoring the education outcomes mentioned above, there is also the need to have good financial management. For trustees and for the general public, regular provision of independently validated information as to how the philanthropy is using its funds, whether the interventions it funds are addressing key priorities of the local community and whether they are delivering results is essential.

This implies that all major spending programmes should be tracked and that accurate monitoring information should be published on a regular basis so that stakeholders have access to clear, regular and credible information about the proper use of funding and effectiveness of philanthropic aid. Such a transparent approach could also provide protection to their local staff who tend to take the brunt of retribution when that happens.

This is a demanding task and it requires a good internal monitoring system complemented by independent assessments that carry out spot checks and attest to the validity of self-assessment claims. Just as financial auditing requires the prior production of verifiable accounts, independent assessment of philanthropic aid should be reliant on the capacity of management to carry out reliable self-assessment of its operations. (Picciotto, 2011, p. 14).

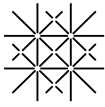
However, in contrast to established procurement practices, POs in general are not as thorough in scrutinising the quality and relevance of their teaching as they otherwise do in regard to investments in other domains (e.g. buying or renting real estate). Besides routine testing of knowledge acquisition, rarely schools would examine the student's ability to apply, or check the alignment with the local labour market demands and the learning objectives of existing curricula.

One reason is that teachers and administrators are often not requested to report on "learning outcome" of educational investments to stakeholders, nor to society. Therefore, there is no external accountability regarding managerial responsibility in ensuring that added value is passed on to a community's human and intellectual capital. In the case of the educational services, it is generally assumed that education is good and therefore students who have gone through the programme are in general benefiting from the experience.

Whether such benefits later on are transferred into employable skills that could lead to sustained livelihoods and productive lives for the students are rarely questioned. In other words, educational impact is assumed without needing to prove that education institutions contribute to a community's human and intellectual capital and productivity.

Even more important reason in terms of making investment decisions by the PO in education, is the fact that most educators or development practitioners do not neither know how to assess the return on investment in vocational training or education in general, nor are they equipped with the necessary management tools to monitor the decision-making process of such an investment and execution.

A PO should ask itself what management system could best support it in improving the efficiency and effectiveness of its educational services and products, as well as in regard to in-service training of its teachers and staff. Different quality management standards and instruments exist in the market; such as ISO 9000, the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM), or some form of Total Quality Management systems.



Many organizations have used either of the three quality instruments mentioned above with mixed results in Europe. Some felt these standards were sufficient, others considered the three instruments as being too bureaucratic, too manufacturing-oriented and not sufficiently adjusted to the peculiarities of the training process.

Of the quality instruments that were developed, only one, however, addresses the strategic aspect of education and vocational training as well as the actual pedagogical process itself and the interaction between organisational performance and workforce requirements. This is AdeQuaTE 10015+, which offers a certification of training systems and training products resulting in more efficient and effective training systems and organizational performance. Examples of its application to organisations in public, private or philanthropic sector are described in more detail in Yiu & Saner, 2013.

7 Recommendations for future provision of cross-border education in DCs by POs

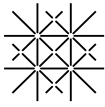
Financing or directly providing education in developing countries can be of limited impact if the beneficiary country does not have an educational sector that is prepared for foreign investment and foreign actors in their educational sector. On the other hand, POs making investments in education in DCs need to assess what kind of role they want to play and what kind of activity they want to select when providing educational services in developing countries.

Where access to the educational sector is possible, philanthropic organisations should nevertheless know the local regulations and derive an implementation strategy to ensure successful participation in a foreign country's educational sector. One of the key instruments for safeguarding the success of such an investment abroad is monitoring at multiple layers as explained in previous sections.

Strategic relevance of the philanthropy sector implies drawing more attention to growing references to social accountability mechanisms and social networking tools. These tools empower poor people in a developing country, reduce the distance between individuals, local communities and decision-makers, and help share development experience among communities and organisations. For philanthropic organisations, this means nurturing effective and principled partnerships with like-minded development actors. It also implies a commitment to a broad conception of development that embraces human wellbeing. (Picciotto, 2011, p.9)

Philanthropic Organisations who provide or finance education abroad need to know the beneficiary country's regulations of the educational sector. Once regulatory requirements have been fulfilled, the philanthropic organisation investing in education abroad should assess what kind of monitoring it wants to apply.

Monitoring has traditionally been used as an accountability mechanism for implementing agencies carrying out externally funded projects. Monitoring serves to track and manage data about inputs, activities, and outputs resulting from a project. POs investing in education in DCs can increase the likelihood of making their investment successful by monitoring the different monitoring steps of its investment as described above and as discussed in Saner and Yiu (2014).



8 Conclusions

POs involvement in providing educational services to DCs can be guided by monitoring and evaluation. Evaluations are ex-ante oriented and difficult to do on a professional basis and can result in uncertainties about the continuity of projects if found to be failing agreed expectations with local partners or if shown to suffer from a PO's own failing performance. As stated by Picciotto, 2011, p.13), results-based evaluations can result in excessive risk aversion if programme or project failure (if it occurs) can be ascribed entirely to the philanthropic organisation so that programmes that fail to meet goals are abandoned irrespective of the reasons why – thus forsaking the opportunity of adapting them so that they can succeed. If, on the other hand, joint responsibility for outcomes and unpredictable exogenous factors are relevant risk factors, responsibility for programme failure may be shirked altogether by attributing it to poor partner performance. Conversely, responsibility for success may be captured in full by the philanthropic organisation – whether its actual contribution justifies it or not.

