Girls' Education and Gender in Education Sector Plans and GPE-funded Programs

May 2017

Table of Contents

Acronyms

AP	Action Plan
CAR	Central African Republic
CSR	Education Country Status Report
DFID	UK Department for International Development
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
EFA	Education for all
ESP	Education sector plan
GER	Gross enrollment rate
GIR	Gross intake rate
GPE	Global Partnership for Education
GPI	Gender Parity Index
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
PASEC	CONFEMEN Education Systems Analysis Program *(Programme d'Analyse des Systèmes Educatifs de la CONFEMEN)*
PCR	Primary completion rate
PTA	Parent-Teacher Associations
SACMEQ	South African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality
SMC	School Management Committee
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNGEI	United Nations Girls Education Initiative

N.B. This report was developed under the previous GPE Strategic Plan 2012-2015 and before the World Education Forum in Incheon in May 2015. Some information is therefore no longer current.

I. Executive Summary

Since the World Education Forum in 2000 in Dakar, efforts and commitments at both national and international levels have brought significant progress in education systems with a view to reducing inequity between girls and boys. Among the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) partner developing countries, the primary Gross Enrollment Rate (GER) Gender Parity Index (GPI) increased from 0.82 in 2000 to 0.93 in 2013, and the Primary Completion Rate (PCR) GPI increased from 0.81 to 0.90, for the same period.[1] Despite this progress, gender discrimination continues to keep millions of girls out of classrooms, depriving them of their fundamental right to a quality education. Given the persistence of gender inequalities, the latest 2012-2015 GPE Strategic Plan reaffirmed as a priority goal (Objective 2) that "all girls in GPE-endorsed countries successfully complete primary school and go to secondary school in a safe, supportive learning environment."

This report was therefore commissioned by the GPE Secretariat to **take stock** of how girls' education and gender issues are included in education sector plans (ESPs), including their implementation or action plans, in 42 countries , as well as in GPE-funded programs in member developing countries. The point here is not to evaluate ESPs in relation to girls' education and gender issues, nor to assess their strategic relevance or efficiency, but rather to establish an information baseline based on a sector plan formative evaluation to improve consideration of this issue in the future sector plans in order to better promote the achievement of GPE Strategic Objective 2.

A quantitative analysis of gender disparities in ESPs was conducted around several themes. The key messages are outlined below.

Availability of gender-disaggregated data in ESPs

The presentation of gender-disaggregated statistical data in ESPs is a key first step in assessing the extent of gender disparities and identifying at what levels such disparities exist. These data will allow, among other things, to (i) better develop targeted measures to address the most significant disparities, and (ii) set intervention objectives.

Out of 42 ESPs analyzed, 34 included gender-disaggregated indicators for primary education, whether regarding intake, access or retention. Among the eight ESPs that did not provide gender-disaggregated data for primary education, 5 have achieved gender parity according to UIS data (Madagascar, Moldova, Nicaragua, Uganda, and Uzbekistan). **At the secondary education level, 14 ESPs out of 42 include at least two gender-disaggregated indicators.**[2]

While most ESPs provide gender-disaggregated indicators, **data availability is highly inconsistent across ESPs, and there is no systematic inclusion of access, retention and completion indicators.** It then often proves difficult, from reading ESPs, to have a global picture of gender disparities in primary and secondary education. However, such information exists in most countries, particularly in statistical yearbooks.

[1] Calculation by the GPE Secretariat based on UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) data. Gender Parity Index is the value of a given indicator for girls divided by that of boys. For indicators where higher values are desirable (e.g. school participation rates) a GPI value of less than 1 means that girls are at a disadvantage, while a GPI greater than 1 means that boys are at a disadvantage. UNESCO defines that a GPI value between 0.97 and 1.03 as gender parity. Source: UNESCO. 2012. World Atlas of Gender Equality in Education.

[2] The two indicators were related to students (teacher related indicators were not taken into account).

Data on learning outcomes data is a common weakness, with only three ESPs (Eritrea, Guyana, and Sindh in Pakistan) presenting gender-disaggregated data on student learning achievement level. However, a few ESPs do mention that girls performed less well in examinations than boys. **If learning outcomes are lower for girls than for boys in some countries, a detailed investigation should be carried out in order to better understand the reasons behind the lower performance and identify and adopt appropriate interventions.** Furthermore, while gender-disaggregated data from learning assessments is not presented in many ESPs, it is important to find this data, and where this is not possible, alternative sources such as girls' and boys' success rates in national examinations can be analyzed.

National statistical data may conceal significant regional disparities

National averages may be the result of significant variance between regions or geographical zones (rural or urban) within a single country, including in countries which have achieved parity. Understanding disparities is therefore more complex than simply considering the national level GPI, and may entail considering other factors such as the place of residence or household income level. The combined impacts of these factors reinforce gender disparities. **Only eight ESPs out of 42 include data disaggregated by gender AND by region.** The lack of gender disparity analysis at the regional level inhibits the design and targeting of context relevant interventions. Indeed, any country may have pockets of resistance to girls' education, which should logically lead to the implementation of gender-specific interventions addressing not only the demand for education but also supply.

Female teacher related data in ESPs

The lack of female teachers was highlighted in 31% of ESPs as a barrier to girls' education. Out of 42 ESPs analyzed, only 13 provide data on the number of female teachers in primary education, and 6 on the number of female teachers in secondary education. It should be noted that these countries are not necessarily ones which reported teacher gender disparities as an obstacle to girls' participation in schools. Moreover, five countries do not provide any data on female teachers' percentage while implementing specific policies. Because of this lack of data, it is not possible to gauge the extent of gender disparities within the teaching staff, and this therefore severely limits the assessment of such policy efficiency and relevance.

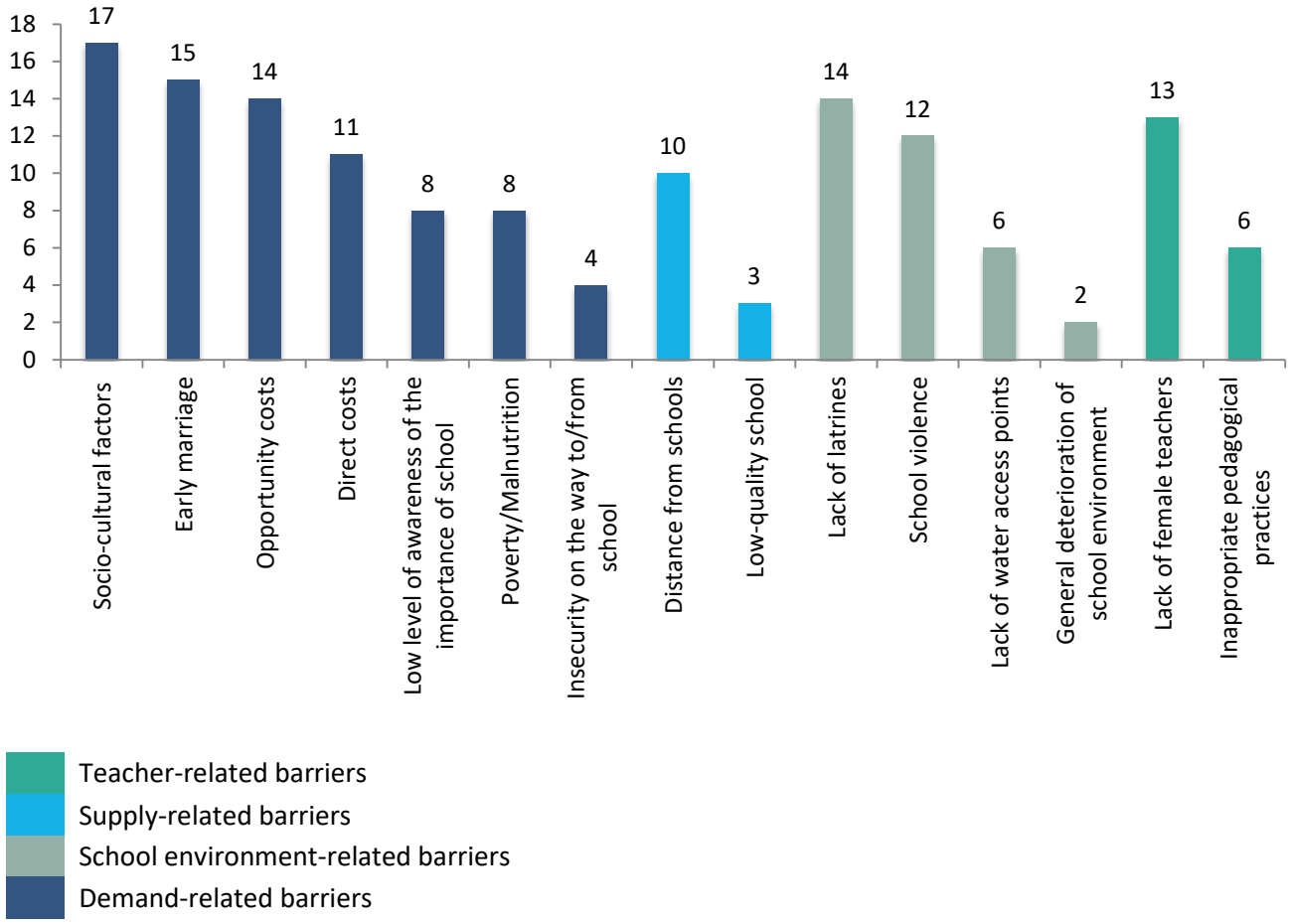
Barriers to girls' education in ESPs

In ESPs, barriers to girls' education are seldom categorized and the quality of their analysis is highly variable. Most of the time the analysis consists of a few condensed paragraphs or a brief mention of barriers without differentiating education levels (primary and secondary education) and disparity types (access, retention, completion). In addition, analyses do not sufficiently account for the economic, social, geographical factors that underpin these barriers. The review of the 42 ESPs may thus give the impression that the analysis is based on little contextual evidence. This may be due to the fact that there are other analyses and studies on the sector providing greater detail on barriers to girls' education. 16 out of the 42 ESPs analyzed do not include any analysis of barriers to girls' education, of which nine are ESPs in countries which have not achieved gender parity. However, a lack of analysis does not necessarily mean that there are no policies in favor of girls' participation in schools in these countries.

Barrier types noted in ESPs (for both primary and secondary levels, as few countries differentiate between them) are shown in Graph 1.

Barriers to girls' education mentioned in ESPs (26 countries/states)[3]

[3] The 26 countries/states are those which conducted an analysis of barriers to girls' education. 16 countries/states do not provide any details on possible barriers to girls' education.



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Frequently-cited demand-side barriers include socio-cultural factors, early marriage, direct costs, and opportunity costs. Supply-side factors cited included school violence, and inadequate provision of toilets. The presence of female teachers and inappropriate pedagogical practices were also believed to negatively impact girl's access to education. Barriers to girls' education are diverse and often interdependent, which require combined actions to address both educational supply and demand. The causes of gender disparity in relation to access and retention of girls in school are often similar across ESPs, but remain fairly general. The potential link between low education quality and low rates of participation are very seldom addressed.

Girls' education strategies

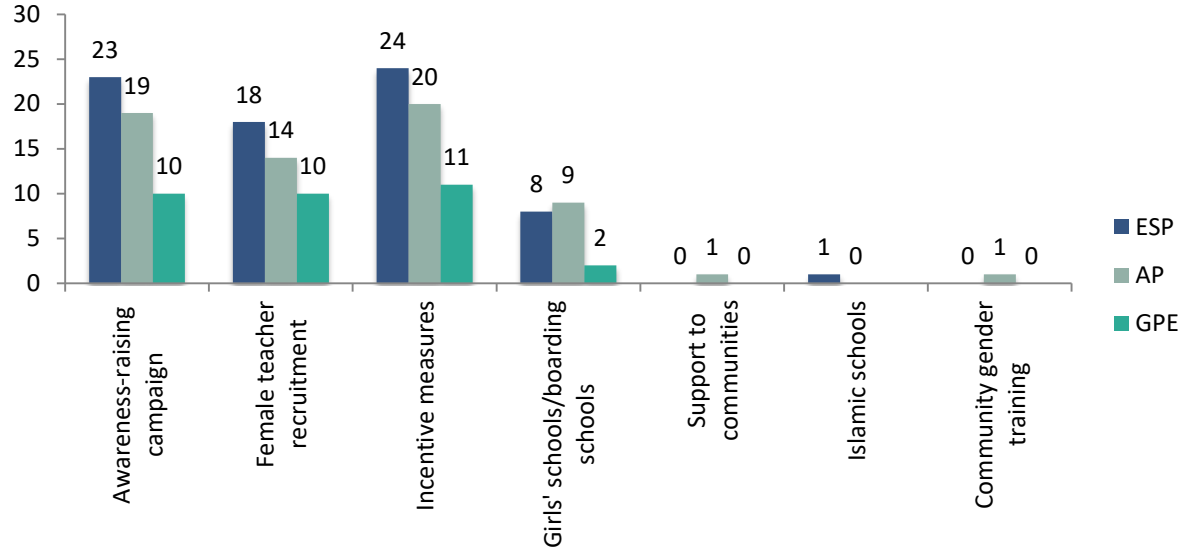
The strategies identified in ESPs and implementation/action plans aiming to improve girls' education vary widely and are related to actions on demand, supply, environment or teachers. As mentioned above, in order to be efficient, interventions must increasingly and simultaneously address interrelated problems, both from the perspective of educational demand and supply, as well as that of school environment. This is the reason why 27 ESPs out of 42 have implemented combined actions for both educational supply and demand.

Faced with many difficulties and limited resources, policy-makers must make choices between various actions: which measures are the most efficient and best suited to national and local realities? Among the most cost-effective strategies, which are the ones likely to result in a real improvement of indicators? Although the issue of cost is essential, action plans give little information on the unit costs of proposed activities. Indeed, out **of all the action plans which were analyzed, 12 provide information on unit costs and eight include the total cost of each activity**[4]

[4] It is not uncommon, however, to find non-budgeted activities among the proposed activities.

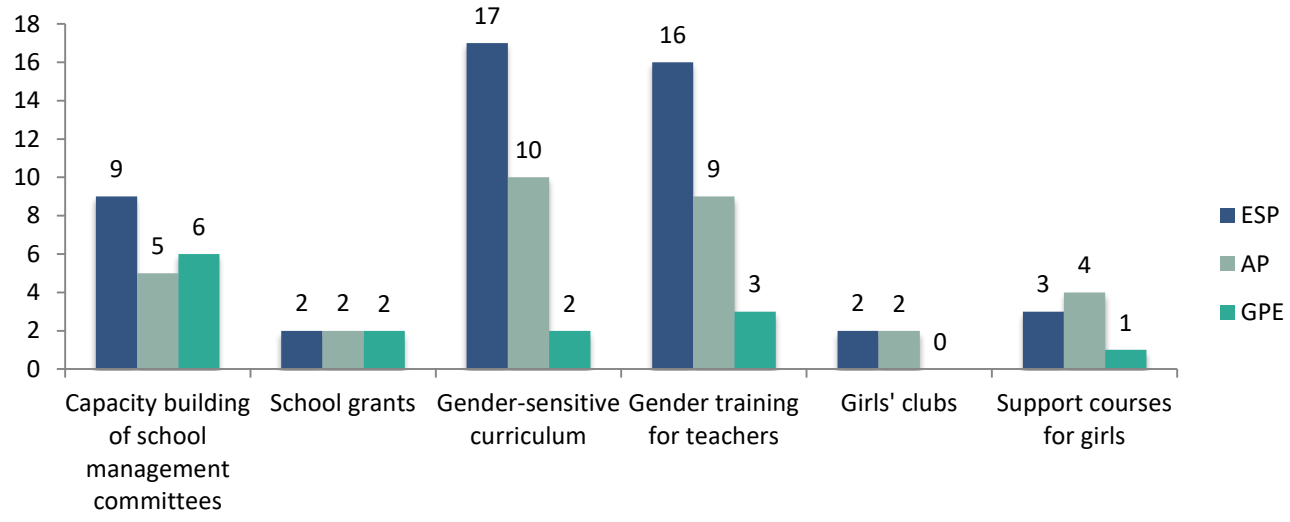
without specifying targets or quantities. As a general rule, the lack of comprehensive information on unit costs or targets is a weakness in strategy implementation, and there is no guarantee that these activities are indeed included in the calculation of the overall cost of sector strategy implementation.

Demand-side strategies in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs



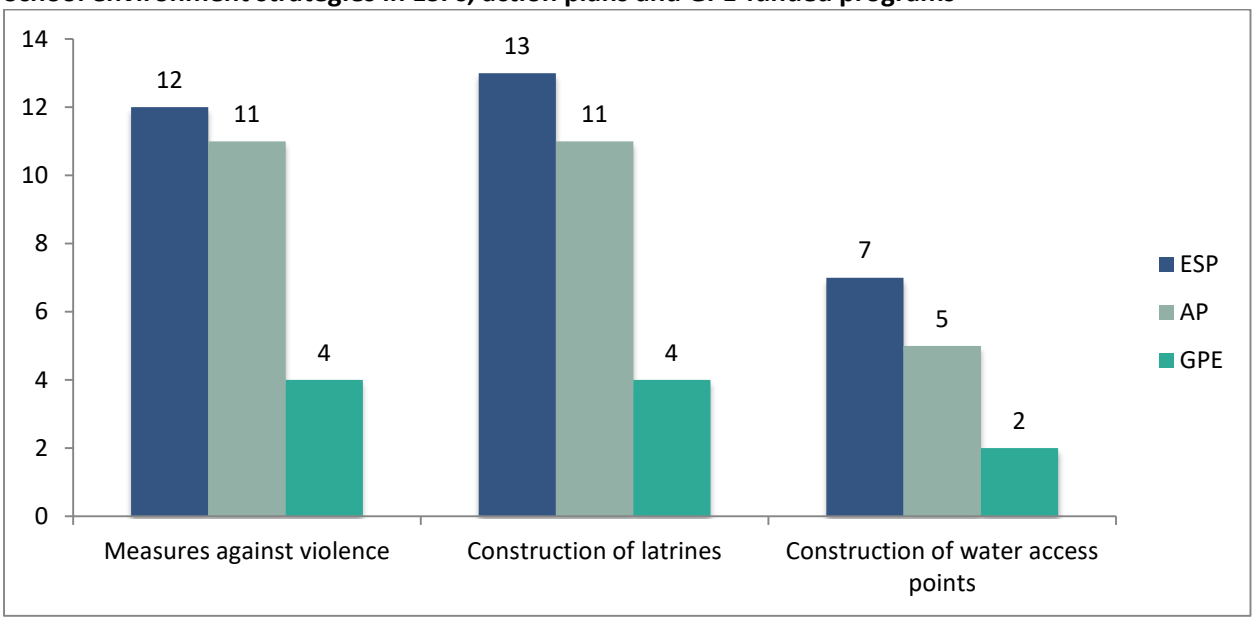
Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Supply-side strategies in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs



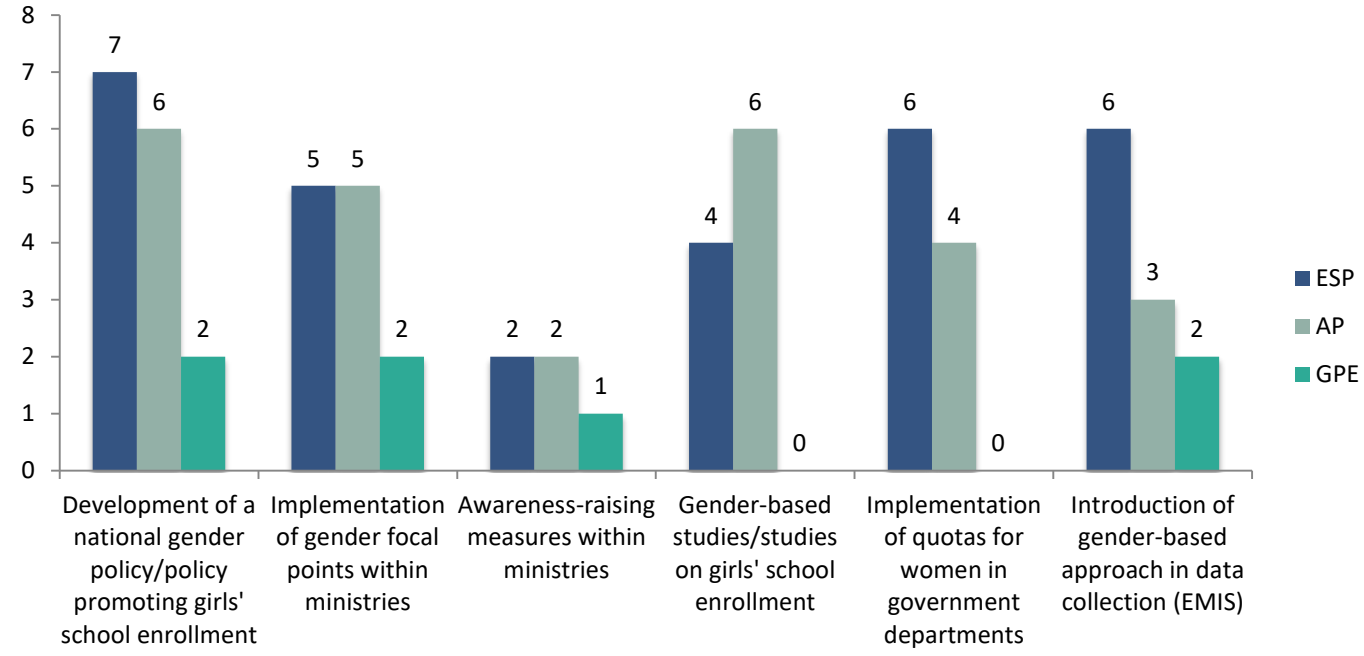
Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

School environment strategies in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Other strategies developed in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Several countries have already developed national policy documents in favor of girls' participation in education or gender promotion. Other countries plan to develop these specific national policies within their ESPs. Table 1 below summarizes the data gathered in ESPs on the development of these national policies:

Table 1: Countries with ESP data related to girls' participation in education

Countries/states [5] with a specific educational strategy for girls' participation in education or a national gender strategy	Burkina Faso, Eritrea, Kenya, Moldova, Mozambique, Niger, Senegal, Somaliland (Somalia), Uganda. **(9 countries/states)**
Countries/states with a plan for the development of a specific educational strategy in favor of girls' participation in education or a national gender strategy	Benin, Chad, the DRC, Puntland (Somalia), Sindh (Pakistan), South Central Somalia, South Sudan, Jigawa (Nigeria)[6] **(8 countries/states)**

Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

National policies towards girls' participation in schools provide a major policy framework for the activities to be implemented in order to reduce disparities between girls and boys. When these strategies are developed before the ESPs are formulated, they should be incorporated into ESPs as well as included in the action plans that provide an intervention framework for education ministries and development partners.

GPE-funded programs

Girls' education and gender-related strategies or activities facilitated by GPE-funded programs are shown in previous graphs in conjunction with the information on sector plans and action plans. Since GPE grant funded programs are formulated by partner countries and often focus on ESP strategies or activities with funding gaps, a lack of specific measures for girls' participation in education in GPE-funded programs does not necessarily mean that the country does not implement these activities.

Among the 42 GPE-funded programs analyzed, 15 do not fund any specific strategy for girls' participation in education. Most of these countries have achieved gender parity in access to primary and secondary school. For other countries, funded strategies are related as much to removing barriers in access as to improving supply, including environment. Some countries use GPE funding for institutional strategies, such as the development of a national policy on gender or girls' participation in education, the establishment of gender focal points in ministries or the introduction of a gender-based approach in statistical data collection.

Monitoring indicators

The identification of monitoring indicators is essential to assess progress made in reducing gender disparities and improving girls' participation in education. Among the 42 ESPs analyzed, 13 have not integrated gender-disaggregated indicators for primary education in ESP monitoring and evaluation frameworks. For secondary education, this is the case of 4 more countries.

The lack of monitoring indicators in the ESP monitoring and evaluation framework is a real weakness for ESPs, particularly for countries with a low GPI. Indeed, the lack of gender-disaggregated indicators limits the possibility of monitoring progress and may limit the political dialogue on issues related to girls' participation in education, since this aspect is less likely to be addressed in sector reviews if it is not included in the ESP monitoring and evaluation framework.

[5] Other countries considered in the analysis may have national policies (or policy documents) in favor of girls' participation in education, but which were not referred to in the ESPs. The additional desk review across 10 countries has revealed that this is the case for Guinea, Nepal, Niger, and Jigawa (Nigeria).

[6] Regarding Jigawa (Nigeria), the objective is to support the completion and implementation of the Government's policy on free education for girls, children with disabilities and other vulnerable children.

Conclusion

Ultimately, there is no clear link between the achievement of national parity and the inclusion of gender and girls' education in ESPs. Several countries which have already achieved parity at the national level still plan specific strategies in favor of girls or gender mainstreaming strategies, while some other countries which are still far from parity do not include these strategies.

In general, the strengthening of data disaggregated according to various dimensions (access, retention, learning, etc.), education levels, and the further analyses of these data by region or other social variables will allow for a more refined analysis of the situation. This will help improve the development of holistic strategies covering both demand and supply (including environment among other dimensions). For countries that have not achieved gender parity, whether at the primary or secondary level, monitoring indicators on the improvement of girls' participation in education and the reduction of disparities should clearly appear in the ESP monitoring and evaluation framework in relation to pursued objectives and planned interventions. For countries which have achieved gender parity at the national level, it is important to conduct further regional analyses through the further analysis of gender-disaggregated data with other social variables (such as household income levels or ethnic, religious or linguistic groups). Female representation in the teaching profession, teaching practices which are responsive to the needs of girls and boys, and the attention to girls' participation in secondary education are often areas for improvement, even for countries that have achieved parity at the national level.

Moreover, as shown in the graphs above, some activities included in ESPs are not reflected in the action plans. Traceability efforts in the development of action plans should thus be made in order to ensure that the specific interventions towards girls' education in ESPs are actually implemented and monitored.

A UNGEI/GPE guide on the inclusion of gender analysis in sector plans should be available by early 2017. This tool addresses all the weaknesses identified in this report. Its use by the countries in the development of ESPs (or mid-term reviews) should contribute to filling these gaps.

II. *N.B. This report was developed under the previous GPE Strategic Plan 2012-2015 and before the World Education Forum in Incheon in May 2015. Some information is therefore no longer current.*

II. Introduction

Education for All (EFA) is a global commitment to provide quality basic education for all children, young people and adults. At the World Education Forum (Dakar, 2000), 164 governments advocated for EFA and identified six objectives to be attained by 2015.[7] The issue of gender equality and of girls' participation in education was explicitly mentioned in Objective 2, which stated that by 2015 all children and girls in particular, should have access to a free and compulsory primary education and should complete it. Objective 5 also aimed to eradicate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and at all levels of education by 2015 at the latest.

