

# Guide to Public-Private Partnerships in Basic Education

FEBRUARY 2023

By Gustavo Arcia, Amy Holloway, and Amy Mulcahy-Dunn for the Data and Evidence for Education Programs (DEEP).

## Section I: Description

### RELATED USAID GOALS



For USAID, PPPs in education support the development objective of self-reliance—a key goal of U.S. development assistance as framed by the Agency’s strategy on private sector engagement.<sup>1</sup> USAID defines the private sector as (1) all for-profit entities and their affiliate foundations, financial institutions, investors, and intermediaries, (2) business associations and cooperatives, (3) micro, small, medium, and large enterprises that operate in the formal and informal sectors, (4) American, local, regional, and multinational scale businesses, and (5) for-profit approaches that generate sustainable income.

Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) are used by governments and educational institutions for expanding education delivery, improving operational efficiency, increasing accountability, and addressing issues of quality and learning equity at all levels of education. By improving the performance of the education systems, PPPs are expected to benefit both public and private partners and to strengthen educational equity.<sup>2</sup>

This paper provides a review of the evidence on what works in public-private partnerships in basic education—including pre-primary, primary, and secondary education—as well as technical and vocational education and training (TVET) with the intent of increasing awareness among USAID officers, education stakeholders, and private sector leaders about the potential of PPPs to address problems in education, delivery, financing, quality, and equity. Its intent is to provide an evidence-based perspective on the role PPPs can play in different levels of education, the varied forms PPPs can take, and the possible impacts. Findings and recommendations are based on lessons learned from partnerships in a variety of contexts.

<sup>1</sup> USAID. 2020. Private Sector Engagement Policy. Washington D.C.

<sup>2</sup> Although post-secondary TVET is included in the paper, a review of PPPs for higher education is not considered here.

## Section 2:

# What Are Public Private Partnerships?

A PPP is a contract between a government institution and a private entity on a project that pursues a public goal. More formally, a PPP is a formal contract between the public and private sectors in which they jointly share risks, costs, and resources, and where remuneration is linked to the private partner's compliance with the stipulations of the contract.<sup>3</sup> Generally, governments partner with a private entity in the delivery of public goods under the expectation that the provision of goods and services will be more timely, effective, and efficient. However, to be successful a PPP needs to be well designed, fiscally sustainable, and within a regulatory and governance framework that holds it accountable.

### SPOTLIGHT: WHAT IS NOT A PPP?



USAID has a broader definition of a PPP than other donor and cooperating agencies. However, a narrower approach is taken here to allow for a better understanding of the intent of a PPP for improving economic and social conditions. A PPP is defined by the contractual relationship between the government and a private provider, where both share costs, benefits, and risks. If the contractual relationship lacks these elements, it is not a partnership. For example, a donation—in cash or in-kind—is simply a donation, not a partnership. Goods sold to schools or to the Ministry of Education at a discount also fall under the donation category. Sale of goods and services to the government where neither financing or operational costs, nor risks, are shared is not a PPP.

## Section 3:

# Origins of Public-Private Partnerships in Basic Education and TVET

This section provides useful background on the factors that drive formation of basic education and TVET PPPs, including incentives for the private sector and the benefits the public sector provides.



### Factors Driving the Formation of Basic Education PPPs

Public-Private Partnerships in basic education have gradually grown in importance as policy tools over the past two decades, as governments make increased efforts to circumvent problems in the delivery and quality of public education.<sup>4</sup> Improvements in public education are often delayed by financial, legal, regulatory, bureaucratic, or institutional issues. Such challenges may be easier to solve with a private partner that may face fewer bureaucratic, institutional, and financial constraints. As a result, a PPP may be more efficient and/or more effective in carrying out the responsibilities of government.

<sup>3</sup> Aslam, Monazza, Shenila Rawal, and Sahar Saeed. "Public-Private Partnerships in Education in Developing Countries: A Rigorous Review of the Evidence." London: Ark Education Partnerships Group.

<sup>4</sup> LaRocque, Norman. 2008. [Public-private Partnerships in Basic Education: An International Review](#). London: CfBT Education Trust.

## PPPs are important policy tools in education for several reasons:

- **Government funding for education may be insufficient to fulfill educational mandates.** Insufficient funding may be due to low government revenues, inefficiencies in the use of public funds, rigidities and earmarks in the education budget, or higher than expected growth in enrollment. In all of these cases, PPPs can be a solution. A PPP makes sense when private providers are cost-effective, their infrastructure is already available, and they have room for increased enrollment.
- **Structural problems in the education sector may result in inequitable access to education, or lower learning equity.**<sup>5</sup> Cultural biases against investing in marginal areas, education infrastructure that is insufficient to serve marginalized populations, or lack of human resources serving populations that speak minority languages are a few of the many situations where public education may fall short of its duties to be universal and equitable. These shortcomings in policy or coverage may be alleviated by PPPs that can expand school coverage in underserved areas or to marginalized populations more quickly than government, because private providers may be more flexible, faster, and more efficient than the public system.
- **Parents want to have more choice.** Parents may want to have a say in the type of school their children attend. In cases where there is a lack of schools, or parents are dissatisfied with public schools in their area, or would like their children to attend faith-based schools, PPPs can be effective. Private schools that accept children whose fees are paid with public funds, or charter schools with different educational methods are examples.
- **Public education systems often do not have the capacity to develop and implement technological advances.**<sup>6</sup> Public school systems often lack the staff needed to carry out teacher training and capacity building in new pedagogical approaches. In these cases, private providers may help public schools in developing new learning platforms, new digital technologies, and new approaches to hybrid models of education delivery. Hence, PPPs can be crucial for co-financing development efforts, and for sharing the risks inherent to developing educational innovations.



### Factors Driving the Formation of TVET PPPs

Improving the accessibility and quality of TVET through a PPP can help **(1) resolve problems of low access to vocational and technical education in poor or hard-to-reach areas, (2) empower TVET students by giving them the choice of training programs, and (3) improve the quality and relevance of the training.** Partnerships with the private sector in TVET can be very successful in preparing students for the labor market. A well-trained labor force is fundamental for increasing labor productivity and competitiveness, and PPPs in TVET can be right on target for implementing USAID policies that foster self-reliance. There is limited information on PPPs in the TVET sector in developing countries, but the situation is changing rapidly, especially in Asia, where skilled labor for manufacturing is in high demand.<sup>7</sup> Germany, Chile, and Egypt all provide examples of effective PPP capacity-building programs for TVET. In this evidence summary we share some notable examples of PPP-supported TVET programs that show promise.

<sup>5</sup> Vouchers and contract schools located in marginal areas are cases in point. They are discussed in more detail later in the report.

<sup>6</sup> Recent partnerships with software developers during the COVID-19 pandemic are examples of PPPs in this area, as discussed later on in the report.

<sup>7</sup> In great part, this is due to the low priority given to TVET, as most support has been for basic education. However, TVET is becoming priority because of increased youth participation in jobs that require computer literacy. International Labor Organization.2020. [Global Employment Trends for Youth. Technology and the future of jobs](#). Geneva: ILO.

