



Guidance for Developing Gender-Responsive Education Sector Plans

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This guidance has been prepared under the joint leadership of the United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) and the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) supported by UNICEF.

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United Nations Girls' Education Initiative
Three United Nations Plaza
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USA
<https://www.unicef.org>

Cover Photos:
Group of girls
Student in lower secondary school open to blind students
Credit: GPE/Guy Nzazi

Boy in white shirt
Chavuma Secondary School, North-Western province, Zambia, May 2016
Credit: GPE/Tanya Zebroff

Girl in brown sweater
Chavuma Secondary School, North-Western province, Zambia, May 2016
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Students at Ayno Meena Number Two school in the city of Kandahar,
Afghanistan
Credit: GPE/Jawad Jalali

United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (www.ungei.org)

The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) is a multi-stakeholder partnership committed to improving the quality and availability of girls' education and achieving gender equality. It is founded on an understanding that all children—girls and boys—have the right to learn in a safe and supportive learning environment. UNGEI was launched in 2000 as a designated flagship of the Education for All (EFA) initiative. It strives to support governments and the international community to deliver on gender and education commitments set out in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and detailed in the 2030 Education Framework for Action.

Partners, including multilateral and bilateral development agencies, nongovernmental organizations, intergovernmental organizations, and regional civil society networks unite under the UNGEI umbrella with the understanding that a collaborative advantage can be gained through collective advocacy and coordinated action. UNICEF provides strategic leadership for the partnership and hosts the secretariat at the UNICEF headquarters in New York.

In order to maximize efforts that are most needed and will have the highest impact on girls' education around the world, UNGEI focuses its policy advocacy on four key strategic priorities: effective inclusion of marginalized and excluded groups; elimination of school-related gender-based violence; improved learning outcomes for girls; and increased transition to secondary school and postprimary learning opportunities. UNGEI is committed to: a) using its collective voice to raise awareness of the importance of girls' education and influence policy discussions to support increased investments to address barriers to girls' education and gender equality; b) strengthening the evidence base on effective practices for facilitating girls' education and gender equality across regions and countries; and c) building capacity to ensure a collaborative and coordinated approach to addressing and supporting girls' education.

Global Partnership for Education (www.globalpartnership.org)

The Global Partnership for Education works with 65 developing countries to ensure that every child receives a quality basic education, prioritizing the poorest, the most vulnerable, and those living in fragile and conflict-affected countries. The Global Partnership mobilizes financing for education and supports developing countries to build effective education systems founded on evidence-based planning and policies. It leverages the aid it provides by incentivizing partner governments to gradually allocate up to 20 percent of national budgets to quality education.

A key function of the Global Partnership is to support the development of good quality education sector plans and encourage donors to align their support with these plans, which reduces aid fragmentation and transaction costs. By leading a government-wide analytical, policy, and planning process in partner countries, the Global Partnership improves how education funding is spent. The Global Partnership facilitates budgetary and policy transparency and supports civil society organizations to hold governments accountable for implementing national education plans.

Established in 2002 as the Education for All Fast Track Initiative, the Global Partnership has evolved into an independently governed partnership of governments, civil society, multilateral organizations, the private sector, and foundations. Since 2002, the Global Partnership has allocated US\$4.6 billion to support education in developing countries and is the fourth largest donor to basic education in low- and lower-middle-income countries. Almost half of all GPE funding allocated in 2014 and 2015 supported children in fragile and conflict-affected countries.

Foreword

These guidelines on developing gender-responsive education sector plans provide readers with the information and tools needed to take a fresh look at gender equality and why it matters in education.

Over the past fifteen years, the Millennium Development Goals and Education for All initiatives have shaped the efforts and investments made in education by developing country governments, donors, and other partners, leading to tremendous gains in access. Around the world and particularly in developing countries, there are more schools, more trained teachers, more textbooks, more toilets, and more girls and boys in school than ever before. And yet many barriers remain for the millions of children still seeking to get into school and, for those in school, to learn.

As this new era of global commitment to development and to education begins, the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Education 2030 Framework for Action provide both a more ambitious vision and a contemporary focus for the efforts of the global community. The SDGs place people firmly at the center of sustainable development, striving for a world that is just, equitable, and inclusive. They seek to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and the promotion of lifelong learning opportunities for all (Goal 4) and the achievement of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls (Goal 5). The Education 2030 Framework for Action places gender equality in its top three guiding principles, alongside education as a fundamental human right and a public good, and acknowledges the need for universal access, inclusion, and good quality.

As we renew our efforts toward achieving inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all, these guidelines provide an up-to-date and informed view of gender equality, moving beyond a simple focus on girls' education and achieving gender parity in enrollment. The GPE and UNGEI envision not just ensuring access to a good quality education for

all girls and women and boys and men, but also the removal of gender bias and discrimination within and across education systems, from teacher recruitment and training to curriculum and materials development, and in making school environments safe, secure and free from violence. This broader level of ambition speaks to the role and the potential of all girls, women, boys and men to create a more just, equitable, and inclusive world.

These guidelines offer the opportunity to reflect personally and professionally, alone and in teams, on issues relating to gender equality. They include background information and a series of practical exercises on how to conduct gender-sensitive quantitative and qualitative data collection, analysis and interpretation, and on using the findings to enhance the sector planning process.

The guidelines are intended for use alongside the GPE/ UNESCO/World Bank/UNICEF Education Sector Analysis Methodological Guidelines and the GPE-IIEP Education Sector Plan Preparation and Education Sector Plan Appraisal Guidelines, providing additional opportunities for readers to i) identify critical gender disparities and the factors contributing to them; ii) analyze and interpret gender disparities, channeling insights into the education sector plan consultative process; and iii) evaluate the extent to which gender equality issues are understood and addressed in the education sector plan.

Education systems will need to change and improve, using time, funding and human resources wisely in order to deliver better quality education and learning for all, and to meet the expectations set out in the SDG goals. It is hoped that these guidelines contribute in a meaningful way to that endeavor.

Karen Mundy
Chief Technical Officer,
Global Partnership for Education
January 2017

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Acronyms

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women	M&E	Monitoring & Evaluation
CGDES	Comités de Gestion Des Etablissements Scolaires	MHM	Menstrual Hygiene Management
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child	MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
CSO	Civil Society Organization	MoE	Ministry of Education
CSR	Country Status Report	MoESTS	Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Sports
DFID	United Kingdom Department for International Development	NDP	National Development Plan
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey	NGO	Non-Government Organizations
EFA	Education For All	OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
EFSM	Education Financial Simulation Model	OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
EGMA	Early Grade Math Assessment	PASEC	Program for the Analysis of CONFEMEN ¹ Education Systems
EGRA	Early Grade Reading Assessment	PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
EMIS	Education Management Information System	PISA	Program for International Student Assessment
EPDC	Education Policy and Data Center	PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Plan
EPSSim	Education Policy and Strategy Simulation	PTA	Parent Teacher Association
ESA	Education Sector Analysis	SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Measuring Educational Quality
ESM	Education Simulation Model	SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
ESP	Education Sector Plan	SEE	Simulations for Equity in Education
FSSP	Female Secondary Stipend Program	SESP	Secondary Education Stipend Project
GBV	Gender-Based Violence	SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index
GER	Gross Enrollment Ratio	SRGBV	School-Related Gender-Based Violence
GHS	General Household Survey	TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
GII	Gender Inequality Index	UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
GIR	Gross Intake Ratio	UNEG	United Nations Evaluations Group
GPE	Global Partnership for Education	UNESCO	United Nations Educational and Scientific Organization
GPI	Gender Parity Index	UNGEI	United Nations Girls' Education Initiative
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus	UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
ICT	Information and Communication Technology	USAID	United States Agency for International Development
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning	VAWG	Violence Against Women and Girls
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization	WIDE	World Inequality Database on Education
JICA	Japanese International Cooperation Agency		
LEG	Local Education Group		
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender		
LLECE	Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education		
MDG	Millennium Development Goals		

¹ The CONFEMEN is the Conference of the Ministers of Education of French speaking countries.

Introduction

WHY DOES GENDER MATTER IN EDUCATION?

The 2000 Education for All (EFA) Framework for Action states that “*gender-based discrimination remains one of the most intractable constraints to realizing the right to education. Without overcoming this obstacle, Education for All cannot be achieved*” (Dakar, 2000). Fifteen years later, although the context has changed, attention to gender issues remains a key component of the global agenda. At the 2015 World Education Forum in Incheon, Korea, representatives issued a declaration reaffirming the vision of EFA initiated in Jomtien in 1990 and reiterated in Dakar in 2000. The Education 2030 declaration articulates a continued vision of achieving inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning for all. This vision explicitly recognizes the importance of “**gender equality** in achieving the right to education for all” (Incheon, 2015). The Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) confirm and amplify the strong connection between gender equality and education; SDG Target 4.5 specifically calls for the elimination of gender disparities in education and equal access for all, and the broader 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development goes further to underscore the centrality and mutual dependence of education and gender equality. Achieving gender equality requires a rights-based approach that ensures that girls and boys, women and men not only gain access to and complete education cycles, but are empowered equally in and through education.

In spite of great progress since 2000, gender-related barriers continue to combine with other socio-economic barriers to prevent girls and boys (and women

and men) from accessing and benefiting from quality education and learning opportunities. In many countries, girls are disproportionately excluded and disadvantaged in education; in others, boys underperform and drop out at higher rates than girls. And within and across countries, multiple social, economic and structural factors impact which girls and which boys are most marginalized. For example, gender inequality may be particularly marked in rural or conflict-affected areas, among the poorest households, or for children who have disabilities or are members of an ethnic minority. Looking across multiple exclusion factors such as these is critical in order to identify which children are most disadvantaged and respond accordingly.

Gender equality is a critical piece of the broader picture of equity and inclusion in education, as well as in society at large, and will be achieved most effectively when combined into a comprehensive and unified commitment to leave no one behind. When we can successfully provide quality education to the girls and boys that have been excluded, the payoffs are considerable. Research shows that gender equality and girls’ education has a dramatic and positive impact not only on the girls themselves, but on their families, communities and society more broadly. Understanding and addressing gender issues in all areas of education—from the quality of learning experiences to achievement and aspiration for the future—is key to achieving the global commitment to “ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.”²

² United Nations Sustainable Development Goal 4, Available at: <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg4>

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE GUIDANCE?

“To ensure **gender equality**, education systems must act explicitly to eliminate gender bias and discrimination resulting from social and cultural attitudes and practices and economic status. Governments and partners need to put in place **gender-sensitive policies, planning and learning environments**; mainstream gender issues in teacher training and curriculum monitoring processes, and eliminate gender-based discrimination and violence in education institutions to ensure that teaching and learning have an equal impact on girls and boys, women and men, and to eliminate gender stereotypes and advance gender equality. Special measures should be put in place to ensure the personal security of girls and women in education institutions and on the journey to and from them, in all situations but in particular during conflict and crises.”

—Education 2030: Incheon Declaration and Framework for Action, UNESCO, 2015

Education 2030 calls on governments and partners alike to put in place gender-sensitive policies, planning and learning environments. The Global Partnership for Education has been recognized as a key vehicle for delivering on the global education goal, with an important role to play in advancing gender equality in education by 2030. GPE's Gender Equality Policy and Strategy 2016-2020 demonstrates the importance that GPE places on gender equality through its implementation of a combination of integrated and targeted approaches to mainstreaming gender equality. The importance of identifying and addressing gender issues through education sector plans (ESPs) is emphasized in the *Education Sector Analysis (ESA) Methodological Guidelines* prepared by the UNESCO International Institute for Education Planning (IIEP), the World Bank, UNICEF, and the Global Partnership for Education (GPE), and the *GPE-IIEP Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Preparation* and *Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Appraisal*. The ESA methodological guidelines discuss analysing gender disparities in enrollment and learning achievements, gender concerns and the social impact of education, and supply and demand issues related to access and retention, among other issues. The GPE-IIEP guidelines on

KEY REFERENCE DOCUMENTS

- Education Sector Analysis Methodological Guidelines, Vols. 1 and 2
- Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Preparation
- Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Appraisal
- GPE 2020 Strategic Plan
- GPE Gender Equality Policy and Strategy 2016-2020

ESP preparation and appraisal emphasize using empirical evidence from gender analysis to develop strategic policies and priorities to address gender imbalances.

This *guidance for developing gender-responsive education sector plans* (“the guidance”) supplements these guidelines, providing additional information, case studies and recommendations to help readers understand and apply the core principles of gender equality to developing ESPs. It is meant to be a practical tool to guide planners and practitioners in addressing gender issues in ESPs by engaging in:

- **Gender analysis of the education sector within specific country contexts** to identify critical gender disparities and the underlying factors that contribute to those disparities;
- **Gender-responsive plan preparation**, using the analysis to plan and design appropriate strategies and interventions, guide the allocation of adequate human and financial resources, and define relevant monitoring approaches; and
- **Gender-responsive plan appraisal**, assessing the extent to which a country’s national education system and ESP address and integrate gender concerns and identify areas that need to be strengthened.

The objective of the guidance is to:

- ➊ Enrich the existing process by putting the spotlight on gender issues through a consistent use of a gender equality lens; and
- ➋ Identify additional tools, resources and information to support planners and practitioners in systematically undertaking gender analysis and developing gender-responsive strategies during the ESP process.

It is intended to serve as a guide for exploration rather than prescribe a single approach. In particular, it is designed to help those who are not gender specialists recognise and address gender issues in their work. The intention is to make the concepts and practice of gender analysis and integration accessible to a wide audience and clarify when to call in specialist help.

Although there is little reference to country context, this guidance can also be used along with the *GPE-IIEP Guidelines for Transitional Education Plan Preparation* to plan for girls' education in fragile and conflicted-affected environments. Conflict and disaster affect girls and boys differently. They can exacerbate the issues that already limit educational opportunities for girls such as poverty and gender-based violence. As such, analysis of the education system from the perspective of conflict and disaster as well as gender is useful in these contexts.

WHO SHOULD USE THE GUIDANCE?

The primary audience of the guidance is education planners and practitioners, though the full range of education sector stakeholders in any given country, as well as development planners and practitioners at the global and regional levels, will find it relevant to their work. Two key target groups in particular are:

- ➊ **Country-level actors:** Ministry of Education (MoE) officials, representatives of other government ministries and departments, development partners, civil society organizations (CSOs), traditional, local,

and faith-based leaders, and the private sector (as relevant) in GPE-endorsed and non-GPE-endorsed countries;

- ➋ **Global and regional-level actors:** International donors, inter-governmental actors and non-governmental agencies involved in developing, funding, and implementing service delivery programs in education.

WHEN AND HOW SHOULD THE GUIDANCE BE USED?