Both objectives were reflected in the commitments to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and there have since been multiple initiatives and political advocacy with the support of development partners in order to increase girls' participation at all levels of education. Since 2002, the Global Partnership for Education[8] (GPE) has provided an indicative framework for the development of education systems and the reduction of all kinds of disparities, including those explicitly related to gender, through the development of education sector plans (ESPs).

Simultaneously, knowledge of the factors behind girls' low participation rate in education has improved, thus theoretically enabling politicians to properly address barriers and bottlenecks through the implementation of measures and actions likely to increase the girls' participation at all levels of education. These measures affect all areas related to teaching, ranging from educational supply, curriculum development or teacher training, to socio-economic demand and needs. Some countries have even developed national policy documents specifically related to girls' education, in addition to ESPs.

Efforts and commitments at both national and international levels aiming at correcting the existing imbalances between girls and boys have brought significant progress, particularly over the last ten years. School coverage improvement has been accompanied by an improvement of the Gender Parity Index (GPI) in primary education in most countries. In GPE partner developing countries, the GPI for primary Gross Enrollment Rate (GER) increased from 0.82 in 2000 to 0.93 in 2013, and the primary completion rate (PCR) GPI increased from 0.81 to 0.90[9]. Despite this progress, there is considerable disparity among countries (see Graph 6) and gender discrimination continues to keep millions of girls out of classrooms, depriving them of their fundamental right to a quality education. In countries where barriers to girls' participation in education persist, as a result, commitments to ensure quality education for all may not be honored.

Given the persistence of gender inequalities, the 2012-2015 GPE Strategic Plan reaffirmed as a priority goal (Objective 2) that "all girls in GPE-endorsed countries should successfully complete primary school and go on to secondary school in a safe, supportive learning environment". To reach this objective, the GPE is committed to:

- ensuring that ESPs in partner developing countries take gender issues into account and include strategies aiming at reducing gender inequality in education;
- ensuring that issues related to school environment, including latrines, and safety are taken into account in education strategies;
- encourage the presence of female teachers in schools and in education administrative offices;

[7] See http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/education-for-all/
[8] Formerly Fast Track Initiative or Education for All Accelerated Implementation Initiative.
[9] Calculation made by the GPE Secretariat based on UIS data.

- establishing equity and quality indicators by gender, including for literacy and numeracy skills; and
- allocating specific grants to countries with significant gender disparities in primary school completion and transition to secondary education, and allocating specific grants to activities aimed at eliminating such inequalities.

This report aims at **taking stock** of how ESPs, including their action plans and GPE-funded programs of GPE partner developing countries address issues related to gender and girls' education. It should be noted that many of the plans analyzed in this report were developed before Objective 2 of the GPE Strategic Plan was designed in 2012. The point here is not to evaluate ESPs in relation to gender issues, nor to assess their strategic relevance or efficiency, but rather to establish an information baseline based on a formative assessment of the plans to improve consideration of this issue in the next sector plans in order to better promote the achievement of GPE Strategic objective 2. In particular, this report aims to:

- provide an overview of girls' participation in education in the 42 GPE partner developing countries selected for this study;
- provide information on strategies and activities in favor of girls' participation in schools and gender equality proposed in sector plans and GPE-funded programs;
- highlight weaknesses in gender-disaggregated statistical data analysis, in the analysis of barriers to girls' education and in the indicators to monitor progress in girls' participation in education and gender equality in the education system.

As a reminder, according to the UNESCO/IIEP and GPE guidelines,[10] an ESP and an action plan are defined as follows:

(i) "***An Education Sector Plan*** *is by nature a national policy instrument, elaborated under the responsibility of government, which provides a long-term vision for the education system in the country, and outlines a coherent set of practicable strategies to reach its objectives and overcome difficulties. It is based on a sound analysis of the current situation and of the causes of successes achieved and difficulties encountered. It should include implementation and monitoring and evaluation frameworks*".

(ii) "***An action plan***[11] *should be consistent with the policy priorities and programs of the ESP. It outlines the detailed activities for a specific period of the plan, with information on timing, roles, responsibilities, and costs. The action plan could be a separate document from the more strategic ESP document, or be part of it.*

(iii) **"GPE Education sector program implementation grants; GPE-funded programs.** *GPE partner countries can receive up to $100 million to finance a program that supports the implementation of their education sector plan, including among other things: funding for school construction and rehabilitation, textbooks, teacher training, school meals or sector management. Eligibility is based on three dimensions: poverty, education vulnerability and fragility".*[12]

III. Methodology

This report builds on two types of analysis: (a) a summary analysis of ESPs and GPE-funded programs in 42 countries and (b) an in-depth analysis on girls' education in 10 countries.

I. Summary analysis of 42 countries

[10] UNESCO/IIEP and GPE, 2015, *Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Preparation*. http://www.globalpartnership.org/content/guidelines-education-sector-plan-preparation

[11] An action plan is sometimes referred to as an "implementation plan" or an "operational plan".

[12] Source: http://www.globalpartnership.org/gpe-grants

Given the wide variety of ESPs in terms of structure and strategy, an analysis framework for all countries was developed. This framework (see Annex 6) aims to answer the following questions:

1. What gender-disaggregated statistical data are contained in ESPs?
2. What kinds of gender disparities are mentioned in ESPs?
3. What are the barriers to girls' education identified in ESPs?
4. What specific activities have been identified to improve girls' education in (i) the ESP, (ii) the action plan, which is the short-term operational translation of the ESP, and (iii) the GPE-funded program?[13]
5. What monitoring and evaluation indicators have been used to assess progress on girls' education in ESPs?

The analysis covered 42 countries/states from a total of 68 GPE partner countries[14]. The country selection was based on the following criteria:

- Countries/states with an ESP starting after 2012[15]
- Countries/states with an ESP expiring in 2015 and 2016 (so that observations made in this report could contribute to the development of the new plan)
- Countries/states which benefit from GPE grants over the 2015-2018 period
- Countries/states with a low GPI in primary education
- A geographical representation proportional to the geographical distribution of partner countries

The first criterion used was the relatively recent plans starting after 2012, and subsequent adjustments were made taking into account other above-mentioned criteria. For example, countries with plans expiring in 2015/16 were given priority, as well as countries far from achieving parity in access and completion of primary education. In the end, as shown in Table 2, most of analyzed plans, namely 69%, are from Africa, South Asia, South-East Asia and Pacific, and from Latin America and the Caribbean, in that order.

Table 2: Geographic distribution of the 42 countries selected for the analysis

Geographical area	GPE partner developing countries [16]	Percentage of total	Countries with ESP starting after 2012	Percentage of total	Selected countries for the analysis	Percentage of total
Europe and Central Asia	6	8.8 %	2	6.5%	2	4.8%
South Asia	6	8.8 %	2	6.5%	4	9.5%
South-East Asia and Pacific	6	8.8 %	1	3.2%	3	7.1%
Middle East	2	3%	1	3.2%	1	2.4%
Africa	44	64.7%	23	74.2%	29	69.0%
Latin America and Caribbean	4	5.9%	2	6.5%	3	7.1%
Total	**68**		**31**		**42**	

Source: GPE Secretariat

[13] Information on the costs for specific girls' activities mentioned in the action plans and the GPE-funded programs have been provided.

[14] At the time this stocktaking was conducted, in mid-2015, the GPE had 60 partner developing countries. In federal countries such as Nigeria, Pakistan, Somalia and Tanzania, the GPE finances ESPs developed by some states. Taking into account federal states and their federal sector plans, the total number increases to 68. All states within a given country do not necessarily benefit from GPE grants and it is up to the country to decide on the beneficiary State.

[15] Date from which the Fast Track initiative changed its name to the Global Partnership for Education so as to better reflect its commitment to international education. *The Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Preparation and Evaluation* were prepared in collaboration with the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in 2012.

[16] Including Federal States.

This analysis of ESPs and GPE-funded programs is limited in that it is a desk review with no additional documentation, interviews or review in the selected countries. The review has thus been conducted "out of context", with no possibility of clarification, further elaboration or correction, which, on the one hand, weakens the analysis of problems and strategies and, on the other hand, does not allow a review beyond the mere observation of political intentions, regardless of their actual implementation. This severe limitation, however, provides a methodology-related advantage insofar as ESPs and GPE-funded programs are sector-based reference documents binding national authorities and development partners. Indeed, "*ESPs present the policies and strategies for national education reform, and are a powerful tool for coordinating partners and for mobilizing additional domestic and external resources. They have become a critical instrument for governments to signal to all potential investors that their education policies are credible, sustainable, and worthy of investment*".[17] If the issue of girls' education is not clearly addressed in the ESP while major disparities are observed in the school system, these problems are not likely to be given adequate attention and funding.

Moreover, action plan analysis is limited because of the lack of information on the costs of specific strategies related to girls' education, as well as their inclusion in national budgets and development partner programs. This does not necessarily mean that such strategies are not budgeted, but that they are difficult to track within the action plans.

II. In-depth analysis of 10 countries

The in-depth analysis of 10 countries is based on evidence from a much larger set of documents.[18] The aim of this analysis is to seek additional information not provided in ESPs (statistical data, gender disparity analysis of the education system and analysis of various barriers to girls' participation in education) and try to collect information on support strategy implementation for girl's education. This in-depth analysis focuses on weaknesses that may exist in ESPs as regards qualitative and quantitative information on girls' education; information which often exists amply and in rich variety outside of the ESP itself.
The country selection was based on the following criteria:

- Countries/states with strong gender disparities
- Countries/states in conflict or in post-conflict situation
- Countries/states with a low percentage of female teachers
- Countries/states with a specific national strategy in favor of girls' participation in education
- Countries/states that have significantly reduced the education gap between boys and girls

The in-depth country analysis is limited because of a lack of availability of recent information and the impossibility of measuring the degree of implementation of specific strategies in favor of girls' education as very few evaluations or reports on sector reviews are available.

Annex 1 lists the countries selected for the summary analysis and the in-depth analysis.

III. Report Structure

This report comprises eight sections covering the analytical areas described in the methodology and which refer to the analysis of ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs. The first section aims to provide a statistical overview of progress towards reducing gender disparities in primary and secondary education in terms of access, retention or completion. The second section examines the availability of gender-disaggregated statistical data in ESPs and the types of disparities mentioned, including the availability of information on female teachers. The third section reviews the various barriers identified in ESPs. The fourth section focuses on the strategies developed in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs. The fifth section examines whether ESPs include gender-disaggregated indicators in their monitoring and evaluation framework or any other result indicators to measure progress in the area. The sixth section

[17] Guide for education sector plan appraisal: http://www.globalpartnership.org/sites/default/files/2015-06-gpe-iiep-guidelines-education-sector-plan-appraisal.pdf
[18] This includes Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers, national policies on gender or girls' school enrollment, statistical directories, Education Country Status Reports, joint sector review reports, etc.

aims to identify gender sensitive ESPs in light of three simple criteria analyzed in the previous sections. Finally, the seventh section summarizes some elements from the in-depth analysis of the 10 countries selected for this study in order to highlight the wealth of existing documents on issues related to girls' education and gender, which could be used more efficiently and be reflected in ESPs. Both general and more specific recommendations are given at the end of this report.

Result Analysis

Introductory remarks

- This study focuses on girls' education with reference to Objective 2 of the 2012-2015 GPE Strategic Plan and on the statistical observation that it is mainly the girls who suffer from educational disparity in the developing world, in terms of access, retention or completion. Gender-sensitive education thus promotes equal opportunities to access and complete quality education without gender-based discrimination.

- Although the term 'gender' is widely used in ESPs, the notion is hardly ever defined and is largely synonymous with girls' education. Overall, ESPs contain little reference to the more general objectives of gender equality and to changes that should take place within education systems so that girls and boys, women and men are not limited by traditionally assigned gender roles (or gender-related stereotypes) which may compromise more comprehensive development objectives.

- The report focuses on specific strategies developed in favor of girls' education. The objective is to analyze measures for 'positive discrimination' or actions specifically aimed at girls in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs. This relates therefore more closely to the notion of equity. Gender mainstreaming strategies such as gender-sensitive curriculum, the presence of women in the teaching force or teacher-training on gender issues are also analyzed.

- The GPE Secretariat or the Board of Directors do not target their financing; the selection of activities to be financed is decided locally between the Government, the partners of the Local Education Group (LEG) and the Supervising/Managing Entity (currently called Grant Agent), but the activities must be an integral part of the ESP.

1. Summary analysis of gender disparity level in the 42 countries examined in this study

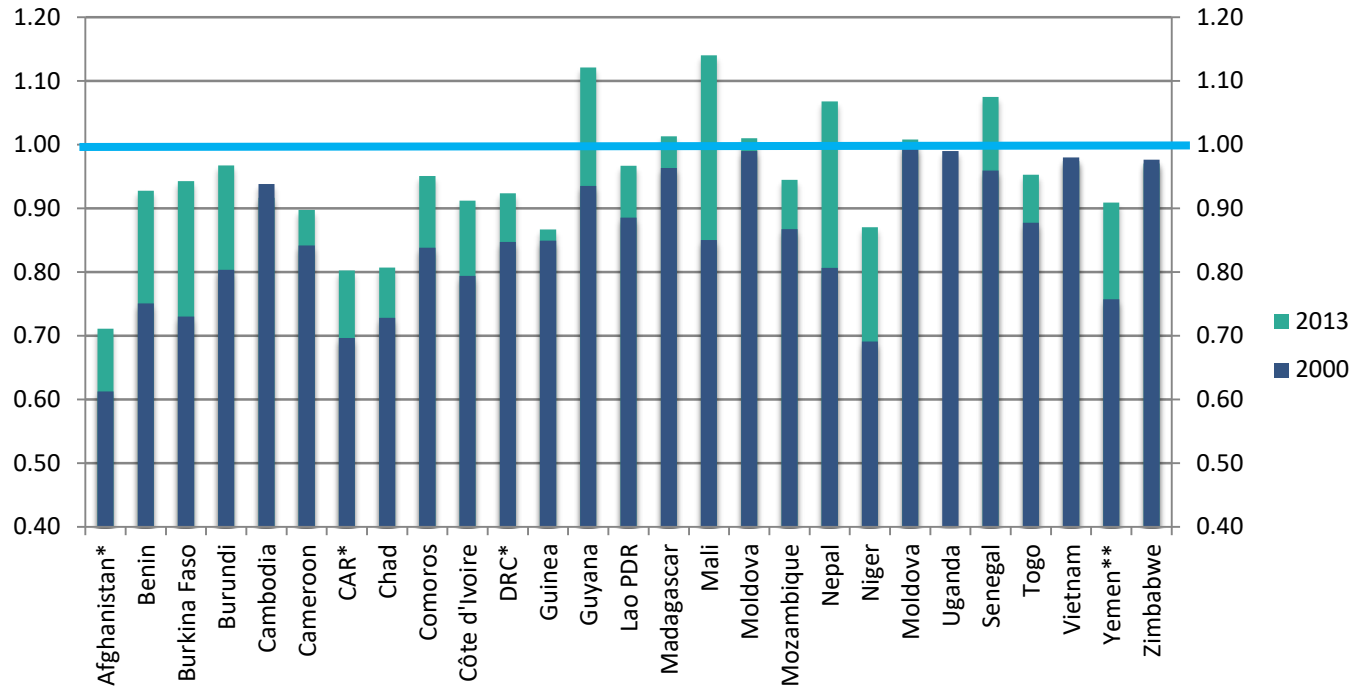
To facilitate a comparative analysis between countries, the statistical data used in this report comes from data provided by UNESCO's Institute of Statistics[19] (UIS), except for Nigeria, Pakistan and Somalia, where national data was used, as well as for Eritrea and Ethiopia, since UIS statistics for those countries were not available. Haiti is the only country in which data is not available at national level or in the UIS database; the data has therefore been drawn from the 2012 Demographic and Health Survey.

Since the start of the 21st century, significant progress has been made by countries in reducing gender disparities in primary education. Graph 6 outlines progress made to reduce disparities between girls and boys in the first year of primary school enrollment (Grade 1). This has often been the result of educational policies covering both educational supply and demand, with a notable increase in educational coverage and the development of public awareness campaigns. The countries which most progressed between 2000 and 2013, and those with a GPI above 0.90 in 2013

[19] The vast majority of the data was collected in 2013.

are Benin, Burkina Faso and Burundi. Niger also displayed significant progress over this period although GPI in GIR remained weak (0.7). Nepal and Guyana also registered significant progress and reversed the parity index, which is today in disadvantage of boys.

Graph 1: Evolution of Gender Parity Index in GIR since 2000[20]

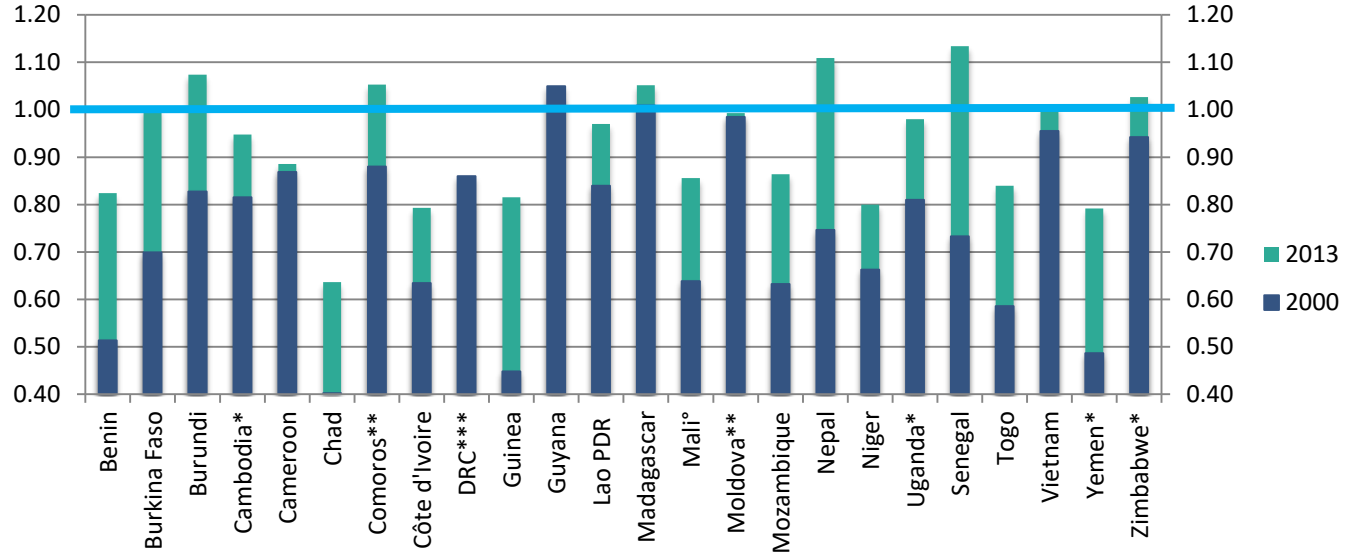


Source: UIS data 2000 and 2013, 2001 (**) and 2002 (*)

Enrollment in Grade 1 is a first step, but girls' educational pathway can be strewn with barriers throughout the entire educational cycle. For this reason, it is essential to measure progress based on the completion of primary education. Graph 7 clearly shows that progress made to reduce gender disparity in terms of primary school completion rates is even more significant in a majority of countries. The most spectacular progress was made in Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Chad, Guinea, Mali, Mozambique, Nepal, Senegal and Togo, where the index gained over 0.2 points between 2000 and 2013. Nevertheless, efforts that have been made for over ten years now must continue because gender parity has not yet been achieved in a few countries, and this index remains low in Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Niger and Yemen, where less than eight girls out of 10 complete primary school. Several countries have reversed the trend with a parity index above 1. This is the case in Burundi, Comoros, Guyana, Madagascar, Moldova, Nepal, Senegal, Uganda, Vietnam and Zimbabwe.

[20] Data from circa 2000 not available on the UIS site: Pakistan, Sierra Leone. Data not available from 2013: Ethiopia, Kenya, Nicaragua, Nigeria. Data not available from 2000 and 2013: Eritrea, Haiti, Somalia, South Sudan, Uzbekistan.

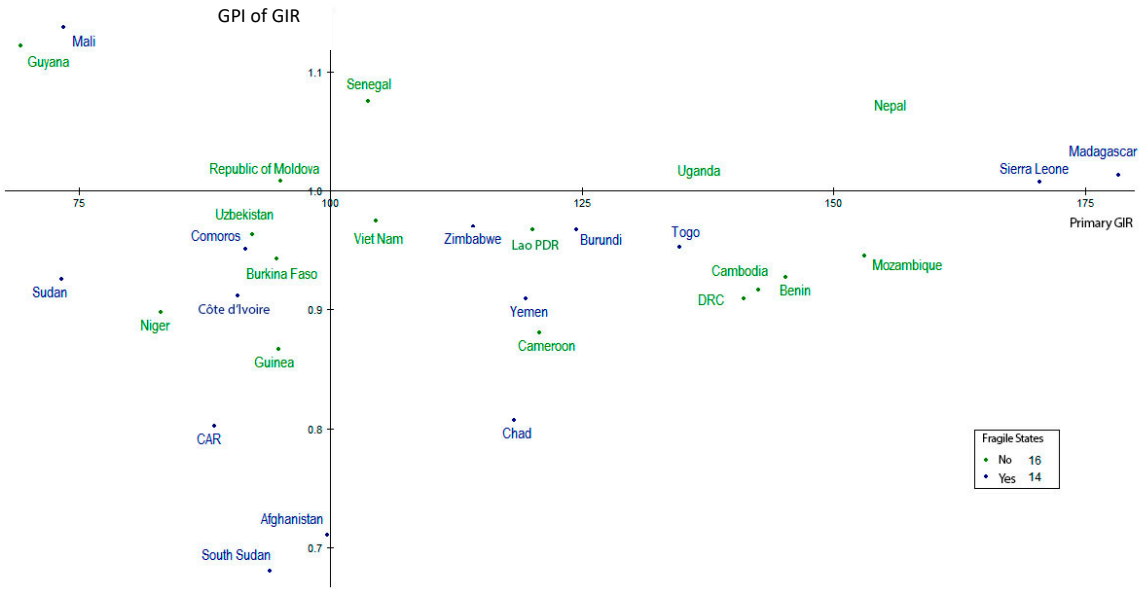
Graph 2: Evolution of Gender Parity Index in PCR since 2000[21]



Source: UIS data 2000 and 2013, 1999 (***), 2001 (**), 2002 (*), and 2012 (°)

Although the GPI reveals the disparity level between girls and boys for a given indicator, it does not provide information on the extent of school participation. For example, a country can achieve gender parity for school intake but many challenges may remain in terms of general access to education.
Graph 8 shows the parity level achieved and the efforts that countries must still make in order to maintain a high average participation level for girls in primary education.[22]

Graph 3: Distribution of countries according to girls' GIR and Gender Parity Index of GIR for primary education



Source: Based on UIS data, 2013

[21] Data not available on the UIS site for the year 2000: Pakistan, Sierra Leone. Data not available on the UIS site for the year 2013: Ethiopia, Nicaragua. Data not available on the UIS site for the years 2000 and 2013: Afghanistan, CAR, Eritrea, Haiti, Kenya, Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan, Uzbekistan.

[22] A Gross Enrollment Rate (GER) equal or superior to 100 does not mean that every child is receiving an education, but it does indicate the general participation level. To achieve a GER of 100% is a necessary but insufficient condition to ensure universal education.

- Countries appearing in the upper left box have achieved gender parity for their GIR but who have a girls' GIR below 100%, which shows that efforts are still necessary to encourage girls' (and boys') participation in education at the primary level. Regarding Mali, it is important to carefully analyze the statistical data since a significant increase can be observed in the Gender Parity Indices for the period 2010/11 - 2012/13 but there was a major decrease for the year 2013/14 with a GIR parity index of 0.85;[23] the reasons for such a drop may be linked to a change in the denominator for the calculation of indicators which included the latest data from the 2009 census.

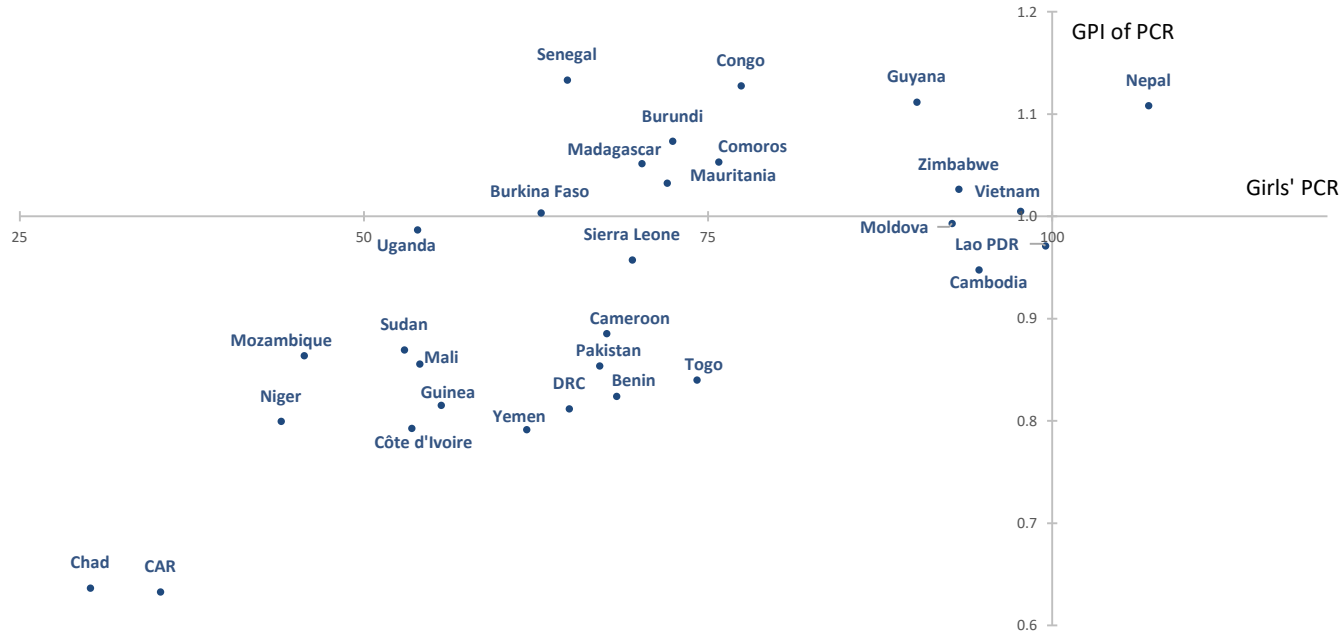
- Countries appearing in the lower left box are those in which efforts must be made towards parity (Gender Parity Index of GIR is below 1) as well as on the general enrolment (GIR), which is below 100%. In this respect, the following countries still have a long way to go: Afghanistan, Central African Republic (CAR), and South Sudan.

- Countries appearing in the top right box have achieved gender parity and with a GIR above 100%.

- Countries in the lower right box have not achieved gender parity but have a GIR above 100%. Efforts must therefore towards a more equitable education system, for example in Chad.