## Benefits that the Private Sector Brings to PPPs

- Private providers may be more efficient in delivering education services because they are used to competitive pressures, with implicit managerial and operational approaches that differ from those used in the public sector.
- Private providers have specialized skills that may not be available in the public sector, especially in the areas of information and communication technologies, and vocational and technical education.
- Private providers do not face the same restrictions as civil service employees—such as salary scales, work regulations, seniority, and employment rigidities—allowing them to be nimbler in the selection, retention, and dismissal of employees.
- Private providers may be more responsive to changing labor market needs, and more flexible in the adoption and implementation of innovations in education delivery.
- Private providers can be deployed more quickly to increase educational access to vulnerable groups that have been underserved by traditional forms of education delivery.<sup>8</sup>
- Public spending in education may have greater transparency and accountability when run through a PPP.

## Benefits to the Private Sector for Participating in a PPP

- Direct return on financial investment.
- Driver of innovation and opportunity to use developed processes and materials to expand business in other contexts or countries.
- Opportunity to participate in large scale and/or highly visible projects that benefit the organization's reputation and can lead to business growth.
- Social and economic benefits of a better-educated population, including a more skilled workforce.
- Public recognition for contributions to societal good.

Given these potential benefits, an alliance between the public and private sectors may play an important role in the provision of education when governments are unable to fulfill their obligations for budgetary, demographic, or technical reasons.<sup>9</sup>

---

### Section 4:

## Common Forms of Public-Private Partnership in Basic Education and TVET

Over time, a consensus has emerged in education that two of the most common elements of a PPP are the **financing** and the **provision of education**. Exhibit I below shows the different ways in which provision and financing interact, with examples for each interaction.

---

<sup>8</sup> [The expansion of Bridge Academies in Kenya](#) is a typical example of quick response.

<sup>9</sup> World Bank. 2017. [Public-Private Partnerships Reference Guide](#). Washington D.C.: World Bank.

Exhibit I: Types of Public and Private Delivery and Financing of Basic Education and Technical and Vocational Training

		TYPE OF FINANCING	
		PUBLIC	PRIVATE
TYPE OF PROVIDER	PUBLIC	Traditional public schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adopt a school</li> <li>• Government-guaranteed loans</li> </ul>
	PRIVATE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Faith-based community schools</li> <li>• Charter schools</li> <li>• NGO-based training</li> </ul>	Philanthropic or NGO schools
	Not-for-profit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Contract schools</li> <li>• Vouchers</li> <li>• Co-financing of educational software and of learning platforms</li> <li>• Co-financing of TVET training</li> </ul>	Private schools
	For-profit		

Source: Based on model by the Center for Universal Education at Brookings, Steer, L., et al., 2015

The two shaded areas in the table above highlight **where PPPs are most feasible: (1) where financing is private, but provision is public, and (2) where financing is public, but provision is private.** In the other two quadrants, education can be strictly private in finance and delivery, or strictly public, without any participation by a private entity. A PPP would fit at the intersection of public provision and private finance, or private provision and public finance. Most PPPs fall within the realm of public financing and private provision, for reasons of efficiency and equity, as will be discussed in more detail later in the paper.

What is important to keep in mind is that the examples shown in Exhibit I also include new developments in PPPs in basic and technical and vocational education. In previous years it was common to find contracts between the ministries of education and private managers to run a public school, or government-financed vouchers accepted by private schools. However, **the COVID-19 crisis and the need to better prepare young people for the job market have generated new types of partnerships**, such as co-financing of the development of educational software for remote learning, or the co-financing of TVET training at private factories, where manufacturing technology is far more modern than what the ministry of education can afford. Hence, PPPs are improving in content and scope.

When considering a PPP in education, one should look at the country’s policy objectives and the type of problems faced by the education system that could benefit from collaboration with the private sector. Once a problem is identified, one needs to think about the type of PPP that could help solve the problem, i.e., a management contract, a voucher, or a teacher training contract. Examining different PPP options from various countries, contexts, and in response to specific needs is a good first step in selecting the right PPP model. Exhibit 2 below provides examples of education systems’ common objectives, the challenges associated with achieving these objectives, and the forms of PPP support that could address these challenges. Note that this list of PPP options is not exhaustive but raises some common ways that PPPs have been used.

Exhibit 2. Policy Objectives, Challenges and Commonly Used PPP Types

Objective	Challenges	Financing	Provider	Type(s) of PPP Used
Improved learning, school, and teacher performance and increased school choice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low quality of public schools</li> <li>• Poor teacher performance</li> <li>• Low student learning</li> <li>• Low school coverage</li> <li>• Insufficient education budget</li> <li>• Access inequity</li> <li>• Learning inequity</li> </ul>	Private	Public	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Philanthropic Co-Financing</li> </ul>
		Public	Private	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Vouchers</li> <li>• School-based management</li> <li>• Charter schools</li> <li>• Contract schools</li> <li>• Concession schools</li> </ul>
Expanded school coverage and improved school quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low access in poor or minority areas</li> <li>• Limited school choice</li> </ul>	Public	Private	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Vouchers</li> <li>• School-based management</li> <li>• School subsidies</li> <li>• Low-cost private schools</li> <li>• Scholarship funding for private academies</li> </ul>
Improved teacher performance and improved learning outcomes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low content knowledge by teachers</li> <li>• Low pedagogical capacity</li> <li>• Poor teacher management</li> <li>• Lack of technological knowledge</li> </ul>	Public	Private	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Co-financed Teacher Training,</li> <li>• Co-financed information and communication technology (ICT) training (private ICT developers, NGOs)</li> <li>• Co-financed Management training (NGOs, philanthropies)</li> </ul>
Improved technical and vocational education and training (TVET)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improve TVET training quality</li> <li>• Improve access to TVET programs</li> </ul>	Public	Private	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Internships and co-financed tech training at private facilities</li> <li>• Co-financed development of education software and platforms for distance education</li> </ul>
Improved Infrastructure quality and coverage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of available public financing</li> <li>• Deficient infrastructure capacity</li> <li>• Infrastructure in disrepair</li> <li>• Outdated facilities</li> </ul>	Public	Private	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Private design-build-lease back</li> <li>• Private design-build-operate</li> <li>• Private finance and lease</li> </ul>



## A Compendium of PPP Models Used in Basic Education and TVET

The most-used PPPs for basic education and TVET are described in detail in this section. It should be noted that many types of PPPs have not been in practice for very long, which makes it difficult to talk about best practices. However, the types of PPPs discussed here represent the best available evidence.

