
SITE VISIT: Going to Scale—the Peruvian Experience

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Introduction

Until approximately 15 years ago, the main early intervention programmes in Peru were either private kindergartens providing enrichment for middle- and upper-class children, or, on a smaller scale, charitable centres for urban poor children, run by prominent individuals. From the late 1930s until 1960, private kindergartens expanded and, to a lesser extent, so did public urban kindergartens. During the 1960s, welfare agencies began taking a more active role in developing custodial centres for disadvantaged children. (Germani, Ibañez) Still, as of 1970, the coverage of pre-school programmes for 3- to 5-year-olds was less than 5 per cent, and nursery schools were available for less than 1 per cent of all children ages 0 to 2. Home-based programmes did not exist. Nor had maternal and child health programmes started to take hold.

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By 1984, services directed at children, ages 0–6, had increased dramatically. Most of the increase occurred in programmes for children ages 3–5. The total number of children enrolled in programmes for that age group has been estimated at more than 500,000, or approximately one-third of all children in that age bracket. For children ages 0–3, consistent attention through institutionalized programmes remains at a low level, despite new nutrition and health initiatives and the recent evolution of a home-based early stimulation programme.

The seven-fold increase in the scale of early education programmes has occurred over more than a decade and through a variety of programmes and models. These differ in their goals, the ages of the participating children, the degree of formal institutionalization, the programme content, whether they are multi-sectorial or single-service, the use of volunteers or paid teachers, the degree of family and community involvement, and the source of programme funding. In the following pages this growth and diversity will be sketched and examined for lessons it may hold about moving to scale.

Background

Peru is an extremely diverse country—geographically, culturally, and economically. Children living at an altitude of 12,000 feet in a village of eighty families where the main occupation is herding and where Aymara is the principal language have little in common with a slum child of coastal Lima with its 5,000, inhabitants, or with a child who lives in the Peruvian jungle.

Peru has an infant mortality rate of about 100 per 1,000 live births. The child death rate is 10.4 percent. Malnutrition is widespread. The distribution of income is skewed so that the top 20 percent of Peru's families control 60 percent of its income, and the lower 40 per cent of the families only 7 percent of the income. (World Bank 1981) During the last decade, Peru has suffered through (and is still experiencing) harsh times. Per capita income has fallen over that period and is now approximately \$760. Even in the modern sector, salaries have declined, in real terms, by more than one-half from 1973 to 1983. (CEDEP) When the economic situation is combined with the fact that 42 per cent of the population is in the 0–15 age range and the population growth rate is about 2.6, Peru provides a good example of a young country riddled by poverty, and with inadequate provision of educational and health services.

Despite these unfavourable conditions, services intended to benefit children have grown. A major impetus to that growth occurred under the revolutionary military government that began in 1968. Emphasis was given to local participation, providing a context within which community-based services and self-help programmes could expand. Early education became a high priority and, in an innovative departure, pre-school was renamed "Initial Education" (in 1972), and was redefined to include all children ages 0–5. Three main types of programmes began to expand. For 3 to 5-year olds, formal centres for initial education (CEIs) increased steadily. This traditional approach was supplemented, however, by a surge of non-formal community-based programmes (PRONOEIs); for children 0–3, a home-visiting alternative slowly began to take shape.

Initial Education Centres (CEI)

Of the three main models, the Initial Education Centre, or CEI, is the most traditional. A CEI is a formal pre-school programme with a "qualified" teacher (most are former primary school teachers) paid by the Ministry of Education, adhering to a standard pre-school curriculum set by the Ministry. In some cases a CEI is created by the Ministry of Education. In others it comes into being as a community or private sector initiative, and is then taken over or is supervised by the Ministry. Some CEIs continue to be operated by private organizations. Most CEIs enroll children aged 3–5, but in a few cases the Centre includes a nursery for children 0–3. Enrollment in CEIs was estimated at about 300,000 children in 1983, or approximately 19% of the 1,600,000 Peruvian children aged 3–5. We will not devote much attention to this standard pre-school model, which has increased only slowly during the last decade, approximately doubling in enrollment.