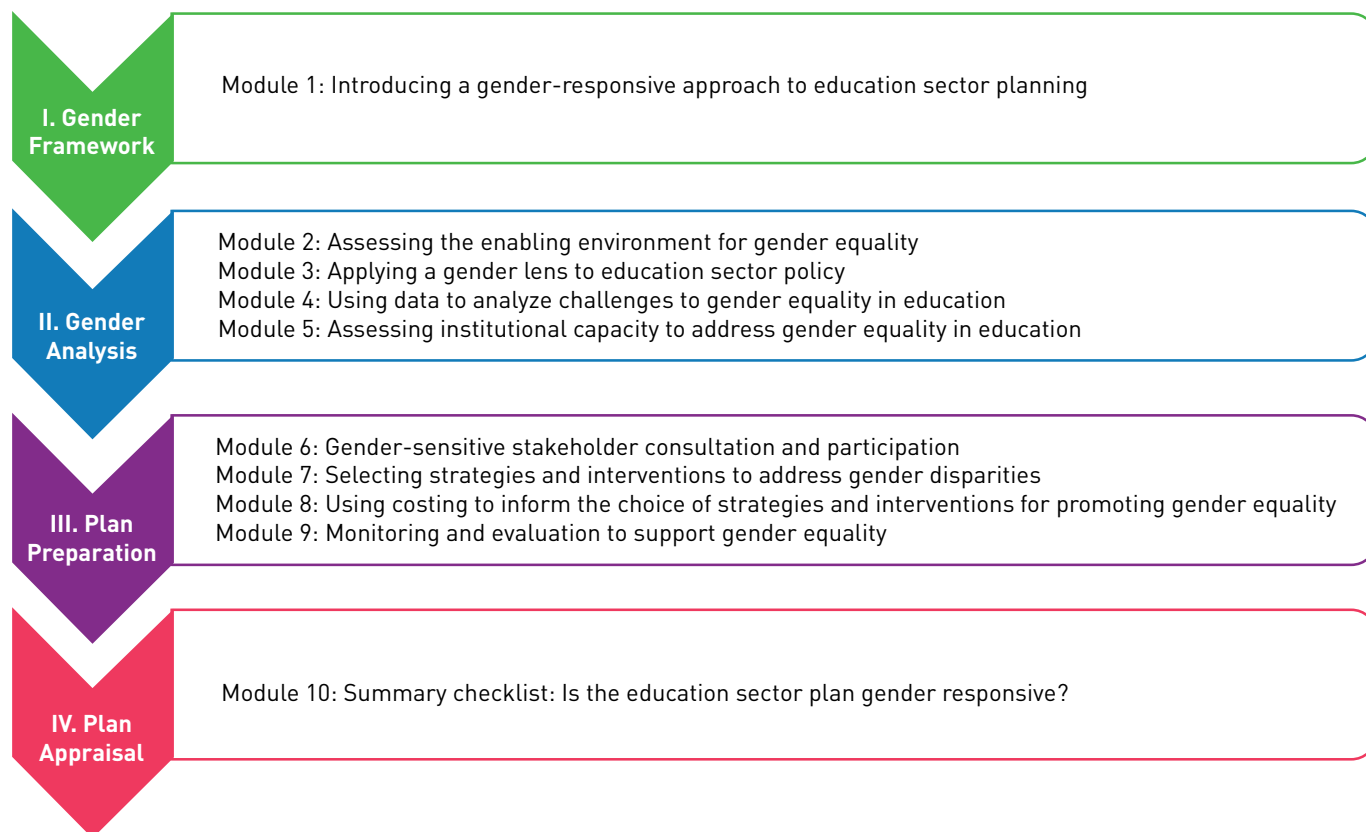
The immediate context for using the guidance is the ESA and ESP preparation and appraisal process in GPE member countries. However, it can be used and referenced at any time of review, planning or monitoring to identify the extent to which gender issues have been addressed within the education system. It is also general enough to be applied to more project-oriented initiatives within the education sector.

The guidance will be most effective if paired with a facilitated exercise involving different stakeholders that encourages dialogue and discussion. An inclusive facilitation process, preferably using a workshop approach or a similar participatory exercise, will help incorporate diverse perspectives and insights. The guidance can also be used as a reference by individuals and institutions doing education sector analysis, planning and appraisal.

The guidance takes the reader through a series of modules providing practical advice on conducting gender analysis of the education sector and integrating gender issues in different aspects of the ESP preparation and appraisal process. The modules can be roughly grouped into four sections as shown on the next page:

Each module follows the same structure for ease of understanding and application:

- i. **Overview** of the content of the module;
- ii. **Presentation** of the key topic supported by one or more illustrations;



iii. **Exercises** for application and reflection where relevant; and

iv. **Additional resources** for further reading on the issue, with internet links where possible.

While an effort has been made to create discrete modules, in reality the topics covered are linked and inter-related across the modules. In order to avoid repetition, topics are cross-referenced where relevant. The illustrations are drawn from different country experiences with gender-responsive sector planning.

The individual modules are intentionally generic so they can be adapted to specific contexts. However, though the guidance in principle speaks to the whole education sector, the content is primarily drawn from and oriented toward the primary and secondary levels.

WHAT ARE SOME KEY ISSUES TO KEEP IN MIND WHILE NAVIGATING THE GUIDANCE?

The guidance is not meant to be an exhaustive resource on developing gender-responsive education sector plans. It is a tool to enable interested planners and practitioners to systematically integrate gender issues in the ESP appraisal and planning processes. As readers navigate their way through the technical modules, these are some critical issues to keep in mind:

- ❶ **The guidance moves away from past approaches to addressing gender issues** that were often fragmented and focused exclusively on girls' education. Former approaches frequently reduced gender to being synonymous with "women and girls." Use of a "gender lens" also takes into account the relational aspects of girls' and boys' education. This

Addressing Boys' Disadvantages in Education is a growing challenge for policy makers and lacks an easy solution. Unlike the disadvantages of girls and women, male disadvantage often coexists with social and economic advantages and privilege within the family unit. It does not stem from structural or historical marginalization.

Policy responses that are effective for girls may not be applicable to boys. For example, while peer support has been used effectively to improve outcomes for girls, peer pressure is a factor that works against boys' educational attainment in some situations. Policies that are tailored to specific challenges and contexts are most likely to be effective for both boys and girls.

Happily, programs and policies to improve girls' education have been shown to have a positive impact on boys as well and to increase boys' enrollment along with girls'.

Source: Jha et al., 2012.

- **Girls' successes in education in the last decade do not come at the expense of boys and neither do boys' successes come at the expense of girls' successes.** Educational achievement is not a zero-sum game, in which a gain for one group results in a loss for another. In fact girls' and boys' achievements are strongly associated: in countries where girls are participating and achieving, boys often also do well, and vice versa.
- **While gender is the primary focus of this guidance, it is not intended to be considered in isolation,** but rather in combination with the larger matrix of factors that can result in disadvantage and exclusion. It is important to ask which girls and boys are most excluded from education in each local context, and where combinations of factors such as poverty, ethnicity, disability or rural location may be having a particularly pronounced effect. The focus on gender modelled here is both important in itself and valuable as an example of how other forms of disadvantages can be examined and addressed.

means that in many parts of the world where girls and women—especially those belonging to disadvantaged and marginalized groups—continue to be excluded from education, girls and women still warrant targeted attention. Nevertheless, in recent years boys' underperformance and dropouts have become a growing source of concern, and this too needs to be explored in order to be better understood and addressed. This guidance strives to encourage just that while not deflecting attention from the access issues that girls face at the primary and secondary level in many developing countries.

I. GENDER FRAMEWORK

Module 1: Introducing a Gender-Responsive Approach to Education Sector Planning

1.1 Overview

Education sector plans (ESPs) are an opportunity to set or reconfirm goals, allocate resources toward objectives, and enhance accountability for realizing a national vision of education. This module outlines an organizing framework to support the process of developing gender-responsive ESPs. In particular it:

- ➊ Discusses why gender matters from a human rights and development standpoint, and how it connects to broader equity and inclusion issues;
- ➋ Reinforces the critical role ESPs can play in promoting gender equality;
- ➌ Reiterates the characteristics of a credible ESP and examines how gender responsiveness is central to credibility; and
- ➍ Presents a framework to identify key elements of a gender-responsive sector plan and process.

1.2 Why Gender Matters

Girls, boys, women and men are affected by gender roles that shape expectations of them in the home, in the community and in society. A focus on gender equality ensures that the specific needs and vulnerabilities—as well as strengths and opportunities—of girls, boys, women and men are recognized and addressed.

In many contexts the division of labor between men and women for daily unpaid work within the family and community is unequal. The same inequality is reflected in structural barriers women and girls face in mobilizing and accessing social and economic resources, including education, and their capacity to act independently and make free choices. Gender disadvantage is not based on biological sex; it is the

BOX 1.1 KEY TERMS

Gender: The socially constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviours, values, relative power and influence that society ascribes to the two sexes on a differential basis. Gender is relational and refers not simply to women or men, but to the relationship between them.

Sex: The biological characteristics that define humans as female or male.

Gender roles: A set of prescriptions for action and behaviour assigned to men and women by society according to cultural norms and traditions.

Source: UN Women, 2014.

result of socially and culturally defined behaviors, roles, relations and entitlements that are assigned to men and boys and women and girls. They have to do with prevailing social and gender norms, policies and institutions (for example, political representation and legal structures) that continue to privilege men and boys in families, communities and nations. Please see the *Key Terms* boxes throughout this module for key gender concepts.

Work toward gender equality often requires activities or interventions to promote girls' and women's rights, empowerment and greater equality of opportunity in order to overcome historical disadvantage. This is why there is often a focus on women and girls when discussing gender. However, while it is generally women and girls who experience less access to resources, power and opportunities, in certain contexts men's and boys' lives are adversely affected by gender roles and harmful gender norms. Norms that pressure men and boys

to be violent, have risky sex or refrain from seeking health care can increase their risk of HIV and other sexually transmitted infections. In the Philippines, research indicates that some poor families withdraw boys from school because they consider them not to be “innate” learners (UNGEI, 2012). In Lesotho and other parts of Southern Africa, boys are often expected to tend livestock rather than attend school (UNESCO, 2012). Further, in some cases the opportunity costs are perceived as being higher for boys because there are more wage-based work opportunities available for them than girls. This contributes to the high gender disparity in secondary school participation in Honduras, for example, where 60 percent of 15- to 17-year old boys were engaged in economic activity as compared to 21 percent of girls (ibid.)

Gender analysis can help to identify the extent to which gender roles hinder equal opportunities and outcomes from development initiatives and who is most affected in particular contexts. Thus policies and plans must be sensitive to the lives of women, men, girls and boys and the ways that their experiences and opportunities are shaped by gender norms, as a key part of a larger picture of social, economic and structural inequalities. Not integrating consideration of gender issues, together with other equity and inclusion issues, into policies, plans and programs risks overlooking these societal forces and failing to achieve desired outcomes.

1.3 Critical Role of ESPs in Promoting Gender Equality

The importance of education sector plans was first emphasized at the World Forum on Education for All (EFA) in Dakar in 2000. At this forum world leaders committed to work together to improve education and promised to guarantee financial support to countries with credible and democratically developed sector plans. An ESP summarizes a country’s vision and strategy for education sector reform over a specific period of time. It guides action through policy, practice and financing and is a means to secure external funding for

BOX 1.2 KEY TERMS

Gender-sensitive indicates gender awareness and means that a policy or program recognizes the important effects of gender norms, roles, and relations. It is often contrasted with being **gender-blind**, which ignores differences in opportunities and resource allocation for women and men and gender norms, roles, and relations and often reinforces gender-based discrimination.

Gender-responsive refers to a policy or program which fulfills two basic criteria: a) gender norms, roles, and relations are considered and b) measures are taken to actively reduce the harmful effects of gender norms, roles, and relations—including gender inequality.

the education budget by demonstrating that education policies are “credible, sustainable and worthy of investment” (GPE-IIIEP, 2015). It also serves as the reference document for monitoring education sector activities and progress.

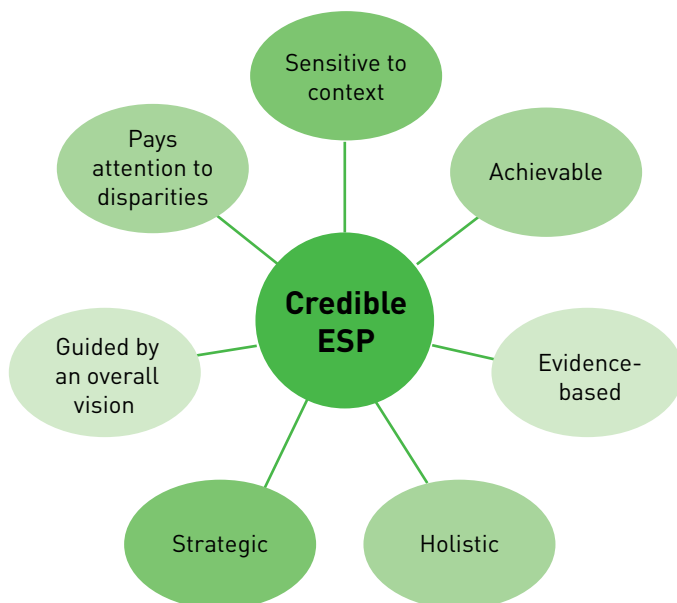
Over time, the practice and process of developing ESPs has yielded a number of positive results, including increased coordination between government entities in charge of education and education stakeholders, as well as greater alignment of external aid to national priorities and policies. The process has helped strengthen national leadership; mobilize financial resources from domestic sources, external aid and private investment; and has at times contributed to an enhanced focus on gender and social equity (Seel, 2007). As a country’s blueprint for education reform, the ESP is a critical opportunity to ensure that strategies and policies that advance gender equality in education are included and receive adequate funding. The ESP planning and appraisal process also brings together a diverse array of education stakeholders and provides the time and space for discussion, debate, knowledge-sharing and learning on the subject of gender in education.

1.4 How Does Gender Responsiveness Contribute to a Credible ESP?

The GPE-IIEP guidelines state that a credible education sector plan should exhibit seven important characteristics:

1. **Guided by an overall vision**, a mission statement that indicates overall direction;
2. **Strategic**, identifying strategies for achieving the vision and setting priorities;
3. **Holistic**, covering all subsectors including formal and nonformal education, and recognizing the need for a coherent balance among subsectors;
4. **Evidence-based**, starting from an education sector analysis forming the information base on which strategies and programs are developed;
5. **Achievable**, based on an analysis of current trends and thoughtful hypotheses for overcoming

FIGURE 1.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF A CREDIBLE EDUCATION SECTOR PLAN



BOX 1.3 GENDER AND INTERSECTING INEQUALITIES IN EDUCATION

Analysis of global and national education outcome data reveal that, while many countries have made progress, persistent inequalities exist in relation to poverty, geographic location, ethnicity, disability and other factors of disadvantage, with gender cutting across all dimensions. These factors often do not operate alone, but intersect and mutually reinforce one another to increase disadvantages. The odds on attending and completing primary and secondary education tend to be heavily stacked against girls, particularly the poorest and most marginalized. The compounded effect of gender and poverty is seen in estimations for the universal primary and secondary education completion dates.