### Philanthropic Co-Financing

	Description	<p><b>Private philanthropy</b> refers to the financing of public schools by a private entity. As such it can take different forms, but the most common is the partial funding of one or more public schools under a long-term agreement or contractual arrangement. Not all philanthropy can be classified as a PPP. If the philanthropic participation provides a one-time donation, it is not likely to be a partnership—it is simply a financial gift. <b>The key factor in identifying a true PPP is co-financing</b>, where the private donor pays for certain school expenses, and the school system pays for the remaining costs. In this arrangement the philanthropic entity and the school system share the financial, operational, and</p>
--	-------------	---

		political risks implicit in the association between the donor and the beneficiary because of the long-term nature of the contract.
	Benefits	Philanthropy PPPs can be used to improve learning by addressing issues such as <b>(1) low school coverage, (2) insufficient education budget, (3) access inequity, and (4) learning inequity.</b> Philanthropy brings public recognition to donors, along with multiple social and economic benefits from a better-educated population, such as increased labor productivity through having more educated children from underserved backgrounds.
	Drawbacks	Low- and lower-middle income countries may not have enough wealthy people to allow for this PPP. Some philanthropies may require adherence to a political party or to a religious membership.
	Implementation	The importance of philanthropy in education should not be underestimated; long-term commitments to education by private and corporate <a href="#">philanthropy in Africa</a> alone amount to more than 600 billion dollars a year.
	Example 1	Philanthropic PPPs can take many forms; one is the social/development impact bond (S/DIB). <sup>10</sup> A S/DIB is a PPP where private investors finance public services through a performance-based contract, such as one that is based upon the improved performance of the beneficiaries. The government pays the investors when the investment generates the agreed outcomes. For example, investors in an S/DIB financing secondary education would be paid only when the agreed-upon number of students graduate from school. There are several <a href="#">social impact funds that support education</a> . <sup>11</sup>
	Example 2	Another example of a philanthropic PPP is a TVET partnership in the field of information and communication technology where an educational software company partners with a government in developing new educational platforms and building teacher capacity in digital pedagogy during implementation. The benefits to the public sector in this partnership include (1) having access to specific expertise that may not be available in the ministry, (2) reduced development costs resulting from a partnership, instead of hiring a firm without cost-sharing, and (3) the assurance that the materials reflect government input. The benefit to the private sector is the ability to use the developed materials to expand their business in other contexts or countries. A few examples of what countries are doing to address capacity building in ICT as a result of the COVID-19 crisis are found in Eastern Europe, where governments moved quickly to establish programs in distance education in collaboration with hardware and software providers. <sup>12</sup>

<sup>10</sup> Gustafsson-Wright, Emily, Sophie Gardiner, and Vidya Putcha. 2015. [The Potential and Limitations of Impact Bonds. Lessons from the First Five Years of Experience Worldwide](#). Washington D.C.: Brookings.

<sup>11</sup> Soulunii, Stephen. 2019. List of Social Impact Funds That Support Education. EdTech Review.

<sup>12</sup> Arcia, Gustavo, Rafael de Hoyos, Harry Patrinos, Alina Sava, Tigran Schmis, and Janssen Teixeira. 2021. [Learning Recovery After COVID-19 in Europe and Central Asia: Policy and Practice](#). Washington D.C.: World Bank.

## Vouchers

	Description	<p>A <b>voucher</b> is a coupon with a value approximately equal to the cost of tuition in a private school that has a contractual agreement with the government to accept them. Under a voucher contract, a student with a voucher can buy entry into a private school that accepts the voucher. <b>Voucher holders can shop around and find a good school that fits their needs</b>, which means that parents have purchasing power to demand better performance from schools, as they are fee-paying clients. Voucher programs expand school choice and can be successful, but they require continuous measurement of results for the government to ensure that they have been effective in increasing school choice and/or improving learning.</p>
	Benefits	<p>Two main benefits: (1) in areas of low-quality public schools, vouchers may allow motivated students to attend a private school that may offer better teachers, better facilities, and a better learning environment, (2) voucher programs empower students and families, as they give poor students purchasing power in the private education market.</p>
	Drawbacks	<p><b>Vouchers may not be accepted in all private schools. Also, they may siphon off the best students from a public school system</b>, generating low morale among teachers because of the likelihood that average test scores will fall without the best students. Vouchers may also contribute to socioeconomic stratification and learning inequality, as schools have to work very hard to retain underperforming students. Finally, vouchers may create an incentive for private schools to price-gouge the public sector.</p>
	Implementation	<p>Vouchers are used in upper-middle income and high-income countries. In the OECD 18 countries were using vouchers in 2018, while outside of the OECD, evidence exists for a few middle-income countries including Chile, Colombia, Uganda, Pakistan, and some states in India <sup>13</sup></p>
	Example 1: Chile	<p><b>Chile is one of the most studied voucher examples</b> because of the systematic approach taken by the government for its design, and for the continuous monitoring of its performance. With the advent of market liberalization after 1973, many influential economists began to push for the private delivery of public services as a way to improve the efficiency of the national budget. Successive governments adopted the goal of using market incentives to expand coverage and quality in education, and they identified vouchers as a means of implementation. Chile's voucher system (now in place for about 20 years) has three core features: (1) a funding formula, which determines the monetary value of the voucher, (2) the choice of school by a family, and (3) the managerial efficiency of the school accepting the voucher, where the cost per student was competitive within the education market.</p> <p>When the vouchers were first introduced, the voucher held the same monetary value for all students in the voucher program. Because of this, private schools applied admission restrictions to their voucher students in the hopes of improving overall student performance. As a result, this first voucher had mixed results in improving learning equity. In response, the Chilean government reformed the subsidy law and <b>increased the value of the school voucher by 50 percent for priority students—those whose family income was at the lower 40 percent of the income distribution</b>. This incentivized accepting priority students, those who would be accepted at a public school but were likely to be rejected in a private school without the high-value voucher.</p> <p>The government also introduced increased financial supervision of participating schools for accountability. Under this new system, learning equity improved significantly. On average, fourth grade students increased their test scores after five years of operations, with the combination of increased voucher value and more accountability explaining the positive results. Chile is a great example where differentiated values for their vouchers helped improve learning equity by improving private school enrollment among students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds.</p>

<sup>13</sup> OECD. 2017. [School Choice and School Vouchers: An OECD Perspective](#). Paris: OECD.; Baum, Donald R. 2018. [Private School Vouchers in Developing Countries: A Survey of the Evidence](#).



Example 2:  
Ghana

**Another use of vouchers is for TVET.** The government may provide vouchers to TVET-tracked students to allow them access to more and higher quality TVET programs including training programs in private training centers, which tend to teach skills more aligned with current and evolving labor market needs. Under these voucher systems, student selection criteria would be established jointly by the government and private providers. The selection criteria are important because low performing students are often tracked into TVET and lack the foundational skills to complete private training successfully, in which case the training program should also include remedial programs.<sup>14</sup> Tuition fees are paid directly to the providers by the government.

An example of the use of vouchers for TVET is [GTVP](#), a project co-financed by the German Government through KfW, implemented by the Commission for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (COTVET). GTVP provides demand-driven training vouchers to COTVET-registered master craft persons, their apprentices, and workers. Participants use the vouchers to pay for competency-based training courses given by accredited training institutions. Graduates have to take an assessment test to receive a certificate of National Proficiency Levels I and II under the National TVET Qualification Framework. Eligible participants have to be owners, workers, or interns in small and medium enterprises in the informal sector. The approach is demand-driven—that is, it is based on requests from trades in high demand for skilled laborers—which increases the probability of good employment following program completion.