The Non-Formal Initial Education Programmes (PRONOEI)

Much more interesting from the standpoint of "Going to Scale" has been the evolution and extension of a variety of center-based, non-formal programmes. These have their roots in an effort initiated by a group of volunteers in the state of Puno, who began (in 1969) to work with local communities to organize what were called Wawa Wasi or Wawa Utas ("children's homes" in Quechua and Aymara). The volunteers had no inkling that their activities would grow into a national involvement with child development programmes using a non-formal approach. The idea for "children's homes" evolved naturally from a small nutrition education programme for mothers being carried out in several rural communities of Puno. The mothers brought their children along to the sessions. A child care component and a supplementary feeding component developed, with food donated by CARITAS and prepared by the mothers as part of their nutrition education. Although qualified teachers were assigned to some of these centres for a short period, an evaluation in 1969 showed that young community volunteers were more effective with the children than the teachers and that professional educators served better in supervisory tasks. The number of children's homes increased slowly at first, and, until 1973, relatively little expansion had occurred in Puno. Meanwhile, other non-formal programmes began to appear in other states of Peru, sometimes as satellite programmes of a formal, Ministry-run Initial Education Centre, and sometimes they sprung up spontaneously. In 1971 there were about 300 community programmes in the country as a whole, as compared with over 7,000 in 1983,

In 1973, the Puno programme came under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education and the experience was organized into the PROPEDEINE Project. UNICEF began to provide assistance. The Department of Initial Education (Dirección de Educación Inicial) took over the non-formal programmes as part of its responsibility. With Ministry involvement came guidelines, in 1974, and also the need to guide more closely the expansion of the PRONOEIs. In accordance with the national development strategy, a decision was made to give priority to economically and socially deprived rural areas and urban shanty towns.

A basic model for the non-formal pre-school approach took shape in which the programmes called Programas no Escolarizados de Educación Inicial (PRONOEI), were to be carried out by volunteers from the community chosen in a public assembly, and trained by the education sector. Volunteers or "animadoras" were supervised and guided by a teacher co-ordinator (*docente coordinador*), who in turn received training and supervision from the zonal or regional initial education specialist. The co-ordinating teacher belonged to the public sector, while the volunteer did not. *Animadoras* received a modest payment, called a "tip" (propina) but were not part of the Ministry pay scale. Children met 5 days a week during the mornings. They received a lunch cooked by participating mothers. Facilities were constructed or provided by the community.

In the political context of the early 1970s the Puno project grew as part and parcel of a more general rural development effort. That decentralized effort included the strengthening of a regional planning group in Puno. The regional planning group became a focus for assistance from UNICEF, facilitating an "integrated" approach in which the non-formal children's centres were seen as part of a multi-sectorial strategy. Over time, that integrated philosophy became a central feature of the approach.

The Puno model was given a push on a larger scale, and in other states, by the design and publication of curricular and training guides. The guidelines and materials were field tested, and distributed nationally. Local adaptations followed. Since a wide latitude was given for adaptation to local realities, some very fine results were achieved. Examples are the TARPUY guide developed in Cusco, and the training model currently being worked out in Puno. The local adjustment of curricular guides has helped engage and train local programme staff.

The non-formal programme model spread to other parts of Peru—sometimes spontaneously, sometimes with support from international agencies. In 1976, for instance, an adaptation of the non-formal community-based Puno model was tried in shanty towns in the Southern Cone of Lima, with support from UNICEF through a project called "Integral Attention to the Child and Its Family." In the adapted model, a health centre and a pre-school centre were constructed to serve a group of 3,000 to 5,000 people. Para-professionals were trained for a series of health, nutrition, and early education activities—under the control of the local communities. Local community diagnoses were carried out to determine the "quality of life" and a monitoring system was developed.

By 1978, only one of 25 states in Peru did not have any non-formal initial education programmes. In that year, a strong boost for the model was given in a national seminar called to systematize experiences. The non-formal center-based approach continued to grow in a series of parallel programmes that included the following:

- A peri-urban model, with assistance from the van leer Foundation, in which twenty satellite pre-school centres were supported by a well-equipped demonstration centre that served also as a base for training the para-professionals responsible for the satellites.
- An evolving multi-sectoral programme in the rural and urban locations within the state of Ancash. With assistance from UNICEF, the urban program involves health, education,

and agriculture in Centres for Integrated Development. The rural model involves ministries of health, education, agriculture, labour, industry, and fisheries. Children's houses became integrated Centres of Socio-Economic Development.