While the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2013/14 estimates that the richest boys in Sub-Saharan Africa will achieve universal primary completion by 2021, the completion date for the poorest girls in this region is 2086. At the lower secondary level these figures are 2041 and 2111 respectively (UNESCO, 2014). Policies and programs that target disadvantaged girls and boys, particularly those with multiple sources of disadvantage, are essential to ensure inclusive and equitable education for all, and achieve gender equality. This requires analysis at a disaggregated level to measure the scale and nature of education inequalities.

financial, technical and political constraints to effective implementation;

6. **Sensitive to the context**, including an analysis of the vulnerabilities specific to a country such as conflicts, disasters and economic crises; and
7. **Pays attention to disparities**, recognizing that within a country there may be significant gender differences between girls and boys, as well as inequalities between groups of students in their participation in

education and the quality of education they receive. These groups may be defined by their location, their socioeconomic or ethnic characteristics, or their abilities. *A credible sector plan identifies and attends to gender considerations across the plan, including where gender disparities intersect with other disparities, and addresses the specific needs and opportunities of different groups.*

While gender is specifically referenced only in criterion 7, it is relevant to the other criteria as well. This approach, referred to as gender mainstreaming or gender integration, is presented in the next section.

1.5 Adopting a Two-Pronged Approach to Addressing Gender in ESPs

Promoting gender equality in education and other sectors can be accomplished with a two-pronged approach (UN Women, 2014) which combines:

- **Gender-targeted** interventions to address the challenges, risks and disadvantages faced by girls, boys, women and men. Gender-targeted interventions are those that focus specifically on addressing barriers to education faced by girls or boys (or men or women) because of their gender. These could include quotas for girls' or boys' enrollment and attainment, the furnishing of segregated latrines and provisions for menstrual hygiene management, girls' or boys' after-school clubs that provide support and extra-curricular learning opportunities, or bursary schemes and cash transfers linked to girls' attendance and delay of marriage.
- **Gender-integrated** efforts across all processes in the management of the education sector. Gender integration involves identifying and responding to gender differences and inequalities during every phase of an endeavor—from analysis, planning and design through implementation, monitoring and evaluation. In the education sector, this approach influences processes at the level of system reform. Planning and policy development take into

BOX 1.4 KEY TERMS

Gender equality entails the concept that all human beings, both women and men, are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by stereotypes, rigid gender roles or prejudices. Gender equality means that the different behaviors, aspirations and needs of women and men are considered valued and favored equally. It does not mean that women and men have to become the same, but that their rights, responsibilities, and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female.

Gender equity means fairness and justice in the distribution of responsibilities and benefits between women and men. To ensure fairness, temporary positive measures must often be put in place to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from operating on a level playing field.

Gender parity is a numerical concept that concerns relative equality in terms of numbers and proportions of men and women, girls and boys. Gender parity addresses the ratio of female-to-male values (or males-to-females, in certain cases) of a given indicator.

Source: UNICEF et al., 2011.

account the gender-specific needs, interests and values of women, men, girls and boys, recognizing that gender differences influence how policies are developed and implemented. In a gender-integrated approach, every policy and program is evaluated based on whether it increases or decreases gender inequality (Mulugeta, 2012). For example, at the time of curriculum reform, a gender-integrated approach would ensure that textbooks and classroom practices promote gender equitable norms and model nonviolent behavior toward building the social, emotional, physical and cognitive well-being

of all teachers and students (Fancy and McAslan Fraser, 2014).

Gender equality in education does not simply mean equal numbers of girls and boys (this is referred to as gender parity), nor does it mean treating them the same. It involves understanding where differences and inequalities exist among girls and boys in terms of needs and rights; identifying any practice or trend that prevents boys or girls, or both, from realizing their full potential to grow into responsible and empowered individuals; and ensuring that the ESP addresses these in a meaningful way (Jha and Kelleher, 2006).

1.6 Addressing Gender in the ESP—An Organizing Framework

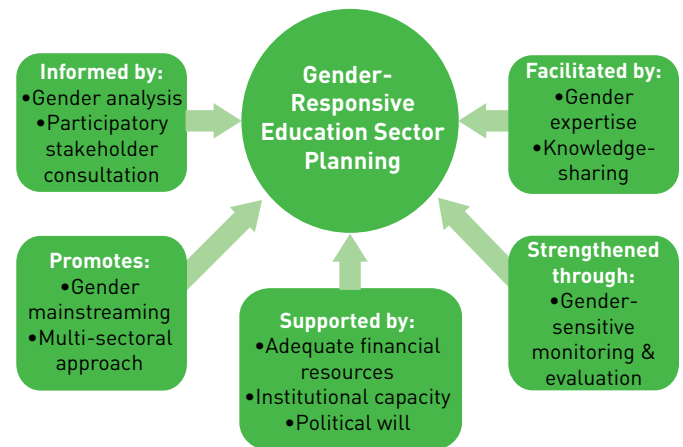
Experiences and lessons learned in education and other sectors have shown that there are certain key elements that can help ensure policies and programs are gender-responsive. Together, these elements provide an organizing framework for the process of addressing gender in ESPs.

Gender-responsive education sector planning is:

Informed by

- ➊ **Gender analysis:** Gender analysis reveals the qualitative differences relating to the way women, men, girls and boys are treated in any context. Gender analysis looks at the different roles and responsibilities of women, men, boys and girls, the resources available to them, and their control over these resources. This involves being sensitive to context and knowing about the broader economic and political environment, including laws and policies as they affect women, men, girls and boys (sometimes differently) as well as customary practices and norms in individual countries. It also requires understanding how gender and social relations differ according to the specific cultural, economic, political and social context of countries (for example, fragile, conflict-affected or middle-income).

FIGURE 1.2 FRAMEWORK FOR ADDRESSING GENDER IN EDUCATION SECTOR PLANS



Gender analysis uses statistical analysis to reflect on quantifiable differences between girls and boys. When this data is part of the sector's management systems and baseline development, it enables planners to ensure that program strategies respond to any differences and inequalities that exist and to track and assess progress toward gender-specific goals. A gender analysis based on sex disaggregated data should inform the development of the ESP, ideally integrated into the overarching education sector analysis. **Reference Modules: 2, 3 and 4**

- ➋ **Participatory stakeholder consultation and participation:** GPE-IIEP guidelines for education sector planning emphasize that the *process* of plan preparation is as important as the outcome and that the process will be most beneficial if it is well-organized and fully participatory, inclusive of the whole range of stakeholders (such as civil society, teachers' unions and relevant ministries such as the Ministry of Finance and the Ministry of Gender or Women's Affairs), as well as the partners who will be in charge of implementing the plan at the local level. Participatory stakeholder consultation is also

Gender analysis enables planners to ensure that program strategies respond to any differences and inequalities that exist and to track and assess progress toward gender-specific goals during monitoring and evaluation.

important from a gender perspective. Consulting with a diverse range of stakeholders—represented by women, men, girls and boys—and hearing their views during program planning, monitoring, and evaluation will help ensure their different needs and priorities are understood and addressed. This may at times mean actively promoting and supporting the involvement of women in planning and decision making and ensuring that men support this effort. **Reference Module: 6**

Promotes

- **A two-pronged approach which includes:**
 - **Gender-targeted actions:** Inclusion of clear, realistic and appropriate strategies, interventions, targets and quotas for girls', boys', women's and men's participation in different levels of education and educational outcomes, based on sex disaggregated analysis and baseline data.
 - **Gender integration:** Ensuring that gender concerns cross-cut all areas of the education sector and are an integral part of the vision and goals of the ESP, the overall design, financing, implementation arrangements, and monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. **Reference Modules: 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9**
- **A multi-sectoral approach:** Recognizes the broader issues of gender discrimination and social norms, the origins of which often lie outside of the education sector in the wider political, economic, social and legal environments. Highlights how education can play a role in addressing these disadvantages. **Reference Modules: 2 and 3**

Supported by

- **Adequate financial resources:** Financial resources are essential to systematically integrate gender in the ESP. Their successful implementation requires strategic commitment, in terms of human and financial resources. **Reference Module: 8**
- **Necessary institutional capacity and political will:** A credible ESP process is a country-led process. As a

national policy instrument, the ESP is the responsibility of the government, which makes final decisions about its contents and commits resources for its implementation. ESPs are most likely to succeed if they are the result of a process led by the government with active participation by all national stakeholders, and if the gender approach and strategy are understood and fully owned by the ministries and departments that will implement the plan. This usually involves assigning responsibility to specific actors and creating and following an implementation timeline. Assessing the capacity of education actors to analyze, identify and address gender issues during the ESP development process and appraisal is recommended, as is building into the ESP budget any resources required for capacity building. Finally, because plan implementation depends on a wide range of actors at different levels (centralized and decentralized) of the education system administration, it is important that capacity at all levels be addressed. To that end, plan preparation is itself a form of capacity development, making the *process* of ESP preparation as important as the final product. **Reference Module: 5**

Strengthened through

- **Gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation,** where objectives and indicators reflect the anticipated changes and benefits for both boys and girls and regular monitoring assesses whether planned targets and objectives are being met. In order for monitoring and evaluation to be gender sensitive, it is crucial that all relevant data be sex disaggregated and additional relevant gender-sensitive indicators, such as the Gender Parity Index (GPI) for the Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) in primary and secondary education and the GPI for the transition rate to secondary education, be integrated into the project design. **Reference Module: 9**

Facilitated by

- **Gender expertise:** Relevant technical expertise can make it easier for planning teams to implement the preceding gender framework elements in a structured

manner. Planners and other stakeholders may decide to seek help from gender experts to promote and facilitate advocacy work on gender equality and assist with integrating gender into the ESPs. Experts can be selected to provide general guidance on gender integration and gender in education, as well as input on areas of particular importance in a given country.

- **Knowledge sharing** facilitates learning. Case studies that highlight good practices and lessons learned

enable planners and practitioners to learn from the experiences of others and apply them to their own work.

Although these elements may not exhaust the different ways in which ESPs can take gender into account, they identify the critical building blocks for making ESPs more gender responsive.

1.7 Additional Resources on Education Sector Planning

Equity and Inclusion in Education: A guide to support education sector plan preparation, revision and appraisal. Fast Track Initiative (FTI) and UNGEI, 2010.

Education's Missing Millions: Including Disabled Children in Education through EFA FTI Processes and National Sector Plans – Main Report of Study Findings. Philipa Lei, World Vision UK 2007.

FHI 360 Gender Integration Framework: How to Integrate Gender in Every Aspect of Our Work, 2012.

Gender Implementation Guidelines (GIG) for the Design and Implementation of Education Sector Development Plans. Caribbean Development Bank, 2016.

Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Preparation. GPE and UNESCO-IIEP, 2015.

Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Appraisal. GPE and UNESCO-IIEP, 2015.

Guidelines for Transitional Education Plan Preparation. GPE and UNESCO-IIEP, 2016.

Introduction to Gender, Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning by Kimberly Bowman and Caroline Sweetman, Oxfam GB and Routledge, 2014.

Planning matters in education. A handbook for civil society participation in national education sector plan activities and processes. Global Campaign for Education, 2014.

II. GENDER ANALYSIS

Module 2: Assessing the Enabling Environment for Gender Equality

2.1 Overview

Understanding gender inequalities in education requires awareness of the economic, legal, political and social contexts in an individual country. This involves knowing about the general situation of women, men, girls and boys, as well as laws, policies and customary norms and practices as they affect them (often differently). This module will:

- Define an “enabling environment” for girls’ education and gender equality;
- Discuss the importance of assessing the enabling environment for addressing gender issues in education;
- Highlight the importance of ensuring synergy between legal provisions in education and those in other sectors; and
- Provide practical examples of creating an enabling environment in particular country contexts.

2.2 What Is an Enabling Environment and Why Is It Important?

Legal and policy frameworks regarding women and men, girls and boys, as well as access to the labor market and political participation, have their origin beyond the education sector, yet can all have a significant impact on education outcomes. School is a mirror of society and education development is inseparable from the broader environment in which it takes place. In this context, the benefits of education cannot be realized without ensuring that the sector operates in an enabling environment. An enabling environment may be defined as a set of interrelated and interdependent

BOX 2.1 KEY TERMS

The enabling environment includes the broader political, economic, social and legal environment in a country which exerts a positive influence on creating a supportive environment to promote girls’ education and gender equality.

Discriminatory social institutions are formal and informal laws, social norms and practices that restrict or exclude women and consequently curtail their access to rights, justice, resources and empowerment opportunities.

Source: OECD, 2014.

systemic conditions, such as policies, laws, institutional mechanisms and resources, that facilitate the promotion of gender equality (UN, 2005). Undertaking gender analysis therefore requires understanding the global and national context and the elements which support or work against gender equality in education.

At the global level there have been various efforts made to create an enabling environment for girls’ education and gender equality. Several international declarations and frameworks have been adopted such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), and, most recently, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). These international instruments recognize the importance of girls’ right to education. For instance, Articles 10, 11 and 12 of CEDAW call on states to ensure that girls and women have equal access and equal rights in the fields of employment, education and health. These frameworks, to which many developing countries are signatories, have become guiding principles for regional and national constitutions, legislation and policies.

BOX 2.2 GENDER INEQUALITY INDICES

The **Gender Inequality Index (GII)** is a composite index reflecting gender inequality based on the following indicators: maternal mortality ratio, adolescent birth rate, share of seats held by women in national parliaments, share of population (male and female) with at least some secondary education, and labor force participation rate (male and female). It reflects *gender outcomes*, irrespective of the legal frameworks and social beliefs that may have contributed to these figures. Comparisons with other countries within the same region or with similar levels of economic development can be made here: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii>

The **Global Gender Gap Index** also reflects *gender outcomes* regarding economic participation and opportunity (including salaries and access to

high-skilled employment), educational attainment, political empowerment, and health and survival. For more information see: <http://reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2014/>

The **OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI)**, on the other hand, reflects mostly *legal frameworks* that affect gender outcomes and to a lesser extent gender-related *attitudes and outcomes*. The computation of the SIGI includes indicators regarding: family code (marriage, parental authority and inheritance), physical integrity issues (violence against women, female genital mutilation and reproductive autonomy), son bias, access to resources (financial services) and assets (land and non-land), and civil liberties (public space and political participation). For more information see: <http://genderindex.org/>

2.3 Assessing the Enabling Environment

A number of measurement tools have been developed to monitor countries based on their global commitment to gender equality. Indicators and data help illustrate the gaps between their global commitments and results. The UNDP Gender Inequality Index (GII), the World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Index, and the OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) provide an overview of inequalities, both in terms of gender outcomes and regarding gender-related attitudes and legal or policy frameworks (see details in Box 2.2). The indices are calculated using general data on indicators like women's economic and political participation, women's annual income as compared to men's, and the gender division of unpaid care work.