The system covers about 14,000 beneficiaries, of which 25 percent are men and 75 percent are women. There are 98 private entities providing training in 160 centers. In 2020 the Institute of Research, Innovation and Development at Kumasi Technical University began to accept vouchers for competency-based teaching modules to train artisans in garment making, automotive engineering technology, electronic engineering technology, and welding and fabrication at proficiency levels I & II. It is important to note that the success of this program is measured by the number of people served. The program is too new to follow up on employment and wages received by graduates.

## SPOTLIGHT: CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR SCHOOL VOUCHERS



Voucher programs are effective but require careful design and monitoring to ensure equity in learning and learning gains. To increase the chances of success for a voucher program, a simple checklist of contextual considerations is in order:

- Is there a sufficiently large or diverse private school market that would lead to increased school choice even in traditionally under-served and marginalized areas, which would make a school choice/voucher system viable?
- Are the values of the vouchers competitive with the per-student cost of public schools? If per-student costs in public schools are not known or are not estimated properly, vouchers can hide significant financial issues that would lead to political and fiscal problems. If the government does not calculate its per-student cost properly, there may be cases in which the government pays too much for private vouchers, and does not know it until it finds that it cannot afford the program.
- Are there monitoring and evaluation systems in place to enable the government to determine the impact of vouchers on learning?

<sup>14</sup>. Norton, Tom and Mary. 2016. [9 Challenges to TVET in Developing Countries](#). TVET Journal.

## School-based Management

	Description	<p><b>School-based management</b> is a form of decentralization in which schools are responsible for making most managerial decisions in partnership with private entities and community leaders outside of education. <b>Under school-based management, the government provides financing and the school is managed by a private provider with significant autonomy.</b> Public funds cover the managerial costs but the private provider shares the risks and is accountable for its financial and educational performance. If the provider underperforms, the provider loses the contract, and the government loses political support.</p>
	Benefits	<p>School-based management PPPs can help solve <b>four important issues: (1) low quality of public schools, (2) poor teacher performance, (3) low student learning, and (4) limited school choice.</b> School management by a private entity may be more efficient and effective than public management because private schools where schools routinely work under budget constraints, have to engage parents, and show good results in terms of educational output and learning.</p>
	Drawbacks	<p>School-based management works well only in those countries with a healthy private school sector, which can offer a steady supply of capable school managers.</p>
	Implementation	<p>School-based management is being implemented in many developing countries, as evidenced by the SABER benchmark reports by the World Bank.<sup>15</sup></p>
	<p>Example 1: Concession Schools for Basic Education</p>	<p><b>Concession schools are schools with a contract where the government pays a per-student fee, and where the contract specifies all aspects of school operations,</b> which the concessionaire must follow. A concession school works like a franchise, where the private manager has to follow a clear set of operational rules and obtain a set of expected results, while maintaining a certain degree of managerial autonomy.</p> <p>Well-documented evidence on the use of concession schools comes from Bogotá, Colombia, where the government developed the Concession Schools Program. In this arrangement, the government contracts private schools with a good reputation to administer and operate a public school, with the condition that they operate outside the collective bargaining framework for teachers—allowing them to hire and fire at their discretion—and with the expectation that the concessionaire will be accountable for the academic performance of students, as measured by scores in a high-stakes standardized test required for entry into university. If the school does not meet the outcomes outlined in the concession, they lose the contract.</p> <p>Concession schools were located in extremely poor areas, where the demand for primary and secondary education was higher than the capacity of nearby public schools. Any student from the selected neighborhood could apply for enrollment in the concession schools and student selection was controlled by the education authorities, which also supervised the concession school operations. This ensured that schools did not cherry-pick the best students and leave behind those students that needed more help.</p> <p>The results of the program were encouraging. Gross enrollment rates for secondary students in the areas served by concession schools in Bogotá were about 85 percent, which were found to be similar to the rates of other public schools in the city. However, <b>dropout rates at concession schools were 1.7 percentage points lower than at neighboring public schools.</b> After controlling for selection biases, the results of an econometric analysis showed that students in the concession schools outperformed the nearby public schools, with significant gains in test scores of about 0.6 SD for math, and 0.25 SD for reading. These gains are roughly equivalent to two school years of math, and one year of language. Because concessionaires have to show good results to keep their concession, there were schools where concession rules were not observed. Some schools restricted admission to students with a higher probability of success, which goes against the intent of expanding coverage to underserved students, some schools did not follow the managerial requirements stipulated in the contract, and some schools hired teachers with insufficient qualifications to reduce the cost of salaries. Still, the results obtained by the Bogotá schools suggest that the concession school model is worth taking into account.</p>

<sup>15</sup> Demas, Angela, and Gustavo Arcia, 2015. [What Matters Most for School Autonomy and Accountability: A Framework Paper](#). Global Engagement and Knowledge Team, Education Global Practice. Washington D.C.: World Bank.

	<p>Example 2: Concession Schools for TVET</p>	<p><b>PPPs in TVET can also be implemented through contracts with reputable public and private sector training providers</b>, using a similar model to the concession schools model. Payments to training providers would be performance-based, and training programs would reflect industry demand. Contracts can specify an increase in female participation in non-traditional areas and in highly skilled occupations, and programs can also be targeted to disadvantaged groups and underserved areas.</p> <p>One such example is provided by the Punjab Skills Development Fund (PSDF), the largest government agency in charge of skills development in Pakistan. The PSDF provides high quality skills training with private sector support. PSDF purchases training from existing providers under competitive bidding. All employers working as PSDF training partners have a 50 percent employment commitment, where they commit to employ 50 percent of graduates. PSDF funds contract-to-completion outputs as well as completion-to-income generation outcomes. These programs are evaluated using tracer studies, which report on the labor market outcomes of PSDF's programs. PSDF has also developed a comprehensive entrepreneurial training program for TVET graduates. The PSDF has developed PPPs with provincial entrepreneurs to provide training on entrepreneurship to graduates, and give them a knowledge base with which they can start their own businesses. In this program, TVET graduates can learn the basic legal, financial, and marketing requirements that entrepreneurs need in order to be successful.</p> <p>The PSDF has also initiated the Parwaaz Program, in which business leaders provide funding (full/partial), training facilities, guidance, and support in designing course curriculum, providing instructors or any other form of support. Training is done by experts from each of these businesses, and training courses are provided for three key strategic areas: (1) ICT, where trainees acquire skills in call center operations, full-stack development, data science, and e-commerce, (2) financial services, including information/cybersecurity skills, data analysis, and digital compliance, and (3) textile sector skills, including data analysis, CAD, and 3D design. In 2021, Parwaaz trained 500 students in ICT, 200 students in financial services, and 300 students in textiles skills. The program does not monitor the employment rates or the salaries of trainees.</p>
	<p>Example 3: Contract Schools</p>	<p><b>Contract schools are private schools contracted by the government to provide educational services to students, or partial services to the public sector</b>, such as school management, the provision of education to specific student groups, provision of infrastructure and building maintenance, or combinations of these services. Contracting a private school for the management of education services is considered a PPP if the private provider complies with the requirements of the national curriculum while maintaining complete autonomy in the way it teaches and administers education, including the hiring and firing of those teachers who are not civil servants and the use of enhanced curricula. <b>Under this type of contract, the private provider shares risks and rewards.</b> This type of partnership may include scholarships and vouchers paid with public funds, where private schools are committed to accepting public funding that, in many cases, would be lower than the normal fees paid by privately funded students. In other cases, private schools may receive public funding under the condition that they must accept all applicants and not engage in selecting only the most promising students.</p>
	<p>Example 4: Charter Schools</p>	<p><b>Charter schools</b> refers to private entities that receive public funding to operate a school that complies with the national curriculum, but also has added features, such as additional subjects (language, music, sports), or a focus on specific study areas (i.e., the natural environment, science, the arts).</p>