Beyond the GPI in primary GIR, it is also important to analyze the GPI in PCR since this enables us to measure girls' retention in the education system. In fact, it is not unusual for a country to achieve parity in primary GIR but not in PCR. This means that girls are more likely than boys to drop out of school. This shows that specific measures should be implemented to limit the number of girls dropping out of school during the primary cycle. Graph 9 highlights girls' completion rates in primary education and provides the GPI in PCR.

Graph 4: Distribution of countries according to girls' PCR and Gender Parity Index of PCR



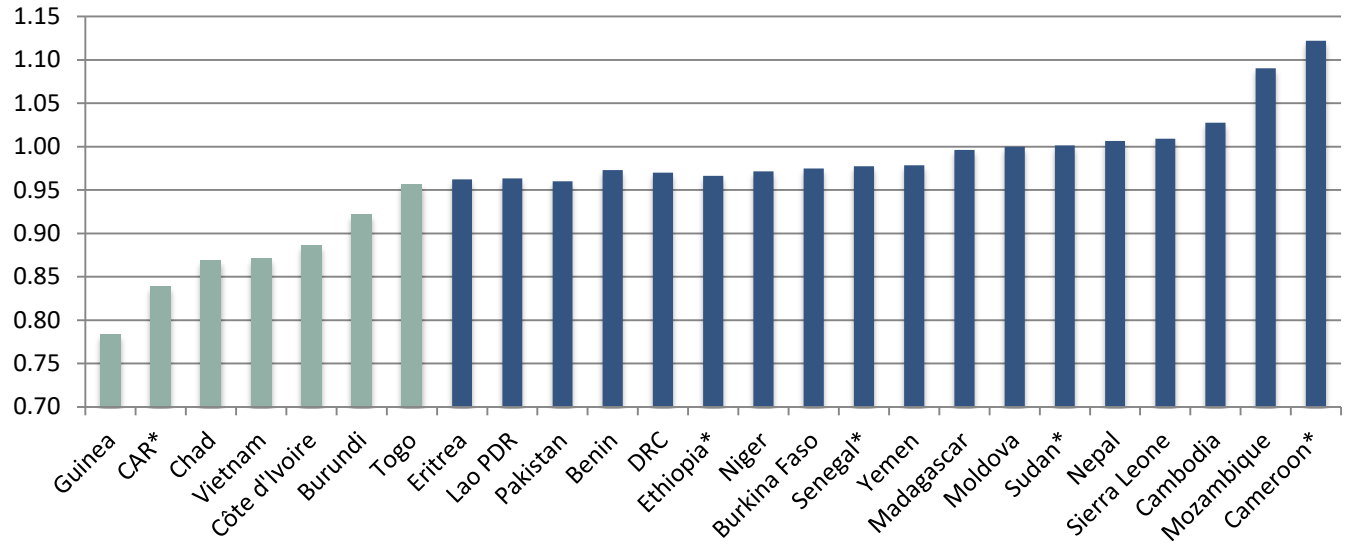
Source: GPE compilation based on UIS data, 2013

[23] According to 2013/14 statistical data from the Malian Ministry of National Education.

In terms of completion, the situation is alarming for girls in Chad and the CAR, not only with very low completion rates but also a great disparity between girls and boys. In general terms, the situation is very unfavorable for girls in the group of countries in the lower left box comprised of Benin, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Guinea, Niger, Mali, Mozambique, Pakistan, Sudan, Togo, and Yemen.

The GPI analysis in the transition rate from primary to secondary education shows that in most countries for which data is available, disparities between girls and boys are relatively low, except for the countries in light blue in Graph 10, i.e. Burundi, CAR, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Togo and Vietnam. For these seven countries, far more girls than boys do not continue their education beyond the primary cycle. It is also interesting to note that for Cameroon and Mozambique, boys are the ones more likely to leave school when transitioning from primary to secondary education.

Graph 5: Gender Parity Index of the Transition Rate from primary to secondary education[24]



Source: UIS data, 2012 and 2011 (*)

However, behind the parity achieved in the transition rate from primary to secondary, some countries have in fact very low transition rates for both girls and boys as indicated by the following table. This is notably the case for Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Madagascar, Mozambique, Niger and Pakistan where less than eight out of 10 girls enter secondary education. In Guinea, less than half the girls enter secondary education, and gender disparity is very high with an index of 0.78.

Table 3: Gender Parity Index and Transition Rate from primary to secondary

Country	Gender Parity Index for the Transition Rate from primary to secondary	Transition Rate from primary to secondary for girls
Guinea	0.78	47.4%
CAR*	0.84	67.6%
Chad	0.87	86.8%
Vietnam	0.87	87.1%
Côte d'Ivoire	0.89	68.4%
Burundi	0.92	72.6%
Togo	0.96	82.2%
Eritrea	0.96	95.7%
Lao PDR	0.96	85.0%
Pakistan	0.96	75.5%

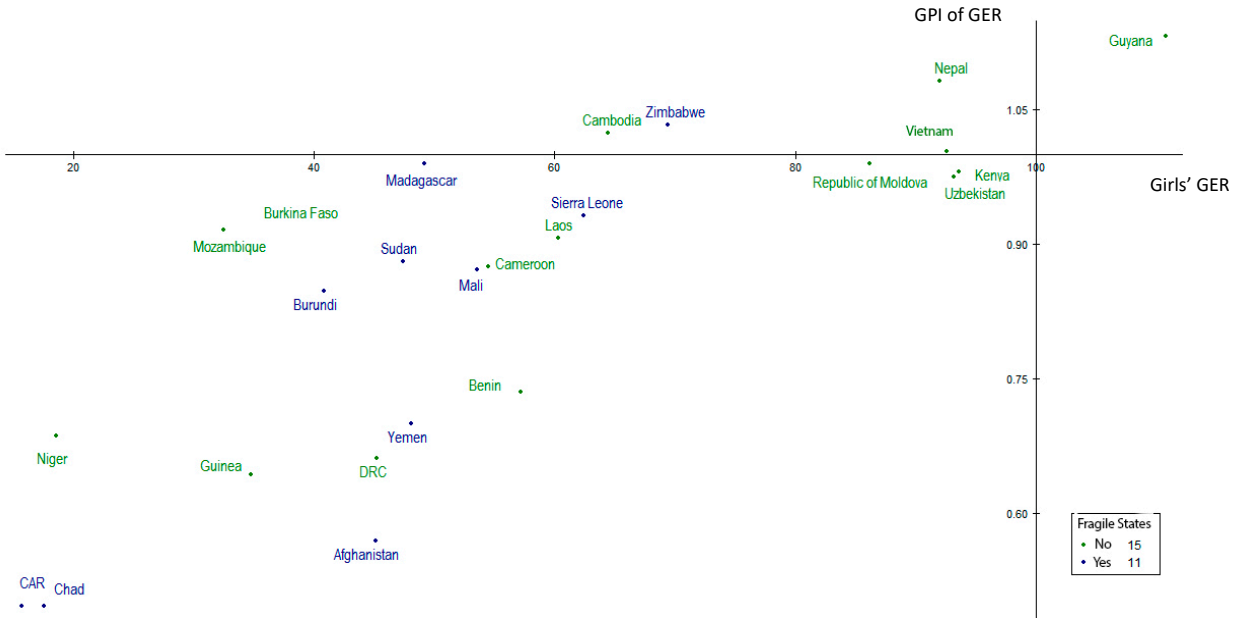
[24] Entry in secondary education varies from one country to the next.

Benin	0.97	87.3%
Ethiopia*	0.97	96.6%
Niger	0.97	68.5%
Burkina Faso	0.97	67.3%
Senegal*	0.98	91.8%
Yemen	0.98	89.3%
Madagascar	1.00	72.7%
Moldova	1.00	97.8%
Sudan*	1.00	94.1%
Nepal	1.01	86.5%
Sierra Leone	1.01	88.4%
Cambodia	1.03	81.3%
Mozambique	1.09	63.3%
Cameroon*	1.12	69.2%

Source: UIS data, 2012 and 2011 (*)

Once girls are enrolled in lower secondary education, the issue of the girls' retention capacity of education systems through the full cycle is more acute than in primary education. Indeed, Graph 6 demonstrates that significant challenges remain to reach gender parity in secondary education. In lower secondary education, there are challenges to improve both girls' enrollment and parity.

Graph 6: Distribution of countries according to girls' GER in lower secondary education and Gender Parity Index of GER for lower secondary education

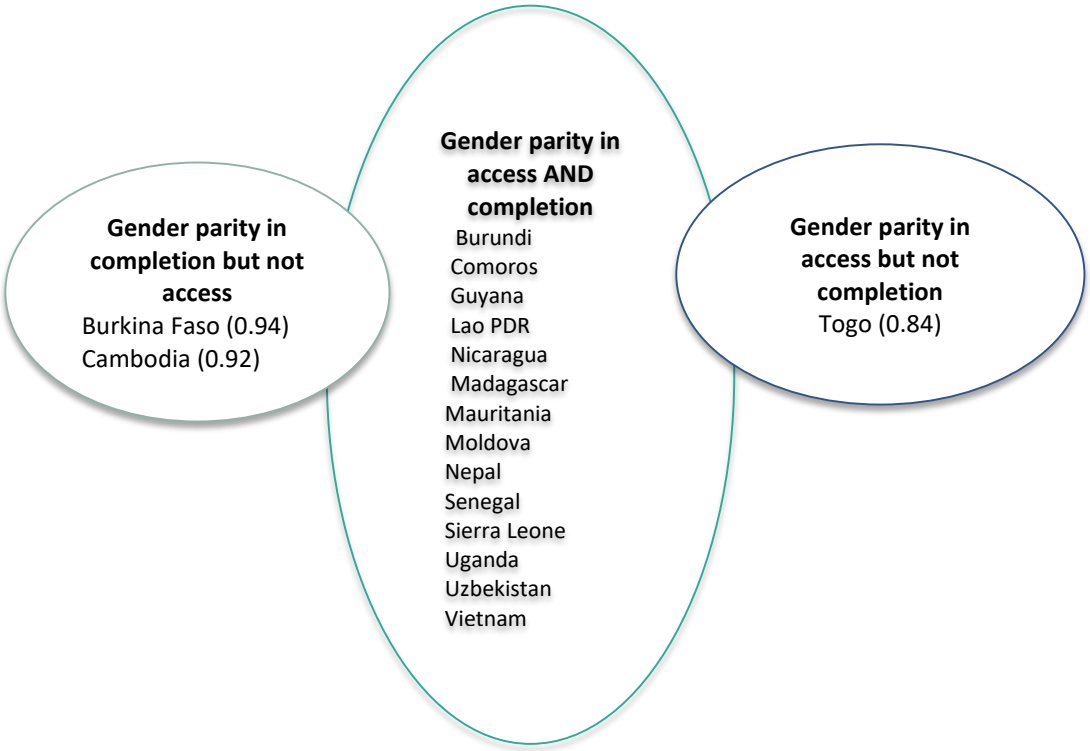


Source: GPE compilation based on UIS data, 2013

In the vast majority of countries analyzed, parity in GER in lower secondary education is not achieved (countries below the horizontal line) and every country (except for Guyana) shows a girls' GER below 100%. Chad and the CAR are the two countries where the situation of girls is the direst.

In light of the overall data available for the 42 countries in this study, the countries represented in the following graph are those showing gender parity in terms of access, completion or both in primary education.

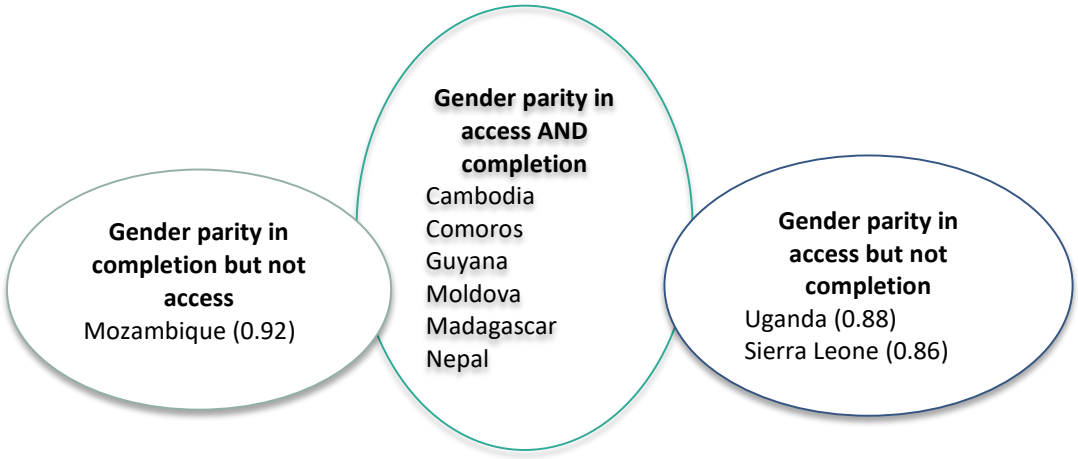
Graph 7: Countries having achieved GER parity in primary education



Source: GPE compilation based on UIS data, 2013

The 15 countries in the middle circle have achieved gender parity in both access and completion. Burkina Faso and Cambodia are close to parity in terms of access to primary education. In Togo, significant efforts must be made to ensure that girls enrolled in the first year of primary school finish their cycle and thereby achieve parity in completion. For other countries of the study, joint efforts must be made to improve variable disparities in terms of access, retention and completion, which are still present, as shown in the earlier graphs.

Graph 8: Countries having achieved GER parity in lower secondary education[25]



Source: GPE compilation based on UIS data, 2013 and 2011 (*)

[25] Parity index data for lower secondary completion which is not available on the UIS site: Kenya, Zimbabwe. Data for Senegal is from 2008.

In lower secondary education, only eight countries have achieved parity both for GER and access to the final year of lower secondary education. However, access for girls in general is still low for Cambodia (GER: 64.4%), Comoros (GER: 69.9%), and Madagascar (GER: 49.1 %). For countries such as Lao PDR, Sierra Leone and Uganda, girls' retention in lower secondary education remains a challenge. For Mozambique, despite parity in access to the final year of lower secondary education, as well as near-parity of access for the rest of the cycle, there is a long way to go to improve general access since girls' GER remains low at only 32%.

2. Quantitative analysis of gender disparity in Education Sector Plans (ESPs)

2.1 Availability of gender-disaggregated data in ESPs

Note: It is important to specify that when ESPs include a GPI, the calculation of this index is not always explained (out of 20 ESPs which have a parity index, eight do not specify their calculation method). It is therefore sometimes difficult to know on which indicator the GPI is based.[26] The lack of information relating to the calculation basis for the GPI is a weakness and adds uncertainty to the analysis.

The presentation of statistical data disaggregated by gender in ESPs is an important first step towards measuring the extent of gender disparities and identifying where these disparities occur. These data allow, among other things (i) to better develop targeted measures to address the most significant disparities, and (ii) to define objectives for interventions.

Among the 42 ESPs analyzed, 34 presented gender-disaggregated indicators for primary education, whether for intake, access or retention (see Graph 8).

Graph 8: ESPs with gender-disaggregated indicators for primary education

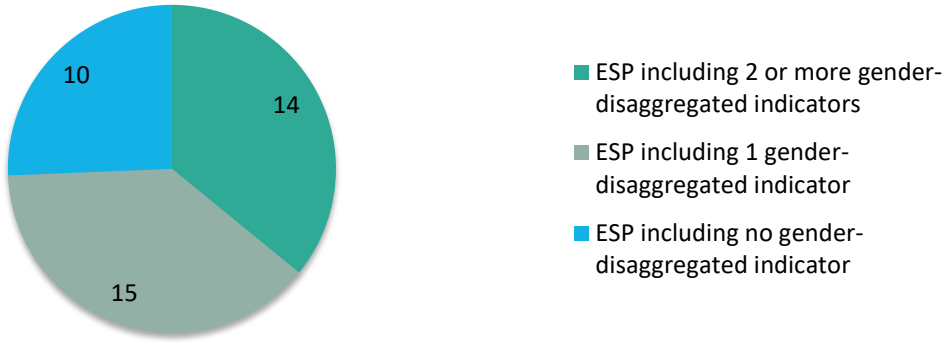
Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Out of the eight ESPs which did not provide any gender-disaggregated statistical data for primary education, five have achieved parity according to UIS data (Madagascar, Moldova, Nicaragua, Uganda and Uzbekistan). For three countries - Côte d'Ivoire, Sudan, and Haiti - parity was not achieved, with GPI in GER of 0.87, 0.89 and 0.93 respectively.[27] For these first two countries, gender-disaggregated data is available without being used in the ESPs, which is a real weakness.

[26] Gross or net school enrollment rate, gross or net intake rate, or any other indicator.
[27] For Côte d'Ivoire and Sudan: UIS data, 2013; for Haiti, Demographic and Health Survey, 2012.

At the secondary education level, 14 ESPs out of 42 show at least two gender-disaggregated indicators.[28] As a result, although ESPs adopt a whole-sector approach, gender-disaggregated data for secondary education is less available than for primary (see Graph 9). Details for each country are presented in Annex 2.

Graph 9: ESPs with gender-disaggregated indicators for secondary education



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

As shown in Table 4, eight countries where parity in GER in secondary education has not yet been achieved have no gender-disaggregated data in their sector plan.

Table 4: Situation of countries that do not use gender-disaggregated data in secondary education

GER gender parity or near-parity (Gender Parity Index in GER above 0.95)	Gender parity not attained (Gender Parity Index in GER below 0.95)
Comoros Madagascar Moldova Nicaragua Uzbekistan	Côte d'Ivoire Haiti** Mali Puntland (Somalia)* Somaliland (Somalia)* South Central Somalia* Sudan Uganda

* National data - 2014
** DHS data - 2012

While most sector plans do contain gender-disaggregated indicators, **data availability is highly unequal across ESPs, and there is no systematic presentation of access, retention and completion indicators.** It then often proves difficult, from reading ESPs, to have a global picture of gender disparities in primary and secondary education. However, in most of these countries, such data exists, especially in statistical yearbooks (see Section 7).

Data on learning outcomes is one of the weaknesses of ESPs, with only three ESPs (Eritrea, Guyana, Sindh (Pakistan)) presenting gender-disaggregated data on students' levels of learning achievements. However, various ESPs mentioned that girls were less successful than boys on exams. Eritrea's ESP, for example, states that Grade 3 math

[28] Two indicators on students (indicators on teachers are not taken into account).

scores are similar for girls and boys, but that there are significant differences in English with performances being 12 points lower for girls than boys. On the other hand, girls' results in the native language are higher by 9.6 points. In Sindh, Pakistan, boys perform better than girls in Grade 4 math. Other ESPs do not provide any statistical data, but explain that boys perform better than girls in all exams; this is the case in the DRC, Nepal and Sierra Leone.

If girls' learning outcomes are inferior to boys' in some countries, this warrants further study in order to better understand the reasons for the weaker performances and to adopt specific corrective measures. Furthermore, while gender-disaggregated data for learning outcomes is not presented in many ESPs, it is important to find this data, and in case that is difficult, for example girls' and boys' success rates in national examinations can be analyzed. In Nigeria, a report[29] on gender raises questions regarding the reasons behind girls' poor performance on exams. According to some research carried out in the country, although poor quality teaching and the attitude of teachers towards girls may negatively influence their results, other studies are clearly needed to discern the specific problems preventing girls from performing well: what does quality education represent for girls and their parents? What aspects of culture help girls to be better educated? What aspects of education can intimidate and prevent girls from learning?

2.2 National averages may conceal significant regional disparities

National averages may be the result of significant variance between regions or geographical zones (rural or urban) within a country, including in countries which have achieved parity. Disparity phenomena are thus often more complex than simply considering the domestic GPI, and involve other dimensions, such as the place of residence or household income level. The combined effects of these dimensions reinforce gender disparities; as an example, in rural areas of Afghanistan, Burkina Faso and Mozambique, poor girls have less than one in ten chance of completing primary school.[30]

In Nepal, there is parity for the main indicators related to intake, retention and completion of primary and secondary education. However, an additional analysis by the Ministry of Education[31] shows that gender disparities persist at the secondary level in some districts and that these increase in the course of the educational cycle. The mid-term evaluation of the School Sector Reform Program[32] combines data on poverty and gender and demonstrates that gender disparities in school attendance rates are higher amongst the poorest population.

In Niger, significant progress has been made to reduce gender disparity, with the GPI for gross enrollment rate which improved from 0.62 in 2000 to 0.84 in 2013. However, this index remains very low at the national level, and even greater disparities exist in some regions such as Maradi and Tahoua, which have a GPI in GER of 0.7, whereas the regions of Diffa and Niamey have achieved parity. There are also major disparities in rural zones, where over 80% of the total population lives, with a gross enrollment rate of 71% compared to 108% for urban zones.

A United Nations analysis[33] which compiled information from 61 household surveys showed that primary school age children coming from the bottom 20% of the poorest households are three times less likely to attend school compared to the top 20% of wealthy households. In poorer households, girls are also excluded from the education system more frequently than boys. Place of residence also has a significant impact on girls' school enrollment.

For the vast majority of countries, **region-disaggregated statistical data exists in the statistical yearbooks of the Ministries of National Education and much information is available from surveys such as the Multiple Indicator**

[29] Source: British Council, Nigeria. 2012. Gender in Nigeria Report 2012: Improving the Lives of Girls and Women in Nigeria. Second Edition. https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/67333/Gender-Nigeria2012.pdf

[30] Source: GPE. 2014/2015 Results for Learning Report. http://www.globalpartnership.org/2014-2015-results-for-learning-report

[31] Source: Government of Nepal. 2013. Ministry of Education. Status Report 2013. http://www.doe.gov.np/

[32] Source: Government of Nepal. 2012. Mid-Term Evaluation of the School Sector Reform Program.

[33] Source: United Nations. 2014. The Millenium Development Goals Report. 2014. http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/2014%20MDG%20report/MDG%202014%20English%20web.pdf

Cluster Survey (MICS), the Education Country Status Report (CSR), or the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), but they are often insufficiently exploited in ESPs for the gender disparity stocktaking analysis.

In the context of this study, eight out of 42 ESPs show disaggregated data by gender AND by region (including four countries which have achieved parity in access and completion for primary education). This data is highly heterogeneous according to individual countries as shown in the following table.

Table 5: Type of data disaggregated by gender AND by region in ESPs

Country	Type of data disaggregated by gender AND by region
Afghanistan	Gender Parity Index and % of female teachers
Guyana	School enrollment and dropouts
Haiti	Number of girls per region in primary and secondary education
Lao PDR	Net Enrollment Rate in primary school for the 56 priority districts
Mozambique	Percentage of girls' enrollment in primary school
Nicaragua	Transition Rate from primary to secondary school
Yemen	Net enrollment rate
Zimbabwe	Gender Parity Index in GER in primary education for the 20 most disadvantaged districts

Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

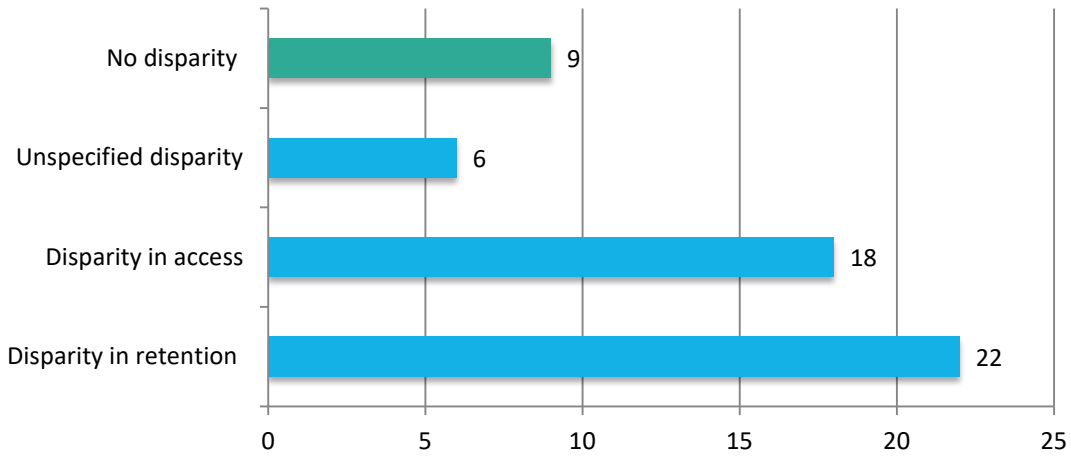
The weak analysis of gender disparity at the regional level can adversely affect the targeting of specific projects according to the local context and attempts for some regions at catching up on progress. Indeed, any country may have pockets of resistance to girls' education, which should logically lead to the implementation of gender-specific interventions addressing not only the demand for education but also supply.

Benin is the only country which specifies in its ESP the priority target communes for the implementation of activities for girls' primary school enrollment, and also the expected outcomes in statistical terms in these communes. These 25 communities were selected on the basis of their low school enrollment and completion rates, notably for girls.

2.3 Gender disparity issues as noted in ESPs

Which gender disparity types are noted in ESPs? Among **the 42 ESPs examined, gender disparities in retention are the most frequently mentioned for primary education (52%). For secondary education, gender disparities in access and retention are equally mentioned in 52% of ESPs.**

Graph 10: Types of gender disparities mentioned in ESPs for primary education



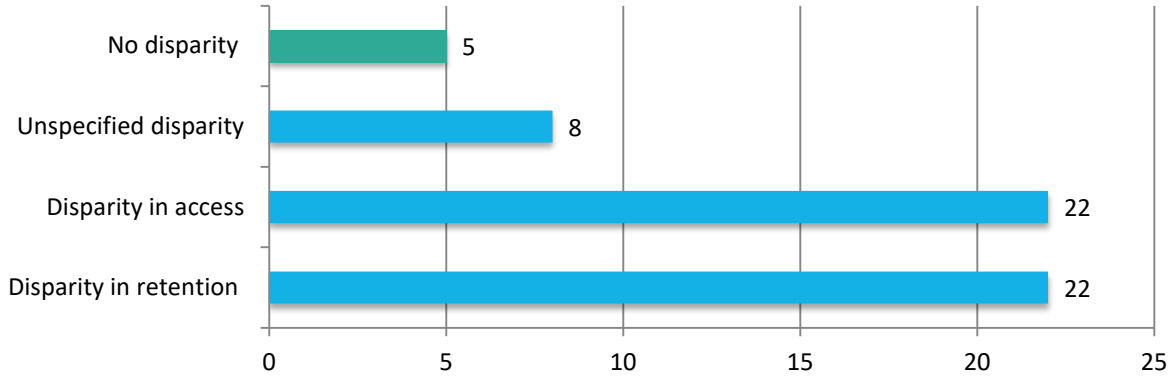
Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Nine out of 42 countries pointed out in their ESPs that there was no gender disparity in primary education (Cambodia, Ethiopia, Guyana, Madagascar, Nepal, Nicaragua, Moldova, Senegal and Uzbekistan). UIS statistical data actually confirm gender parity or near-parity[34] in terms of first year intake levels and primary completion for seven of these countries. The countries where gender parity has not truly been achieved are Cambodia and Ethiopia, both with a GIR GPI of 0.92.[35]

Moreover, a few countries have flagged disparities relating to access and retention whereas national averages show parity. This is the case for Benin, Comoros, Lao PDR, Sierra Leone, Uganda and Vietnam. This observation confirms the previous section conclusion that caution is warranted when analyzing national averages and that a more thorough analysis of disparities at the regional level is essential.