In addition to providing comparative information on gender equality in individual countries, these indices also help clarify relationships between attitudes,

legal frameworks, and gender outcomes. The SIGI, for example, shows that when discrimination in social institutions against women is high, key development outcomes such as girls' education, employment and empowerment are low. The index illustrates the link between practices such as early marriage and early pregnancy and education. In countries where more girls aged 15-19 marry than boys, fewer girls complete secondary school, which increases the gender gap in completion rates. Similarly, where adolescent fertility rates are high, fewer girls enroll in secondary school, thereby increasing the gender gap in enrollment and completion rates (OECD, 2014).

2.4 Creating an Enabling Environment

In order to create an enabling environment, mechanisms should be put in place at various levels and diverse stakeholders should be included in the process.

Some of these mechanisms will be discussed in subsequent modules. In general, an enabling environment may include important aspects such as:

- ❶ **Demonstrated political will and commitment** to girls' education and gender equality at the highest levels, including commitment to global and regional mandates like the CEDAW, the CRC, EFA, and the SDGs;
- ❷ **Comprehensive institutional and legislative frameworks** conducive to advancing girls' education and gender equality, including those addressing discriminatory social institutions relating to inheritance, child marriage, child labor, gender-based violence and teenage pregnancy, among others. The various frameworks should work simultaneously in order for girls' education programming to be effective;
- ❸ **Targeted poverty alleviation and social protection measures** for women and other vulnerable groups and measures to increase women's labor market participation, such as the availability of child care;
- ❹ **A critical mass of women in decision-making positions** in the political, public and private sectors;
- ❺ **Strong community engagement** such as well-developed and autonomous civil society organization and networks. The community can play a crucial role in shaping policies, monitoring programs and holding governments accountable for their commitment to girls' education and gender equality; and
- ❻ **Adequate human and financial resources** specifically allocated to promoting gender equality in education and society as a whole, including donor aid and technical assistance.

—(Commonwealth Secretariat, 1999; UNESCO, 2015)

In 2012, the Government of Liberia took some concrete actions to create an enabling environment for girls' education. Box 2.3 provides an example of one mechanism that the government has put in place.

BOX 2.3 PROMOTING GIRLS' EDUCATION IN LIBERIA

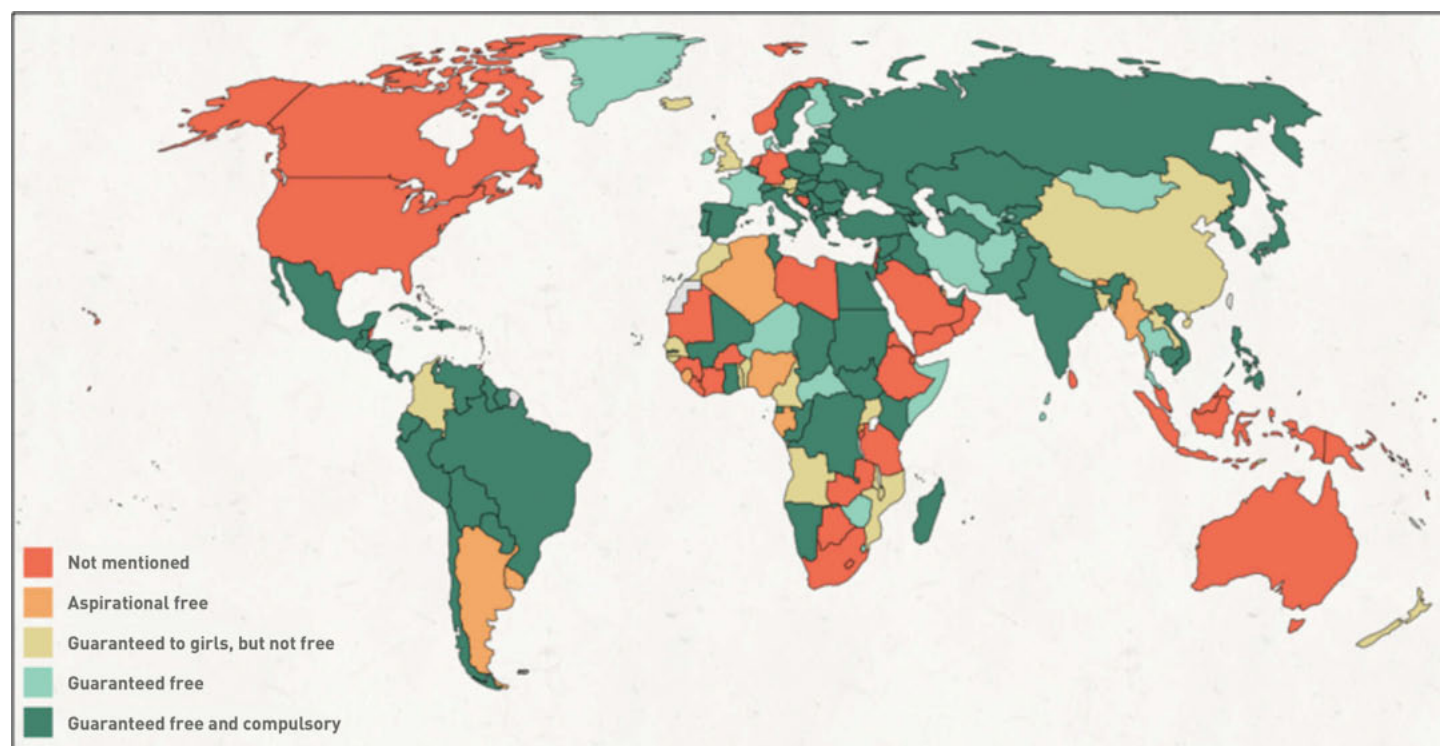
In Liberia, some institutional structures have been created to specifically address girls' education and gender equality. At the Ministry of Education there is a Girls' Education Unit that was set up in 2006 with support from UNICEF, while in 2012, to demonstrate political will and commitment to issues affecting girls, President Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf launched an Adolescent Girls Unit at the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection. The unit's role is to address the issues, needs and concerns of girls ages 10–24, with special focus on girls ages 10–15. It works to ensure that policies and programs at the national level are improved to work better for Liberian girls, a group previously neglected by structures addressing women and youth. With support from the World Bank, the Adolescent Girls' Unit established a resource center to provide adolescent girls with access to information and communication technology (ICT), as well as to serve as a link to support services for gender-based violence and child protection.

Sources: Sonpon, 2014; Republic of Liberia, 2010; Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection, Republic of Liberia, 2016.

2.5 Legal Rights

Legislation is a fundamental component of the enabling environment and an important element of a comprehensive policy for equal access and opportunities to education. Nationally, governments have established constitutions, laws and policies that protect the rights of citizens to education. Figure 2.1 shows the type of education rights that are guaranteed for girls at the primary level in various constitutions around the world.

FIGURE 2.1 WHAT TYPE OF EDUCATION RIGHTS³ DOES THE CONSTITUTION GUARANTEE FOR GIRLS?—PRIMARY EDUCATION



Source: World Policy Analysis Center, 2015.

Key

- **Not mentioned** means that the constitution does not explicitly guarantee either a right to primary education for girls or a right to free primary education for citizens. This does not mean that the constitution denies girls the right to primary education or free primary education, but that it does not explicitly include either of these rights. If the right to primary education is only guaranteed universally and there are no specific provisions to encourage girls' enrollment either by protecting them from discrimination or ensuring that primary education is free, the country will appear as not having a relevant provision.
- **Aspirational free** means that the constitution protects the right to free primary education, but does not use language strong enough to be considered a guarantee. For example, constitutions in this category might state that the country intends to provide free primary education.
- **Guaranteed right to primary for girls, but not free** means that the constitution guarantees the right to primary education for girls or protects against gender discrimination in education in authoritative language. However, constitutions in this category do not guarantee that education is free which may limit girls' ability to attend school.
- **Guaranteed free to citizens** means that the constitution guarantees the right to free education to all children or specifically to girls, in authoritative language, either generally or specifically at the primary level. However, constitutions in this category do not guarantee that primary education is compulsory.
- **Guaranteed free and compulsory to citizens** means that the constitution guarantees both the right to free and the right to compulsory education in authoritative language to all children or specifically to girls, either generally or specifically at the primary level.

³ Right to primary education means the constitution explicitly mentions a right to primary education or education generally.

Legislation relating to the education sector should be seen in conjunction with legislation for other sectors such as child protection, health and labor. Legal provisions relating to age of compulsory education can only be implemented effectively if there is coherence among policies that legislate the ages at which children can or should be in school, at work, married, taken before a court or imprisoned. For example, if the minimum age of marriage is 14 and the age of secondary completion is 18, it will affect girls' ability to exercise their right to education.

This demonstrates that while gender issues in education are situated within the policy context of the education sector, success in addressing these issues is also influenced by the broader political, economic, social and legal environments of the country. Together, these interrelated conditions provide the enabling environment for girls' education and gender equality.

2.6 Exploring the Enabling Environment: A Uganda Example

The Uganda context provides an example of the policy commitments that have been made as part of legislation and policy at the national level, and also within the education sector, to create an enabling environment for girls' education and gender equality. The overall policy environment supports and reinforces the effectiveness of education-specific policies. Some of these policy frameworks include the following:

National level

- ➊ *Uganda Gender Policy (2007)*: Serves as the principal guide for gender mainstreaming in Uganda.
- ➋ *National Development Plan (2010)*: Advocates for gender equality and empowerment of women through a number of sectors, including education.
- ➌ *National Action Plan on Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labor in Uganda (2012/13-2016/17)*: Provides a strategic framework to end child labor by 2017.

- ➍ *National Strategy to End Child Marriage and Teenage Pregnancy (2014/2015-2019/2020)*: Protects children from marriage before the age of 18.

Sector level

- ➎ *Revised Education Sector Strategic Plan (2007-2015)*: Outlines the policies and strategies for addressing barriers to girls' education.
- ➏ *Gender in Education Policy (2009)*: Guides the implementation and monitoring of a gender-sensitive and gender-responsive education system.
- ➐ *National Strategy for Girls' Education in Uganda (2015-2019)*: Advocates for girls' education as a critical factor in promoting gender equity and equality.
- ➑ *National Strategy on Violence against Children in Schools (2015-2020)*: Aimed at eliminating all forms of violence, including gender-based violence, in schools.

Sources: UNESCO, 2015b; Ministry of Gender, Labor and Social Development (MoGLSD), Uganda, 2012; MoGLSD, Uganda, 2015; Ministry of Education and Sports, Uganda, 2013; UNICEF, 2015.

There is also cooperation and coordination among ministries, civil society and development partners in Uganda in order to address certain cross-sectoral issues affecting girls' education, such as menstrual hygiene management (MHM). The Menstrual Hygiene Management Committee, chaired by the Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Sports, brings together all relevant stakeholders of MHM including the Ministry of Health, the Ministry of Gender, Labor and Social Development, the Ministry of Water and Environment, civil society organizations and the Ugandan Parliament. One of the committee's achievements is the development of key indicators to monitor MHM in schools. Data on these indicators is being collected through the annual school census, in preparation for reporting at the annual education sector review.

2.7 An Enabling Environment for Safe Schools: Policy Responses to Prevent School-Related Gender-Based Violence and Homophobic Bullying

National and local policy responses to discrimination based on sexual orientation can include both education-specific and broader legislation and policies to address homophobic bullying and strengthen the enabling environment for safe schools and education for all students.

Bullying includes behaviors like teasing, name calling, physical violence and social exclusion. Children may be targeted for bullying because they live with a disability or come from an ethnic minority group or a certain socioeconomic background, among other reasons. Bullying that is based on actual or perceived sexual orientation or gender identity is referred to as *homophobic bullying*. Targets of this type of bullying may attend school less frequently, drop out of school early and exhibit poor academic performance. They may experience depression, anxiety and other problems and are at higher risk for self harm and suicide (UNESCO, 2012).

Whether or not homosexuality is accepted in a specific context, it is important to address homophobic bullying because it is a form of discrimination and exclusion, it violates the principle of safe schools, and it undermines the right to education and the goals of Education for All. Bullying has a negative impact not just on those being bullied, but on those doing the bullying, bystanders and the broader school community.

National and local policy responses to prevent homophobic bullying can include:

- ❶ Constitutions, laws and antidiscrimination policies that include protection from discrimination on the grounds of sexual orientation and gender identity.
- ❷ Policies specific to the education sector that address discrimination on the grounds of sexual orientation and sexual identity.
- ❸ School policies that address bullying and violence in general and homophobic bullying specifically, and promote safe schools.

2.8 Exercise for Reflection and Application

Table 2.1 serves as an aid to identifying, understanding and assessing the main components of the enabling environment. It is helpful for reviewing how a country performs against particular indicators and what conditions are in place in the education sector and the broader social, political and economic environments to advance girls' education and gender equality.

To use the table, make an assessment against the various criteria in the column labelled "Areas to Examine"

and note down answers to each of the questions in the next four columns. In the column to the far right, record what the data indicate and the implications for gender equality in education. At the end of the exercise, space is provided to capture key findings and identify what might be done to strengthen the enabling environment for gender equality in education.

Please note that this is an illustrative list and ultimately it is the national context that will define what is important. Delete elements that are deemed unimportant and identify additional elements that are part of the enabling environment in the country in question.

TABLE 2.1 ASSESSING THE ENABLING ENVIRONMENT

	Areas to Examine	Yes/No/ Partly/n.a.	Sources of Data (where relevant)	Implications for Gender Equality in Education
<p style="text-align: center;">Enabling Political and Policy Environments</p>	<p>Is the country a signatory to international agreements such as the Convention for Eliminating All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) that protects the rights of women and girls? If so, which ones and when were they signed?</p>			
	<p>Are the rights of girls and women recognized in national development policies such as the National Plan, Poverty Reduction Strategy Plan, etc.?</p>			
	<p>Are the rights of girls and boys to education and protection⁴ recognized in national development policies?</p>			
	<p>Is there a law on the age of marriage? What is the legal age of marriage for girls and boys?</p>			
	<p>Do institutions or other public offices exist, such as the Ministry of Gender/Women and the Ministry of Youth and Child Welfare, that are charged with addressing gender issues? Which institutions are these?</p>			

⁴ According to UNICEF (2006) child protection refers to “preventing and responding to violence, exploitation and abuse against children—including commercial sexual exploitation, trafficking, child labor and harmful traditional practices, such as female genital mutilation/cutting and child marriage.”