## SPOTLIGHT: CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR CONCESSION SCHOOLS

School-based management PPPs can help solve problems of access and performance, but strong regulations and monitoring systems should be put in place. Systems for measuring and monitoring impact should ensure compliance of student admissions and other contractual requirements noted in the concession contract. The success of school-based management PPPs depends on various factors; a key one is the involvement of education authorities in supervising and evaluating performance.

To increase chances of success, a simple checklist of contextual considerations is in order:

- There is a clear definition of the problem that the concession PPP is supposed to solve, and that definition is the focus for its evaluation.
- Is the market for private providers healthy? If there is no tradition of private provision of basic education—as is the case in Central Asian countries, for example—this is not workable.
- Is there a legal framework for contracting private providers with public funds? In its absence, the country would need to draw from the experience of other sectors, such as infrastructure and transportation, and make adaptations to education.

## SPOTLIGHT: CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR PPPS IN TVET



- Government agencies must share a common vision with the private sector on priority areas for TVET training.
- TVET training needs to be private sector demand-driven to ensure the rapid employment of graduates.
- Monitoring the performance of recent graduates is crucial for making adjustments to existing programs.

## School Subsidies

	Description	School subsidy PPPs consist of the partial financing of the total cost in a school. What distinguishes this from other forms of funding partnership is that the partner providing the funding has little or no oversight over school operations. Subsidies can take different forms, including per-student subsidies, unconditional block grants to schools to pay for teacher salaries, and block grants for partial coverage of all salaries and operational expenditures.
	Benefits	School subsidies help (1) alleviate problems of school access, (2) increase school choice for parents, as there are more schools serving their neighborhoods, and (3) improve K-12 education and TVET training quality. Governments can provide subsidies to private schools, which may also include schools owned by non-profit associations and faith-based schools. <sup>16</sup>
	Drawbacks	School subsidies work well only under a decentralized system with experience with school-based management. Financial accountability can be a problem in countries with inadequate systems of financial management because of the potential for corruption, inefficiency, or waste.
	Implementation	<b>School subsidies under PPP arrangements are commonly used throughout the world, with different policy objectives and different incentive structures.</b>
	Example: School subsidies that reduce private costs	<b>School subsidies are commonly used to expand enrollment in underserved areas at a lower cost to the state</b> , relying on faith-based organizations and the local communities to pay for school infrastructure and some of the operational costs. <b>The evidence shows that subsidies have modest positive effects</b> in case studies from Belize, Colombia, Pakistan, Peru, Philippines, Sierra Leone, Uganda, and Venezuela.  One of the best examples of a school subsidy PPP is in Belize, where church-managed schools have co-financing contracts with the government, where the church pays for the school's infrastructure and some operational costs and the government pays for teachers and some operational costs. In Belize, about 73 percent of students in basic education attend faith-based schools. Government funding pays for teacher salaries in primary, and for 70 percent of salaries and 30 percent of non-salary expenditures in secondary

<sup>16</sup> Parra Osorio, Juan Carlos, and Quentin Wodon (Eds.). 2014. [Faith-Based Schools in Latin America: Case Studies on Fe y Alegría](#). Washington D.C.: World Bank.

		<p>school. <b>Operating costs in Belize are about the same for faith-based and public schools, but academic performance in faith-based schools is slightly higher than in public schools.</b> However, <b>selection bias</b> is an issue that needs to be resolved, as most private schools try to accept students with a greater probability of doing well. Still, Belize’s school subsidy system is considered a success by the government, as faith-based schools were able to extend access to schooling in poor areas that had low coverage by public schools. In a similar program in Uganda, the government started a per-student payment given to low-cost private secondary schools to promote universal secondary education. Results indicate that enrollment increased, along with math test scores. Uganda is a country with a large contingent of non-governmental organizations providing educational services with some government participation, with many of them involved in public-private partnerships using the subsidized model.</p>
	<p>Example: Fe y Alegria</p>	<p>Institutions like <i>Fe y Alegria</i> schools in Latin America are an example of this PPP model. In many cases, school funding is decentralized, where schools may get block grants from the state as well as donations from the private sector and the community.<sup>17</sup></p>

## SPOTLIGHT: CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR SCHOOL SUBSIDIES TO FAITH-BASED PRIVATE SCHOOL



Subsidizing faith-based and secular schools is a viable PPP model for increasing school access and quality in underserved areas when regulations and monitoring are in place. Although faith-based schools seem to be the most frequent recipients of school subsidies, there are also secular schools—such as community schools and NGO-managed schools—that receive subsidies, with community preschools being a common example. Some considerations when thinking about using subsidies include:

- Is there a sufficiently large or diverse private school market in traditionally underserved and marginalized areas that would make a school subsidy viable?
- Will faith-based schools follow the government’s curricular standards in their schools?
- Do private providers have strong managerial systems in place to allow them to manage subsidies responsibly?
- Are there monitoring and evaluation systems in place to (1) enable the government to transparently track the use of subsidy funds, (2) monitor student admission policies, (3) determine the impact of vouchers on learning equity, and (4) monitor the cost-effectiveness of these subsidies?

## Capacity Strengthening

	<p>Description</p>	<p><b>PPPs in capacity strengthening</b> are formal agreements or contracts between the government and the private sector for the implementation of training programs in which both partners share the costs.</p>
	<p>Benefits</p>	<p>PPPs involved in capacity strengthening can help schools address (1) low content knowledge by teachers, (2) low pedagogical capacity, (3) poor student management, and (4) low technological knowledge by teachers and by school managers.</p>
	<p>Drawbacks</p>	<p>In some countries, <b>the private sector may not be large enough</b> to meet training demands in industry or services, leaving many students out and creating problems of learning inequality. In other countries <b>the labor market may not be able to absorb</b> a large influx of specialized workers in some fields. In some countries, <b>private sector leaders may not want to collaborate with the government</b> for political reasons.</p>

<sup>17</sup> Parra Osorio and Wodon. Op. Cit.