For the six countries mentioning disparities without specifying what they are, even though statistical data is available (Burkina Faso, Cameroon, CAR, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea and Mozambique), this may point out to some weakness in data use and analysis for identifying barriers to girls' education.

Graph 11: Types of gender disparities mentioned in ESPs for secondary education



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

For the five countries which indicated in their ESPs that there was no gender disparity in secondary education (Guyana, Nepal, Nicaragua, Moldova and Uzbekistan), UIS data support their analysis. For the vast majority of countries (18 countries), disparities related to both access and retention are noted. Only Afghanistan, Burundi, South Central Somalia and Sudan solely mention access gender disparities whereas there are also gender disparities in terms of secondary retention rates.

ESPs frequently refer to disparities between geographical zones, notably between urban and rural ones. As such, some countries primarily favor policies aiming to reduce these geographical disparities spearheading educational coverage improvement. These strategies assume that an increase in educational infrastructures in rural (or underprivileged) areas should automatically benefit girls. As an example, Yemen's ESP clearly states that the improvement in the quality of and access to education should contribute to an improvement in girls' school enrollment.

2.4 Female teacher related data in ESPs

The lack of female teachers was highlighted in 13 out of 42 ESPs as a barrier to girls' education. Indeed, it is often recognized in literature that female teachers are a positive role model for girls, especially in rural areas, and that

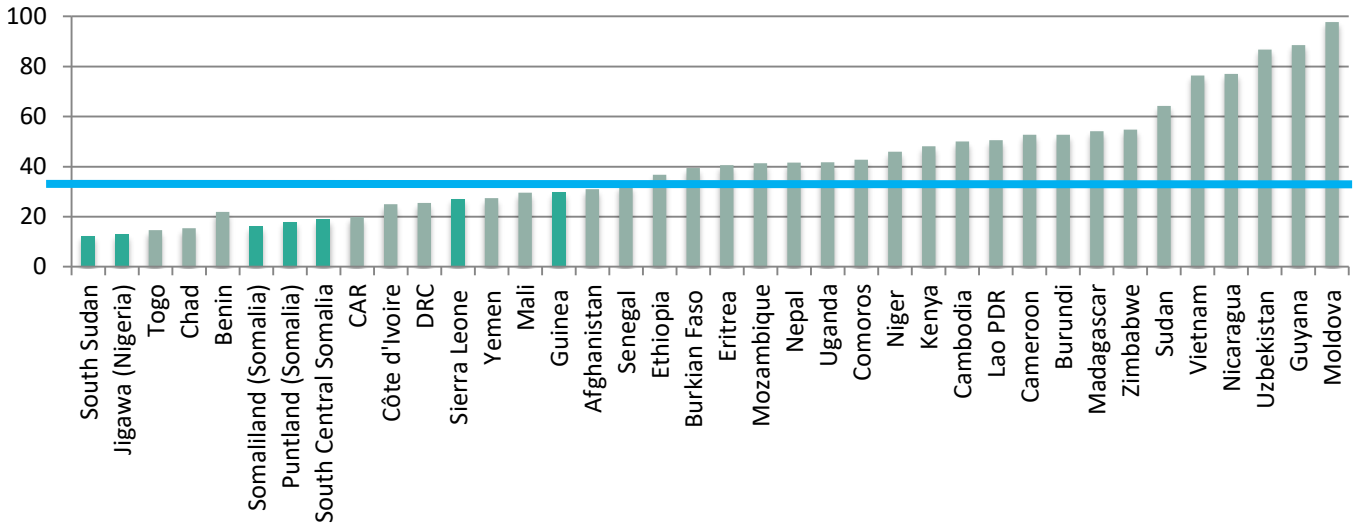
[34] Parity or near-parity is recognized once the parity index is above 0.95.
[35] For Ethiopia, data is available in the ESP and dates back to 2010.

parents are reassured about the security of their girls when the teacher is a woman. Notably at the secondary level, parents may be more apprehensive about teachers' sexist behavior; they would therefore be more at ease with a female teacher.[36] Moreover, some studies show that female teachers may have a positive effect on girls' access and retention, as well as on their learning.[37]

Only 13 (or 31%) of the 42 sector plans analyzed provided statistical information about the number of female teachers in primary education and six (or 14%) in secondary education. It should be noted that these countries are not necessarily those which have pointed out disparities amongst teachers as a factor which could explain girls' low attendance, or the ones with significant disparities between girls' and boys' school enrollment.

As regards statistical data on female teachers, five countries do not provide any data on the percentage of female teachers whereas they do implement specific policies in this respect. Such lack of statistical data therefore prevents easy assessment of existing disparities in terms of teachers, and limits any analysis of the relevance of the policy adopted. This is the case for Benin, Ethiopia, Niger, Mali and Lao PDR.

Graph 12: Percentage of female teachers in primary education



Source: UIS Data, 2013 (except for federal states, Ethiopia, Eritrea and Kenya: National source provided in ESPs)

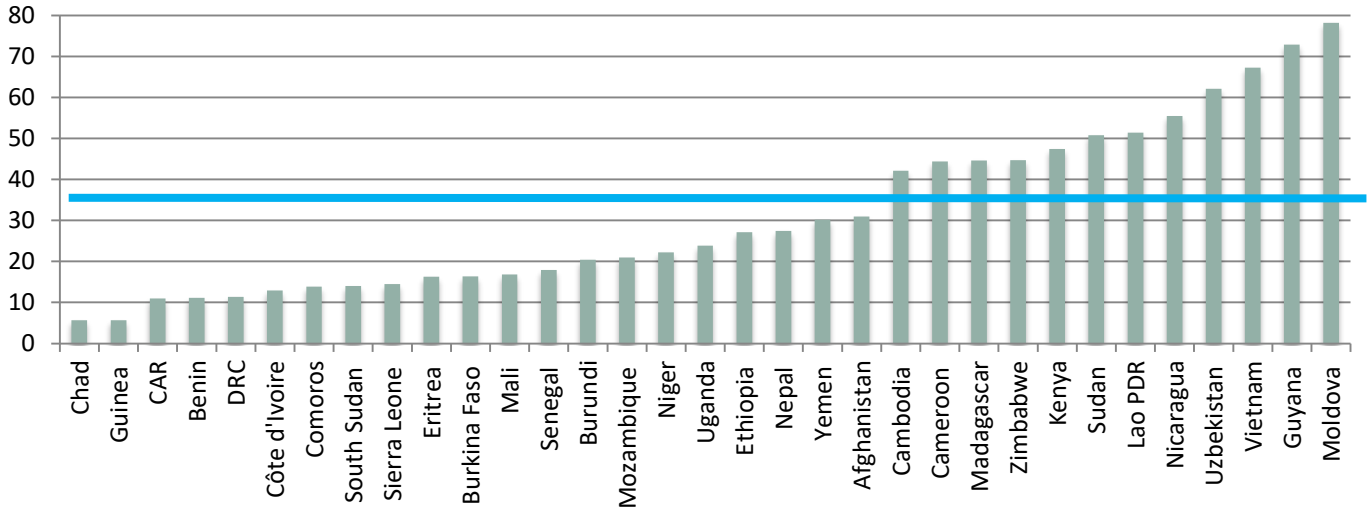
Graph 12 shows a massive disparity between countries concerning the percentage of female teachers in education. Situations are equally extreme between South Sudan, with 12.7% of female teachers in primary education, and Moldova where there are virtually no male teachers. Countries with a percentage of female teachers lower than 30% in primary education are mostly in Africa (14 countries), and one in the Middle East (Yemen).

Among these 15 countries, only seven (in green on Graph 12) included proposals in their ESPs or action plans regarding specific measures aiming to increase the number of female teachers. As with the previous indicators, these national averages may conceal significant disparities between urban and rural zones, since women are often reluctant to teach in rural areas.

[36] Source: UNGEI and GPE. 2014, April. Accelerating Secondary Education for Girls: Focusing on Access and Retention. Discussion Paper. http://www.ungei.org/resources/files/2014-04-GPE-UNGEI-Accelerating-Secondary-Education-Girls.pdf

[37] Source: UNESCO. 2006. The Impact of Female Teachers on Girls' Education. An Advocacy Brief. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001459/145990e.pdf; and Haugen C. Stromquist N. et al. 2011. Increasing Female Primary School Teachers in African Countries: Barriers and Policies. Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht and UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.

Graph 13-: Percentage of female teachers in secondary education



Source: UIS data, 2013[38] (except for South Sudan: 2011)

The presence of female teachers in secondary education is lower than in primary for every country included in the study, as shown in Graph 13. Among **the 42 ESPs analyzed, only six include statistical information on the percentage of female teachers in secondary education** (Eritrea, Mozambique, Nepal, Jigawa (Nigeria), Kaduna (Nigeria), and South Sudan)**.**

3. Barriers to girls' education in ESPs

In the context of this study, barriers to girls' education have been categorized into two categories:

1. Demand-related barriers
2. Supply-related barriers, under which two types of barriers were treated separately:
    - School environment related barriers
    - Teacher-related barriers

    These two sub-sections aim at a better consideration of GPE Objective 2, which refers to the school context and students' learning. These barriers are linked to educational supply, in the sense that they are specifically related to school and its functioning.

This categorization may seem 'arbitrary', as one barrier may simultaneously be part of several categories. It is then a matter of choice in terms of how to categorize any given barrier. For example, school fees may be a demand or supply-related barrier. In the end, it was included as demand-related barrier since parents' decision to enroll a child in school can be considered a financial investment, and as such, a personal choice. Whatever the case, this categorization does not affect the type of measures to be implemented. Annex 3 provides details on barriers identified in the 42 ESPs.

[38] No UIS data is available for Somalia and Togo.

It should be noted that in ESPs, barriers related to girls' education are rarely categorized, and quality of analysis is generally highly variable. Most times, analysis consists in a few compact paragraphs or in a mere mention of some of the barriers without any analysis to differentiate the education levels (primary and secondary education) or disparity types (access, retention, completion). Furthermore, there are few comments on economic, social or geographical factors which may be causing the identified barriers; a review of the 42 ESPs may give the impression that the analysis is based on little contextual evidence. This may be due to the fact that there are other sector analyses and additional studies which provide more details on barriers to girls' education. In this regard, it is important to note that several countries, such as Togo (2014), CAR (2008), and Chad (2007) have carried out a diagnosis of their education systems through the CSR, which served as a basis for discussion in drawing up the ESPs, and in which analysis of barriers to girls' education are generally present.[39] Moreover, several countries have carried out studies or developed specific policies for girls' education and gender, which include an analysis of barriers related to girls' education and retention.

Among the 42 ESPs analyzed, 16 (or 38%) contained no analysis of barriers to girls' education. Table 6 shows the context for countries which do not analyze barriers to education in relation to the GPI in PCR.

Table 6: Situation of Gender Parity Index in PCR in primary education for the countries/states which do not analyze barriers to girls' education

Countries with a Gender Parity Index in PCR above 0.95	Countries with a Gender Parity Index in PCR between 0.8 and 0.95	Countries with a Gender Parity Index in PCR below 0.8	No statistical data
Cambodia Guyana Madagascar Moldova Nepal Nicaragua Uzbekistan	Cameroon Mozambique Togo	Côte d'Ivoire CAR Chad	Haiti Jigawa (Nigeria) South Central Somalia

Source: UIS data, 2013

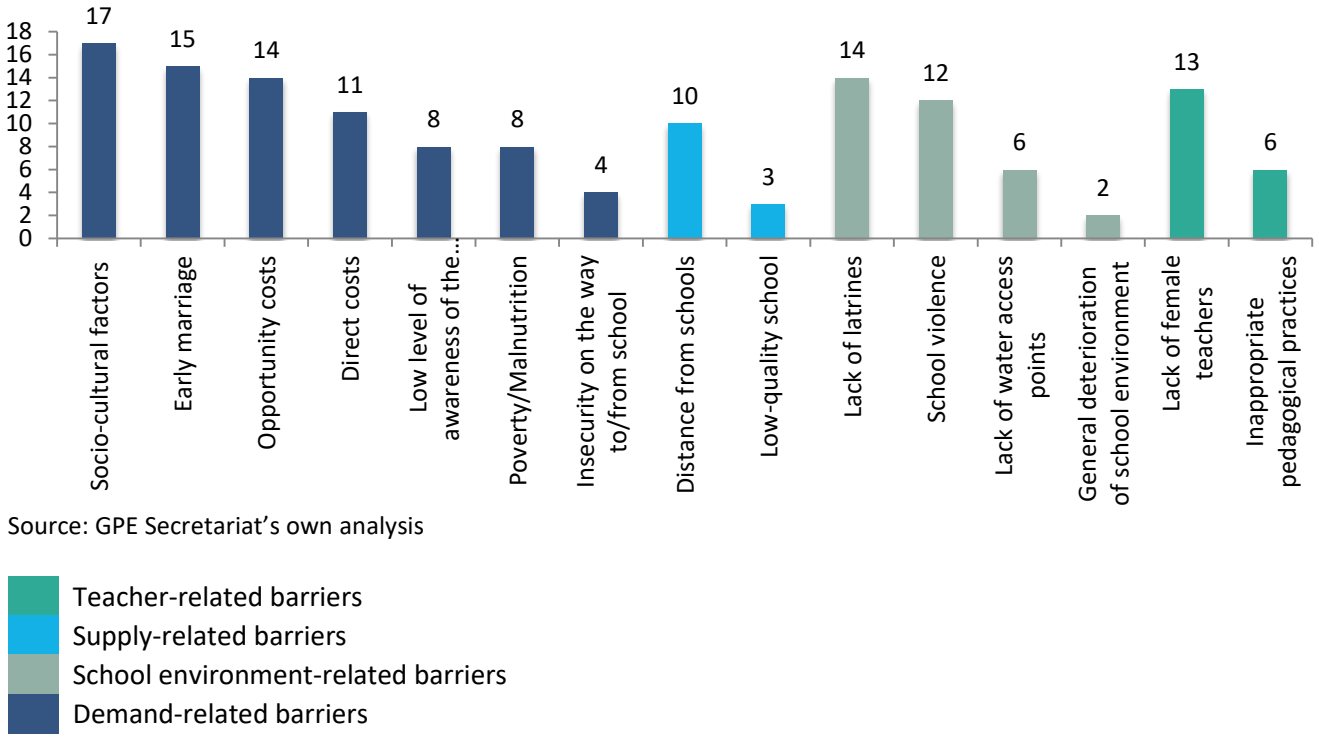
The lack of analysis of barriers to girls' education, for countries which have not achieved gender parity represents a relative weakness in ESP development, even if this does not mean there are no specific policies in favor of girls' education. For countries that have achieved gender parity in primary education, there is a tendency to not consider girls' education even though parity has not necessarily been reached in secondary education or in certain regions, or among specific population sub-groups.

The barrier types specified in ESPs (they are combined for primary and secondary education since few countries distinguish between them) are shown in Graph 14.

Graph 14: Barriers to girls' education as noted in ESPs (26 countries/states)[40]

[39] The 2015-2018 GPE funding model underlines the importance of developing ESPs based on sector analysis. The lack of holistic analysis has indeed been recognized as one of ESPs' weaknesses; it has therefore become a prerequisite in order to obtain GPE financing.

[40] These 26 countries/states conducted an analysis of barriers to girls' school enrollment. This means that 16 countries/states did not provide any details on possible barriers to girls' education.



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Teacher-related barriers
Supply-related barriers
School environment-related barriers
Demand-related barriers

3.1 Education demand barriers

Several demand-related barriers were identified in ESPs. This section highlights the most frequently discussed ones.

Socio-cultural factors

Barriers to girls' education related to educational demand are those most frequently discussed in ESPs. Although the socio-cultural rationale is most frequent, little detail is given. However, there is evidence of widespread cultural practices, but they differ from one country to another or one region to the next within one country. Behind the term "socio-cultural", there may be different attitudes and behaviors attributed to men and women by a community. For example, it is widely acknowledged that the priority given to a girl's future role as wife and mother has a negative impact on her educational opportunities in many countries. Nevertheless, this aspect is never very explicit in ESPs and the term 'socio-cultural' may refer to other customs and beliefs influencing parents' decision to send their girls to school or take them out of school. In Yemen, a young girl's age plays an important role in school attendance and dropout rates. On the one hand, parents consider that starting Grade 1 at age 6 is too young for a girl, and on the other hand, they consider that a girl's role is 'outside' of school when she grows older. The combination of these factors therefore limits the length of education for girls.

Early marriage

Early marriage is also frequently mentioned, since **15 ESPs consider this factor to be a barrier to girls' education.** Generally speaking, marriage is considered to be early when a girl or a boy is married under the age of 18. A survey carried out by the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)[41] in the developing world has revealed that one in nine girls marries before age 15 and 34% of girls marry before age 18. Early marriage is much more frequent in rural areas than urban ones, and they generally imply the end of a girl's school education, especially secondary education, where participation indicators and GPI are even

[41] Source: UNFPA. 2012. Marrying Too Young: End Child Marriage. http://www.unfpa.org/end-child-marriage

lower than those for primary education. In Lao PDR, a survey carried out by Plan International in the Lahu, Khmu and Hmong communities[42] has revealed that adolescents are faced with a series of barriers if they wish to pursue secondary education; their intake rate is significantly lower than the national average. In these communities, no girl had completed secondary education since traditional practices favor marriage for girls between the ages of 14 and 16, and married women are not sent to school. One of the greatest challenges for these adolescents is therefore secondary education completion.

Table 7 provides an overview of early marriages in some countries included in the study.

Table 7: Percentage of 20-24 year old women married or in union before age 18

7.1: Countries which pointed out early marriage as a barrier to girls' education

Country	Percentage of 20-24 year old women married or in union before age 18.
Afghanistan	39
Burkina Faso	48
Burundi	n.a.
DRC	39
Eritrea	47
Ethiopia	41
Guinea	63
Kenya	n.a.
Niger	75
Kaduna (Nigeria)	39 (National)
Sindh (Pakistan)	n.a.
Senegal	33
South Sudan	n.a.
Sudan	34
Zimbabwe	31

7.2: Countries which did not point out early marriage as a barrier to girls' education

Country	Percentage of 20-24 year old women married or in union before age 18.
Chad	72
Guinea	63
CAR	61
Mali	55
Mozambique	52
Madagascar	48
Sierra Leone	48
Uganda	46
Somalia	45
Nicaragua	43
Nepal	41
Haiti	30
Yemen	32
Benin	34
Côte d'Ivoire	34
Mauritania	35
Cameroon	36

Source: UNFPA, 2012

Table 7.2 shows that several countries in which early marriage is still a widespread practice have not included this practice in their ESPs as a barrier to girls' education.

[42] Source: Plan International and Child Funds Laos. 2011. Social and Cultural Barriers to Rural Adolescent Ethnic Community Girls Accessing Lower Secondary Schools in Northern Laos. https://www.childfund.org.au/development-practitioners/social-cultural-barriers-rural-adolescent-ethnic-community-girls-accessing

It is important to note that main actions in the fight against early marriage are not necessarily under the purview of the Ministries in charge of national education. As a result, it is difficult, on the sole basis of ESPs and action plans, to know whether governments are implementing specific action plans against early marriage. In any case, institutions certainly have a role to play when a girl is taken out of school in order to marry. The questions which then arise are what role school authorities can play and how they may prevent this dropout.

Direct costs and opportunity costs

Sending a child to school implies costs for the families which may be prohibitive, especially for poor, rural families. Although primary education has officially become free in many countries, in reality education always bears a significant cost for households. **Interestingly, for the 11 countries which mentioned direct costs as a barrier to girls' education (Burundi, the DRC, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Lao PDR, Mali, Kaduna (Nigeria), Baluchistan (Pakistan), Puntland (Somalia), Vietnam, Zimbabwe), school is free.** Therefore, although school is free in the sense that there are no enrollment costs, it is never totally free since a child's education generates costs for the families. These costs greatly vary from country to country, and are generally linked to subscriptions to Parent Associations (PAs), exam fees, the purchase of school supplies and uniforms, transportation, etc. As an example, with equal purchasing power and at 2004 dollar exchange rate, the annual average cost of primary education to households for one child varied between US$7 in Niger and US$70 in Côte d'Ivoire.[43] These direct costs increase significantly in secondary education, further limiting the chances of a young girl to pursue her education.

The question of school costs and the contribution made by parents for example through subscription to PAs raises the question of equity in the context of free education policy sought by political authorities. Some countries, with support from their development partners, are setting up specific mechanisms to reduce girls' education costs for example, through enrollment fees abolition for girls, or uniform or school kit provision (see section 4.2.1).

Alongside direct school costs, there are also 'opportunity costs' representing the value of a child's work which the household forgoes by sending them to school. Fifteen **countries out of 26 mentioned opportunity costs as a barrier to girls' education.** For poor families, where working children often generate additional income, the opportunity costs associated with a child's education tend to increase with age, and therefore with their level of education.

Moreover, in countries experiencing or which have recently experienced a socio-political crisis or natural disasters, household standards of living tend to have declined. Such is the case in Côte d'Ivoire, for example, where the population living below the poverty line has grown from 33.6% in 1998 to 48.9% in 2008.[44] Covering costs linked to children's education has thus proved increasingly difficult to manage for a large number of families. Family impoverishment has had a greater effect on girls' education participation in the sense that the opportunity costs linked to a girl's work are higher than those of boys'.[45]

3.2 Supply-Side Factors

3.2.1 School environment factors

School violence

The school environment plays an important role for the students' well-being and affects how parents will view educational institutions. Several studies and researches have highlighted the growing problem of violence - sexual, physical and psychological - in the school environment. However, there is little statistical data in ESPs on the phenomenon of gender-based violence in schools. This type of violence also occurs on the way to school, and parents

[43] Source: UNICEF. 2014. All Children in School by 2015: Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children. Regional Report: West and Central Africa. http://www.unicef.org/gambia/OutOfSchool_global_initiative_-_2014_Report.pdf
[44] Source: Republic of Ivory Coast, National Development Plan 2012-2015
http://www.ci.undp.org/content/cote_divoire/fr/home/library/poverty/publication_2.html
[45] Source: World Bank. 2012. Emergency Basic Education Support Project.
http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/158181468021851799/pdf/635470PJPR0P110C0disclosed04050120.pdf

seem increasingly reluctant to send their girls to school if too far away from home. **Twelve countries mentioned school violence as a limitation for girls' education in their ESPs and 10 countries pointed out the issue of home/school distance**.

In Afghanistan, ensuring the safety of girls on their way to school, and within school premises, demands particular attention due to cultural aspects whereby girls' protection and safety are viewed as an extension of family honor. For example, the construction of school perimeter walls is particularly important in this respect, both in order to protect the girls against possible intruders but also to prevent girls from being seen by people outside the school.

The struggle against school violence is one of the major challenges for countries aiming to achieve universal primary education. In Burkina Faso and Côte d'Ivoire, initiatives have been launched to document and record school violence incidents in order to alert governments to the need to tackle this phenomenon in its cross-cutting dimensions, including the legal aspect, since violent acts frequently go unreported and are concealed by relatives; when not penalized, violence becomes a daily occurrence, which only encourages repetition. The school environment therefore becomes unsafe for many girls.

Absence of separate latrines for girls

The absence of separate latrines for girls is one of the barriers to girls' education which appears very often in ESPs (54% of the 26 ESPs), as well as in national studies and surveys. Separate latrines in particular allow girls to continue to attend school during their menstrual cycle, object of stigmatization in a number of countries, and provide them with a secure environment by limiting potential harassment.

3.2.2 Teacher-related factors

The presence of female teachers

As mentioned in section 2.4, the presence of female teachers can be a determining factor in girls' enrollment and retention, especially in secondary school. As a reminder, there are about 20 countries in which less than 40% of teachers are women, whether in primary or secondary education. In Afghanistan, for example, an analysis of complementary documents reveals a very strong correlation between the number of female teachers and the number of girls attending school. In Yemen, a UNICEF study[46] also highlights a significant, direct link between the presence of female teachers and girls' participation in education (see Chapter 7).

Table 8: Data related to female teachers in ESPs

	ESPs with data on female teachers		ESPs that mention disparities among teachers	ESPs that mention the absence of female teachers as a barrier to girls' education	ESPs which mention specific measures for recruiting female teachers
	Primary	Secondary			
Afghanistan	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
Burkina Faso	yes	no	no	no	no
DRC	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
Eritrea	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Haiti	yes	no	no	no	no
Mozambique	yes	yes	no	no	no
Nepal	yes	yes	no	no	yes

[46] Source: UNICEF. 2007. Accelerating Girls' Education in Yemen: Rethinking Policies in Teacher Recruitment and School Distribution. http://www.unicef.org/policyanalysis/files/Accelerating_Girls_Education_in_Yemen(1).pdf

Jigawa (Nigeria)	yes	yes	yes	no	yes
Kaduna (Nigeria)	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
Puntland (Somalia)	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
Somaliland (Somalia)	yes	no	yes	yes	yes
South Central Somalia	yes	no	yes	no	yes
South Sudan	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Uganda	yes	no	yes	no	yes
Benin	no	no	yes	yes	yes
Chad	no	no	yes	no	no
Ethiopia	no	no	no	yes	yes
Kenya	no	no	yes	yes	no
Niger	no	no	no	no	yes
Sindh (Pakistan)	no	no	yes	yes	no
Mali	no	no	no	no	yes
Balochistan (Pakistan)	no	no	yes	no	no
Niger	no	no	no	yes	no
Lao PDR	no	no	no	no	yes
Yemen	no	no	yes	yes	no

Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Table 8 shows that out of the 42 ESPs analyzed, 25 raise the question of female teachers in one or several of the following domains: (i) statistics, (ii) disparities, (ii) barriers to girls' education or (iv) implementation of specific female teacher recruitment measures. For the remaining 17 countries, not mentioned in the table (or 40%), this means that the issue of female teachers was not raised in their plans.

The two final columns reveal that out of the 13 countries which indicated a low female teacher percentage as a barrier to girls' education, nine have developed specific strategies to promote the recruitment of female teachers. As a result, there is great consistency in these countries. On the other hand, countries which have identified this barrier without developing specific policies to address it are: Kenya, Niger, Sindh (Pakistan), and Yemen. However, this does not necessarily mean that no specific measures are in place. In reality, such measure may have been integrated into a broader activity, such as teacher recruitment.

Moreover, there are countries which implement specific measures for recruiting female teachers without having mentioned the issue as being a barrier. This is the case for Lao PDR, Mali, Nepal, Niger, Jigawa (Nigeria), South Central Somalia, and Uganda.