- An "Integrated Basic Services Programme" in Cusco, also with assistance from UNICEF.
- A project, with funds from USAID, titled "Pre-School Education as an Incentive for Community Development." This project supported growth and adaptation of non-formal programmes in the states of Puno, Cusco, Apurimac and San Martin. The project, which now reaches over 2,000 villages, has included funds for training and supervision, for construction of PRONOEI with community assistance, and for community nutrition projects. Supplementary feeding has continued.
- A programme of Community Centres in urban areas, promoted by the First Lady, with assistance from both USAID and UNICEF, that is a further outgrowth of the experience in the Southern Cone of Lima. The programme provides strong support for the manufacture of educational material, using locally available resources.
- Urban-based programmes in the coastal cities of Arequipa (linked primarily with the vocational training of parents) and Chimbote were assisted by UNICEF. The Chimbote experience began as part of an emergency relief effort in 1983. Other, less prominent programmes are run by private organizations sometimes including several components—a community-based nutrition programme, and a primary health component—in addition to initial education. A community-run kitchen feeds 8,000 children, ages 0 to 14 (as part of a nutrition programme), both with assistance from UNICEF. These programmes are different in their form of implementation, and their degree of "integration." However, all have in common the use of para-professionals, community involvement (variously defined), and some degree of "converging services."

Over time, increasing attention has been given to the PRONOEI as part of a more general community development programming approach. That increased attention is evident at local, regional, and national levels. Recently, for instance, a National Education Project has provided the central level with the capability to carry out nation-wide supervision, evaluation, and training with collaboration by the Educational Health ministries and the National Fanning Institute. A National Coordinating Committee that includes representatives from each sector has travelled to the field to provide supervision, training, and monitoring. The Commission members have acted as troubleshooters and evaluators in their own sectors, thus improving the flow of information between the projects and the central level.

During 1984, approval was given to an intersectorial directive between the health and education sectors. In this national directive, the execution of integrated and convergent actions was officially instituted. Based on the UNICEF experience, all training activities should include the child survival revolution components (particularly growth charts and brachial perimeter measurement) and personnel from both sectors. This directive applies to all CEI and PRONOEIs nation-wide.

At the local level, greater integration has been sought in Puno through the creation of "multi-comunales". These are groupings of about 20 communities which work together in developmental programmes. This experience is already being adapted in other parts of Peru.

The presence of the PRONOEIs has also provided a base for extension of child survival programmes such as immunization campaigns.

The Results

The number of children enrolled in the PRONOEI programmes has gone from 3,625², in 1973, to 248,800, in 1983. The total number of children aged 3 to 5 enrolled in the initial education level (544,300) represents close to one third of the children in that age bracket for 1983 (around 1,600,000). The yearly increases for coordinating teachers, volunteers, and children, from 1973 to 1983.

As we can see in Table I, the PRONOEI increased at a fast rate during the 1970s. In 1979 and 1981, though, the expansion slows down. There are several reasons for this that are related to the "going to scale" process and that will be reviewed later on.

If we analyze the number of initial education centres (CEI) compared to the number of PRONOEI, we will see that, by the end of 1983, there are more than twice as many PRONOEI as CEI. This can be explained if we take into account that the PRONOEI does not need a strong budgetary input from the government, for example: physical infrastructure is usually provided by the communities, whether by building a room or by using a house or the communal centre. The budgetary cost of a PRONOEI is less than one-half of a CEI.

This increase in services resulted in an increase in the percentage of children covered nation wide. If we take the years 1972 and 1981, as an example, we will see that the percentage increased from 8.2 per cent, in 1972, to 29.5 per cent, in 1981. This also means that the deficit of attention went from 91.8 per cent, in 1972, to 70.5 per cent, in 1981. This is shown in Table II.

The number of children covered in the services have to be considered as beneficiaries not only of initial education, but of other services as well.

² Due to contradictions between the records of the Statistics Direction, the Planning Division and the DIGEIE, all figures presented should be taken as close estimates.

TABLE I
NUMBER OF CEI AND PRONOEI 1975–1982³

| YEAR | CEI | PRONOEI |
|------|-------|---------|
| 1975 | 1,721 | 267 |
| 1976 | 1,716 | 528 |
| 1977 | 1,884 | 1,315 |
| 1978 | 2,016 | 2,832 |
| 1979 | 2,208 | 3,180 |
| 1980 | 2,307 | 3,590 |
| 1981 | 2,502 | 3,980 |
| 1982 | 2,695 | 6,243 |
| 1983 | 2,888 | 7,233 |

TABLE II
POPULATION (3–5) CHILDREN COVERED AND DEFICIT OF ATTENTION
1912 – 1981

| | POPULATION | CHILDREN COVERED | DEFICIT |
|------|------------|------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1972 | 1,418,700 | 116,300 ⁴ (8.2%) | 1,302,400 (91.8%) |
| 1981 | 1,586,800 | 468,400 ⁴ (29.5%) | 1,118,400 (70.5%) |

A good percentage of the PRONOEIs offer health care and nutrition programmes. As stated elsewhere, this has become mandatory with the approval of the Intersectoral Directive 001 (Health Education 1984).