	<p>Implementation</p>	<p>Capacity strengthening is commonly implemented as a component of a PPP. As shown by the examples in this table, it often takes the form of teacher or school management training.</p> <p>The COVID-19 crisis highlighted both the digital divide and the potential for PPPs to develop and train local partners on use of platforms for distance learning and on hybrid modes of education delivery. <b>Implementation of PPPs offers great promise as a means for the private sector to support the resiliency of local education systems.</b> See the Spotlight below for additional information.</p>
	<p>Example 1: ICT</p>	<p><b>The field of ICT provides an example of where a PPP can be used for capacity strengthening,</b> with the private sector sharing costs, benefits, and risks with the public sector. The rapidly changing landscape in digital educational technology presents opportunities for collaboration with private providers to develop teacher training, beta-test software and technology, and co-finance applications and remote learning platforms.</p> <p>PPPs in ICT for education is a work in progress, but they show promise in Africa. In 2019, the government of Nigeria presented its National Digital Economy Policy and Strategy 2020–2030 with the purpose of using ICT to help diversify the economy and produce a better-educated labor force that would increase productivity outside of oil and gas. The strategy integrates ICT into the national curriculum for all levels of education and for teacher training. A key policy issue in ICT is equitable access to digital technology, devices, and infrastructure. <b>Access is critical for the development of marginalized populations.</b></p> <p>These opportunities include several programs by state governments, including the States of Benue (e-Learning resource center), Borno (talking books for children), Lagos (remote teaching platform; pre-loaded digital devices with materials from the education curriculum), Ogun (online learning and teacher training platforms), and Ondo (e-Learning for secondary school), to develop digital learning solutions in collaboration with the private sector. In all of these cases, there seem to be shared finances and shared risks, which are two key elements of a PPP. These are cases where the PPP allows for lower development costs because of the close coordination between the education sector and private providers.</p> <p>Successful examples of these PPPs in other parts of the world include the Gearing Up Internet Literacy and Access for Students project in the Philippines, the Intel Teach training project in Indonesia, and the Microsoft Partners in Learning project in Malaysia and Indonesia.</p>
	<p>Example 2: Leadership</p>	<p>Another area where a PPP can help with capacity strengthening is <b>school management training.</b> For example, in the School Leadership Development Program of the Punjab Education Foundation in Pakistan, school principals receive management training from a private partner.<sup>18</sup></p>
	<p>Example 3: TVET</p>	<p>Egypt provides a good example of an effective PPP capacity-strengthening program for TVETs.<sup>19</sup> In Egypt, a PPP involving the Egyptian Ministry of Education, the German aid agency GIZ, Egyptian business association, and Egyptian companies <b>developed a demand-led training and internship program for TVET students.</b> Companies made in-house training available for students using their own staff and technicians as trainers. In exchange for the students' work, these companies paid them a training allowance. Business associations contributed with supplementary financing, as well as participation in program planning and in the dissemination of program information.</p>

<sup>18</sup> Malik, Allah Bakhsh. 2010. [Public–Private Partnerships in Education Lessons Learned from the Punjab Education Foundation](#). Manila: Asian Development Bank.

<sup>19</sup> Grunwald, Edda. 2008. [Public-Private Partnership Models in TVET and their Impact on the Role of Government](#). Abidjan: Association for the Development of Education in Africa.

## SPOTLIGHT: CONTEXTUAL CONSIDERATIONS IN CAPACITY STRENGTHENING FOR DIGITAL EDUCATION



The COVID-19 crisis left **two important lessons: education systems need to be more resilient** and, to improve learning equity, **they need to develop digital platforms for distance education, remote learning, and teacher training on digital pedagogies**. Because software development firms are engaged in a highly competitive global market, it is in their best interest to have high standards in their development efforts, including involvement in PPPs. By co-investing in platform development with the public sector, the private sector creates a market for itself, and the government can get a digital learning system up and running more quickly than would have been possible without a partnership. Because of market pressures, PPPs in digital pedagogy tend to develop quickly, so governments must be prepared to be flexible and work closely with the private partner without getting bogged down in bureaucracy.

### Infrastructure

	Description	<p><b>PPPs in infrastructure</b> consist of <b>contractual arrangements where a private sector partner may finance the construction of a public school or an educational facility</b> under the certain conditions, such as the government's commitment to (1) lease back the infrastructure, (2) buy back the facility and contract the investor for its operation, or (3) engage the investor in a lease back agreement and operate the facility. Infrastructure PPPs are useful when the government (1) needs quick access to financing for infrastructure, (2) needs to expand education coverage faster than what the government budget allows, or (3) when it is cheaper and more efficient to engage the private sector to lease back and operate the school.</p>
	Benefits	<p>PPPs in educational infrastructure can be very useful to resolve issues related to (1) no or limited public financing available, (2) deficient infrastructure capacity, (3) infrastructure in disrepair, or (4) outdated educational facilities.</p>
	Drawbacks	<p>Infrastructure PPPs can be contractually very complicated, and many governments may not have the appropriately skilled personnel to undertake these partnerships. This complexity can lead to problems of corruption on a large scale.</p>
	Implementation	<p>When rapid increases in student enrollment lead to financial and infrastructural shortfalls in public education, there are opportunities for PPPs where the private sector can (1) finance, build, and lease back new schools, (2) finance-build-operate schools, or (3) finance-build-and finance the sale of educational facilities to the government.</p> <p>In some countries, subnational governments often seek opportunities to engage the private sector in educational infrastructure because these governments may be short on cash, or private financing may be more expeditious than funding from private banks or international development banks. Both the government and the private partner share construction risks, financial risks, and legal risks (in cases where changes in the legislation directly affect the partnership terms). <b>PPPs in infrastructure face different types of risk, including a high risk of corruption</b>, and risks posed by an unfavorable regulatory environment, or legal frameworks that may affect the enforcement of contracts.<sup>20</sup></p>
	Example: Successful Models from Outside of Education	<p>Many countries have successfully executed infrastructure PPPs in transportation (highways, airports, sport facilities) and are slowly moving into the education sector in combination with PPPs related to private management of public schools. <b>There are no available examples of PPPs for educational infrastructure in developing countries.</b> However, there are many examples of these PPPs in the United States that can be studied in more detail to be adapted to other countries.</p>

<sup>20</sup> Shomaker, Rahel. 2020. [Conceptualizing Corruption in Public-Private Partnerships](#). Public Organization Review, 20 (807–820).

## SPOTLIGHT: CORRUPTION IN EDUCATION PPPS



Corruption in education does happen, and in some countries it can be very significant. The Global Corruption Report: Education, published by Transparency International concludes that **education is prone to corruption because monitoring and accountability in public education tend to be weak**, even in high-income countries. Examples of corruption in education include **(1) favoritism in school construction procurement, (2) overpricing of pedagogical inputs, (3) using bribes in exchange for contracts, (4) using low-quality construction materials and products, (5) nepotism in personnel appointments, and (6) theft**, among others.

In the State of Florida, in the United States, PPP corruption in public education has been reported with some frequency over the years, with cases observed at each stage of the PPP project. The state has prosecuted cases that include (1) high fees paid to lobbyists in charge of pushing a PPP (decision stage, contract selection process stage), (2) questionable loans taken by a charter school with a corresponding illegal fee paid to the school staff (design stage), (3) fake invoicing for vouchers assigned to ghost students (execution stage), (4) overpriced lease payments approved by corrupt school board members (design stage, management stage), (5) unjustified construction cost overruns (execution stage), (6) rigged bids for construction materials and equipment (execution stage), and (7) diverting charter school scholarship money to personal use (execution and management stage).