Inappropriate pedagogical practices

Six countries (Afghanistan, Burundi, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Haiti, and Senegal) mentioned that certain pedagogical practices might be a barrier to girls' education. The term 'pedagogical practices' most often imply weak consideration of gender aspects in teaching. Burundi's ESP mentions, for example, "teachers or mentors' lack of awareness concerning gender equality". In Senegal, the issue lies with the unequal treatment of girls and poor consideration of gender dimensions by teachers. For these countries, with the exception of Haiti, gender mainstreaming strategies are discussed to integrate this aspect into teacher training programs.

In short, there are multiple barriers to girls' education, often inter-related, and involving joint actions related to educational supply and demand. Reasons put forth in ESPs to explain gender disparities regarding girls' access and retention in school are often always the same rather general ones. However, contexts have greatly evolved over the last few years, and very often, the barriers mentioned relate to educational demand (77 of the replies versus 66 related to supply). It would also be useful to analyze more closely the factors which determine girls' success at school and the kind of teaching or schools parents and students wish to see. Does the currently available educational supply truly match parents and students' expectations? Is the quality of learning satisfactory, especially in rural schools? Are the learning conditions fully satisfying for all students, both girls and boys, to learn in a safe environment and in favorable

conditions? Are the teachers well trained and present? There is a wide range of studies - for example, the CONFEMEN Education Systems Analysis Program (PASEC)[47] and the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ)[48] surveys - which reveals poor learning outcomes. However, in terms of barriers to girls' education, only three ESPs (Eritrea, Guinea, and Vietnam) make a connection between poor-quality schooling and barriers to girls' participation in education. When education supply is of a mediocre quality or is seen to be irrelevant, parents are undoubtedly more reluctant to enroll their children or encourage them to pursue their studies. And in contexts with stronger socio-cultural barriers to girls' education, it seems obvious that the latter will be the most affected - compared to boys - by their parents' decision to withdraw them from school or not enroll them. This aspect is rarely highlighted in ESPs as a barrier to girls' school enrollment and retention.

4. Strategies to improve girls' schooling

During the Dakar World Education Forum in 2000, the international community affirmed that no country with a serious plan to attain agreed-upon objectives for Education for All should have its efforts curtailed for lack of funding. Since then, the development of an ESP has become a priority in numerous countries. Initiatives launched in favor of girls' participation in education have multiplied over recent years with the support of many development partners. The integration into ESPs of issues related to gender disparity and the implementation of adequate measures to eliminate such disparities have become expected by the international community and the GPE.

The analysis of 42 ESPs and related action plans made it possible to highlight different strategies developed by countries. Action plans were analyzed with the assumption that strategies not reflected in an action plan have a smaller chance of being funded, and thus being implemented. Strategies which show "good intentions" need to be distinguished from those that are actually planned out. However, this assumption represents a significant limit to the extent to which budgets of specific activities promoting girls' education, are not always easily monitored since they may be included as part of broader activities or funded by projects. Moreover, for some countries, the period of the ESP is longer than that of an action plan, which means that some activities discussed in an ESP may be planned out in a subsequent action plan. This is the case of Burundi, where an action plan covered the period from 2013 to 2015, while the ESP stretched from 2012 to 2020; in the current action plan, no strategy for girls' participation in education is planned, which means that special attention should be paid to development of the next three-year action plans, in order to integrate specific activities which benefit girls.

The identified strategies were divided into four categories:

- Strategies to promote demand or access
- Strategies to promote quality or supply
- Strategies to improve the school environment
- Other strategies

Similar to the classification of barriers to school participation, classification of strategies may seem somewhat arbitrary insofar as strategies may have an impact on both demand and supply. For example, strategies promoting female teacher recruitment may be seen as promoting school demand but may also be viewed in terms of supply, since it is part of the education system's own operations. "Other strategies" mainly relate to strategies connected with institutional development or the development of a specific policy document.

4.1 Is the improvement of girls' education a priority in ESPs?

The 42 ESPs analyzed differ significantly in their structure and the manner in which programs and educational priorities are classified and labeled. Some ESPs clearly indicate reduction of gender gaps or improvement in girls'

[47] http://www.pasec.confemen.org/
[48] http://www.sacmeq.org/

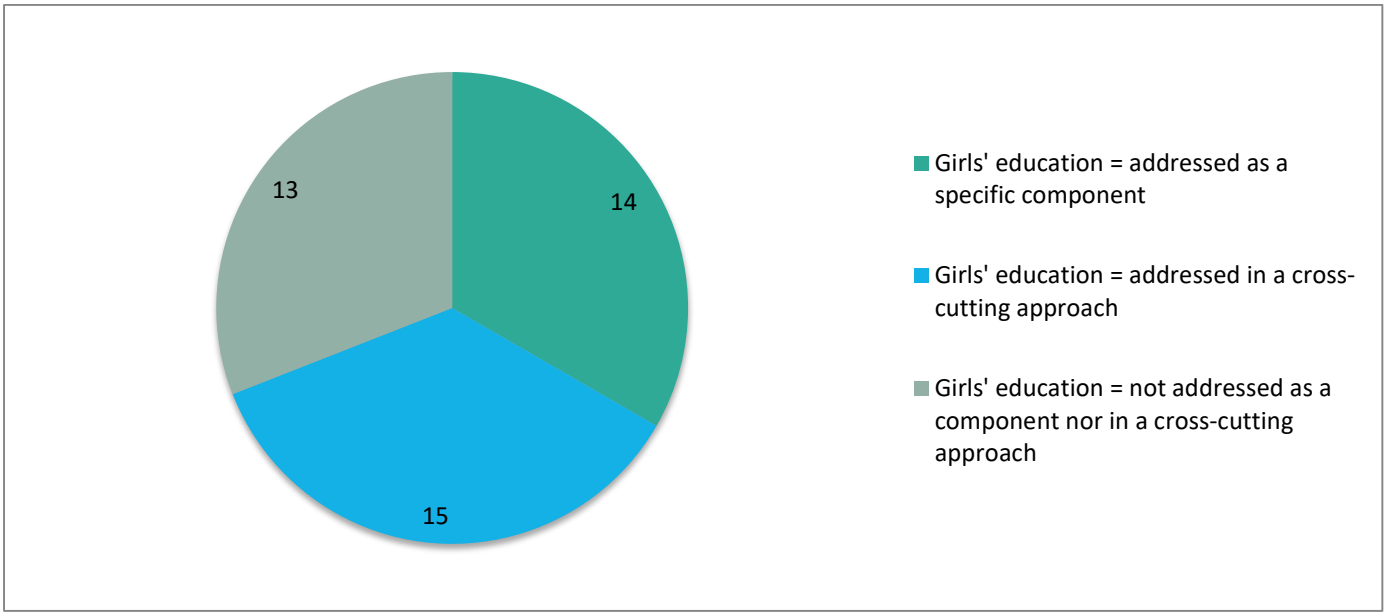
education and gender equality as a specific component,[49] whereas other ESPs address this issue with a cross-cutting approach. As part of this analysis, ESPs were categorized into three groups:

- ***Group 1:*** ESPs in which gender or improving girls' education is a specific component (14 ESPs):
  Benin, Burkina Faso, the DRC, Kenya, Lao PDR, Mali, Niger, Kaduna (Nigeria), Sindh (Pakistan), Senegal, Somaliland (Somalia), South Sudan, Uganda, and Yemen

- **Group 2:** ESPs in which gender is addressed through a cross-cutting approach and explicitly included in other components (gender mainstreaming), such as for example, curricula improvement and teacher trainings (15 ESPs):
  Afghanistan, Cambodia, Cameroon, Chad, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Mozambique, Jigawa (Nigeria), Baluchistan (Pakistan), Moldova, Sierra Leone, Puntland (Somalia), Nepal, South Central Somalia, and Sudan

- ***Group 3:*** ESPs in which gender or improving of girls' education are not considered a specific component nor addressed through a cross-cutting approach (13 ESP):
  Burundi, Central African Republic, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Guyana, Haiti, Madagascar, Nicaragua, Togo, Uzbekistan, Vietnam, and Zimbabwe

Graph 15: Treatment of girls' education and gender in ESPs



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Caution should be exercised when analyzing Table 9 since the presence of a component or a specific priority to improve girls' education and gender equality in the ESP may depend on the narrative structure of the latter. Thus, a comprehensive ESP included in Group 3, does not necessarily mean that there are no specific measures promoting girls' participation in education. For example, the ESPs of Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea and Togo do plan specific activities for girls, whereas these countries belong to Group 3. In the case of Côte d'Ivoire, measures promoting girls' school enrollment are included in the component titled "improvement of access to primary education". In the case of Guinea, such measures are included in the "access and fairness at primary school" component; fairness in development of measures to reduce disparities in a broad sense: gender, place of residence, income and inclusion of children with special needs. In Togo, activities promoting girls' participation in education can be found in the "primary" sub-component and the objective "balance the national educational pyramid while correcting disparities". **Among the countries in Group 3, only the CAR, in its 2015-2017 ESP, does not include any measures to promote girls' education, whereas GPI in GER at primary school level is very low (0.74).** This means that reduction of gender disparities

[49] The term "component" is not always used in ESPs; the terms "priority" or "program" may also be used.

is not taken into account while developing educational strategies in the country.

Table 9: GER Gender Parity Index in primary education and ESPs' consideration of girls' education and gender

	Countries with a Gender Parity Index in GER above 0.95	Countries with a Gender Parity Index in GER between 0.85 and 0.95	Countries with a Gender Parity Index in GER below 0.85
Group 1 Girls' education = specific component	Burkina Faso, Kenya, Lao PDR, Senegal, Uganda	Benin, Mozambique, Niger, the DRC, Yemen, Mali	South Sudan, Sindh (Pakistan), Kaduna (Nigeria), Somaliland (Somalia)
Group 2 Girls' education = treated in a cross-cutting/mainstreamed manner	Nepal, Moldova, Sierra Leone, Ethiopia	Cambodia, Cameroon, Sudan	Afghanistan, Chad, Eritrea, Baluchistan (Pakistan), Jigawa (Nigeria), Puntland (Somalia), South Central Somalia
Group 3 Girls' education = not treated as a component or in a cross-cutting/mainstreamed manner	Burundi, Guyana, Madagascar, Nicaragua, Vietnam, Zimbabwe	Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Togo, Haiti	CAR

Source of GPI: UIS, 2013 (except Ethiopia and Eritrea: National data, 2010)

The various approaches of ESPs to girls' education illustrate a wide variation in the treatment of this cross-cutting issue. Undoubtedly, there is no "right or wrong way" to address this issue; the most important thing is solving it and implementing strategies which correspond to the barriers and disparities identified.

Some countries are more focused on holistic strategies which would benefit all students, including girls, whereas other countries develop "positive discrimination" strategies in favor of girls in order to work toward a more equitable education system. The modality of inclusion does not seem to be connected with the degree of disparity at the primary education level. For countries from Group 1, in which improvement of girls' education and gender equality are addressed as a specific program component or objective, the component titles vary widely as shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Titles of specific components/objectives in ESPs promoting girls' education

Benin	"Increasing girls' gross school enrolment rates at primary education level" and "Promoting access and retention of girls in general secondary education"
Burkina Faso	Promoting equality and fairness: total elimination of gender disparity at all levels of the education system by 2025
DRC	Increasing access and accessibility to primary education by (i) reaching gender parity, (ii) supporting specific initiatives which promote school enrollment for girls and overaged children
Kenya	Gender in education
Lao PDR	Promote access to education for girls, women and disadvantaged populations
Mali	Promote gender in the education system
Niger	Accelerate access and retention of girls at all levels of education and schooling Increase social demand concerning education and schooling for girls Improve institutional framework of education and schooling for girls
Kaduna (Nigeria)	Improve Gender Parity Index

Senegal	Reduce disparities between rural and urban areas, boys and girls, men and women, in terms of access to quality education and courses
Somaliland (Somalia)	"Promote gender equality in terms of access and retention" for all education levels
South Sudan	Remove barriers to girls' school enrollment and promote gender equality in the education system
Uganda	Increase the participation, performance and progress of women and girls in the education system
Yemen	Closing the gap of social and gender disparities through an equitable education system able to give equal opportunities at the start to every child

Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

4.2 Gender disparity improvement strategies identified in ESPs and action plans

Strategies to improve girls' education which have been identified in ESPs and action plans, are expected to eliminate previously identified barriers. These vary widely and concern educational demand, supply, environment, as well as teachers. When mentioned in an ESP, and especially in the action plan, these strategies demonstrate government commitment. This section aims to identify different strategies proposed in ESPs and action plans in order to improve girls' education and to analyze their consistency with identified barriers. A consistency analysis between activities proposed in ESPs and those included and budgeted for in action plans will be also conducted, under the assumption that strategies not included in the action plan are at risk of not being implemented.

Policy makers, who face many difficulties with limited resources, must decide between different actions: which are the most effective measures best suited to national and local realities? Which ones, among the most cost-effective strategies, are likely to result in a real evolution of indicators? Although cost is essential, action plans remarkably give little information on the unit costs of proposed activities. Thus, out of all the action plans analyzed, 12 provide information on unit costs (Cameroon, Chad, Sierra Leone, Nepal, Niger, Jigawa (Nigeria), Kaduna (Nigeria), Puntland (Somalia), Senegal, Togo, and Zimbabwe). Other action plans include the total cost of each activity[50] without mentioning targets or quantities; as is the case with eight countries: Afghanistan, Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, the DRC, Kenya, Baluchistan (Pakistan), Somaliland (Somalia) and South Central Somalia. It should be noted that out of the 42 ESPs, the action plans of Mozambique and Uganda were not available at the time of analysis.

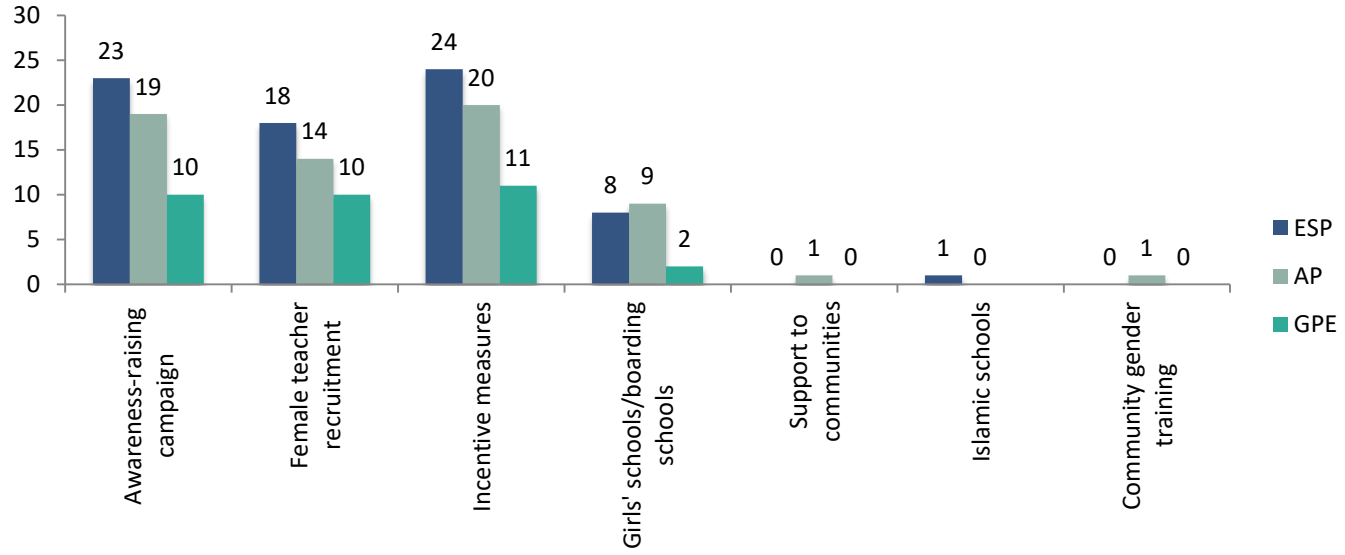
As a general rule, the lack of comprehensive information on unit costs or targets creates a risk for the actual implementation of the strategies, and there is no guarantee of the inclusion of these activities in the calculation of the overall cost of sector plan implementation.

4.2.1 Strategies related to education demand or access

Strategies related to access as noted in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs, are shown in Graph 22. Annex 4 details the strategies developed in the 42 ESPs analyzed.

Graph 16: Demand strategies in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs

[50] It is not uncommon, however, to find some activities which have not been budgeted for among the proposed activities.



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Out of the 42 countries analyzed, eight have developed strategies in their sector plans to address demand, whereas they do not mention barriers related to education demand. This indicates weak linkages between identified barriers and strategies. Such is the case with Benin, Cambodia, Cameroon, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Mozambique, Nepal and Jigawa (Nigeria). However, in many cases, the analyses can be found elsewhere than in the ESP itself (see Chapter 7).

In contrast, Vietnam and Burundi do not indicate any activities promoting girls' education, whereas obstacles to education demand were identified in their ESPs. Although both countries have reached gender parity for access and graduation (only at the primary education level for Burundi), some communities may still be reticent about girls' schooling, and therefore identification of these barriers seems justified.

Awareness-raising campaigns

Awareness-raising campaigns are often proposed in ESPs and action plans in response to barriers that are usually linked to socio-cultural factors. Awareness-raising campaigns may be very diverse and cover a variety of topics, depending on local contexts. The methods may also take on different forms, with widely varying costs and targets. ESPs rarely specify which topics should be included in awareness-raising campaigns. As such, the problems of early marriage and gender-based violence may be addressed in such campaigns, but it is impossible to know from a simple review of ESPs and action plans. However, Benin's action plan specifies that awareness-raising campaigns will focus on introducing a better division of domestic tasks between girls and boys.

Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations have significant experience in organizing such awareness-raising campaigns, which usually involve local communities and religious leaders. The legitimacy of these campaigns has been established, but it seems increasingly important to connect these campaigns with educational supply, so that schools meet students' needs, in particular student capacity (of classrooms), adequately and sufficiently trained staff, appropriate teaching materials and a secure environment. It is critical to connect awareness-raising actions and the education system capacities to respond to parents' decision to send their girls to school, in order to avoid precarious school participation, as well as later dropouts.

In total, 23 countries included awareness-raising campaigns to promote girls' participation in education, either in their ESPs or in their action plans. Only three out of 26 countries did not include awareness-raising campaigns in their action plans. These countries are Cameroon, Eritrea, and Kenya. Mozambique and Uganda's action plans were not available at the time of this research.

Incentives for girls

Incentives for girls may adopt different forms. The most common are:

- Material support such as the provision of uniforms, school kits, health kits or food
- Direct or indirect financial assistance in the form of free education [51], scholarships or cash transfers.

These incentives are generally expensive, especially at a large-scale. **Out of the 42 ESPs analyzed, 24 mention such measures for girls' education at primary and secondary levels.** These measures generally aim to address barriers related to education costs, often targeting populations considered as vulnerable or poor, as well as girls coming from these environments.

The following table summarizes different incentives reported in the ESPs in order to encourage girls' school enrollment and retention. It is important to note that allocation criteria, target population and composition or cost for such measures are rarely specified. Therefore, whereas budget is indicated in action plan, knowing the unit cost of these measures is virtually impossible.

Table 11: Incentives in ESPs and action plans which target girls

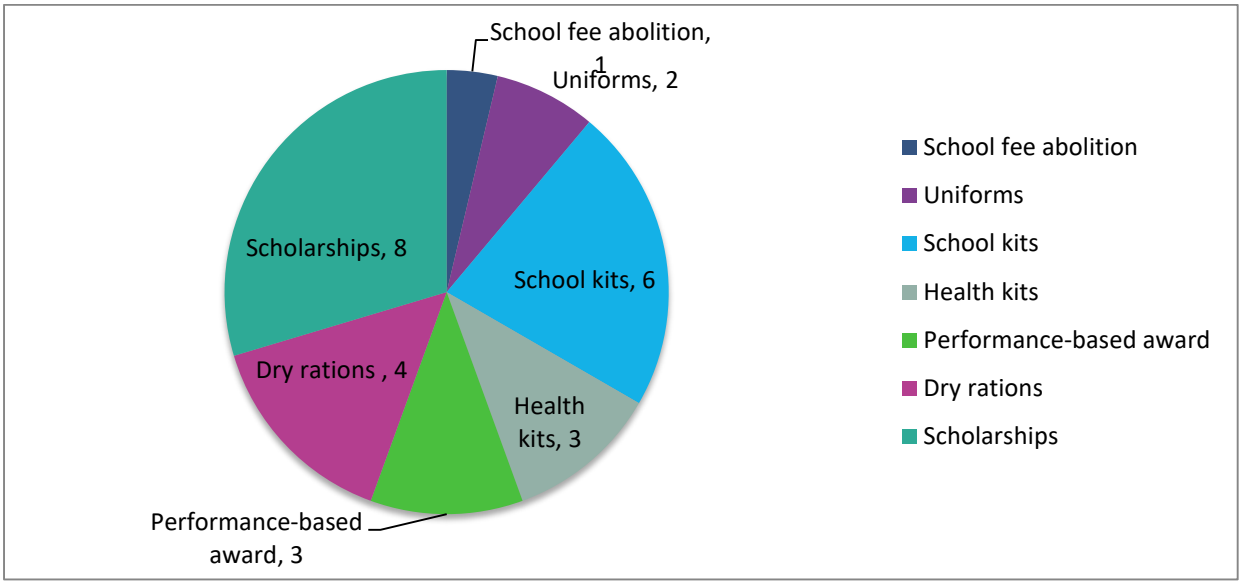
Type of measure	Countries/states	Primary education	Secondary education
Free education (abolition of school fees)	Benin	-	X (1st cycle)
Uniforms	Jigawa (Nigeria)	X	X
	Togo	X	-
School kits	Jigawa (Nigeria)	X	X
	Togo	X	X
	Guinea	Not specified	Not specified
	Ethiopia	Not specified	Not specified
	Chad	X	-
	Mali	X	-
Health kits	Jigawa (Nigeria)	-	X
	South Sudan	X	X
	Kenya	X	X
Performance- based awards/incentives	Jigawa (Nigeria)		X For girls completing Grade 9
	Kaduna (Nigeria)	X	-
	Mali	X	-
Dry rations	Chad	Grades 5 and 6	-
	Burkina Faso	-	X
	Côte d'Ivoire	X	-
	Chad	X	-
Scholarships	Niger	Grades 5 and 6	X
	Jigawa (Nigeria)	Conditional transfer to 450 schools	
	South Sudan	X	X

[51] Several countries have already introduced free education, especially at the primary level. In the context of the analysis, only free access policies to be introduced during the analyzed ESP period are considered.

	Nepal	X	X
	Balochistan (Pakistan)	-	X
	Sindh (Pakistan)	-	X
	Ethiopia	X	X
	Cameroon	Not specified	Not specified

Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

Graph 17: Types of incentives in action plans (primary and secondary education combined)



Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

Burkina Faso mentions "grants for girls' schooling" in its action plan, without providing further details. Similarly, Sierra Leone's ESP includes the implementation of incentives for girls at the primary and secondary education levels, funded by the United Kingdom's Department for International Development, without providing details.

The most frequently mentioned measures include scholarships, especially for girls at the secondary level. In Nepal, according to various reviewed reports, the scholarship program seems to have had a positive impact, enabling access of many disadvantaged children to schools, including girls.

Support through the provision of school kits, usually including notebooks, pens, school bags, geometry supplies, etc., is also one of the strategies currently implemented to promote girls' participation and retention in education.

It should be noted that out of 24 countries which foresaw incentives as a strategy to improve girls' schooling and reduce gender disparity, three did not include these measures in their action plans, while they generally involve significant costs.

Table 12: Countries that have mentioned incentives in ESPs but not in the action plan

Incentives included in the ESP but not in the action plan	Comoros Cambodia Senegal Uganda*

* The action plan was not available at the time this study was conducted.
Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Female teacher recruitment

The development of specific measures for increased female teacher recruitment is included in 18 of the ESPs. The rationale provided in the ESPs regarding the methods and objectives for increasing the presence of female teachers in educational systems vary significantly. Eritrea, Mali, Somaliland (Somalia) and Baluchistan (Pakistan), simply state "recruitment of female teachers" without including these measures in action plans, nor defining related monitoring indicators for these activities. However, this does not mean that these activities are not planned or that their budget is not proposed, as they can be integrated into other activities, such as those related to an increase in teacher recruitment. In South Central Somalia's action plan, it is noted that the budget for this activity is included in the "teachers" section.

Eight action plans provide relatively detailed information on the types of measures to be implemented, as well as their targets. These include Afghanistan, Ethiopia, Nepal, Jigawa (Nigeria), Kaduna (Nigeria), South Sudan, and Yemen. For example, Afghanistan proposes a financial incentive program to encourage housing and deployment of female teachers in rural areas. The ministry proposes the doubling of teacher salaries in Kabul, as well as employment guarantees and salary for their spouses, if they agree to move to rural areas, where female teachers are still in short supply. These measures also target students, who may receive a US$60 monthly allowance if they enroll in teacher training centers. The three-year budget for this strategy amounts to US$35 million, and the GPE program funding contributes to its implementation.

In Nepal, the ESP and action plan also propose incentives to encourage female teacher recruitment from disadvantaged population groups at all levels (primary and secondary), specifically: (i) special provisions will be implemented in order to promote recruitment of female teachers, including the introduction of flexible criteria and “quotas” for new employees, (ii) creation of sanitary facilities for female teachers in schools, and (iii) introduction of maternity and paternity leave, and measures to facilitate breastfeeding of infants.

In the state of Kaduna in Nigeria, scholarships will be provided for teachers to improve their qualifications. This strategy is supported by GPE funding. In the Jigawa state, the objective is to recruit 9% of female teachers in upper secondary schools over three years, but measures to achieve this have not been specified.

In the DRC, the action plan includes two awareness-raising campaigns per year dedicated to the recruitment of female teachers.

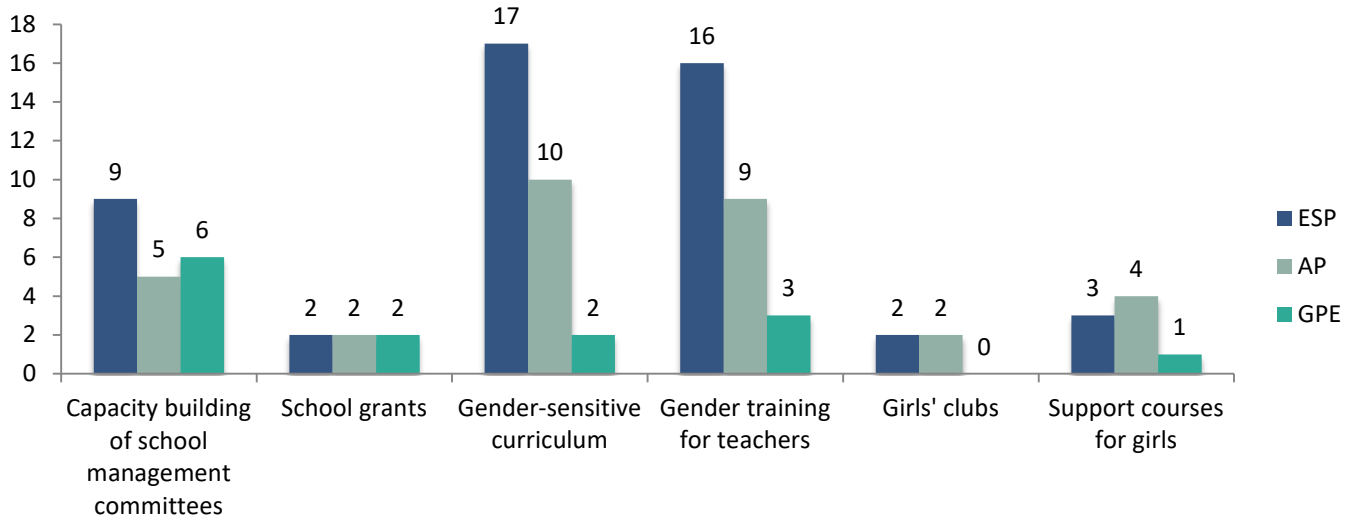
Other strategies based on education demand or access

Graph 23 outlines other actions based on education demand, aimed at encouraging parents to send their daughters to school. For example, the building of schools for girls is a determining factor in countries where Islam is the dominant religion. This is the case with Afghanistan, Jigawa (Nigeria), Pakistan, Somalia and South Sudan. The same goes with the construction of boarding schools for girls in the case of remote communities, which promotes school continuation for girls at the secondary level.