Areas to Examine	Yes/No/ Partly/n.a.	Sources of Data (where relevant)	Implications for Gender Equality in Education
<p>Are these other institutions equipped for their role? Are they:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Guided by facilitating legislation that addresses the key concerns? ➤ Part of a coordinating framework that allows for cross-sectoral issues to be addressed? 			
<p>Are CSOs playing an active role in promoting the rights of women and girls, and their rights to and through education?</p>			
<p>Enabling Political and Policy Environments</p>			
<p>Data Availability</p>			
<p>Is the country ranked in the following global indices?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Gender Inequality Index (GII) ➤ Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) ➤ Global Gender Gap Index 			
<p>Availability of data on women's political and economic participation For example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Women's participation in the political sphere ➤ Gender differences in the incidence of poverty 			

(continued)

TABLE 2.1 CONTINUED

	Areas to Examine	Yes/No/ Partly/n.a.	Sources of Data (where relevant)	Implications for Gender Equality in Education
Data Availability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Female headed households and their distribution (geographically and by wealth quintile) ➤ Women’s access to reproductive health and services ➤ Women’s participation in the economy ➤ Women’s participation in various professions ➤ Women’s annual income as compared to men’s ➤ Gender division of unpaid care work 			
	Availability of sex disaggregated data on child labor			
	Availability of data on gender-based violence			
Key Findings				
Recommended Action				

2.9 Additional Resources on the Enabling Environments for Girls' Education and Gender Equality

EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015: Education for All 2000-2015: Achievements and Challenges. UNESCO, 2015.

Gender Inequality Index (GII), UNDP

Global Database on the Right to Education. UNESCO, 2015.

Global Gender Gap Index, WEF

Social Institutions and Gender Index, OECD

What type of education rights does the constitution guarantee for girls? World Policy Analysis Center, 2015.

Module 3: Applying a Gender Lens to Education Sector Policy

3.1 Overview

Analysis of existing education policies is an essential component of the sector analysis. Applying a gender lens to this analysis can help highlight achievements in girls' education under existing policies as well as areas for improvement. This module aims to:

- ❶ Introduce policy making and the need to address gender in education policy;
- ❷ Present sector planning as a cycle and gender analysis as part of that cycle;
- ❸ Highlight how gender analysis helps in understanding current education policy, including how gender has been addressed and the lessons learned; and
- ❹ Provide examples of education policies that have been introduced to support girls' education and gender equality in education.

3.2 Education Sector Policy

A foundational step in the sector planning process is to develop a sound understanding of the experiences of girls, boys, women and men in the education sector and how they relate to society more broadly. This module focuses on how education sector policy feeds into that analysis. The information gathered and reviewed during this stage of the analysis helps assess whether, at the sector level, the policy environment supports girls' education. Additionally, it helps to ensure that the education sector plan promotes effective actions that advance gender equality.

Public policies lay out a government course of action intended to address an issue or change a certain situation. They are formulated by a specific political process and adopted, implemented, and enforced by a public agency. Governments use policy to tackle a wide range

of education issues such as high student/teacher and student/class ratios, poor infrastructure, high rates of wastage due to school dropout before completion, rates of repetition and absenteeism, lack of teaching and learning materials, inefficiencies in teacher recruitment and deployment, mother tongue instruction, information and communication technology (ICT) in education, and inclusive education, among others. Some education policies focus on issues faced by girls, such as menstruation and early pregnancy. Gender-responsive policy making in education, however, integrates gender considerations across all policies.

3.3 Applying Gender Analysis to Education Policy

Applying a gender lens to the analysis of education policy is important because all policies affect girls and boys. Sometimes these policies, gender-specific or not, impact girls and boys differently. A gender analysis of education policy enables these differences to be brought to light so that appropriate actions can be taken.

The starting point for any gender analysis of the education sector is to assess how gender is reflected in the overall sector vision and accompanying policies. Are gender considerations integrated across all policies or are gender considerations missing in some? Does the teacher recruitment and deployment policy, for example, consider the needs of both male and female teachers? Or is gender the exclusive domain of a separate policy? Some countries have separate gender policies for the education sector or a girls' education strategy. It is important to also remember that some policies that do not explicitly refer to gender (such as a general policy regarding school fees) may impact girls and boys differently. Important areas to examine in a gender analysis of education sector policy include:

- ➊ What are the broad vision, principles and values that guide planning and program design in the education sector?
- ➋ To what extent do gender considerations feature in the education policy context? Do education policy documents show commitment or intent to address girls' education or advance gender equality?
- ➌ Are there other policies (on school fees, school feeding or construction, for example) that do not explicitly mention gender but that may impact girls and boys differently?

Gender disparities can take many different forms across countries. Thus, countries need a range of different policies to address the specific inequalities related to access, classroom practices, transition to higher levels of education and other issues. In many countries, policies to advance girls' education relate to female teachers (university entry, training, recruitment, pay, and transfer or promotion), distance from students' homes to school (school construction, transportation and payment schemes), teacher comportment (codes of conduct, training, transfer, and reporting and response), school infrastructure (access to water, sanitation and hygiene), and attendance (policies on pregnant girls' attendance and reentry policies for adolescent mothers).

Although boys' underperformance and dropouts have been identified as issues in some contexts, there has been far less policy work in these areas. The Ministry

of Education in Trinidad and Tobago commissioned a study (George et al., 2009) to help generate strategies to address boys' underperformance. Based on a review of literature, the study made some recommendations to the Ministry. Some school policy and practices recommendations included:

- ➊ Discontinue school practices that regard some activities as the exclusive domain of boys and others of girls.
- ➋ Eliminate the gendered curriculum that still prevails, especially at the secondary level.
- ➌ Implement behavior and discipline policies firmly but equitably, with good pastoral support, so the school is a place where boys feel comfortable with learning.
- ➍ Do not develop any school policy that focuses exclusively on boys, since this reinforces gender differences and encourages teachers to think in terms of the strengths of children apropos of their sex, and accommodate, rather than address, their weaknesses.

Analyzing policy frameworks in education should be done in tandem with the analysis of gender issues. For example, analysis of current issues may highlight high levels of adolescent pregnancy and low levels of adolescent mothers in school. This information can help policy makers and planners consider the effectiveness of existing reentry policies.

TABLE 3.1 EXAMPLES OF POLICIES TO SUPPORT GIRLS' EDUCATION AND GENDER EQUALITY IN EDUCATION

Area	Policy
Access	<p>Based on the success of the community-based education (CBE) model in getting children into school, particularly girls, the Afghanistan Policy Guidelines for Community-Based Education was approved in 2012. The main goal of establishing CBE is to provide access to basic education for girls and boys in remote and marginalized rural and semi-urban areas where children are unable to access formal government schools because of distance or age. The policy guidelines, which have gender considerations, stipulate various conditions for the establishment of CBE. For example, the document outlines that preference should be given to recruiting female teachers since girls are not allowed to go to school if the teacher is male.</p> <p><i>Source: Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, 2012.</i></p>

Area	Policy
Early Pregnancy Prevention and Management	<p>In Namibia, the <i>Education Sector Policy for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy</i> was approved by the Cabinet in 2009. The primary objective of the policy is to decrease the number of student pregnancies and increase the number of student parents completing their educations. To prevent pregnancy, the policy indicates that schools will provide education on sexual and reproductive health as well as life skills. With regard to learner pregnancy, policy provisions are outlined for the female learner, male learner (if responsible for pregnancy), family, schools, and key line ministries.</p> <p><i>Source: Government of Namibia, 2009.</i></p>
Safe Schools	<p>The 2009 <i>Behaviour Management Policy for the National Education System</i> of Papua New Guinea is guided by, among other principles, the right to a safe learning environment free of violence, sexual harassment, abuse and exploitation. The policy outlines the responsibilities of different stakeholders such as students, parents and guardians, teachers and communities. Communities are encouraged to “protect all children, especially girls and young women, from sexual harassment, rape, incest and sexual exploitation.” A supplementary <i>Behaviour Management</i> guide to the policy was also developed for schools. The policy is currently undergoing revision to specifically address school-related gender-based violence. Provision for protection aspects, especially for girls, is being addressed through revision of the school behaviour management policy to specifically address school-related gender-based violence.</p> <p><i>Source: Papua New Guinea Department of Education, 2009.</i></p>
Children with Disabilities	<p>The Kingdom of Cambodia Policy on Education for Children with Disabilities (2008) aims to ensure the right of children with disabilities to education. The policy is aligned with the Child Friendly Schools framework, which includes a dimension on gender responsiveness. Consequently, the policy includes an objective “to ensure all children, especially girls with disabilities, access to schools and their participation in all school and social activities similar to nondisabled children.” To increase the enrollment of girls with disabilities, the document outlines actions such as collecting data on girls with disabilities, having women with disabilities serve as role models and participate in school activities, and flexible scheduling for girls with disabilities.</p> <p><i>Source: Kingdom of Cambodia, 2008.</i></p>
Bilingual Education	<p>In 2016 the Government of Peru approved an Intercultural Bilingual Education (IBE) Policy and Plan, which was informed by evidence on improved learning outcomes for children who receive instruction in their mother tongue and good practices in managing IBE (UNICEF, 2015). The IBE policy will support learning and language preservation for children from indigenous communities, the poorest and most excluded group in Peru. The policy is particularly important for indigenous girls, as they face the greatest disadvantage in education.</p> <p><i>Sources: UNICEF, 2015; Luisa Fornara, 2015.</i></p>

3.4 Exploring the Education Policy Context for Early and Unintended Pregnancy

Early and unintended pregnancy is a major obstacle to girls' education. Girls who become pregnant tend to face legal and social sanctions and often drop out of school. For communities, teachers, and families and girls themselves, early pregnancy is a life changing issue. Given the role of education policies at national, district, and school levels in providing or denying access to school for pregnant girls and young mothers, early pregnancy is also an education issue. Because adolescent pregnancy remains a sensitive issue, this is a particularly challenging area for education policy.

There is no blanket solution for addressing early and unintended pregnancy. Given different contexts, responses will vary by country. Some countries have opted to work towards preventing early pregnancy by integrating sexual and reproductive health education into the school curriculum or providing young people with access to health and education services. In other countries, policies support adolescent mothers to return to school.

“Reentry policies” are one option that allows adolescent mothers to return to school after giving birth. The development and implementation of reentry policies, however, have not been consistently effective and in some contexts have caused political concern and social backlash. Where consultation has not been part of the policy formulation process, the policies have not been supported by communities or implemented in schools. In some countries the disconnect between the education and health sectors on issues of sexual and reproductive health for adolescents has limited the effectiveness of school reentry policies.

UNESCO's *Developing an Education Sector Response to Early and Unintended Pregnancy* (2014) provides a detailed look at some features and shortfalls of reentry policies intended to enable girls to return to school after pregnancy.

Despite the positive intention of helping girls to continue their education, the policies also have a punitive edge due to strict requirements such as the obligation on girls to apply to a different school or to stay out of the education system for a fixed period of time before reentry. Moreover, some reentry policies have been driven by donors and are not fully supported by national education authorities, making the implementation harder for schools.

Features related to these policies can be categorized as follows:

- 🕒 **Reentry period:** Girls are allowed to go back to school after a context-specific period of time. For example, in 2007 the South African Department of Education released Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy supporting girls to return to school and recommending a two year break from school after pregnancy (Willan, 2013). However, two years is considered to be a long time to be out of formal schooling and to have to catch up with an academic program (Ramulumo and Pitsoe, 2013).
- 📄 **Conditionality for reentry:** Some countries require girls to meet specific conditions to be able to go back to school. Since 1993, for example, Malawi has had a policy allowing teen mothers to return to school after one year, but it obliges them to write three letters to the head teachers in order to reserve their place, something that is rarely done (Mchaju Liwewe, 2012). Girls sometimes choose to apply to a different school in order to avoid stigma and discrimination from peers and school staff. If accepted by the school, girls cannot drop out again, otherwise they will be permanently expelled (Mayzel et al., 2010).
- 👉 **Flexibility and support:** In some cases reentry policies offer a certain level of flexibility for adolescent mothers in order to support their return to school. In Madagascar, adolescent mothers can return to

BOX 3.1 EDUCATION POLICY AND SCHOOL-RELATED GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE

School-related gender-based violence (SRGBV) is defined as acts or threats of sexual, physical or psychological violence occurring in and around schools or on the way to school. SRGBV can take the form of psychological, physical or sexual violence against girls and boys in and around and while on the way to and from school. SRGBV includes explicit threats or acts of physical violence, bullying, verbal or sexual harassment, non-consensual touching, sexual coercion and assault and rape. Other implicit acts of SRGBV stem from everyday school practices that reinforce stereotyping and gender inequality, and encourage violent or unsafe environments, especially against those who do not conform to mainstream conceptions of masculinity or femininity. Corporal punishment and discipline are also often used in schools in gendered and discriminatory ways. Around the world, male and female educators and students can be victims and perpetrators of violence, although the extent and form can vary across countries and within regions (UNGEI et al., 2015). SRGBV stems from deeply rooted gender

norms, stereotypes, systemic inequalities and unequal power dynamics based on gender, and evidence suggests that girls and women are more vulnerable to forms of SRGBV. Situations of protracted conflict, displacement and poverty exacerbate children's vulnerability to SRGBV.

While evidence on the incidents and responses to SRGBV is growing, there is limited globally comparable data on the different forms of SRGBV and its impact on girls and boys. There is relatively more information on bullying, and corporal punishment and steps to address this within a national education policy are more common. However it is important to consider the gender dimensions of existing policies and ensure that they take into account the vulnerabilities of girls and boys. Policy responses to address SRGBV, in addition to anti-bullying programs, can include reporting and response protocols, teachers' codes of conduct, violence prevention and school safety policies and programs.

school immediately after delivery, while in Cameroon girls have the right to negotiate the duration of their maternity leave and can arrange for extra classes to catch up with the content missed

(Ministry of Education, 2008). In Kenya, the reentry policy recommends counselling for girls after their return (Omwancha, 2012).

(UNESCO, 2014)

3.5 Exercise for Application and Reflection

Table 3.2 outlines a brief exercise to assess the policy context for girls' education and gender equality at the country level. Discuss the questions in the first column entitled "Areas to Be Examined" and record any information, insights, and further questions in the second column entitled "Discussion Highlights."