Examples of responses designed to mitigate corruption can be found in Colombia, which enacted specific legislation regulating PPP contracts in Panama, where as a result of the fallout from the Odebrecht scandal the government is enforcing greater transparency in PPP contracts, and in Peru, where new legislation has been enacted to prevent the transfer of capital abroad until local obligations have been met, as well as enacting other legal measures aimed at ensuring compliance with the PPP contract.

De Michele, Roberto, Joan Prats, Isaías Losada Revol. 2018. [Effects of Corruption in Public-Private Partnership Contracts. Consequences of a Zero-tolerance Approach](#). Discussion Paper No. IDB-DP-625. Washington D.C.: Inter-American Development Bank.

McCluskey, Neil. 2005. [Corruption in the Public Schools. The Market is the Answer. Policy Analysis No. 542](#); Transparency International. 2013. Global Corruption Report: Education. Berlin.

## Section 5:

# Recommended Practices and Areas for Additional Research

### **Recommended Practice 1: Understand the nature of the problem to be solved in order to select the most appropriate PPP model and ensure strong monitoring and evaluation is in place.**

To have a PPP, a ministry of education must have a good office of monitoring and evaluation. Problems with contract schools, vouchers, and school subsidies can go undetected. This can mean the model is blamed for failures, where with some corrections it would have performed well. Hence, the main recommendation for using **PPPs in education is that governments should set up a strong office of monitoring and evaluation at the ministry of education**, which should be the best place to determine which factors contributed to the success or failure of the model and the corrective actions that can be implemented.

### **Recommended Practice 2: Recognize that TVET is undervalued, but a good TVET PPP can yield enormous benefits to the country.**

All countries assisted by USAID need to improve labor productivity to become self-reliant. In some cases, TVET programs are badly run and not given the importance they deserve. However, the private sector holds large amounts of knowledge about demand-driven skills, as well as access to modern technologies for production and productivity. This is an area of high complementarity between education and the USAID policy for engaging the private sector. Hence, it is important for all stakeholders in the education sector to recognize **the importance of TVET PPPs as a way to increase labor productivity and income among youth, which are being neglected by formal education**. Therefore, implementing PPPs in TVET should be an area of priority.

### **Recommended Practice 3: Consider PPPs for digital technology and pedagogy, which are crucial for making education systems more resilient.**

**Partnering with the private sector to develop remote learning platforms and educational software is extremely important for moving education beyond COVID-19.** Moreover, it is in the best interest of private partners to be honest about the performance of their products, since they cannot go to scale with a deficient product, as they would lose their reputation and their clients. Hence, this is an area where PPPs make eminent sense.

### **Recommended Practice 4: Take specific measures to avoid corruption.**

**PPP projects encompass at least four stages that demand specific anti-corruption measures:** (1) the decision to choose a PPP instead of one of the traditional models for the execution of a project, (2) the design, drafting, and approval of the project, (3) the contractor selection process and the awarding of the PPP contract, and (4) the execution, management, supervision, and termination of the contractual relationship. To counter opportunities for corruption, legislation should be in place to address the legal issues associated with PPP contracts, including transparency in the contract and execution processes and the penalties for violating the terms of the PPP contract. Manuals for designing PPPs in infrastructure are useful for crafting the contract and managing due diligence.<sup>21</sup>

---

<sup>21</sup> Design-Build Institute of America. 2016. [Public-Private Partnerships. A Design-Build Done Right™ Primer](#). Washington D.C.: DBIA.



## Cross-Cutting Findings for Use of PPPs

The discussion below refers to findings and recommendations that cut across all types of PPPs in education. They are important to consider for the effective use of any form of PPP. To some extent, these cross-cutting considerations are as close as one can get to call it a best practice in PPPs.

**1. The success of a PPP is context-specific and monitoring a PPP is extremely important.** PPPs that rely on contracts and vouchers are promising means for the private provision of public education, but the results tend to be more modest than what the theory suggests. The main reason is that private providers have incentives to avoid compliance with contract rules that increase their risk of poor performance, such as selecting the best students, even when their mandate is to accept all applicants. If a country is not equipped to monitor compliance and enforce accountability, the results are bound to be more modest than promised by the contract—improvements are not as great and not as equity-enhancing as expected. Once a country goes through the different phases of development of a PPP, it can use that experience to be more effective with other PPPs later on.

**2. PPP models are compatible with USAID’s policy framework.** All the PPP models discussed fall within the scope of USAID policy for engaging the private sector. However, models related to the financing of infrastructure still lack evidence from host countries. There may be two reasons for this: (1) infrastructure tends to be funded primarily by external loans under concessionary terms, and (2) finance-build-operate models are very recent, so many governments have yet to consider them. Hence, more research is needed at the country level before considering implementing a PPP in infrastructure.



## Areas Requiring Additional Guidance and Research

Because the concept of a PPP is evolving, and because there are significant areas of overlap among the different types of PPPs, some additional research is needed to better define a partnership and the ways in which governments can intervene successfully. The following areas would benefit from further research to inform PPP practices.

- a. **What are the minimum requirements for a legal framework for PPPs?** Often, ministries of education are pushed by donors and cooperating agencies to start a PPP without doing due diligence. Countries considering a PPP should know if their legal and regulatory framework is sufficient to address the contractual issues that could arise on a PPP in education.
- b. **What are the minimum requirements for an effective office of monitoring and evaluation?** There is a need for country-specific details in terms of technical requirements of staff, budget, operational autonomy, and power of convocation to point out issues with policy design, policy misalignments, and corruption.
- c. **How can we incentivize evaluation of job placement data?** While the gap is understandable based on the cost of such studies, there is a critical need for data on the impact of TVET programs on job placement. Use of an income-sharing model where payment is based on post-program income is one form of incentive to be explored.
- d. **How can ICT and digital pedagogy be used effectively to improve learning?** Use of PPPs in this area is a growing phenomenon and more research is needed about teacher training needs, pedagogical approaches, and student monitoring.