4.2.2 Strategies to address educational supply or quality

Targeted responses on educational supply were provided in ESPs in relation to different educational factors identified as constraining girls' education. These measures help improve overall operations within the education system and promote girls' and boys' participation in education. Graph 18 provides an overview of different measures listed in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs.

Graph 18: Supply-side strategies in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Gender in curriculum

The measure most frequently mentioned in ESPs is related to curricula, generally with the aim to (i) review curricula, so as to present a more positive and accurate image of women and their contribution to the economy and society, as well as to (ii) remove gender stereotypes from all textbooks (text and/or images).

Out of the 17 ESPs intending to develop gender-sensitive curricula, at least four did not include this measure in their action plans. Such inconsistency can lead to the issue of monitoring such an activity which may be a part of a broader education strategy to revise school curricula and textbooks.

Table 13: Gender-sensitive curricula included in ESPs but not in the action plans

Development of gender-sensitive curricula included in the ESP but not planned in the action plan	Burundi* Eritrea Mozambique** Uganda** Niger Senegal South Central Somalia

*The action plan does not cover the same period as the ESP.
**The action plan was not available at the time of the study.
Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

It is important to note that most ESPs do not specify the level of education (primary or secondary) targeted by gender approach integration in curricula: only Lao PDR specifies that it is reviewing school curricula and textbooks for Grades 1 to 9.

Gender mainstreaming in teacher training

Teachers' perceptions, as well as their attitudes, behaviors and teaching practices may have significant impact on the retention of girls, as well as their academic outcomes. Teachers' attitudes which are not gender-sensitive, or which are discriminatory towards their students, reflect general societal prejudices against women's social roles and girls' academic abilities. In this regard, it is essential to raise gender awareness among teachers by including specific modules in their pre-service and in-service training. Sixteen **ESPs propose this measure.** The gap between proposed measures in ESPs and actual measures in the action plans may be caused by two situations: (i) the planning of this

strategy was integrated into a broader teacher training strategy, and (ii) this strategy is not planned because it is neither a priority nor does it receive funding.

Table 14: Gender mainstreaming in teacher training mentioned in the ESPs but not in the action plans

Gender mainstreaming in teacher training included in the ESP but not in the action plan	Burkina Faso Burundi* Eritrea Kenya Mali Senegal Uganda

*The action plan does not cover the same period as the ESP.
**The action plan was not available at the time the study was conducted.
Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Gender capacity building of school management committees (SMCs)

Currently, the role of communities and their involvement in school operations and management is widely recognized by all stakeholders. In a very broad sense, management committees can be defined as organizations aiming to improve access, quality and school management through the involvement of communities, local authorities and other partners around school. SMCs are a formal and permanent meeting forum for school partners and stakeholders whose objectives are to promote school and strengthen community ownership. SMCs usually include student parent associations, mother educator associations, school principals, community leaders, teachers and students from all schools, reflecting the political will to decentralize school management to communities through a participatory approach.

Roles and responsibilities within SMCs vary from one country to another, but it is becoming increasingly clear that they may play an important role in improving the school environment and in awareness-raising campaigns for keeping children - and especially girls - in school. For this reason, **nine ESPs explicitly plan to build SMCs' awareness and capacities in terms of gender issues.** For example, Benin proposes a program for "*training teachers, (Parent-Teacher Associations) PTAs, NGOs and local representatives on gender equality in the education of children*" for primary schools over the course of three years, at the cost of US$197,000.[52] Several countries, such as Burkina Faso, Mali, Niger and Guinea, have established mother educator associations which promote girls' education, and, in particular, educational environment improvement both within the school and on the way to and from school. ESPs in these countries plan to strengthen the role of these associations in order to further promote girls' education and improve their performance at school.

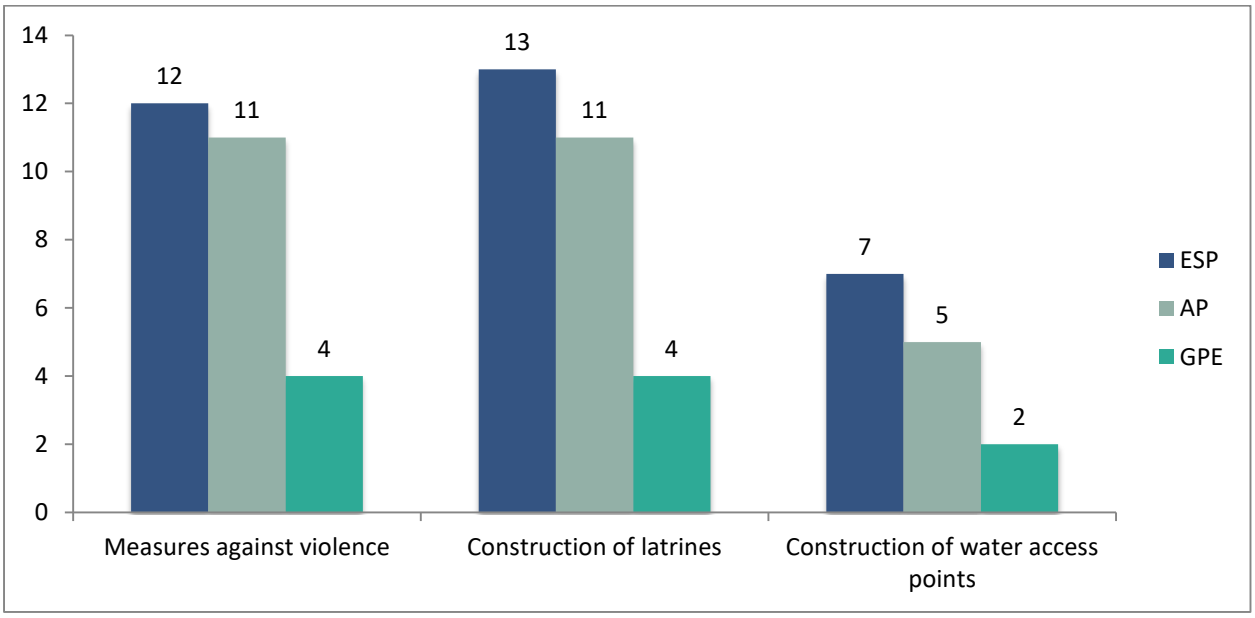
While only nine ESPs include the strengthening of communities' capacity to improve girls' education, most ESPs are likely to plan such activities without explicitly linking them to the improvement of girls' participation in education. Six GPE-funded programs propose this strategy as a way to improve girls' education, including the provision of grants for schools.

4.2.3 Strategies related to school environment

The strategies related to school environment in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs are focused on the construction of private latrines and water access points, as well as on the fight against school violence.

Graph 19: School environment strategies in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs

[52] See Benin action plan



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Construction of private latrines and water access points

All ESPs have a component related to the construction of school infrastructure, either for primary or secondary education. These infrastructures usually include separate latrines for girls and boys. Therefore, the costs of school facilities generally include latrine construction costs. This is undoubtedly the reason why construction of separate latrines for girls/boys is not systematically planned for or specifically budgeted in ESPs and action plans. **However, it is important to differentiate the construction of latrines for future schools from the construction of latrines for existing schools that do not have latrines or where they are non-functional, or require additional latrines due to student number increase.**

Therefore, in the 13 ESPs reporting that this activity is directly related to the improvement of girls' education, it is not always clear whether it entails the construction of separate latrines and water access points for (i) existing schools or (ii) new schools. This also applies to GPE-funded programs. In addition, only a few countries refer to standards on the number of students per latrine in their ESPs.

This lack of precision is a weak point within ESPs and action plans, since it seems essential to include a latrine construction plan in all countries for all existing schools. This implies differentiating this activity from that of school construction and ensuring that it includes a specific budget line, especially at financial simulation modeling level since the cost of constructing latrines may be consequential.

Furthermore, if **current expenditures** do not include their maintenance, countries are at risk of quickly finding themselves with non-functional latrines. However, this current expense is rarely included in action plans or ESPs. Although schools are usually responsible for such expenditure, the fact remains that generated costs will represent a burden for parents, and it may be wise that this expenditure be integrated in the plans.

The fight against violence in school

14 countries included the implementation of measures to combat school violence in their ESPs or action plans. To these 14 countries, three countries can be added (Kaduna (Nigeria), Jigawa (Nigeria) and Togo), in which GPE-funded programs plan to implement specific measures against violence in schools, although their ESPs or action plans make no reference to them.

Thus, in total 17 countries plan the implementation of specific measures against violence in schools. These planned measures vary significantly, as summarized in Table 16. It is important to note the very particular context of Afghanistan and

some states of Nigeria since these are countries where violence and attacks on students by armed groups may occur on a daily basis.

In general, measures foreseen to combat violence are focused on the following activities: (i) education, (ii) awareness-raising, (iii) development of legal instruments, (iv) development of specific programs, (v) introduction of surveillance systems, and (vi) development of specific policies.

Table 16: Types of measures against violence in schools

Country	Measures against violence
Afghanistan	• Equip and train security and protection units at central and provincial levels • Develop security systems for education boards and teaching institutions • Develop surveillance systems along the paths children use on their way to and from school • Sensitize and train key personnel who would in turn train other staff members and students on possible threats • Strengthen coordination with community organizations and security agencies in order to prevent violence
Benin	• Disseminate documents protecting minors and girls in schools, and recruit department-level "legal advisers" to address cases of girls who are victims of violence
Burundi	Not specified[53]
Burkina Faso	Not specified
Cameroon	• Organize awareness-raising campaigns to prevent conflicts, violence, delinquency, addictions and offensive behavior at schools and universities: fight gender discrimination at all levels of the education system
Eritrea	Not specified
Ethiopia	• Train teachers to react to harmful practices against children, and especially girls
Guinea	• Implement an alert mechanism and strengthen penalties provided by law for illegal behavior against girls
DRC	• Raise awareness in order to prevent violence against girls and women (media, meetings)
Kenya	• Develop policies against gender violence • Carry out awareness-raising actions focused on coping with violence
Mali	• Train teachers, mobilizers/facilitators, service officers at central and decentralized levels, as well as school management committees, for coping with violence
Puntland (Somalia)	• Strengthen legal instruments for stopping gender violence and child abuse
Sindh (Pakistan)	• Develop and implement policies against women's harassment
Zimbabwe	• Conduct research on violence at schools, focusing on corporal punishment • Develop programs adapted to children on abuse and violence prevention

Source: GPE Secretariat's compilation

Three countries include the fight against school violence in their ESPs, without listing this activity in action plans and inversely, two countries propose activities against violence in their action plans, with no reference to them in their ESPs.

For GPE-funded programs, specific activities to be implemented to combat school violence are as follows:

[53] "Not specified" means the fight against violence is included in ESPs or action plans, but no specific action to stop such is specified.

Table 17: Activities against violence in schools in GPE-funded programs

Jigawa and Kaduna (Nigeria)[54]	Raise awareness about violence and security issues among education stakeholders Develop a training module on school gender-based violence aimed at management committees
Togo	Develop a training module on school gender-based violence aimed at management committees

Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

Table 18: Countries that have included fight against violence in schools in the ESPs but not in the action plans, or vice versa

The fight against school violence was included in the ESP but not in the action plan	Afghanistan Burundi* Eritrea
The fight against school violence was planned for in the AP but not included in the ESP	Benin Ethiopia

*The action plan does not cover the same period as the ESP.
Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

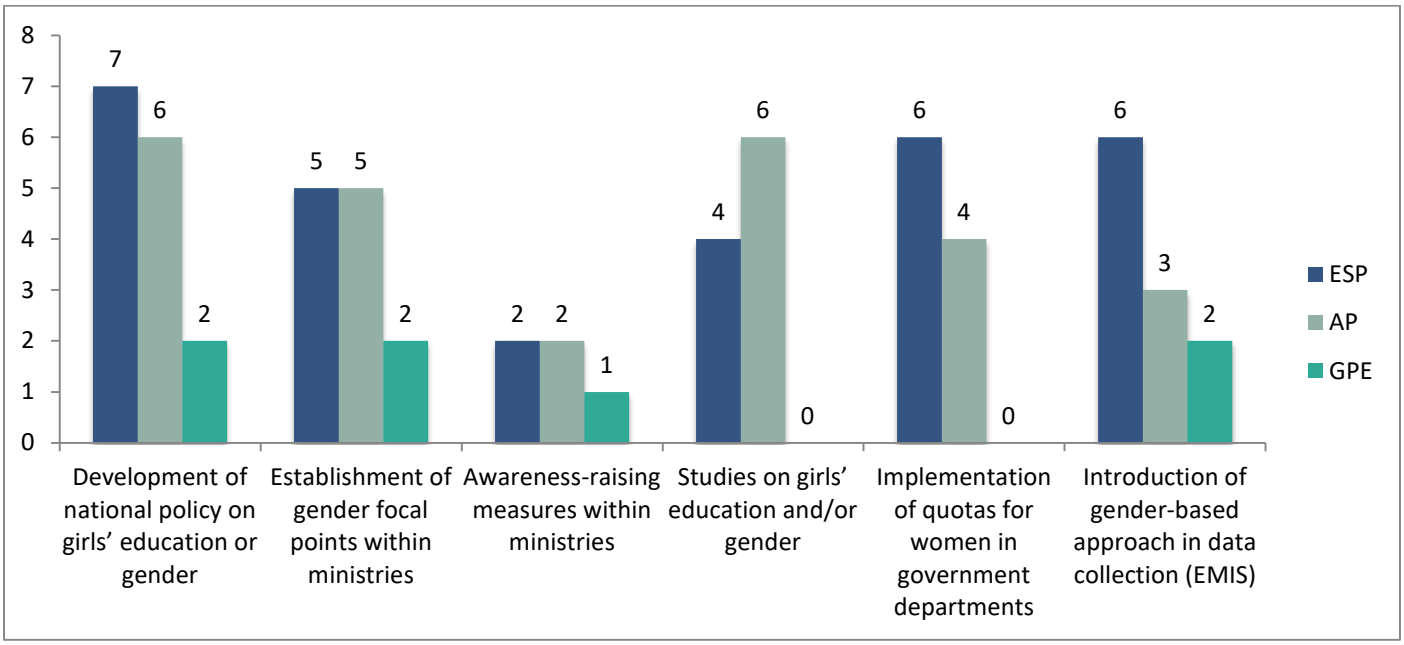
For Sierra Leone, Sudan, and South Sudan, violence was identified as a barrier to girls' education but no specific measures were proposed in the ESPs, action plans or GPE-funded programs.

4.2.4 Other strategies to promote girls' education

Countries also develop strategies to promote girls' education which are difficult to categorize in terms of supply, demand and environment. These are essentially strategies related to institutional and political measures.

Graph 20: Other strategies developed in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs

[54] The grant application is the same for these two states in Nigeria.



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Development of national policies to promote girls' education

A number of countries have already developed national policy documents on girls' education or gender in education. Other countries plan to newly develop these specific national policies in their ESPs.

Table 19: National policies on girls' education or gender in education mentioned in ESPs

Countries [55] with a specific strategy for girls' education or a national gender strategy	Burkina Faso, Eritrea, Kenya, Moldova, Mozambique, Niger, Senegal, Somaliland (Somalia), Uganda. **(9 countries/states)**
Countries with a plan for the development of a specific strategy in favor of girls' education, or a national gender strategy	Benin, Chad, the DRC, Jigawa (Nigeria)[56], Sindh (Pakistan), Puntland (Somalia), South Central Somalia, South Sudan, **(8 countries/states)**

Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

National policies on girls' education or gender in education provide a major policy framework for activities to be implemented to reduce disparities between girls and boys. They are also an important advocacy tool for funding research, particularly among development partners. These strategies, when developed prior to the ESPs, should contribute to them and be included in action plans which provide a reference framework for interventions of education ministries and development partners. **Out of the ESPs analyzed, eight countries propose the development of such policies.**

Establishment of gender focal points in education ministries

[55] Other countries considered in the analysis may have national policies (or policy documents) in favor of girls' participation in education, but were not referred to in the ESPs. The additional documentary analysis of 10 countries has revealed that this is the case of Guinea, Nepal, Niger, and Jigawa (Nigeria), for example.

[56] Regarding Jigawa (Nigeria), the objective is to support the completion and implementation of the State's policy on free education for girls, children with disabilities and other vulnerable children.

Appointing gender focal points in the ministries, either at the central or decentralized level, theoretically results from the will to ensure issues related to girls' education are taken into account in central and sometimes decentralized education structures, and to improve coordination of related gender activities. However, studies conducted by UNICEF in West Africa[57] have shown that these gender focal points frequently lack the financial and material resources to fulfill the responsibilities assigned to them. Out of the seven ESPs proposing gender focal points as a strategy (Afghanistan, Ethiopia, Jigawa (Nigeria), Kaduna (Nigeria), Sindh (Pakistan), Puntland (Somalia), and Somaliland (Somalia)), only Puntland's action plan planned a budget of US$2,000 per month to operate the unit. Ethiopia's action plan also proposes the strengthening of the capacity of focal points in education boards to coordinate and monitor efforts on girls' education through provision of personnel, budget, and necessary equipment, but budget is not assigned.

Role of decentralized structures

Many countries are becoming increasingly engaged in the process of decentralization, and in every country, there are decentralized education structures which theoretically play an important role in monitoring schools and teachers, hence in improving school quality. However, out of all the ESPs analyzed, only two countries (Afghanistan and Eritrea) have emphasized the role of decentralized structures in improving girls' participation in education, particularly through the development of gender-sensitive action plans at the regional level.

4.3. Summary of girls' education strategies in GPE-funded programs

Information on strategies or activities related to girls' education and gender equality in GPE-funded programs was reviewed in previous sections, along with information on sector plans and action plans. Table 20 summarizes information on strategies concerning girls' education and gender equality in GPE-funded programs and the gender parity situation in primary education. As a reminder, it should be noted that GPE grant applications are formulated by member countries depending on their priorities, and often focus on strategies or activities in ESPs which receive no funding, whether from government or donors. Therefore, the fact that countries do not include girls' education and gender in their GPE-funded programs does not necessarily mean they do not implement these activities. For this reason, there is no clear connection in GPE programs between the funding of specific strategies for girls' education and the level of gender disparity in countries.

Out of 42 GPE programs analyzed, 15 do not finance strategies for girls' participation in education, as illustrated in Table 20. Most of these countries have achieved gender parity in terms of access to primary and secondary school. For other countries, the funded strategies are related as much to access as to supply, including school environment. Six countries have rather included, in their GPE funded programs, strategies of an institutional nature with the development of national policy on girls' education and gender parity (Chad, DRC); the establishment of gender focal points in ministries (Jigawa and Kaduna (Nigeria)); the introduction of a gender-based approach in statistical data collection (Sindh (Pakistan) and Sudan).

Table 20: Strategies related to girls' education in GPE-funded programs and gender parity situation in primary education

	Gender Parity Index in primary education GER above 0.95	Gender Parity Index in primary education	Gender Parity Index in primary education GER below 0.8

[57] Source: UNICEF WCARO, 2014, institutional and political barriers in eight countries of West Africa: Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Congo, Senegal and Togo.

		GER between 0.85 and 0.95	
No strategy related to girls in GPE-funded programs	Cambodia, Guyana, Kenya, Lao PDR, Madagascar, Moldova, Nicaragua, Senegal, Vietnam, Zimbabwe	Comoros, Haiti	CAR, Puntland (Somalia)
Strategies solely related to access		Benin, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Ethiopia	Baluchistan (Pakistan), Somaliland (Somalia), South Central Somalia, Chad
Strategies related only to supply (including school environment)	Sierra Leone	DRC, Sudan	South Sudan
Strategies related to both demand and supply (including school environment)	Burkina Faso, Uganda	Guinea, Mali, Niger, Kaduna (Nigeria), Togo Yemen	Afghanistan, Jigawa (Nigeria)

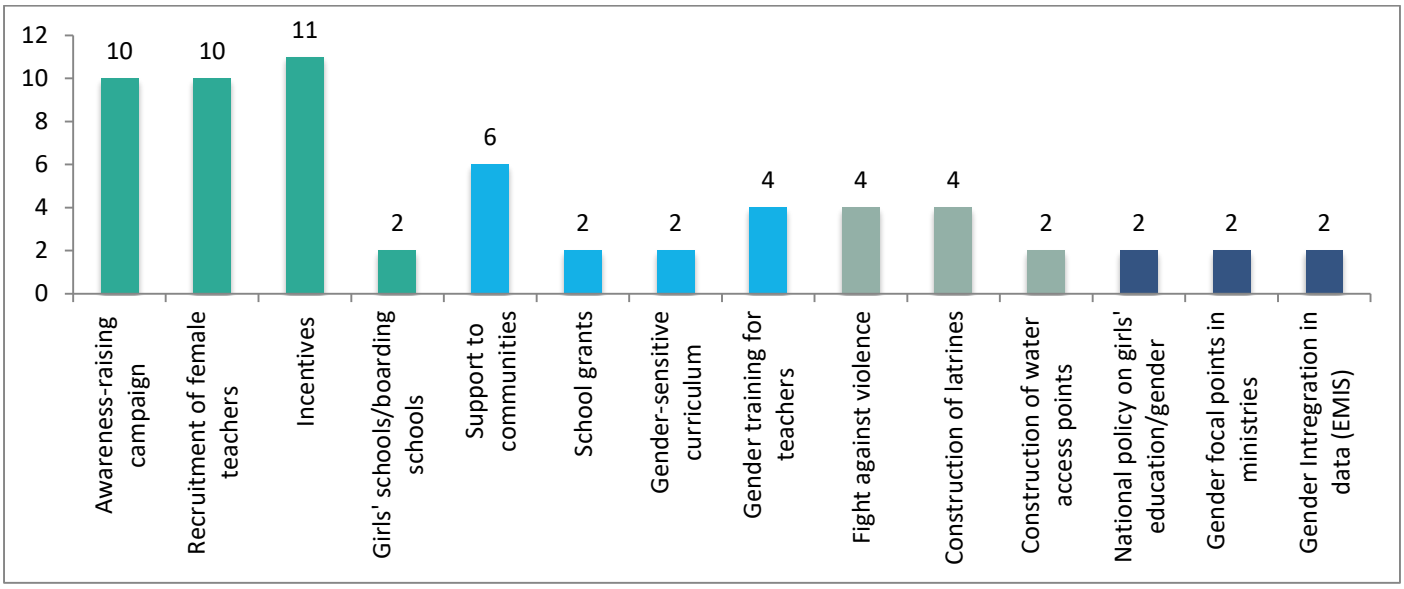
N.B: GPE funding for Burundi, Mozambique and Nepal is used directly to implement sector plans through pooled funds. Thus, there is no separate program.

Source: UIS, 2013 for GPI. GPE Secretariat's own analysis for the strategies.

Graph 21 summarizes different types of GPE-funded strategies which were chosen by countries in collaboration with Supervising/Managing Entities (currently called Grant Agents). Country-specific details reveal that some countries use a combination of strategies. Afghanistan, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Guinea, Jigawa (Nigeria), Kaduna (Nigeria), and Togo combine at least four strategies.
Moreover, the vast majority is used to improve access, including incentives (see Graph 27), awareness-raising campaigns, and female teacher recruitment. Strategies for improving educational supply for girls are quite diverse, but many countries use GPE funding for capacity-building on management for communities or school management committees, particularly when grants are provided to schools either from the state budget or from external sources.

Regarding the construction of separate latrines and water points, cautious analysis is advised of Graph 27, since this activity may not be clearly listed in the school construction program funded by the GPE.

Graph 21: Strategies related to girls' education and gender in GPE-funded programs (primary and secondary)



Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

Incentive measures

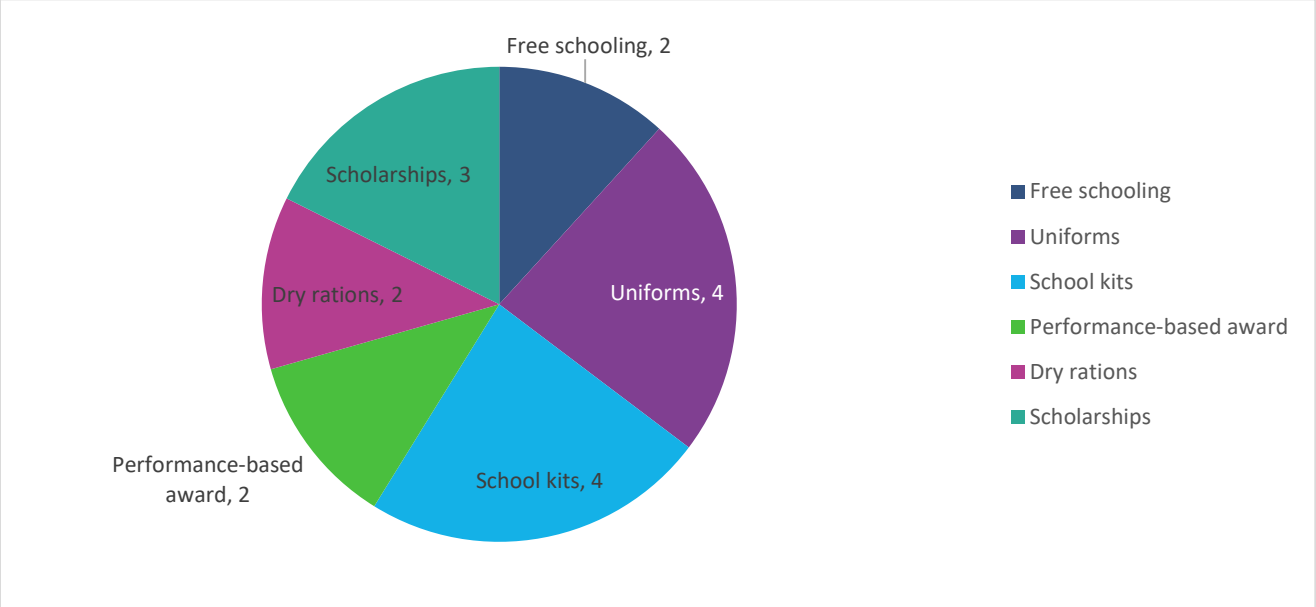
Table 21 shows that the incentives developed in GPE-funded programs are mainly target the primary education level. Purchase of uniforms and school kits are the most commonly funded measures (see Graph 22). In Yemen, school kits are included in the GPE grant application, but neither in the ESP nor in the action plan.