In the specific case of Puno, in 1982 there were 82,797 children ages 3 to 5. Of those, fully 50 percent were covered by the initial education activities. Additionally, and to illustrate further the hold of the PRONOEI in Puno, it should be noted that, of the 42,915 children in initial education, 81.6 per cent attended PRONOEI. (Aliaga 1984)

Home-based Interventions: The PIETBAF Experience

A new concern, attention to children through home-based programmes directed toward children ages 0 to 3, appeared both at the national and local level in the 1980s and deserves a special comment. Thinking about the home-based alternative was given a boost by an experiment carried out with the collaboration of Portage (CESA-12) and AID-Washington (CESA-12) in

³ Ministerio de Educacion, Oficina de Planeamiento Educativo

⁴ Includes children in private centres. Plan Operative Secto Educacion 82–83 Ministerio de Educacion

some rural communities in Cusco and the shanty towns of Lima. From 1976–1978, the experiment, aimed at children ages 3–5, involved education of parents or care-givers in use of diagnostic materials and suggested activities that responded to the needs of their children. Although an intensive evaluation showed a positive result, the experimenters recommended that the method be directed toward children at earlier ages.

At the national level, INIDE (Institute de Investigacion y Desarroll de la Educacion) and the DIGEIE (Direccion General de Educacion Inicial y Especial) began designing technical documents to lay the norms for programmes addressed to children in the 0 to 3 range. The programme, "Programas Integral de Estimulacion Temprana con Base en la Familia (PIETBAF)", proposed a model in which the direct participation of the mother and father would be an important element of the programme for children. A pilot experience was developed for the urban shanty town areas.

At the local level, in Ica and Tacna, two different programmes were tried out, based on the initiative of local personnel. In Ica, each teacher visited and gave advice to an average of 12 mothers offering an interesting mix of health, psychological, and vocational activities. In Tacna, the health sector, using the health centre, provided mothers with pamphlets motivating them to become involved in the programme.

By 1982, the PIETBAF was tried out, at an experimental level, in Lima, Callao, Tacna, and Piura with 1,046 families involved and ten teachers in charge of 80 community volunteers. The following year, with the support of UNICEF and the DIGEIE, training was given to personnel from the health and education sectors, which were co-responsible for the PIETBAF at the local level. Eleven cities implemented the programme, covering the whole coast of Peru: Tumbes, Piura, Lambayeque, Trujillo, Chimbote, Lima, Callao, Ica, Arequipa, Moquegua, and Tacna. At the same time, in Puno, the revision and adaptation of the PIETBAF methodology to the shanty towns of rural cities was begun. At the present time, this adaptation has been finalized and training has been carried out. It includes the training of nurses and auxiliary health personnel, teachers, students from teacher training institutes, and community leaders of Cusco and Puno. So far, 9,236 families are involved in the programme.

The Role of the Government

All the expansion, replication, funding, and evaluation have been possible because of many necessary decisions taken by the Ministry of Education and the Peruvian Government. The initial experience began under the revolutionary military government (1968–1980) and its educational reform plan. With the return of democracy in 1981, however, an internal evaluation of the education sector resulted in the endorsement of the initial education programmes, both in the formal and non-formal modes. Political support for initial education continued even though a lower priority was assigned as emphasis shifted to primary education.

The programmes were initially dependent on the Primary Education Directorate. Later an Initial Education Directorate with two units was organized. Finally and as a result of government support, the Direccion General de Educacion Inicial y Especial" was created. Additionally, the

"Dirección General" was empowered to have at the regional and zonal level, specialists to give technical assistance, help design the training and carry out the monitoring and evaluation at the local level. Eventually, Ministry to field level instructions began to be replaced by a flow of information from the field level to the Ministry that allowed the central level people to be more flexible, and more responsive to the local realities, needs, and resources.