TABLE 3.2 ASSESSING THE POLICY CONTEXT FOR GIRLS' EDUCATION AND GENDER EQUALITY IN THE EDUCATION SECTOR

Areas to Be Examined	Discussion Highlights
<p>1. Is there a national education law or policy ensuring free and compulsory public education for all? If yes, what does it include?</p>	
<p>2. Does the national or state education policy/plan address girls' education or gender equality?</p>	
<p>3. Are there policies to address:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Corporal punishment? ➤ Safety in schools, including school-related gender-based violence? ➤ Health, including sexual and reproductive health, life skills, and pregnancy prevention? ➤ Early marriage? ➤ Attendance by pregnant girls? ➤ Reentry of school-aged mothers after the birth of their babies and provision of child care? ➤ School sanitation and hygiene, including menstrual hygiene? 	

Areas to Be Examined	Discussion Highlights
<p>4. Are there policies that are not gender-specific but may have an impact on gender equality in education, e.g., school fee abolition policy, policy on the language of instruction, etc.?</p>	
<p>5. Is there a code of conduct for teachers? Does it include stipulations related to corporal punishment and gender-based violence?</p>	
<p>6. Is there a specific policy or other instrument to increase the number of female teachers? If yes, for what levels of education is this the case?</p>	
<p>7. Is there a specific policy or other instrument to increase the number of female managers or decision makers, including female school directors and district directors and supervisors?</p>	
<p>8. Are there policies or instruments in place to ensure that the development process for curriculum and teaching and learning materials is gender-responsive?</p>	
<p>9. Are there sex disaggregated sector goals and targets for key indicators such as enrollment, attendance, retention, repetition, transition to secondary, completion, or achievement? If so, at what levels of education?</p>	
<p>Key Findings</p>	
<p>Recommended Action</p>	

Module 4: Using Data to Analyze Challenges to Gender Equality in Education

4.1 Overview

Gender-sensitive education sector planning requires the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative information from a range of sources. This module focuses on the use of administrative and survey data to understand gender disparities in education, as well as the possible causes and contributing factors to these gender disparities. This module seeks to:

- ➊ Discuss the use of education data to measure gender parity and gender equality;
- ➋ Present different data sources for assessing gender parity and disparities in education;
- ➌ Provide examples of how data analysis can help identify gender disparities in education and their causes; and
- ➍ Illustrate the use and limitations of various data sources.

4.2 Gender Parity and Gender Equality

4.2.1 UNDERSTANDING THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GENDER PARITY AND GENDER EQUALITY

For governments and the global community seeking to fulfil long-standing commitments to ensuring access to quality education for all, gender parity in enrollment is considered a principal objective and key indicator of success. Gender parity refers to the equal participation of girls and boys in education. Gender equality is a broader concept referring to rights to gain access to and participate in education—sometimes defined as equal rights *to* education, *within* education, and *through*

education (UNESCO, 2003). Thus, gender equality in education requires pursuing gender-responsive educational environments and education outcomes that translate into girls’ and boys’ greater participation in the social, economic, and political development of their societies. Achieving gender parity is understood as only a first step towards gender equality (UNESCO, 2012).

Over the last fifteen years tremendous efforts have been made to eliminate gender disparities in education. Progress toward gender parity at the primary and secondary levels is considered one of the biggest success stories. Since 2000, the number of countries that have achieved gender parity in both primary and secondary education has increased from 36 to 62. At the same time, however, fewer than half of all countries achieved gender parity in primary and secondary education by 2015 and no country in Sub-Saharan Africa has achieved parity at both levels (UNESCO, 2015). In general, international and national measures used for reporting on gender in education chart gender parity in school enrollment, attendance, progression and learning outcomes. However, achieving gender parity does not mean that gender is no longer an issue in education. As a measurement technique, gender parity provides no information about classroom experience, participation and achievement, and the development of capacities that lead to empowerment. While gender parity remains an important measure, it provides incomplete information on the processes and investments needed to develop, support and sustain gender equality in education (Unterhalter, 2015).

4.2.2 THE GENDER PARITY INDEX

Discussions of gender differences in education are facilitated by a measure known as the Gender Parity Index (GPI). Measures of gender parity in education enable a comparison of female and male participation in and opportunities for schooling (FHI 360, 2015), and the GPI can be calculated for all sex disaggregated indicators in

education. The GPI is calculated by dividing the female value of an indicator by the male value for the given level of education (UIS).

$$\text{GPI for a given indicator in year } x = \frac{\text{Female value of a given indicator in year } x}{\text{Male value of a given indicator in year } x}$$

A GPI of one (1) indicates parity between the sexes. A GPI that varies between zero (0) and one (1) means a disparity in favor of males, and a GPI greater than one (1) indicates a disparity in favor of females. A GPI value ranging from 0.97 to 1.03 has generally been considered gender parity (UIS).

While the GPI is a useful tool to measure change, it does not necessarily mean that the education situation for girls or boys has improved. An increase in the GPI can mean that girls' enrollment or completion has improved or that boys' enrollment or completion has decreased. It also does not show whether the overall level of participation in education is low or high. As an indicator, the GPI is essential but not sufficient to reveal actual participation rates. Therefore, it needs to be supplemented by other indicators and analyses such as looking at trends in enrollment, participation and completion over time, and comparing trends for girls and boys.

4.2.3 MEASURING GENDER EQUALITY IN EDUCATION

Measurements of gender equality have not been globally applied, although small-scale efforts by researchers and NGOs have made important steps in advancing this work. The application of such measures is limited by the lack of global agreement on the precise definition of gender equality in education, and by a lack of comparable data across countries. The examples presented in this module will mostly focus on data that relates to gender parity.

4.3 Data Sources and Indicators for Analysis

Data enables policy makers and practitioners to have a better understanding of gender disparities and inequalities, and to make evidence-based decisions. Data become the building blocks for gender analysis, but data alone have no meaning—they must be interpreted. The same data can also be interpreted in different ways, so it is helpful to involve others or seek their interpretation. At a global level, internationally comparable data is provided by international statistical organizations such as the UNESCO Institute for Statistics and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). These data are calculated from administrative records reported annually by country ministries and administrative offices and sometimes reestimated and reorganized for comparability. The Education Policy and Data Center and World Bank EdStats are also major repositories of education data that can be useful. Both repositories provide comprehensive data drawn from international and national sources. However, the Education Policy Data Center and World Bank EdStats do not modify data from different sources to make them consistent.

4.3.1 SOURCES OF DATA

Common sources of data that are usually available at the country level and can inform and support gender analysis in education include:

- **Population census data** on basic demographic and social characteristics of the population such as age, sex, place of birth, marital status and place of usual residence. They may also include literacy, school attendance and educational attainment.
- **Administrative data** from education ministries and national statistics bureaus. These data are collected by national bodies in school census and education management information systems (EMIS), updated

on an annual basis, and may be disaggregated sub-nationally and by sex.

- ❶ **Household survey data** from sources such as the demographic and health surveys (DHS), UNICEF multiple indicator cluster surveys (MICS), and general household surveys (GHS) administered by national government agencies. Household surveys are especially valuable because they provide education indicators by background of the child or adult (such as sex, urban or rural location, wealth and parents' education).
- ❷ **Created data sets** like the UNESCO World Inequality Database on Education (WIDE) which highlights the powerful influence of circumstances such as wealth, gender, ethnicity and location on education, and highlights education inequality between groups within countries.
- ❸ **Learning outcomes information** from:
 - **Country-specific assessments**, including national examination results data as well as assessments of reading and numeracy like the Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) and the Early Grade Math Assessment (EGMA);
 - **Regional assessments**, such as the Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education (LLECE), the Program for the Analysis of Education Systems (PASEC), and the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Measuring Educational Quality (SACMEQ);
 - **International student assessments**, including the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), and the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS);
 - **Large-scale citizen-led assessments** of learning that are carried out at the household level. Examples of such include the Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) in India and Pakistan; Beekungo in Mali; Jangandoo in Senegal; and the Uwezo Initiative in Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda.

- ❹ The following may also include data, as well as analysis that can help in the interpretation of data:
 - **Government and joint donor-government education analysis documents**, including strategy documents, national textbook policies, teacher deployment policies or circulars, joint sector review reports, girls' education strategies, country status reports (CSRs) and poverty reduction strategy plans (PRSPs) or other analytical work;
 - **Evaluations** produced by government ministries, universities and partners such as UN agencies, the World Bank, bilateral development agencies, NGOs and CSOs;
 - **Research studies**, often commissioned by development partners and prepared by universities and research institutions on specific areas of interest. These studies can be either qualitative or quantitative in scope or adopt a mixed-method approach using both; and
 - **Small-scale data and independent surveys and information**, such as country reports on the incidence of school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV) (Plan Sierra Leone et al., 2010).

Administrative data and survey data are the most commonly used in education. Each type has its advantages and disadvantages. For example, administrative data measure the school universe, are collected more frequently, and are generally inexpensive. However, the data have limitations as they only capture information for students who are in school. Survey data measure the home universe and can therefore provide information about the demand for education. However, survey data are collected less frequently and can be more costly. Sometimes there are discrepancies between data reported from school census and those from household surveys, which can draw attention to important educational issues. More information on how administrative and survey data can be used to complement each other can be found in the *Guide to the Analysis and Use of Household Survey and Census Education Data* (see additional resources section).

4.3.2 KEY INDICATORS

Certain key indicators may be used to compare girls' and boys' education, largely in terms of parity in participation. Information on these indicators may come from administrative data, household survey data, national examination databases or learning assessment surveys. These key indicators include:

- **Percentage of new entrants to Grade 1 of primary education with early childhood education experience:** The total number of new entrants to Grade 1 of primary education who have attended some form of organized early childhood education program, expressed as a percentage of the total number of new entrants to primary education.
- **Gross Intake Ratio (GIR) in the first grade of primary:** The total number of new entrants in the first grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population at the official primary school entrance age. The same method is utilized to calculate the GIR for the first grade of lower secondary.
- **Dropout rate by grade:** The proportion of pupils from a cohort enrolled in a given grade in a given school year who are no longer enrolled in the following school year.
- **Repetition rates by grade:** Proportion of pupils from a cohort enrolled in a given grade in a given school year who study in the same grade in the following school year.
- **Gross Intake Ratio to the last grade of primary (Proxy measure for completion):** The total number of new entrants in the last grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population at the theoretical entrance age to the last grade of primary. The same method is utilized to calculate the GIR to the last grade of lower secondary.

- **Transition rate from primary to lower secondary education:** The number of pupils (or students) admitted to the first grade of lower secondary education in a given year, expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils (or students) enrolled in the final grade of primary education in the previous year.
- **Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER):** The total enrollment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education in a given school year.
- **Out-of-school children primary:** Children in the official primary school age range who are not enrolled in either primary or secondary schools. The **rate of out-of-school children** is the number of children of official primary school age who are not enrolled in primary or secondary school, expressed as a percentage of the population of official primary school age.
- **Learning outcomes:** Average grades or pass rates on national examinations, results on student assessment surveys (such as SACMEQ, PASEC, LLECE, PISA, TIMSS and PIRLS). At the preprimary level, the percentage of children aged 36-59 months who are on track in at least three of four development domains can be found from MICS data.

Notes on the use of indicators:

- Using only *Gross Enrollment Ratios* to compare girls' and boys' participation in education can be misleading, as higher GERs may be associated with higher access or participation of girls or boys, but also with higher repetition rates. Hence, if boys' GER is higher than that of girls, it may mean that girls enroll less in school or drop out more (girl disadvantage) but also that boys repeat more (which is to the detriment of boys).

❶ *Out-of-school children numbers or rates* (or sometimes *net enrollment rates* or NER, not mentioned above) may also be used. However, children of primary school age who will be sent to school late (a common occurrence in many countries) are included in out-of-school numbers (and not counted within the NER), even though they will ultimately access education. Differences in the rates of overage girls vs. boys can therefore affect the out of school and NER figures.

Source: UNESCO, 2016a

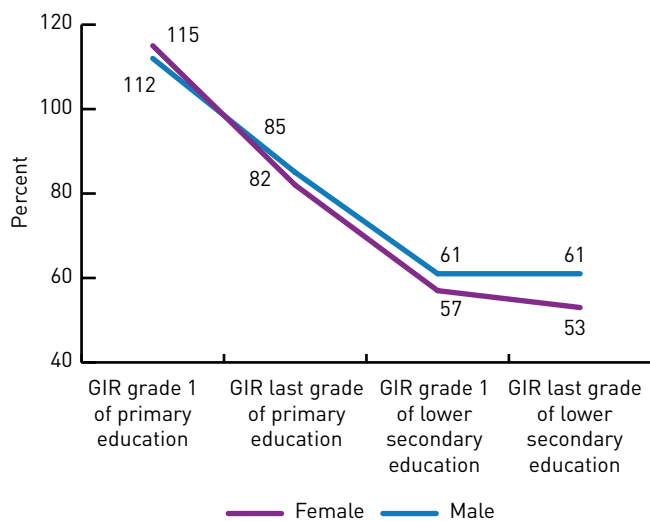
4.4 Identifying Gender Disparities in Education

4.4.1 GENDER DISPARITIES BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

For each of the key education indicators noted in the previous section, one can analyze the average values for girls and boys separately, then calculate the GPI. This helps compare the experience of girls and boys with regard to enrollment, progress, and completion at the various levels of education.

Figure 4.1 shows that there are relatively small differences between girls' and boys' access and progression at the primary level in Zambia. The gross intake rate in

FIGURE 4.1 COMPARING EDUCATION ACCESS AND COMPLETION FOR FEMALES AND MALES IN ZAMBIA, 2013



	GIR Grade 1 of Primary Education	GIR Last Grade of Primary Education	GIR Grade 1 of Lower Secondary Education	GIR Last Grade of Lower Secondary Education
Female	115	82	57	53
Male	112	85	61	61
GPI	1.03	0.96	0.93	0.86

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2015

the first grade of primary education is slightly higher for girls than for boys, while in the last grade of primary education, the reverse happens—boys appear to complete primary education at a slightly higher rate than girls. A large proportion of both girls and boys leave school between the last grade of primary and the beginning of lower secondary, as shown by the drop between the GIR to the last grade of primary and the GIR to the first grade of secondary education (25 percentage points for girls and 24 percentage points for boys). The GPI at the beginning of lower secondary education is 0.93. Disparities are most visible at the end of lower secondary education where the GPI is 0.86.

Despite having relatively similar progression in primary education, there is a significant difference in the learning outcomes of girls and boys in Zambia, particularly in mathematics. Data from the SACMEQ III (2007) show 53 percent of Grade 6 girls learning the basics in reading versus 58 percent for boys, while the figures for mathematics are 29 percent and 36 percent, respectively.