In the context of the SDGs and in view of the increasing commercialisation of the educational sector, POs might opt for a mixed financing of educational services in DCs ranging from purely philanthropic giving or to opt for a more commercially oriented investment. At either end of the continuum, good management practices require robust monitoring in order to continue improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the educational operation.

This paper proposes a comprehensive multi-level monitoring approach, which addresses equally the contextual and operational risks and vulnerabilities for POs when they engage in educational service provision abroad.

Good management practices require robust monitoring of the design of service products and whether they meet “customer” demands. In the case of education, the customers are students, families, communities, employers/businesses, and local government. Such strategic alignment expressed through the SDG 4 and other SDGs where education serves as instruments for the achievement of other sustainable development needs often fall outside of the regular oversight of the administrators or service providers within an educational institution. Without achieving the broader objective of poverty reduction, a PO's educational contribution to a DC would not be fulfilled and its mission and financial engagement would not be seen as having been successful.

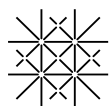
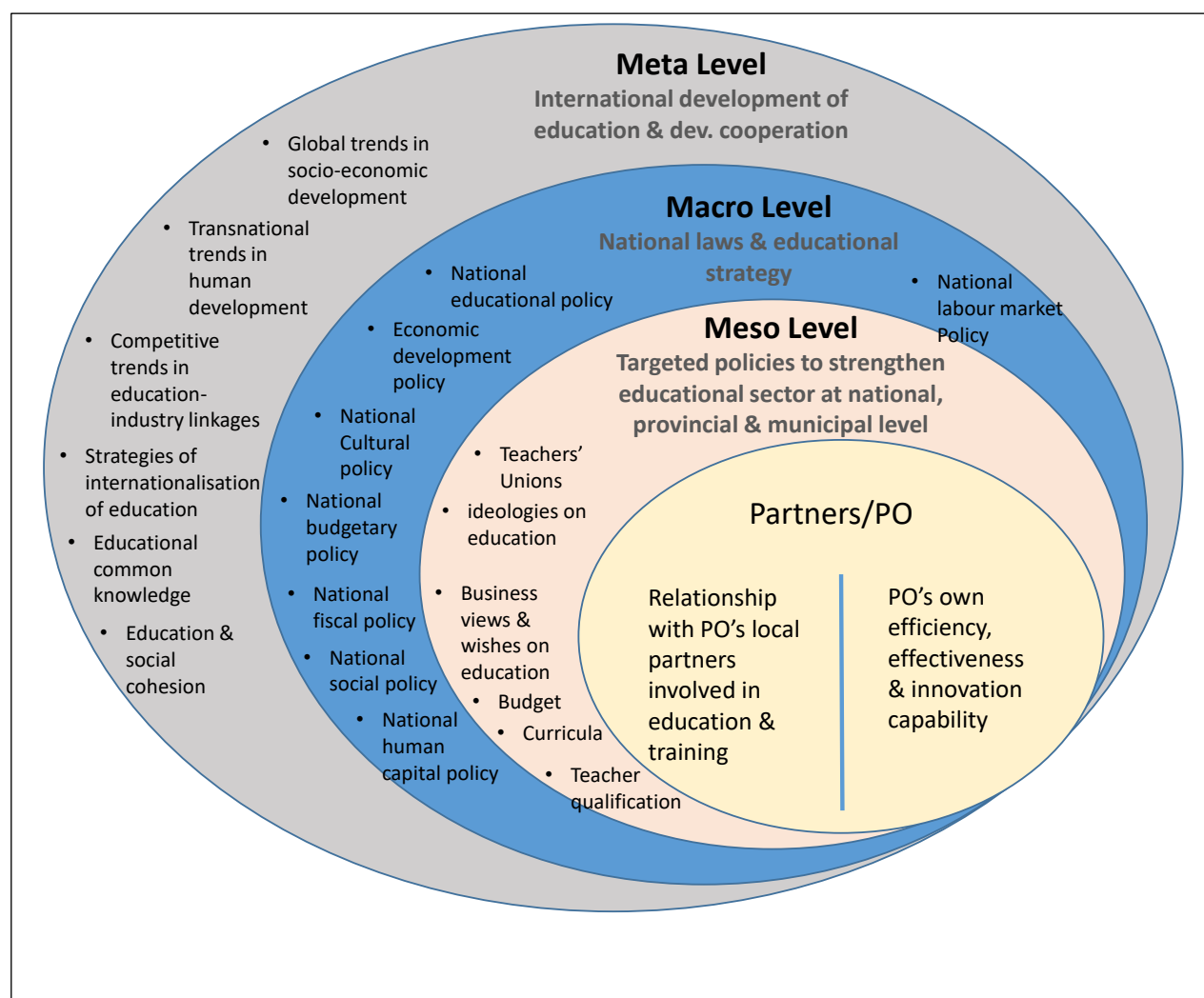
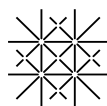


Figure 8: Comprehensive 4 Level Analysis



Source: Authors' own illustration



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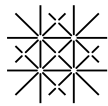
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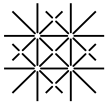
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Annex (SDG 4: targets)

4.1 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes

4.2 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education

4.3 By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university

4.4 By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship

4.5 By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations

4.6 By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy

4.7 By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development

4a Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all

4b By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small-island developing States and African countries, for enrolment in higher education, including vocational training and information and communications technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes, in developed countries and other developing countries

4c By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small-island developing States