## References

- Academy for Educational Development (AED). 2006. *The Untapped Opportunity: How Public-Private Partnerships can Advance Education for All*. Washington D.C.: AED.
- Alcott, Hunt, and Daniel E. Ortega. 2009. [The Performance of Decentralized School Systems: Evidence from Fe y Alegría in República Bolivariana de Venezuela](#). Ch. 6 in Barrera-Osorio, Felipe, Harry Anthony Patrinos, and Quentin Wodon, Eds. 2009. *Emerging Evidence on Vouchers and Faith-Based Providers of Education. Case Studies from Africa, Latin America, and Asia*. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Arcia, Gustavo, Rafael de Hoyos, Harry Patrinos, Alina Sava, Tigran Schmis, and Janssen Teixeira. 2021. [Learning Recovery After COVID-19 in Europe and Central Asia: Policy and Practice](#). Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Arcia, Gustavo. 2016. [Efficiency of Public Expenditures in Education and Health in Belize, 2003–2013](#). Technical Note No. IDB-TN-972. Washington D.C.: Inter-American Development Bank.
- Arcia, Gustavo. 2012. [Institutional Analysis of the Education Sector in Belize](#). Consulting Report, Inter-American Development Bank. Washington D.C.
- Aslam, Monazza, Shenila Rawal, and Sahar Saeed. “[Public-Private Partnerships in Education in Developing Countries: A Rigorous Review of the Evidence](#).” London: Ark Education Partnerships Group.
- Barrera-Osorio, Felipe, Pierre de Galbert, James Habyarima, and Shwetlana Sabarwal. 2016. [Impact of Public-Private Partnerships on Private School Performance: Evidence from a Randomized Control Trial in Uganda](#). Policy Research Working Paper 7905. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Barrera-Osorio, Felipe. 2006. [The Impact of Private Provision of Public Education: Empirical Evidence from Bogotá’s Concession Schools](#). Policy Research Working Paper 4121. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Bonilla, Juan D. 2011. [Contracting Out Public Schools for Academic Achievement: Evidence from Colombia](#). Working Paper, Economics Department, University of Sao Paulo, Brazil.
- Butcher, Neil, Sarah Hoosen, Vis Naidoo. 2015. [Study on Public-Private Partnerships in Information and Communication Technology \(ICT\) for Education](#). Burnaby (British Columbia): Commonwealth of Learning.
- De Michele, Roberto, Joan Prats, Isaías Losada Revol. 2018. [Effects of Corruption in Public-Private Partnership Contracts. Consequences of a Zero-tolerance Approach](#). Discussion Paper No. IDB-DP-625. Washington D.C.: Inter-American Development Bank.
- Design-Build Institute of America. 2016. [Public-Private Partnerships. A Design-Build Done Right™ Primer](#). Washington D.C.: DBIA.
- Duarte, Jesús, and Leonardo Villa. 2005. [Concessionary Public Schools in Bogotá: An Innovation in School Management in Colombia](#). Chapter IV in: Wolff, Laurence, Juan Carlos Navarro, and Pablo González, Eds. 2005. *Private Education and Public Policy in Latin America*. Washington D.C.: PREAL.
- Evans, David K., and Fei Yuan. 2019. [Equivalent Years of Schooling. A Metric to Communicate Learning Gains in Concrete Terms](#). Policy Research Working Paper 8752. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Gauri, Varun, and Ayesha Vawda. 2003. [Vouchers for Basic Education in Developing Countries. A Principal-Agent Perspective](#). Policy Research Working Paper 3005. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
- Grunwald, Edda. 2008. [Public-Private Partnership Models in TVET and their Impact on the Role of Government](#). Abidjan: Association for the Development of Education in Africa.
- Gultiano, Socorro, Elizabeth King, Aniceto Orbeta, and Prudenciano Gordoncillo. 2010. [Internet Use among Filipino Public High School Students](#). Working Paper, Princeton University.
- Gustafsson-Wright, Emily, Sophie Gardiner, and Vidya Putcha. 2015. [The Potential and Limitations of Impact Bonds. Lessons from the First Five Years of Experience Worldwide](#). Washington D.C.: Brookings.
- [Intel® Teach Program Worldwide](#). (n.d.).
- [International Labor Organization.2020. Global Employment Trends for Youth](#). Technology and the future of jobs. Geneva: ILO.
- LaRocque, Norman. 2008. [Public-private Partnerships in Basic Education: An International Review](#). London: CfBT Education Trust.
- Malik, Allah Bakhsh. 2010. [Public-Private Partnerships in Education Lessons Learned from the Punjab Education Foundation](#). Manila: Asian Development Bank.
- McCluskey, Neil. 2005. [Corruption in the Public Schools. The Market is the Answer](#). *Policy Analysis* No. 542.
- Murnane, Richard J., Marcus R. Waldman, John B. Willett, María Soledad Bos, and Emiliana Vegas. 2017. [The Consequences of Educational Voucher Reform in Chile](#). IDB Working Paper Series No. 833. Washington D.C.: Inter-American Development Bank.

Näslund-Hadley, Emma, and Gustavo Arcia. 2021. "[Improving Education Finance Equity in Belize through Formula Funding](#)." *Academia Letters*, Article 1337.

Norton, Tom and Mary. 2016. [9 Challenges to TVET in Developing Countries](#). TVET Journal.

OECD. 2012. [Public and Private Schools: How Management and Funding Relate to their Socioeconomic Profile](#). Paris: OECD Publishing.

Parra Osorio, Juan Carlos, and Quentin Wodon (Eds.). 2014. [Faith-Based Schools in Latin America: Case Studies on Fe y Alegria](#). Washington D.C.: World Bank.

Patrinos, Harry Anthony, Felipe Barrera-Osorio, and Juliana Guaqueta. 2009. [The Role and Impact of Public-Private Partnerships in Education. Washington D.C.](#): World Bank.

Romero, Mauricio, Justin Sandefur, and Wayne Aaron Sandholtz. 2017. "[Can Outsourcing Improve Liberia's Schools? Preliminary Results from Year One of a Three-Year Randomized Evaluation of Partnership Schools for Liberia](#)." CGD Working Paper 462. Washington, D.C.: Center for Global Development.

Rijnsburger, Ryno. 2020. [Public Private Partnerships Hold the Key to Future Development](#). Microsoft News Center Blogspot.

Shomaker, Rahel. 2020. [Conceptualizing Corruption in Public-Private Partnerships](#). *Public Organization Review*, 20 (807–820).

Soulunii, Stephen. 2019. [List of Social Impact Funds That Support Education](#). EdTech Review.

Termes, Andreu, Xavier Bonal, Antoni Verger, and Adrián Zancajo. 2015. Public-Private Partnerships in Colombian Education: [The Equity and Quality Implications of "Colegios en Concesión."](#) ESP Working Paper Series 66. Privatization in Education Research Initiative. Washington D.C.: Open Society Foundation.

Transparency International. 2013. [Global Corruption Report: Education](#). Berlin.

USAID. 2021. Desk Review of Nigeria ICT Policies for Digital Literacies. Washington D.C.: USAID.

USAID. 2020. Private Sector Engagement Policy. Washington D.C.

Vegas, Emiliana. 2022. [Education Technology Post-COVID-19: A Missed Opportunity?](#) Brookings Institution Blogpost.

World Bank. 2017. [Public-Private Partnerships Reference Guide](#). Washington D.C.: World Bank.

## Contact

To request more information or technical assistance on education programming please contact Suezan Lee, DDI/EDU Senior Education Finance Specialist, [sulee@usaid.gov](mailto:sulee@usaid.gov).

## Acknowledgements

This evidence paper was prepared by Gustavo Arcia, Amy Holloway, and Amy Mulcahy-Dunn. Thanks to Suezan Lee, Caitlin Hurley, Deborah Greebon, and Samantha Alvis of USAID for their review of this paper.