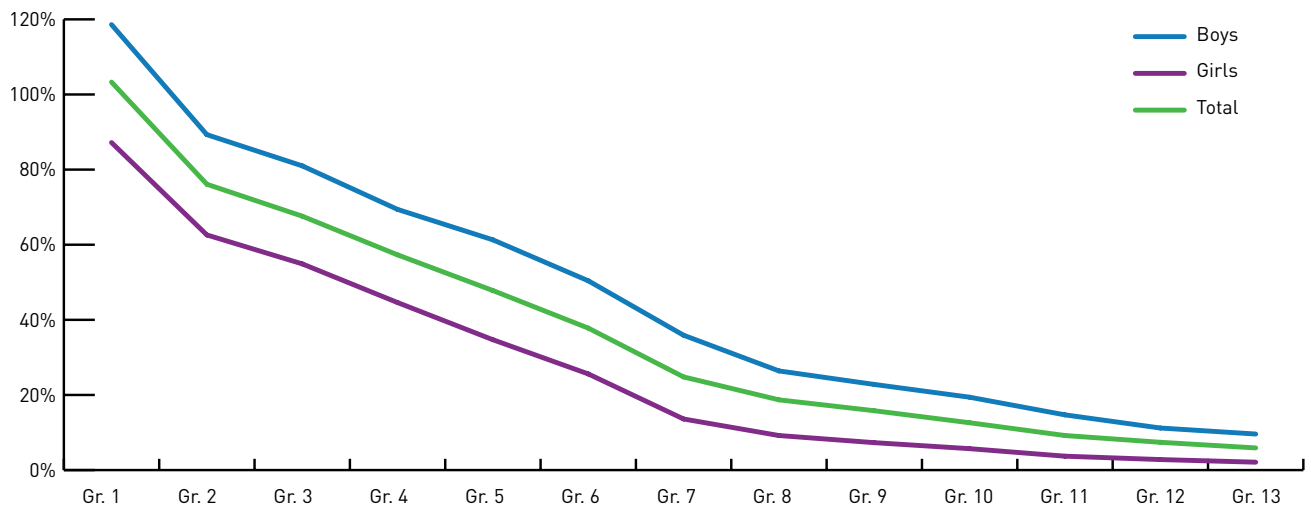
In addition to assessments of gender disparities at different levels of education, schooling profiles,⁵ which show children’s progression by grade, can be a useful tool. Figure 4.2 shows an example of a schooling profile for girls and boys in Chad, which highlights how gender disparities progress from one grade to another.

4.4.2 GENDER DISPARITIES ACROSS POPULATION GROUPS

Analyzing country averages for girls’ and boys’ access, progression and completion in education is a first step best followed by an in-depth analysis of gender disparities for different population groups.

Figure 4.3 shows the GPI for lower secondary school for several countries. It provides the average GPI, the GPI for children from the poorest 20 percent of households, and the GPI for children from the wealthiest 20 percent of households. In many countries (such as Haiti, Malawi, Ghana, Gabon and Colombia), the average GPI is close to 1 but the gender parity index for

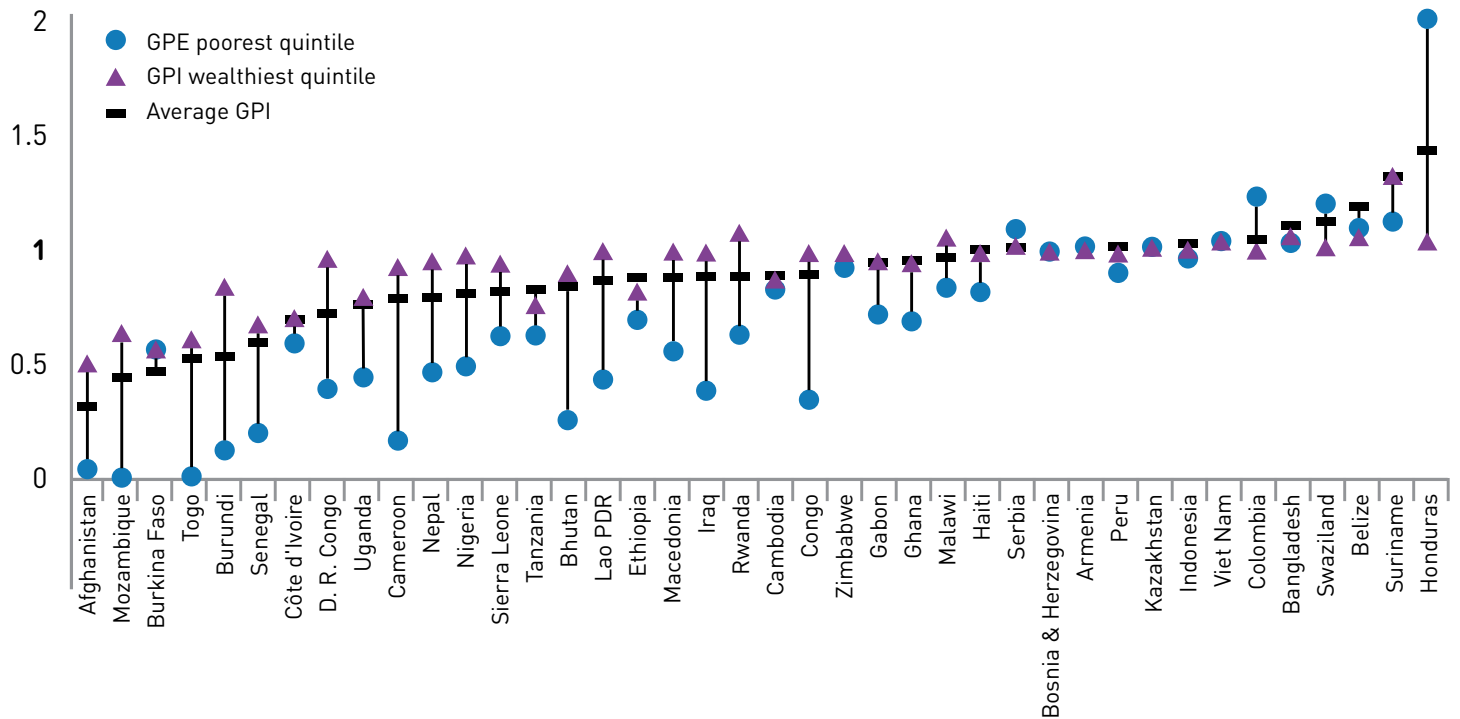
FIGURE 4.2 SCHOOLING PROFILE FOR GIRLS AND BOYS, CHADIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM, 2003/2004



Source: Pôle de Dakar et al., 2007.

⁵ For more details as to how to develop schooling profiles, see the GPE, UNESCO/IIEP, UNICEF and World Bank *Education Sector Analysis Methodological Guidelines* Volume 1, Section 2.1.

FIGURE 4.3 GENDER PARITY INDEX FOR THE LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION COMPLETION RATE—AVERAGE AND FOR CHILDREN FROM THE POOREST AND WEALTHIEST 20 PERCENT (“QUINTILES”) OF HOUSEHOLDS



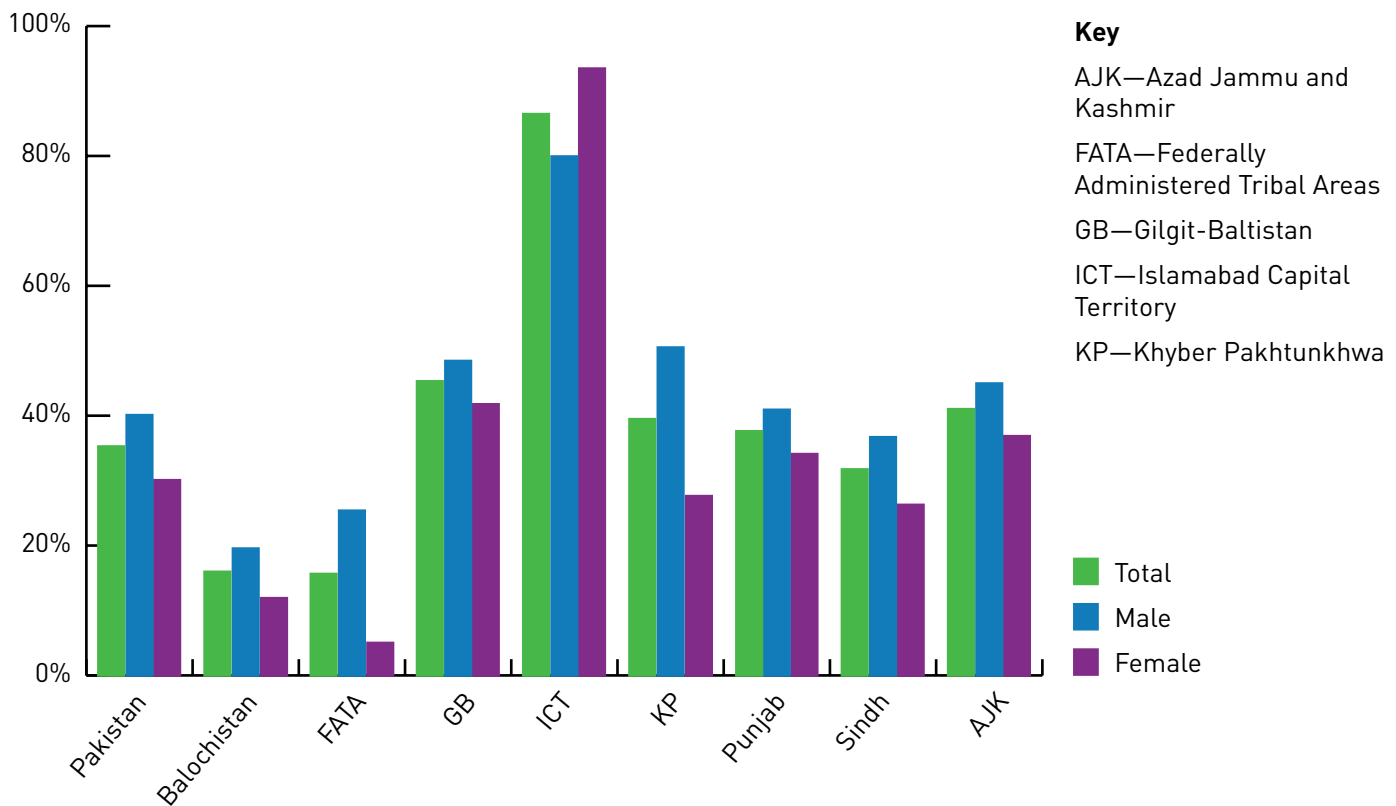
Sources: UNICEF, 2015; WIDE database, 2016.

the poorest students is far from 1. In such a context, the average masks gender disparities for some population groups. In other countries like the Democratic Republic of the Congo and Honduras, where gender disparities are significant, the average GPI indicates there are gender disparities in the country. However, analysis by wealth quintile shows that the wealthiest girls and boys are protected from these disparities. For example, in Honduras there are almost twice as many poor girls finishing lower secondary school than poor boys, while rich boys and girls complete lower secondary at similar rates. In other cases, advantage may differ according to the wealth quintile. For example, in Rwanda the girls' completion rate is higher than boys' among children from the wealthiest households, but poor girls are at a significant disadvantage as compared to poor boys. In contexts where gender disparities are very dissimilar for different population groups, analyzing only averages can lead to the design and application of solutions that, for many children in the country, will be

unnecessary or even possibly counter-productive. It is therefore essential to consider the interaction of gender with wealth and other factors of disadvantage such as location (urban/rural, by region), ethnicity, linguistic group and disability.

Figure 4.4 shows the analysis of gender disparities in the gross enrollment ratio in secondary education in Pakistan based on EMIS data to highlight regional differences. It shows that, nationally, the GER for boys in secondary education is somewhat higher than that of girls. However, when data are disaggregated by province, some provinces display much larger gender disparities in GER. For example, in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KP), almost twice as many boys are enrolled in secondary education as girls, while in the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) there are five times as many boys as girls. On the other hand, there are more females than males enrolled in secondary education in the Islamabad Capital Territory (ICT).

FIGURE 4.4 GROSS ENROLLMENT RATIO IN SECONDARY EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN FOR 2012–2013



Source: Government of Pakistan, Ministry of Federal Education and Professional Training, 2014.

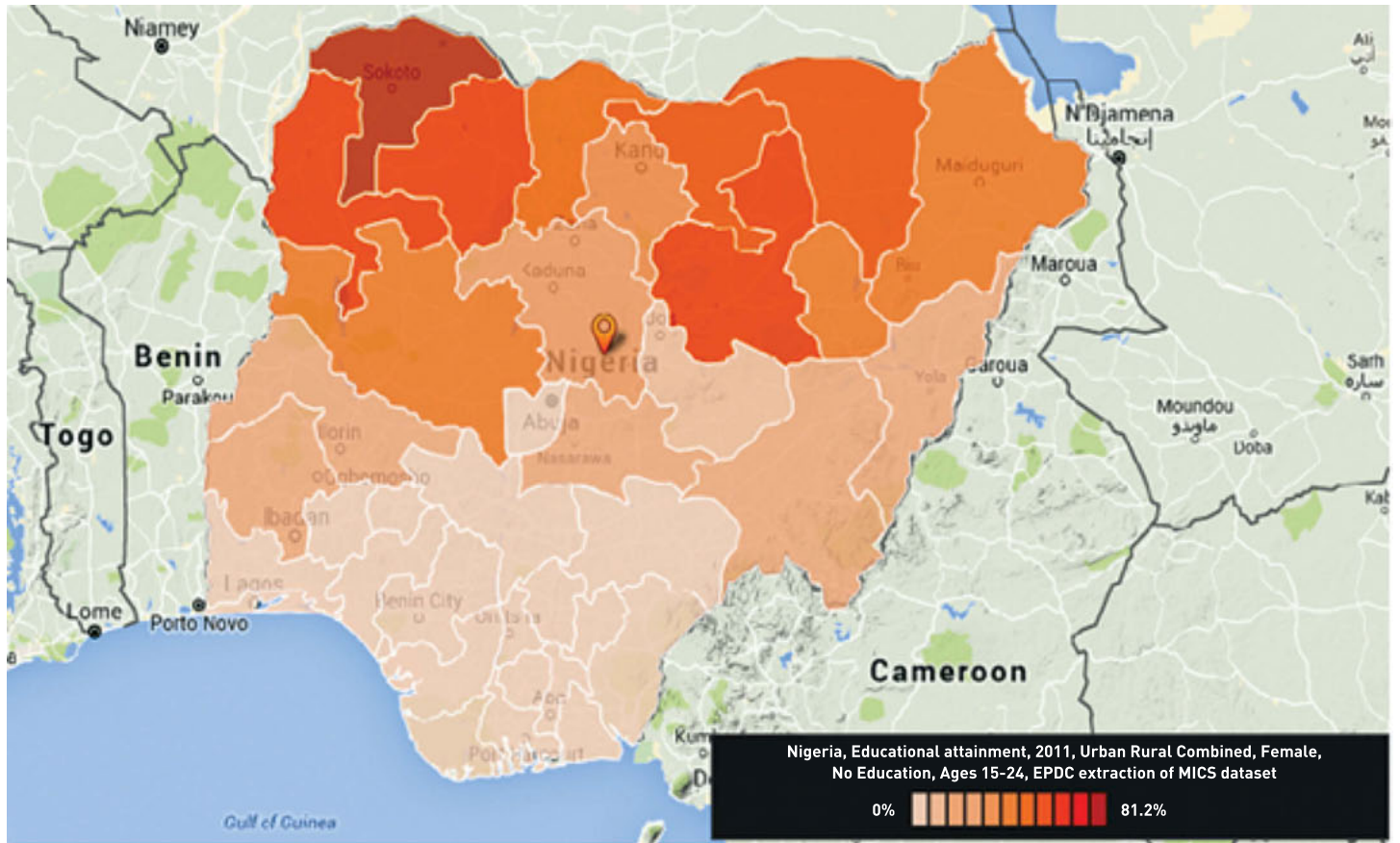
Maps are another way to visualize data and highlight geographic disparities. Figure 4.5, which was created using UNICEF MICS household survey data for 2011 from the FHI 360 Education Policy and Data Center database, shows gender disparities by geographic region. In this case, the majority of young women (ages 15-24) in Northern Nigeria have no education, in contrast to the Southern part of the country.