Table 21: Incentives proposed in GPE-funded programs

Type of measure	Countries/states	Primary education	Secondary education
Free schooling	Burkina	X Payment of fees to parent associations for girls in Grade 1	-
	Sierra Leone		X
Uniforms	Benin	X (Grades 1 and 2)	-
	Chad	X	-
	Mali	X	-
	Togo	X	-
School kits	Benin	X (Grades 1 and 2)	-
	Yemen	X	-
	Chad	X	-
	Mali	X	-
Performance-based awards/incentives	Niger	-	X
	Côte d'Ivoire	-	X
Dry rations	Chad	X (Grades 5 and 6)	-
Scholarships	Niger	X	X
	Jigawa (Nigeria)	X	-
	Kaduna (Nigeria)	X	-

Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

Graph 22: Types of incentive measures in GPE-funded programs (primary and secondary education combined)



Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

5. Monitoring indicators

The identification of monitoring indicators is essential to assess the progress made in reducing gender disparities and improving girls' participation in education. The indicators/results framework is an integral component of the ESP. In this regard, the current section analyzes whether ESPs have introduced gender-disaggregated monitoring indicators or other outcome indicators in their monitoring and evaluation framework for measuring progress.

Out of the 42 ESPs analyzed, 13 (31%) did not include gender-disaggregated indicators for primary education in the ESP monitoring and evaluation framework. For secondary education, four other countries should be added: Chad, the DRC, South Central Somalia, and Sudan, where disparities are high.

Table 22: Countries where ESPs do not specify gender-disaggregated monitoring indicators

Gender parity in access to, and completion of primary school	Gender parity in completion of primary school, but not in access	Gender parity not reached in access to and completion of primary school
Burundi, Guyana, Lao PDR, Madagascar, Moldova, Nicaragua, Uganda, Uzbekistan, Vietnam	Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Haiti	Eritrea

Source: UIS 2013 for status of gender parity, GPE Secretariat's own compilation for status of indicators

The lack of monitoring indicators in the ESP monitoring and evaluation framework illustrates a significant weakness at the ESP level, particularly for countries with low Gender Parity Indices, such as Eritrea, where the index for Primary GER is 0.81.[58] **Essentially, the lack of gender-disaggregated indicators limits the monitoring of progress and may limit political dialogue surrounding issues related to girls' education,** to the extent that this issue is less likely to be addressed in sector reviews if it is not included in the ESP monitoring and evaluation framework.

The gender-disaggregated monitoring indicators for primary education vary greatly, and their number ranges from one to five. Table 23 lists the indicators most frequently mentioned by countries.

[58] National data for Mali and Eritrea.

Table 23: Gender-disaggregated indicators for primary education in ESP M&E framework by country

Indicators	Countries which list indicators in the M&E framework	Number of countries
Gender Parity Index	CAR, DRC, Guinea, Nepal, Jigawa (Nigeria), Balochistan (Pakistan), Sindh (Pakistan), Senegal, Somaliland (Somalia), South Sudan, Sudan, Togo	12
Gross or Net Intake Rate - Girls	Comoros, DRC, Ethiopia, Guinea, Kenya, Nepal, Niger,	7
Gross or Net Enrollment rate - Girls	Chad, Comoros, Guinea, Mozambique, Niger, Sierra Leone, Togo, Yemen	8
Completion rate - girls	Cameroon, Comoros, DRC, Ethiopia, Guinea, Kenya, Mozambique, Niger, Sierra Leone, Chad, Zimbabwe	11
% or number of girls	Afghanistan, Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Mali, Kaduna (Nigeria), Puntland (Somalia), South Central Somalia	6
% or number of female teachers	Afghanistan, Ethiopia, Kenya, Nepal, Jigawa (Nigeria), Sindh (Pakistan), Puntland (Somalia), South Central Somalia, South Sudan	9

Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

In total, nine countries combine within their ESP monitoring and evaluation framework gender-disaggregated indicators allowing for the measurement of progress in both access and completion in primary education (in red in Table 23). This number is relatively small compared to the fact that the majority of countries analyzed have room for improvement, both in terms of access and completion. Therefore, for countries who are yet to achieve gender parity at the GIR and PCR levels, Table 24 proposes improvements which could be made in their ESP M&E framework. The table similarly lists the countries developing strategies to increase the number of female teachers without fixing a monitoring indicator.

Table 24: Countries whose M&E framework may be strengthened to better measure progress in access and completion in primary education

Indicators related to:	**Countries with no gender-disaggregated indicators**
Access	Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Mali
Completion	Afghanistan, Benin, CAR, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Mali, South Sudan, Sudan, Togo, Yemen
Female teachers	Benin, the DRC, Eritrea, Lao PDR, Mali, Niger, Uganda

Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

In secondary education, M&E indicators included in various sector plans focus mainly on the transition rate from primary to secondary education and on access, as illustrated in Table 25.

Table 25: Gender-disaggregated indicators for secondary education in ESP M&E framework by country

Indicators	Countries that list indicators in the M&E framework	Number of countries
Gender Parity Index	Cameroon, Nepal, Jigawa (Nigeria), Balochistan (Pakistan), Sindh (Pakistan), Senegal, Somaliland (Somalia), South Sudan, Togo, Zimbabwe	10
Gross or Net Intake Rate – Girls	Ethiopia, Niger, Yemen	3

Gross or Net Enrolment Rate – Girls	Ethiopia, Niger, Yemen	4
Completion Rate - Girls	Ethiopia, Niger, Zimbabwe	3
% or number of girls	Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Kenya, Kaduna (Nigeria), Puntland (Somalia)	5
Transition rate to secondary level	Comoros, Kenya, Jigawa (Nigeria), Senegal, Zimbabwe	5
Female teachers	Jigawa (Nigeria), Kaduna (Nigeria), Puntland (Somalia)	3

Source: GPE Secretariat's own compilation

Along with M&E indicators, 14 countries have developed frameworks for the monitoring of intermediate outcomes, taking into account the objectives for each activity. These are Afghanistan, the DRC, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Lao PDR, Nepal, Nicaragua, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Puntland (Somalia), Somaliland (Somalia), South Central Somalia, South Sudan, and Togo.

At the level of GPE-funded programs, included indicators are essentially outcome indicators which depend on specific activities implemented in order to increase girls' participation and retention in education and reduce gender disparities.

6. Are ESPs gender-sensitive?

Are ESPs gender-sensitive? To answer this question, three criteria have been emphasized in the analysis:

(1) Availability of gender-disaggregated statistical data
(2) Analysis of barriers to girls' education
(3) Implementation of specific strategies for girls' education, including "gender mainstreaming" strategies

As previously stated, the intention is not to assess the proposed strategies' adequacy or effectiveness to address barriers to girls' education, but to analyze how ESPs analyze or present issues related to girls' education or gender. This allows for an overview of ESPs' gender-sensitivity.

Moreover, the notion of "gender-sensitive" ESP should be interpreted rather conservatively here since the extent to which gender is considered varies significantly from one country to the other. The three selected criteria are limited to "yes / no / weak" as a response, without including more details or more detailed grading scales (see Annex 5). Therefore, the response to these three criteria is rather simplistic and can be quite reductive. Indeed, the analysis of the 42 ESPs and action plans reveal a considerable diversity of responses, and sometimes, lack of clarity in structuring issues related to girls' education. For example:

i. An ESP may have one or two very condensed paragraphs listing a series of barriers to girls' education, but without any thorough analysis also using statistical data; this is especially the case when there have already been several analyses (or a sector analysis document such as the CSR) and studies on gender disparities in the education system.

ii. An ESP may identify various barriers to girls' education, but only offer a single measure to improve this situation. This is the case for Chad and Yemen, where identified strategies are rather limited in comparison to (i) disparities evidenced by indicators, and (ii) identified barriers to girls' education.

iii. An ESP may cite statistics, but very few are gender-disaggregated. Thus, when an ESP provides only one gender-disaggregated indicator,[59] it is considered that data availability is weak.

[59] Teacher-related indicators are excluded.

For the purpose of this analysis, ESPs have been categorized according to the following criteria:

- Two or three criteria met: Gender-sensitive
- One criterion met: Low gender-sensitivity
- No criteria met: Not gender-sensitive

Therefore, within the framework of this exercise, even if an ESP includes many measures to promote girls' education, if it lacks gender-disaggregated data or analysis of barriers, it would be considered as having "low gender-sensitivity". Indeed, most countries classified as such in Table 28 propose a number of activities to benefit girls. Conversely, some countries with only one specific measure in the ESP may be categorized as "sensitive to gender".

Table 26: ESPs sensitive to gender or girls' education

	Primary GER Gender Parity Index above 0.95	Primary GER Gender Parity Index between 0.80 and 0.95	Primary GER Gender Parity Index below 0.80
Gender-sensitive ESP	Burkina Faso Burundi Cambodia Kenya Lao PDR Senegal Sierra Leone Vietnam Zimbabwe	Benin DRC Eritrea Ethiopia Guinea Mali Mozambique Niger Kaduna (Nigeria) Sudan	Afghanistan Jigawa (Nigeria) Balochistan (Pakistan) Sindh (Pakistan) Puntland (Somalia) South Sudan
ESP with low gender sensitivity	Nepal Uganda	Cameroon Côte d'Ivoire Togo Yemen	Somaliland (Somalia) South Central Somalia
ESP not gender sensitive	Guyana Madagascar Moldova Nicaragua Uzbekistan	Comoros Haiti	CAR Chad

Source: UIS data, 2013 for GPIs of GERs and ESPs compiled by the GPE Secretariat

In total, 25 out of 42 ESPs (60%) are gender-sensitive. It is encouraging to observe that out of 10 countries with high gender disparities (GPI in Primary GER below 0.8), six have developed gender-sensitive ESPs.

For those countries with Gender Parity Indices in Primary GER below 0.8, the following explanation allow for a better understanding of their categorization. In two federal states of Somalia having ESPs with low gender-sensitivity (Somaliland and South Central), gender-disaggregated indicators are limited (just one indicator), and barriers to girls' education are barely mentioned or not mentioned at all. However, they do propose a number of activities to promote girls' education. CAR's ESP does not provide any information regarding barriers to girls' schooling, and no specific activity has been developed. While Chad has important gender disparities in access, retention and completion, its ESP only includes one activity (provision of school kits for girls) without indicating barriers to girls' education. For these countries, special efforts must be made in the development of future ESPs, so as to further analyze issues related to improving girls' education.

Out of eight ESPs which are not gender-sensitive, five countries have reached the level of gender parity or quasi parity for their GER in primary and lower secondary education. This situation may be whey their plans do not consider gender, although a detailed analysis would be useful to ensure that there are no disparities at the regional level or among specific population groups.

7. Findings from detailed country analyses

Detailed analyses of 10 countries/states (Afghanistan, Benin, DRC, Guinea, Lao PDR, Nepal, Niger, Jigawa (Nigeria), South Sudan, Yemen),[60] helped to point out the importance of existing literature on issues related to girls' education and gender. These documents often contribute to strengthening sector plans and shows information availability on the issue, even when ESPs do not contain them. This finding is true for all countries, even if they are at different gender parity levels, as shown in Table 27.

Table 27: Gender Parity Index in GER for the 10 countries analyzed

	GER Gender Parity Index - primary education	GER Gender Parity Index - secondary education
Afghanistan	0.70	0.57
Benin	0.90	0.73
DRC	0.87	0.66
Guinea	0.84	0.64
Lao PDR	0.95	0.90
Nepal	1.08	1.08
Niger	0.84	0.68
Nigeria, Jigawa	0.71*	n.a.
South Sudan	0.66	0.55
Yemen	0.84	0.70

Sources: UIS data, 2013; *National data

Statistical data availability

Information is often available in national education statistical yearbooks, but is sometimes underutilized, especially at secondary education and regional levels.

For countries who have reached (or have almost reached) gender parity, ESPs tend to provide less gender-disaggregated data. For example, this is the case for the ESP of Lao PDR.[61] However, identification of gender disparity in some provinces is possible with data from school censuses, such as Phongsaly, where the GPI in primary GER is 0.89. In secondary education, disparities are more salient between provinces with a GPI in GER between 0.70 and 0.75, for parts of Luangprabang, Houphan, Vientiane, and Saravan. An in-depth analysis of this data in ESPs would contribute to better targeting of interventions related to girls' schooling in provinces still experiencing gender disparities.

Similarly, Nepal's ESP[62] provides very little gender-disaggregated data, while statistical yearbooks from the Ministry of Education show that gender disparities persist in some geographical areas, particularly at the secondary level.

Countries' statistical yearbooks also provide information on teachers. In Niger, for example, data on female teachers is available, but is not referred to in the ESP. According to the 2012-2013 Statistical Yearbook, women represent 47% of teachers for basic education cycle I, but they mainly work in urban areas, since 85% of teachers in rural areas are men.

Additional document analyses has also provided information on learning disparities in some countries. The CSR of DRC raises a problem which has not been addressed in the ESP. It relates to gender disparities in learning outcomes

[60] The selection criteria are listed in Chapter 3 on methodology.
[61] Net Enrollment Rate in primary education and gross enrollment rate in secondary education.
[62] Source: School Sector Reform Program/Sector Wide Approach Extension Plan 2014/15-2015/16. Kathmandu: Ministry of Education. http://www.globalpartnership.org/content/school-sector-reform-plan-extension-2014-2016-nepal

in primary school, where "*learning differences can also be observed between boys and girls, to the detriment of girls in primary school, which deserves further investigation and close monitoring. It should be noted that in primary school, though marginal at the beginning of a cycle, learning gaps widen towards the end, which suggests that the school system tends to reinforce these differences instead of reducing them. There seems to be discriminatory practices, both at home and at school, which should be looked into. The advantage observed among girls at the state exam could be linked to an over-selection of girls, with the best performing ones still in competition at this stage*".[63] A World Bank report[64] summarizes students' examination results at the primary and secondary levels in South Sudan. According to the report, there is no serious gender disparity at the national level in primary school, but significant differences appear in certain states. At the secondary level, girls are generally less successful than boys at exams. In this regard, one may recall the finding from Chapter 4 that only three of the 42 ESPs refer to girls' and boys' learning outcomes as a barrier to girls' education.

Additional analyses on barriers to girls' education

The analyses of barriers to girls' education in ESPs (Chapter 4, section 3) has shown that the depth of analysis in the ESP varies, while the information is most often available owing to various research and studies on the topic.

Out of the 10 countries considered in the in-depth analysis, five countries (Afghanistan, the DRC, Guinea, Niger, and South Sudan) provide detailed information on the barriers to girls' schooling in their ESPs, and the reviewed documents confirm and reinforce the ESP analysis. This is of little surprise insofar as the ESP is based on all the studies and research which have been conducted on education. In Afghanistan, for example, the Education Sector Analysis[65] clearly shows the close correlation between the number of girls enrolled in schools and the number of female teachers, and highlights the great difficulty for the Ministry to recruit more female teachers due to the shortage of female graduates, which is related to the history of low girls' school enrollment. This problem is particularly acute in remote areas and in secondary schools.

A report from the Ministry of Social Action and the Advancement of Women and Children in Guinea[66] stresses the high prevalence rate of marriage of girls under 18 years of age, particularly in some regions, such as Upper Guinea (76%), Middle Guinea (75%), Forest Guinea (75%), Lower Guinea (61%), and Conakry (39%). The National Gender Policy[67] highlights the differential treatment of girls and boys in relation to domestic chores which are the responsibility of girls and hinder their chances to attend school.

In Niger, the national policy for girls' participation in education and training[68] provides additional information on the barriers to girls' education around educational supply and school environment, including the issues of school violence and discriminatory attitudes towards girls. These barriers are not addressed in the ESP and deserve special attention since specific measures could be adopted to overcome them.

[63] Source: Democratic Republic of Congo. 2014. Education Country Status Report. Executive Summary.
[64] Source: World Bank. 2012. Education in the Republic of South Sudan: Status and Challenges for a New System. Africa Human Development Series. http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/2012/01/16439140/education-republic-south-sudan-status-challenges-new-system (Refer to Chapter 5 - student learning and service delivery - for further details).
[65] Source: Adam Smith International. 2010. Education Sector Analysis Afghanistan: Final Draft. Kabul: Ministry of Education. http://learningportal.iiep.unesco.org/fr/notice/030340
[66] Source: Ministry of Social Action and the Advancement of Women and Children. 2013. National Report on the Elimination and Prevention of Violence against Women and Girls. http://www.gn.undp.org/content/dam/guinea/docs/whatwedo/women-empowerment/rapport-national-vbg-2013.pdf
[67] Source: Ministry of Social Action and the Advancement of Women and Children. 2011. National Gender Policy. http://www.gn.undp.org/content/dam/guinea/docs/whatwedo/women-empowerment/politique-nationale-genre-2011.pdf
[68] Source: D. G. Houinsa. 2011. National Policy on Education and Training of Girls in Niger 2012-2020. Niamey: Ministry of Education and Training.

DRC's ESP mentions several barriers to girls' education without mentioning the problem of sexual violence in schools, while a gender country profile from 2014[69] points this issue out, and especially the fact that some teachers sexually blackmail young girls in exchange for success in examinations.

Among the five other countries (Benin, Jigawa (Nigeria), Lao PDR, Nepal and Yemen), where the analysis of barriers to girls' education is poorly developed in the ESP, it should be noted that external literature exists and contributes to the understanding of the nature of these barriers. This highlights a relative variability in the content and the organization of ESPs among countries; those who include numerous data and analyses on barriers to girls' education in the plan itself, and those whose analyses exist mostly outside of their ESPs.

Implementation of strategies for girl's education

Data availability regarding the implementation of strategies for girls' participation in education varies greatly by country.

For DRC, the implementation report of the Interim Education Plan (2012-2014) highlights the fact that several measures set to promote girls' education had not been implemented at the time of the August 2014 review. However, the report does not give any reason as to why.

For Guinea, the ESP is too recent (2015-2017) to assess measures for girls' education. Importantly, many documents refer to the development of a national policy for girls' participation in education in 2014, and the establishment of gender focal points in all line ministries. The ESP, however, does not mention this national policy, nor does it make any reference to the existence of these focal points.

In Afghanistan, the Ministry of Education has introduced several incentives to attract female teachers to rural areas; according to the 2012 joint sector review, however, this strategy has not seemed to bear fruit, as women are reluctant to teach in rural areas because of a lack of appropriate facilities and incentives. Consequently, there are still no female teachers in approximately 80 districts, and in most districts, women are not qualified, especially when it comes to teaching secondary education classes.[70]

In Niger, the existence of decentralized focal points for girls' education is not mentioned in the ESP, while such structures can play an important role in promoting girls' education, in that they are closer to communities and can encourage the undertaking of activities which respond more to the local context. The sector plan 2014-24 indicates that, "*the policies aiming to improve school attendance among girls are part of a national policy in the process of being adopted*".[71] Given that this national policy was actually developed earlier, in 2011-2012, it is surprising that the 2014-2024 ESP does not make any further reference to it.

In Benin, a midterm evaluation of the ESP was conducted in 2012[72], which provided some information on the development of strategies for girls' education. According to the evaluation report, it is difficult to assess the respective contribution of each of these strategies to the positive results obtained. Some of them, like the introduction of a quota system for the female recruitment had not been implemented, while others, such as the application of legal provisions against sexual harassment, which has been subject to active awareness-raising campaigns, cannot be easily assessed

[69] Source: L. Davis, P. Fabbri, I. Alphonse. 2014. Democratic Republic of Congo – DRC: Gender Country Profile 2014. Commissioned by the Swedish Embassy in collaboration with DFID, the European Union Delegation and the Embassy of Canada, in Kinshasa. http://www.swedenabroad.com/ImageVaultFiles/id_22003/cf_347/Gender_Country_Profile.PDF

[70] Source: Ministry of Education. 2013. Education Joint Sector Review 2012: Ministry of Education's Report.

[71] Source: Ministry of Education. 2013. Sector Program on Education and Training 2014-2024: Strategy Document.

[72] Source: Danida, AFD, and Benin Ministry for the Development of Economic Analysis and Planning. 2012. Mid-Term Evaluation of the 10-year Education Sector Plan of Benin (PDDSE 2006-2015), Joint Evaluation. http://www.afd.fr/webdav/site/afd/shared/PUBLICATIONS/RECHERCHE/Evaluations/Evaluations-conjointes/Evaluation%20conjointe%20Education%20Benin%20Rapport%20principal.pdf

with respect to their effects. Generally speaking, the persons interviewed during the evaluation process agreed that the most effective strategies were measures aimed at reducing costs for households (free education in particular), and ongoing advocacy and awareness-raising activities. For instance, the success of the pilot experiment of registration fee exemption for girls in lower general secondary education, carried out in the Zou Department (area), has been a springboard for extending the exemption to all girls enrolled in Grades 7 and 8. Moreover, the report cites a 2008 evaluation of the core education package, which already revealed two major weaknesses in actions aimed at accelerating girls' education, namely: (I) lack of ownership by core stakeholders in these actions, which threatens their sustainability, and (ii) lack of consistency and synergy in local interventions, which limits their effectiveness and efficiency.

In Nepal, the three major strategies established for girls' schooling are (i) scholarships, (ii) separate toilet facilities for girls and boys, and (iii) systematic development of gender mainstreaming in national policies.[73] These three strategies have been a continuum for several years, which has really contributed to reducing gender disparities.

In general, joint sector reviews, including annual reports and sector plan evaluations, enables to draw some lessons on strategies for girls' education. However, there appears to be no systematic evaluation of specific strategies for girls' education. This is a weakness, when it comes to better identifying strategies to be pursued or adjusting ongoing measures.

IV. Conclusion and recommendations

It is internationally recognized that the low participation of girls in education systems is one of the main barriers to the economic and social development of a country. Considerable progress has been made since the 2000 Dakar World Education Forum, particularly in access to primary education. However, access to primary education is not enough; today, issues of girls' education is increasingly shifting from access to retention in education, and the possibilities of transitioning to secondary education. Creating the conditions needed for all students to receive quality education in a safe environment is a major challenge for any government.

The presentation of gender-disaggregated data is highly uneven across ESPs, and there is no systematic detailing of indicators for access, retention or completion. Moreover, few ESPs present a breakdown of data by region and gender, which limits the targeting of interventions in the areas most behind in terms of girls' schooling and gender parity. The additional literature analyses conducted on 10 countries has also revealed that gender-disaggregated statistics exist, but have been underutilized in sector plans. Furthermore, one of the weaknesses of ESPs as regards data consists in the near absence of analyses on learning outcomes, though information does exist for example through PASEC or SACMEQ, and also through data on national examination results.

The quality of the analyses of barriers to girls' education varies substantially from one country to another, at least in the ESPs. There is a general weakness in the plans regarding causal analysis, which may question the relevance of strategies or activities proposed, which are often based on insufficient information. Analysis is often summarized in a few compact paragraphs in which several barriers are discussed, but are not deepened by analyzing different education levels (e.g. primary and secondary) and the types of disparity (access, retention, completion). In addition, analyses are insufficiently supported by economic, social and geographical factors that may be concealed behind identified barriers.

The strategies provided in ESPs to reduce gender disparities and improve girls' education reveal the diversity of actions planned according to the national and local contexts. These strategies display the complexity of issues affecting girls' participation in education. The countries' multiple interventions and cumulated experience demonstrate that there is no simple solution, and that for interventions to be efficient, they must increasingly address several interrelated problems in a simultaneous way, both in terms of demand and of supply or school environment. For this reason, 27

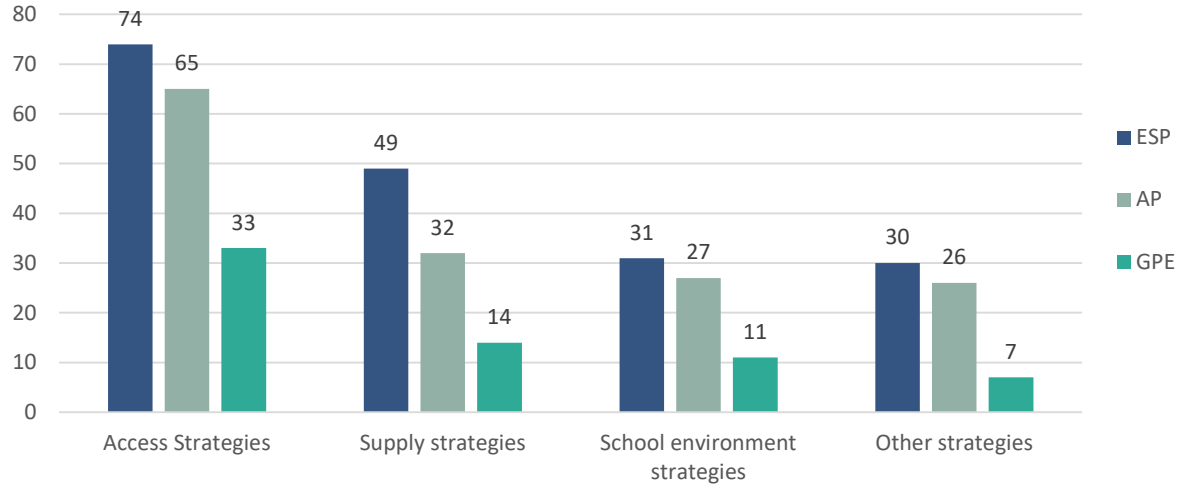
[73] Source: School Sector Reform Program/Sector Wide Approach Extension Plan 2014/15-2015/16.
Ministry of Education. 2014. Annual Strategies Implementation Plan and Annual Work Plan and Budget 2014-15.

ESPs out of 42 have defined combined actions for both educational supply and demand. Burundi and Zimbabwe have been implementing demand-oriented strategies. Chad, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Kaduna (Nigeria) and Yemen have been implementing strategies oriented solely on supply.

Graph 23 summarizes the diversity of strategies set out in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs. Most strategies focus on the demand side. However, there should be no oversight of the fact that a poor quality school or an insecure school environment may deter parents - and students - from attending school or pursuing further education. **General strategies on education provision and the improvement of school environment benefit both girls and boys, but the links between these strategies and the improvement of girls' education is insufficiently recognized in ESPs.**

Out of the 42 ESPs analyzed, eight have not developed any strategy for girls' education (including gender integration strategies or "gender mainstreaming"). These include the CAR, Guyana, Haiti, Madagascar, Moldova, Nicaragua, Vietnam, and Uzbekistan. Out of these eight countries, only CAR has not achieved gender parity, whether in terms of access, retention or completion, both in primary and secondary education. Regarding Haiti, its state of disparity is unclear due to the lack of data. Increased data availability would thus help strengthen analysis. Although parity exists at the national level, Madagascar needs to improve access in general, since its GIR for secondary education remains low (below 40%). Ultimately, there is no clear link between national gender parity achievement and the inclusion of gender and girls' education in ESPs, since a few countries which have reached national gender parity are planning specific strategies for girls, as shown in Table 9.