With the decision to give political backing came the decision to provide a monetary incentive to the volunteer, which was not to be seen as a salary. Though the real value of the "propina" tended to shrink due to the economic conditions prevailing in the country, this provided a big incentive to get a PRONOEI functioning at the communal level. The economic incentive has steadily decreased in spite of the periodic re-adjustment made by the Peruvian Government.

Additionally, the volunteers grew at such a rate that in the Puno region, for example, a strong effort was begun to organize a federation to demand recognition of their status as regular personnel of the education sector. The position can be better understood if we take into account that, in 1981, of the 914 volunteers in Puno, 75.7 percent had some level of secondary school education, while in the regular educational system (rural areas) more than 50 per cent of the teachers in primary schools did not have any professional training.⁵

The decision to grant a monetary incentive and the burden it imposed on the education budget provided detractors and became a source of criticism.

The encouragement and latitude given by the government to the possibility of implementing different models of PRONOEIs has resulted in various forms of formal and non-formal, sectoral, and co-ordinated programmes.

Monitoring and Evaluation

The role played by evaluations in the process of "going to scale" deserves a closer look.

The PRONOEI experience has been closely monitored, both by the Peruvian Government and the international funding sources. The information gathered through weekly/monthly written reports and field visits has been confirmed by the results of major evaluations.

During the first years, the programmes expanded without following a pre-determined pattern. Later on, research studies and evaluations were carried out. Among these are the following:

- Experimentación de Diseños de Capacitación del Personal no Profesional (Vitarte, Lima).
- Formulación de un perfil del "Animador Comunal" y de estrategia de selección en poblaciones marginales urbanas (Ate, Vitarte).

⁵ Source: Informe Final de la Evaluación del PROPEDEINE, Luis Aliaga, 1981

- Evaluacion preliminar del Programas Piloto Experimental de Educacion Inicial no Escolarizada de Puno. PROPEDEINE, 1978, Martha Llanos y Otto Flores
- Impacto del PROPEDEINE, 1979, Otto Flores.
- Informe Final y Conclusiones del Proyecto PRONOEI-BH, Portage "Validacion del Modelo Portage", 1979, Jessin Loftin.
- Evaluacion del Proyecto Piloto Experimental de Educacion Inicial no Escolarizada (PROPEDEINE) del departamento de Puno, 1981, Jose Aliaga.
- Sistema de Informacion/Comunicacion en la Extension de la Educacion Inicial no Formal en Puno y Villa El Salvador, Ministerio de Educacion, 1983.

The PROPEDEINE Project in Puno and the Cono Sur Project in Lima have been evaluated by several agencies such as UNICEF, AID and OAS.

Some of the findings presented in the 1981 "Informe Final de la Evaluacion del Proyecto PROPEDEINE" by Jose Aliaga, served as a basis for the design of an alternative long distance training module, to be field-tested in Puno. The need to find alternatives to mass concentration of volunteers for training purposes was only one aspect. Another, besides the cost, was the need to diversify the content of the training enabling volunteers to advance gradually in their knowledge of the technical aspects of initial education. The same held true when new components, such as community development, early stimulation, GOBI-FF, or any other subjects, were introduced in the programme.

The formal evaluations have contributed to the search for new alternatives. In projects receiving UNICEF support, an important role has been played by the continuous monitoring and field visits, both by the "Comision Coordinadora Nacional" and by the UNICEF officers. In the Lima Area Office, the UNICEF personnel visit the different projects at an average of once every two months. Normally, they are accompanied by the members of the National Coordinating Commission, or representatives from different sectors.

Another dimension to the monitoring aspect is provided by the active participation of the community in the planning and execution of the programmes. Monitoring data are of better quality when the members of the community know and understand the purpose of the information requested. This knowledge also enables them to internalize the goals, activities, problems, and benefits of the project, The end result is their active participation and support.

The Role of the Community

This has not been dealt with as a separate aspect, precisely because it is the basis upon which the whole process developed.

Peru has a long and strong tradition of community organization. This is something that persists from the Inca Empire. No matter how small the town or village, once you are known and accepted, you will find yourself involved in some type of communal organization.

Puno is the region where the population is more active, having second degree organizations called "multicomunales", a federation of communities which organize themselves as a commercial or development group. In some areas, the "multicomunales" are so well organized that they are capable of managing international aid directly without the intervention of the state.

In the urban areas, the shanty towns of cities, such as Lima, Arequipa, Puno, Chimbote, are also examples of well organized communities. Each block of houses or shacks has a representative, who, in turn, belongs to an assembly that has a directorate. In some cities, there are federations of shanty towns that are very powerful, wielding a great deal of political clout.