Graph 23: Types of girls' education or gender in education strategies planned in ESPs, action plans and GPE-funded programs



* Other strategies: mainly related to institutional strategies
Source: GPE Secretariat's own analysis

The transition from analysis to action is often made in a context of constrained financial resources. Countries obviously have different priorities for each of the issues identified in the education system. The choice of a particular policy for girls' education must then be made on the basis of its cost-effectiveness. Given the limited budget for activities on girls' education, one may legitimately wonder whether these costs (and therefore these activities) have really been taken into account in the calculation of financial requirements to achieve the objectives set out in the ESPs. On the other hand, some activities included in ESPs are not reflected in the action plans. Monitoring efforts in the development of action plans should thus be made in order to ensure that specific interventions for girls' education in ESPs are truly implemented.

Recommendations

It should be noted that the UNGEI/GPE guide on developing gender-responsive education sector plans, which should be available in 2017, will be a tool for correcting the weaknesses flagged in the analysis of the 42 ESPs and action plans. Its use by countries for the development of ESPs should contribute to filling these gaps.

Recommendations from this report are two-fold: (i) general recommendations and (ii) specific recommendations for each country.

1. General recommendations

(i) **Improve inclusion of statistical data disaggregated by gender and education level (both primary and secondary) in ESPs to better identify gender disparities:**
- indicators on intake, retention and completion
- data on learning outcomes or national exams
- data on the percentage of female teachers
- data per region where gender disparities are more pronounced and where girls' (or boys') participation in education lags furthest behind.

(ii) **Include and categorize analyses on barriers to girls' education** according to:
- disparities in access, retention or completion
- education levels
- regional disparities.

(iii) **Further analyze socio-cultural barriers to girls' education and the impact of early marriage on girls' education.**

(iv) **Better structure interventions for girls' education** according to education levels.

(v) When strategies have already been piloted and assessed, it would be appropriate to make clearer reference to the outcomes achieved (evidence base) in order to justify their implementation. Better reference should be made to past experience and lessons learned.

(vi) **Strengthen the link between developed strategies and identified barriers.**

(vii) **Strengthen the coherence between ESPs and action plans by ensuring the monitorability of each planned intervention for girls' education in the action plans**, especially including information[74] on:
- unit costs
- budgets
- targets and quantities
- stakeholders responsible for implementation.

(viii) **For countries that have not achieved gender parity, be it in primary or in secondary education, monitoring indicators** on the improvement of girls' education and the reduction of disparities should appear clearly in ESP M&E framework in relation to the defined objectives and interventions.

(ix) **For countries that have achieved gender parity at the national level, deepen analyses** through further analysis of gender-disaggregated data with other social variables such as:
- household income levels
- ethnic or religious groups
- language groups.

[74] UNESCO IIEP and GPE. 2015. Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Preparation. http://www.globalpartnership.org/content/guidelines-education-sector-plan-preparation

2. Specific recommendations

(i) On indicators

Improve gender-disaggregated data for primary education in ESPs for countries with high gender disparities	Côte d'Ivoire, Sudan, Haiti
Improve gender-disaggregated data for secondary education in ESPs for countries with high gender disparities	Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Haiti, Mali, Puntland (Somalia), Somaliland (Somalia), South Central Somalia, Sudan, Uganda,
Improve statistical data availability on the percentage of female teachers in ESPs (since such data supports implementation of specific policies)	Benin, Ethiopia, Lao PDR, Mali, Niger

(i) On identified barriers

- Better identify socio-cultural barriers and the types of awareness-raising campaigns targeting them.
- For countries with a high incidence of early marriage, it is important to better link the impact of this practice on girls' education and the measures that education ministries can adopt against this practice.

Countries that do not analyze barriers to girls' education in ESPs while disparities exist, at least in PCR	Cameroon, CAR, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Haiti, Mozambique, Nicaragua, Jigawa (Nigeria) South Central Somalia, Togo

(ii) On strategies, strengthen the analysis of possible links between:

- **the construction of separate latrines and water points and the improvement in girls' schooling.**
  - Distinguish in action plans the construction of separate latrines and water points for new schools and existing schools.
  - Ensure that recurrent expenditures for the operation/maintenance of separate latrines and water points are included in the budget.
- **the role of decentralized entities and the reduction of gender disparities.**
- **the role of school management committees and the reduction of gender disparities**, particularly in the context of development of school improvement plans.

Countries reporting the shortage of female teachers as a barrier to girls' education without corresponding specific activities in ESPs	Kenya Sindh (Pakistan) Niger Yemen

Countries reporting violence as a barrier to girls' education without corresponding specific activities in ESPs	Sierra Leone Sudan South Sudan

(iii) On structuring strategies for girls' education

Countries where issues regarding girls' education should be more fundamentally addressed in sector plans	CAR, Comoros, Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Haiti, Togo

Annex 1: Selected Countries for the study

Countries in red are the countries selected for in-depth analysis.

GPE partner developing countries	*Year joining the GPE*	*ESP period*	*GPE program implementation grant period (most recent at the time of this study)*
Europe and Central Asia			
Uzbekistan	2013	2013-2017	2014-2018
Moldova	2005	2015-2020	2012-2014
South Asia			
Afghanistan	2011	2011-2013	2012-2017
Nepal	2009	2009-2016	2010-2014
Sindh (Pakistan)	2012	2013-2017	2015-2017
Balochistan (Pakistan)	2012	2013-2018	2015-2018
Latin America and the Caribbean			
Guyana	2002	2014-2018	2015-2018
Haiti	2008	2013-2016	2014-2017
Nicaragua	2002	2011-2015	2013-2017
East Asia and Pacific			
Cambodia	2006	2014-2018	2014-2017
Lao PDR	2009	2009-2015	2010-2014
Vietnam	2003	2003-2015	2013-2016
Middle East and North Africa			
Yemen	2003	2013-2015	2014-2019
Sub-Saharan Africa			
Benin	2007	2006-2015	2014-2017
Burkina Faso	2002	2012-2021	2013-2017
Burundi	2012	2012-2020	2016-2018
Cameroon	2006	2013-2020	2014-2018
CAR	2008	2014-2017	2014-2017
Chad	2012	2012-2015	2013-2017
Comoros	2013	2013-2015	2013-2017
Côte d'Ivoire	2010	2012-2014	2012-2017
DRC	2012	2012-2014	2013-2016
Eritrea	2013	2013-2017	2014-2017
Ethiopia	2004	2010-2015	2014-2018
Guinea	2002	2008-2015	2015-2018
Kenya	2005	2013-14 and 2017-18	2015-2019
Madagascar	2005	2013-2015	2013-2017
Mali	2006	2014-2016	2013-2017
Mauritania	2002	2011-2020	2014-2017
Mozambique	2003	2012-2016	2011-2015
Niger	2002	2014-2024	2014-2018
Jigawa (Nigeria)	2012	2013-2022	2015-2019
Kaduna (Nigeria)	2012	2006-2015	2015-2019
Senegal	2006	2013-2025	2013-2017

Sierra Leone	2007	2014-2018	2014-2017
Central South Zone (Somalia)	2012	2013-2016	2013-2017
Puntland (Somalia)	2012	2012-2016	2013-2016
Somaliland (Somalia)	2012	2012-2016	2013-2017
South Sudan	2012	2012-2017	2013-2017
Sudan	2012	2012-2014	2013-2017
Togo	2010	2014-2025	2015-2017
Uganda	2011	2010-2015	2014-2018
Zimbabwe	2013	2011-2015	2014-2016

Annex 2: Data availability in ESPs

Legend:
2: Countries which provided at least two gender-disaggregated indicators (intake, retention and completion)
1: Countries which provided only one gender-disaggregated indicator (intake, retention and completion)
0: Countries which have not provided any gender-disaggregated indicator (intake, retention and completion)

	Available data			
	Primary	**Secondary**	**Female teachers**	**Data by region and gender**
Afghanistan	2	1	Primary only	X
Benin	2	1		
Burkina Faso	2	2	Primary Only	
Burundi	1	1		
Cambodia	2	2		
Cameroon	1	1		
CAR	1	1		
Chad	2	2		
Comoros	1	0		
Côte d'Ivoire	0	0		
DRC	2	1	Primary Only	
Eritrea	2	2	X	
Ethiopia	2	1		
Guinea	2	1		
Guyana	1	1		X
Haiti	0	0	Primary Only	X
Kenya	2	2		
Lao PDR	1	1		X
Madagascar	0	0		
Mali	2	0		
Mozambique	2	2	X	X
Nepal	1	1	X	
Nicaragua	0	0		X
Niger	2	1		
Jigawa (Nigeria)	2	1	X	
Kaduna (Nigeria)	2	2	Secondary Only	
Balochistan (Pakistan)	2	2		
Sindh (Pakistan)	2	2		
Moldova	0	0		
Senegal	2	1		
Sierra Leone	2	1		
Puntland (Somalia)	1	0	Primary Only	
Somaliland (Somalia)	1	0	Primary Only	
Somalia, South Sudan	1	0	Primary Only	
South Sudan	2	2	X	
Sudan	0	0		
Togo	2	2		
Uganda	0	0	Primary Only	
Uzbekistan	0	0		
Vietnam	2	2		
Yemen	2	2		X
Zimbabwe	2	2		X

Annex 3: Barriers to girls' education as mentioned in ESPs

	Demand-related factors							***Supply-related factors***		***School environment-related factors***				***Teacher-related factors***	
	Opportunity costs	Direct costs	Socio-cultural factors	Early marriage	Low level of awareness of the importance of school	Poverty/Malnutrition	Insecurity on the way to /from school	Distance with the schools	Low-quality school	School Violence	Lack of private latrines	Lack of water access points	General degradation of the environment	Lack of female teachers	Inappropriate pedagogical practices
Afghanistan			X	X		X	X	X		X	X			X	X
Benin														X	
Burkina Faso	X			X			X								
Burundi		X		X	X	X				X					X
Cambodia															
Cameroon															
CAR															
Chad															
Comoros					X			X							
Côte d'Ivoire															
DRC	X	X	X	X			X	X			X	X		X	
Eritrea	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X		X			X	X
Ethiopia	X	X	X	X	X			X		X	X			X	X
Guinea			X	X		X			X	X	X				
Guyana															
Haiti															
Kenya			X	X	X					X	X			X	X
Lao PDR	X	X						X							
Madagascar															
Mali		X	X					X					X		
Moldova															
Mozambique															
Nepal															
Nicaragua															
Niger	X		X	X		X								X	
Jigawa (Nigeria)															
Kaduna (Nigeria)	X	X		X				X		X	X	X		X	
Balochistan (Pakistan)		X	X			X		X		X					
Sindh (Pakistan)	X		X	X		X				X	X	X		X	
Senegal	X		X	X									X		X
Sierra Leone	X		X							X	X				
Puntland (Somalia)	X	X	X		X	X					X			X	
Somaliland (Somalia)														X	
Somalia, South Sudan															
South Sudan	X		X	X				X		X	X	X		X	
Sudan			X	X						X	X	X			
Togo															
Uganda			X												
Uzbekistan															
Vietnam	X	X							X		X				
Yemen					X									X	
Zimbabwe	X	X	X	X	X		X			X	X	X			

Annex 4.1: Access strategies

	Awareness-raising campaign			Recruitment of female teachers			Incentive measures for girls			Girls' schools/boarding schools			Support to communities			Islamic schools			Community gender training		
	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE
Afghanistan	X	X	X	X	X	X				X	X					X	X				
Benin		X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X			X						X	
Burkina Faso	X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X									
Burundi																					
Cambodia							X														
Cameroon	X		X				X	X													
CAR																					
Chad							X	X	X												
Comoros							X														
Côte d'Ivoire	X	X	X				X	X	X												
DRC				X	X		X	X													
Eritrea	X		X	X		X					X										
Ethiopia	X	X		X	X	X	X	X		X	X										
Guinea	X	X	X				X	X													
Guyana																					
Haiti																					
Kenya	X							X													
Lao PDR				X	X																
Madagascar										□	□	□									
Mali	X	X		X			X	X	X												
Moldova																					
Mozambique	X						X														
Nepal				X	X		X	X													
Nicaragua																					
Niger	X	X		X	X		X	X	X												
Jigawa (Nigeria)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X										
Kaduna (Nigeria)			X	X	X	X	X	X	X												
Balochistan (Pakistan)	X	X		X		X	X	X		X		X									
Sindh (Pakistan)	X	X		X	X		X	X		X	X										
Senegal	X	X					X														
Sierra Leone	X	X					X	X													
Puntland (Somalia)	X	X		X	X					X	X										
Somaliland (Somalia)	X	X		X		X	X	X													
Somalia, South Sudan	X	X		X	X	X															
South Sudan	X	X		X	X		X	X		X	X										
Sudan	X	X																			
Togo	X	X	X				X	X	X												
Uganda	X			X		X	X														
Uzbekistan																					
Vietnam																					
Yemen					X	X			X												
Zimbabwe																					

Annex 4.2: Supply strategies

	Capacity building of management committees or women's associations			School grants			Gender-sensitive curriculum			Gender training for teachers			Girls' clubs			Support courses for girls		
	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE
Afghanistan			X			X	X	X										
Benin		X																
Burkina Faso	X	X	X							X		X					X	
Burundi	X						X			X								
Cambodia										X	X						X	
Cameroon																		
CAR																		
Chad																		
Comoros																		
Côte d'Ivoire																		
DRC	X	X		X	X		X	X								X	X	
Eritrea	X						X			X								
Ethiopia							X	X		X	X		X	X				
Guinea	X	X					X	X				X						
Guyana																		
Haiti																		
Kenya										X						X		
Lao PDR							X	X		X	X							
Madagascar																		
Mali	X	X	X							X		X					X	
Moldova																		
Mozambique							X											
Nepal																		
Nicaragua																		
Niger			X				X			X	X							
Jigawa (Nigeria)	X		X															
Kaduna (Nigeria)			X															
Balochistan (Pakistan)	X																	
Sindh (Pakistan)							X	X		X	X							
Senegal	X						X			X								
Sierra Leone																		X
Puntland (Somalia)							X	X										
Somaliland (Somalia)							X	X		X	X		X	X				
Somalia, South Sudan							X			X	X							
South Sudan							X	X										
Sudan									X	X	X							
Togo					X	X				X	X							
Uganda				X			X		X	X						X		
Uzbekistan																		
Vietnam																		
Yemen														X				
Zimbabwe							X	X										

Annex 4.3: School environment strategies

	Fight against violence			Construction of private latrines			Construction of water access points		
	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE
Afghanistan	X			X	X		X	X	
Benin		X							
Burkina Faso	X	X	X		X				
Burundi	X			X			X		
Cambodia									
Cameroon	X	X		X	X		X	X	
CAR									
Chad									
Comoros									
Côte d'Ivoire									
DRC	X	X		X	X		X	X	
Eritrea	X			X			X		
Ethiopia		X		X	X				
Guinea	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
Guyana									
Haiti									
Kenya	X	X							
Lao PDR									
Madagascar									
Mali	X	X							
Moldova									
Mozambique									
Nepal				X	X				
Nicaragua									
Niger				X	X	X			
Jigawa (Nigeria)			X						
Kaduna (Nigeria)			X						
Balochistan (Pakistan)									
Sindh (Pakistan)	X	X							
Senegal									
Sierra Leone				X	X				
Puntland (Somalia)	X	X							
Somaliland (Somalia)				X	X				
Somalia, South Sudan									
South Sudan				X	X	X			
Sudan							X	X	X
Togo			X						
Uganda				X		X			
Uzbekistan									
Vietnam									
Yemen									
Zimbabwe		X							

Annex 4.4: Other strategies

	Development of a national policy benefiting girls or gender			Implementation of focal points in ministries/departments			Studies on girls' education			Development of quotas for women in government ministries/departments			Introduction of gender-based approach in data collection		
	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE	ESP	AP	GPE
Afghanistan				X	X										
Benin		X						X							
Burkina Faso															
Burundi							X						X		
Cambodia								X							
Cameroon															
CAR															
Chad			X												
Comoros															
Côte d'Ivoire							X	X							
DRC			X												
Eritrea							X								
Ethiopia				X	X					X	X				
Guinea															
Guyana															
Haiti															
Kenya	X	X													
Lao PDR													X	X	
Madagascar															
Mali															
Moldova															
Mozambique															
Nepal															
Nicaragua															
Niger															
Jigawa (Nigeria)	X			X		X							X		
Kaduna (Nigeria)						X									
Balochistan (Pakistan)										X	X				
Sindh (Pakistan)	X	X		X	X		X	X		X	X		X	X	X
Senegal										X			X		
Sierra Leone								X							
Puntland (Somalia)	X			X	X			X		X			X	X	
Somaliland (Somalia)	X	X			X										
South Central Somalia	X	X													
Southern Sudan	X	X								X	X				
Sudan															X
Togo															
Uganda															
Uzbekistan															
Vietnam															
Yemen															
Zimbabwe															

Annex 5: Gender-sensitive ESPs

The notion of "gender-sensitive" ESP should be interpreted rather conservatively since different countries greatly vary in integrating gender issues. The three selected criteria are limited to "yes / no / weak" as a response, without including more details or more detailed grading scales (see Chapter 6 for more details).

Country	Gender-disaggregated data in ESP	Barriers to girls' education analyzed in ESP	Strategies identified in the ESP or the action plan	Possible remarks
Afghanistan	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Benin	Yes	No	Yes	Slightly gender-sensitive ESP
Burkina Faso	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Burundi	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Cambodia	Yes	No	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP Near gender parity in primary and secondary education
Cameroon	Low	No	Yes	Slightly **gender** sensitive
CAR	Low	No	No	Non-**gender** sensitive ESP Existence of major gender disparities
Chad	Yes	No	Low	Slightly **gender** sensitive ESP
Comoros	Low	Low	No	Non-**gender** sensitive ESP Near gender parity in primary and secondary education
Côte d'Ivoire	No	No	Yes	Slightly gender-sensitive ESP Few strategies in favor of girls' education are identified
DRC	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Eritrea	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Ethiopia	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Guinea	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Guyana	Low	No	No	**Non-gender** sensitive ESP Gender parity in primary and secondary education
Haiti	No	No	No	**Non- gender** sensitive ESP Lack of data, including from the UIS
Kenya	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Lao PDR	Low	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Madagascar	No	No	No	**Non- gender** sensitive ESP Gender parity in primary and secondary education
Mali	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Moldova	No	No	No	**Non- gender** sensitive ESP Gender parity in primary and secondary education
Mozambique	Yes	No	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP Near gender parity in primary education
Nepal	Low	No	Yes	Slightly **gender** sensitive ESP Gender parity in primary and secondary education
Nicaragua	No	No	No	**Non- gender** sensitive ESP Gender parity in primary and secondary education

Niger	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Jigawa (Nigeria)	Yes	No	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP Unidentified barriers, but many activities are identified and gender clearly appears as a cross-cutting issue in 3 components of the ESP
Kaduna (Nigeria)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Balochistan (Pakistan)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Sindh (Pakistan)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Senegal	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Sierra Leone	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Puntland (Somalia)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Somaliland (Somalia)	Low	Low	Yes	**Slightly** gender sensitive ESP
South Central Somalia	Low	No	Yes	**Slightly** gender sensitive ESP
South Sudan	No	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Sudan	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP
Togo	Low	No	Yes	**Slightly** gender sensitive ESP
Uganda	No	Low	Yes	**Slightly** gender sensitive ESP
Uzbekistan	No	No	No	**Non-gender** sensitive ESP Near gender parity in primary and secondary education
Vietnam	Yes	Yes	No	**Non-gender** sensitive ESP Near gender parity in primary and secondary education
Yemen	Yes	Low	Low	**Slightly** gender sensitive ESP Poor analysis of barriers and few strategies benefiting girls' education are identified
Zimbabwe	Yes	Yes	Yes	Gender-sensitive ESP

Annex 6: Analysis Framework

<table>
<tr><td>ESP Date

Date of the plan of action</td><td>Date of the GPE
- Year joining the GPE:
- Funding period:
- Funding amount:</td><td colspan="2">The documents analyzed</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Structure of primary and secondary education</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Overview of the situation of girls' school participation in the country</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">Is the sector plan gender-sensitive?[75] How are gender issues addressed? (strengths and weaknesses)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">1. The availability of gender disparity statistical data in the ESP</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">1. A. Main gender-disaggregated indicators in the ESP

<table><tr><td></td><td colspan="2">Primary Education</td><td colspan="2">Secondary Education</td></tr><tr><td></td><td>Girls</td><td>Boys</td><td>Girls</td><td>Boys</td></tr><tr><td>GIR or TNA</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>GER or NER</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>CR or transition rate</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr><tr><td>Other</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr></table></td><td><u>Separate calculation for primary and secondary</u>

2. 2 indicators (access, intake, retention) are disaggregated by gender

1. 1 indicator (access, intake, retention) is disaggregated by gender

0. No indicator is disaggregated by gender</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">1. B. Are there any indicators disaggregated by gender and region?[76]</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

[75] The following three dimensions will be summarized: (i) does the sector plan identify gender disparities in the educational system (lack of equality in access, retention and completion), (ii) does the sector plan examine the causes of such disparities (internal and external causes in the education system), and (iii) does the sector plan identify strategies to reduce these disparities?

[76] Data at the national level may conceal gender disparities in some regions. This question makes it possible to see if the sector plan takes into account gender disparities which may exist in some regions.

☐ Yes: which indicator?
☐ No

2. What are the gender disparities mentioned in the sector plan?

Primary School	Secondary Education
☐ Disparities in access ☐ Disparities in retention or completion ☐ Disparities among teachers ☐ Disparities mentioned without specifications ☐ There are no disparity issues	☐ Disparities in access ☐ Disparities in retention or completion ☐ Disparities among teachers ☐ Disparities mentioned without specifications ☐ There are no disparity issues

Comments on the link between the disparities mentioned and the statistics presented

3. Analysis of barriers to girls' education in the ESP

- Which are the barriers to girls' education identified in the ESP? Systematically indicated whether primary or secondary when mentioned in the ESP

Factors related to school demand ☐ Opportunity costs of school ☐ Direct schooling costs[77] ☐ Social and cultural factors ☐ Early Marriage ☐ Low level of awareness of the importance of school for girls ☐ Poverty/Malnutrition ☐ Insecurity on the way to/from school	***Factors related to educational supply*** ☐ Remoteness of schools ☐ Low-quality school (negative perception of school operations)
Factors related to the school environment ☐ School violence ☐ Lack of private latrines ☐ Lack of water access points ☐ General degradation of the school environment	***Factors related to teachers*** ☐ Lack of female teachers ☐ Educational practices which favor boys or which are non-adapted

<u>Separate calculation for primary AND secondary</u>

2. The ESP explains the causes of the disparities mentioned

0. The causes of the disparities are not explained

[77] Direct costs are: school participation fees, contributions to parent associations, uniform purchases, school supply purchases, transportation.

• ***Other*** (specify)	• ***Other*** (specify)	

4. Strategies identified to tackle gender disparities or the improvement of girls' education in the ESP

• Is the reduction of gender disparities a **priority** or a **component** clearly stated in the ESP? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Treated in a cross-cutting approach within other priorities or components • Is this priority included in a strategy? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Partially • What is the title of this priority:	2. The reduction of gender disparities is one sector plan component 1. The reduction of gender disparities is a component addressed with a cross-cutting approach in other components of the sector plan 0. The reduction of disparities is not a priority

• Does the ESP identify specific geographical areas of intervention benefiting girls' education?

☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ According to the strategies (specify)

• If yes, what are the selection criteria for the regions targeted by intervention?

5. What are the strategies or specific activities identified in the ESP, the operational action plan and the GPE-funded program?

• ***Activities related to access (favoring demand)***	• ***Activities related to the school environment***
☐ Awareness-raising campaign	☐ Fight against school violence
☐ Recruitment of female teachers	☐ Construction of private latrines
☐ Incentives measures targeting girls	☐ Construction of water access points

o Grants or scholarships for girls o School kits for girls o Uniforms and health kits for girls o Distribution of food rations to girls ☐ Boarding schools or school for girls • ***Activities related to quality (favoring retention)*** ☐ Capacity-building for the management of school committees or women's associations ☐ Grant to schools ☐ Training of teachers on gender pedagogy ☐ Gender mainstreaming in the curricula and textbooks ☐ Gender mainstreaming in teacher training ☐ Girls' or adolescents' clubs ☐ Support activities for girls	• ***Other activities*** ☐ Development of national policy promoting girls' education ☐ Implementation of gender focal points within the Ministry of Education ☐ Implementation of a study on girls' education or gender and education (including gender analysis) ☐ Quota (or incentive) for women in education management (departmental executives, educational or administrative supervisors, heads of district or school district) ☐ Gender mainstreaming in data collection (EMIS)

The table is meant to complement by **strictly summarizing** the above categorization and headings.
For each activity, information on budgets and **population targets** are indicated **when they are available and clearly focused on the strategy or the activity.**

For each activity, it will be specified whether it is for primary or secondary education. For improved readability, a separate table for primary and secondary education will be developed on the basis of the volume of activities.

Strategies or activities identified in the ESP	Strategies or activities identified in the action plan	Strategies or activities identified in the GPE-funded program
Activities related to access		
Activities related to quality		
Activities related to the school environment		
Other activities		

6. Stakeholders/entities responsible for implementation of activities in the ESP

• Have entities responsible for the implementation of these strategies or activities benefiting girls been identified? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Partially	2: The responsible entities have been identified 1: The responsible entities have partially been identified 0: The responsible entities have not been identified
7. Gender disparity Monitoring & evaluation	
• What are the gender-disaggregated indicators in the ESP M&E framework for measuring progress made in reducing gender disparities?	Separate calculation for primary AND secondary 2. There are indicators 0. There are no indicators
• What are the outcome indicators (or intermediaries) for the identified activities benefiting girls' education?	2. There are outcome indicators 0. There are no outcome indicators

3) The consistency of GPE funding for the program with respect to the strategies identified in the sector plan to reduce gender disparities

• Have the strategies or activities for girls' education in the GPE-funded program been identified in the ESP? Please comment

• Does the GPE-funded program identify specific geographical areas of intervention for the girls? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐According to the strategies (specify) • If yes, what are the criteria for choosing the regions for intervention?	
8. Gender disparity monitoring and evaluation	
• What are the gender-disaggregated indicators in the M&E framework for measuring progress made in reducing gender disparities?	<u>Separate calculation for primary AND secondary</u> 2. There are indicators 0. There are no indicators
• What are the outcome indicators (or intermediate) for the activities identified benefiting girls' education?	2. There are outcome indicators 0. There are no outcome indicators