UNICEF's experience in the area has been extremely varied, since each project receiving financial support presents a different pattern of participation of the population. In Puno, as mentioned already, the "multicomunales" are full-fledged partners. In Cusco and Arequipa, the political context makes the participation in decision making difficult and thus limited. In Conchucos, two of the four "centrales Campesinas" participating in the project manage their part by themselves. The other two are managed by the Development Corporation. In Lima, the participation of the community, though very strong in all aspects, does not reach decision-making level. In Chimbote, there is representation at all levels, allowing two community members, elected by the federation of shanty town leaders, to be fully entitled members of the Director's Committee (which includes the highest state authorities).

Some Considerations

Though the PRONOEI experience is, in general terms, a positive one, some additional comments on concerns raised by the experience should be made. The concerns are related to:

- A clear demand for the service that has been generated by the population. There are so many cases of communities which request PRONOEI that the government is unable to attend to them all due to budgetary restrictions.
- An additional stress on the primary school level is the likely result because of the fact that there are more children entering the formal system; on the other hand, those with initial education have a tendency to remain in the system.⁶
- A more widespread desire for education and development related training and/or activities, including literacy, by the adult population.
- The professional teacher's concern as to the quality of the service given by untrained volunteers.
- The rapid expansion of a service that does not require professional teachers and seems a possible threat to their jobs.

⁶ Informe Final de la Evaluacion del Proyecto PROPEDEINE. Jose Aliaga. 1981

- The possible inability of the public budget to assume the costs of the PRONOEI, not only in terms of volunteers, but also in terms of the increasing demand for materials, equipment, and training.
- The proliferation of demands raised by the volunteers themselves, requesting recognition of their years of experience, and of their need for better monetary rewards.

These turn into major concerns when compared with some decisions made by the Peruvian Government.

In 1980, the Government's Educational policy gave priority to literacy and primary education. The end result was less money for initial education,

In addition to that, at the initial education level, the formal centres were given priority over the non-formal PRONOEI. The result was that, in order to cope, the Special Programmes Unit set as a goal the improvement of the quality of the service and improvement of the coordinating teacher-volunteer's ratio. The only areas in the country where there is expansion are those covered by programmes receiving international aid.

This change of policy on the part of the education sector is reflected in the number of teachers allocated to the CEI and PRONEOI in the last two years. In 1983, CEI incorporated around 500 new teachers; PRONOEI only 50. This year, 1984, CEI received almost 1,000 new teachers, while PRONOEIs were granted only 90.⁷ The future impact of all the proceeding on the PRONOEI remains to be seen, specially when the population demandd are taken into account.

Conclusions

In the Peruvian case, some basic and important characteristics clearly stand out when the experience is reviewed. At the national level: there was a strong political commitment and the necessary financial backing. This included the willingness to provide budgetary support to the training and supervision of a group of technicians at the central level. Those people were organized as a unit, giving the programmes continuity. The necessary steps were taken to provide them with an administrative structure that reached the field level with clearly defined responsibilities. On the part of the technical personnel, there was a willingness to accept innovative ideas, to be flexible about their implementation, and to allow other sectors to participate in the programmes. The administrative structure allowed for feedback from the field level and for field monitoring of the experience.

At the community level there was a feeling of ownership of the PRONOEIs. It was reinforced by the communities' right to select their volunteers. They could offer alternatives they thought were the best for their own way of life. They could also add other activities, without having to worry whether or not they were education oriented. The PRONOEIs did not require an expensive

⁷ Dirrecion de Educacion Inicial y Especial. Ministerio de Educacion.

building or furniture but rather made use of locally available resources, giving the community the opportunity to learn how to use what they had in new ways.

Finally, consideration should be given to the contribution of the international and bilateral organizations that provided the funds for an improvement in the quality of the services, the monitoring and evaluation of the programmes, and the identification of the problems with the original design.

The child development programmes in Peru have evolved into family and community development programmes. This implies that there is a need to provide technical support in various other fields, such as nutrition and health areas that are not under the jurisdiction of the education sector, using simple technologies and effective services. Though, between sectors, positive steps have been taken, the underlying problem of an absence of a national policy regarding the integral care for the child and his family remains an almost impossible obstacle to the urgent need to coordinate actions to benefit the most vulnerable population.

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