Disparities between different ethnic groups can also be considered. Figure 4.6 illustrates gender disparities by ethnic group in the context of Serbia. The graph shows secondary school attendance by gender in Serbia as a whole and for Roma settlements specifically.

It shows that while, on average, Serbian girls attend secondary school more often than boys (93 percent for girls vs. 86 percent for boys), boys from Roma settlements are almost twice as likely as girls from Roma settlements to attend (28 percent for boys vs. only 15 percent for girls).

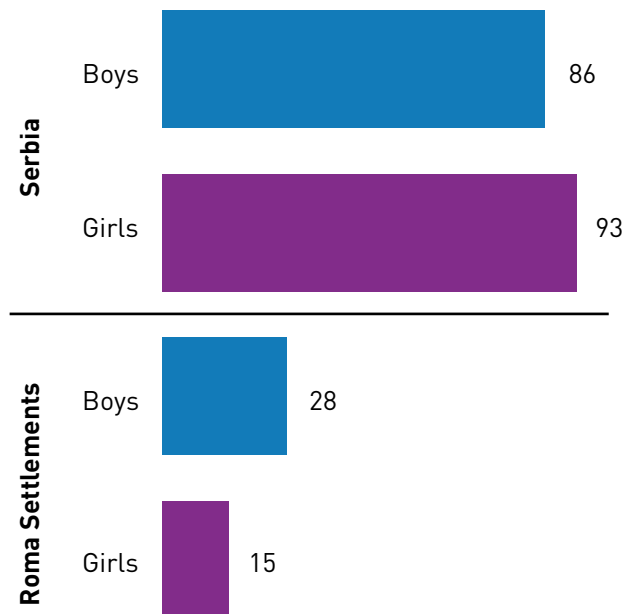
Given the variety in population groups within a country, it can be useful to summarize how various factors of disadvantage interact with gender. The World Inequality Database on Education is a very useful tool that enables users to compare different factors that are associated with inequality in an interactive way. Users can use the database to compare education outcomes

FIGURE 4.5 PERCENTAGE OF YOUNG WOMEN IN NIGERIA AGES 15-24 WITH NO EDUCATION



Source: FHI 360 Education Policy and Data Center.

FIGURE 4.6 SECONDARY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE FOR SERBIA, AVERAGE AND FOR ROMA SETTLEMENTS, BY GENDER



Sources: Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia and UNICEF, 2014.

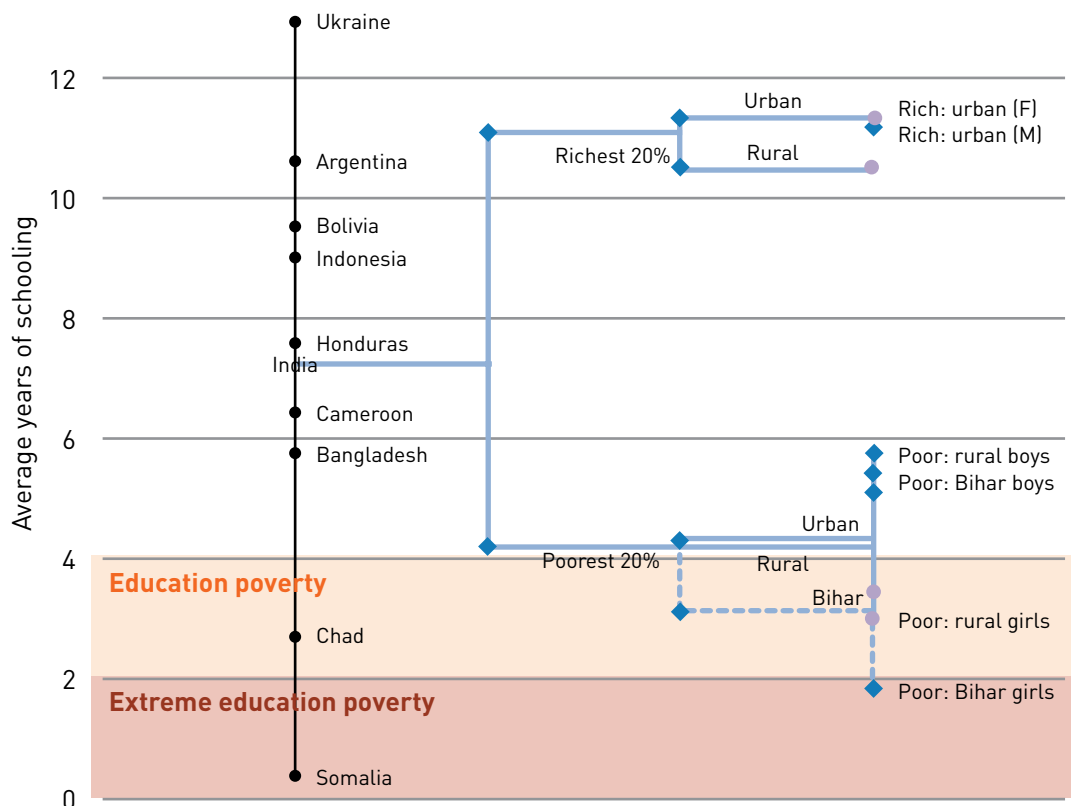
across and within countries. Figure 4.7 presents the average number of years of schooling by wealth, location, and gender in India. The graph shows that the poorest Bihari girls are the most disadvantaged.

BOX 4.1 THE NEPAL EDUCATION EQUITY INDEX

In recent years, Nepal has dramatically improved education equity; gender parity in access is now achieved from primary to secondary, and many children from formerly excluded population subgroups are attending schools. To further improve education equity, the Consolidated Equity Strategy was launched in 2014. As part of this, the Government of Nepal has been working in partnership with UNICEF and other development partners to develop an Education Equity Index that captures and compares inequalities in education across key dimensions, such as gender, caste and ethnicity, wealth, disability and geographic location. Drawing on education management and household survey data, the index calculates a unique percentage for the level of education inequalities in each district across three outcome areas—education access, participation and learning. In addition, the index allows a deeper analysis of the data so that the major drivers of the inequalities can be identified. The index is designed to provide education policy makers and planners with the information they need to better target their programming and ensure that resources are allocated to achieve greater equity among and within the districts in Nepal.

The Education Equity Index was approved in May 2016 and is the primary planning and implementation tool for the Government’s Consolidated Equity Strategy.

FIGURE 4.7 AVERAGE NUMBER OF YEARS OF SCHOOLING BY WEALTH, LOCATION AND GENDER IN INDIA



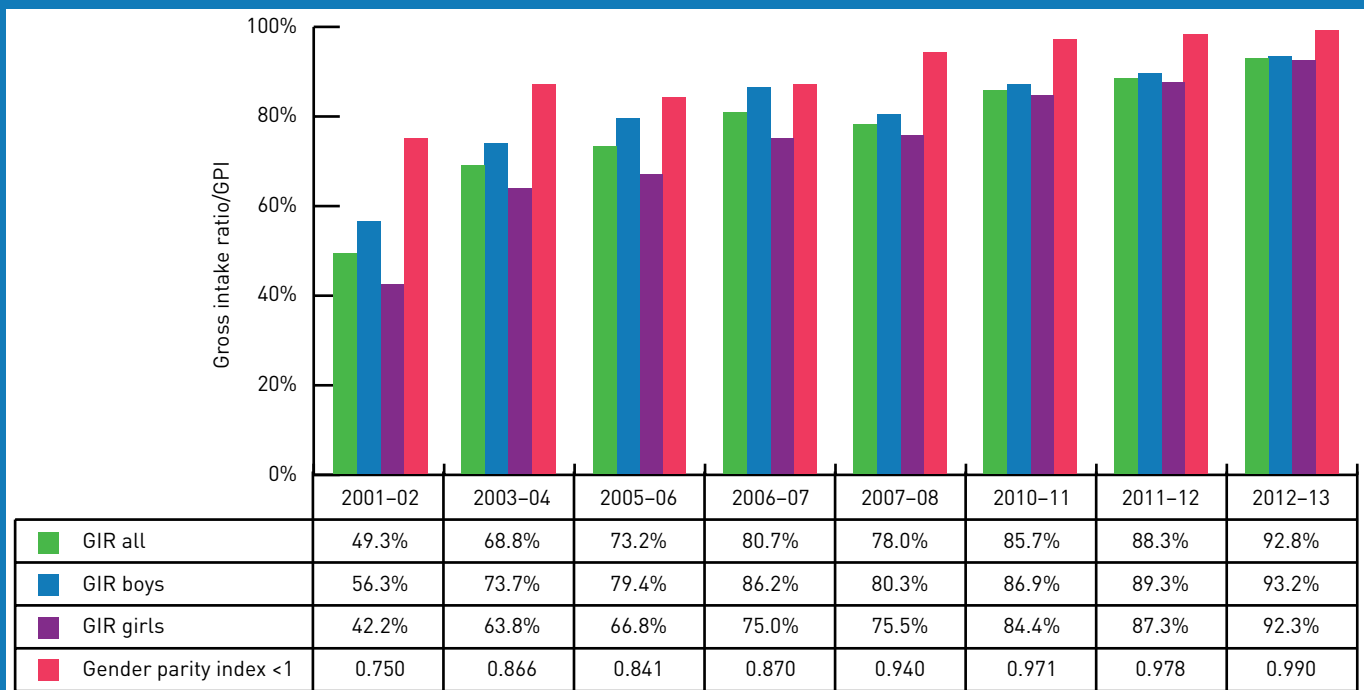
Source: Macro International, calculations by Misselhorn et al. from database UNESCO-DME, 2009.

useful. Box 4.2 shows the evolution of the gross intake ratio to the first grade of primary education in Burkina Faso for boys and girls and computes the related gender parity index. This box also illustrates why caution is warranted when interpreting changes in the GPI (see considerations raised in the box).

A comparison with other countries from the same region or income group can be useful for evaluating a

country's performance. Figure 4.8 compares primary completion for different West African countries. Data show that while in Ghana gender parity in primary completion is not fully achieved, the country has had a consistently higher level of gender parity for primary completion than nearby countries. Among the three other countries, Benin—which once had the lowest GPI—has made the most progress.

BOX 4.2 EVOLUTION OF THE GROSS INTAKE RATIO TO THE FIRST GRADE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION—THE EXAMPLE OF BURKINA FASO

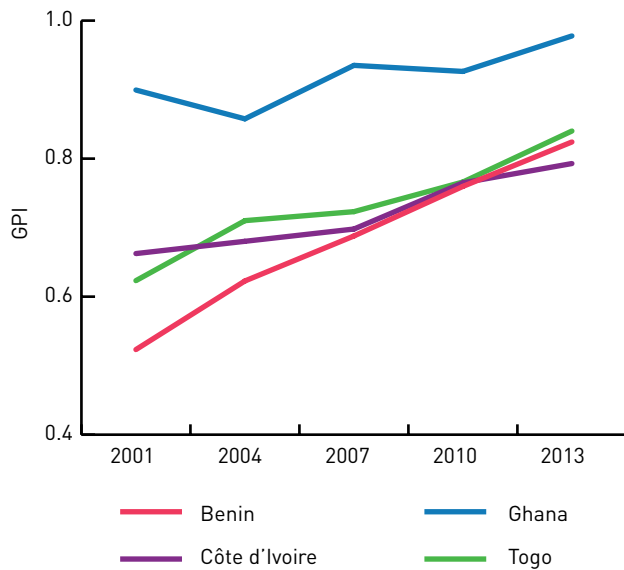


Note: GPI figures represent hundredths

Source: Ministry of Education. Burkina Faso Annual School Census, 2012–2013.

Overall, the GIR for both boys and girls improved significantly and so did the GPI. In some cases, the GPI showed changes in favor of girls, as when the GIR increased faster for girls than for boys (such as from 2001–2002 to 2003–2004). However, improvements in the GPI appear to have sometimes been a result of declining boys' intake rates, as from 2006–2007 to 2008–2009. At times the GPI decreased despite an increase in girls' intake rates, as was the case in 2005–2006, as boys' enrollment grew faster than girls', resulting in a wider gap than the previous year.

FIGURE 4.8 GPI FOR THE GIR TO THE LAST GRADE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION (PROXY PRIMARY COMPLETION)



Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) Data Center.

4.5 Understanding Factors Contributing to Gender Disparities in Education

Considerable research and evidence exists on factors that create barriers to girls' education or contribute to gender disparities. Common factors contributing to gender disparities are presented below, while Section 4.5.2 discusses ways to identify causes of gender disparities in a given country context.

4.5.1 COMMON FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO GENDER DISPARITIES IN EDUCATION

One way of categorizing factors that explains gender gaps in education is by enabling environment, demand and supply. The demand side examines the issues at the individual, household and community levels while the supply side does so at the school level. Box 4.3 provides a summary of factors affecting gender disparities in primary and secondary education according to these categories.⁶

⁶ Note that information on teachers, enrollment or school infrastructure is generally available in administrative data, while information on child marriage or labor is obtained from other data sources such as household surveys.

BOX 4.3 SUMMARY OF FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITIES IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION**Enabling environment**

- Lack of political commitment on gender issues.
- Lack of capacity on gender and education issues, including lack of knowledge of best practices to address gender issues in education.
- Lack of gender-responsive laws, policies and strategies.
- Lack of safety and presence of violence, including gender-based violence, in and around schools.

Demand side

- Direct costs: school fees and “hidden fees” such as parent-teacher association contributions and school administrative charges, and other costs like textbooks, uniforms, and transportation.
- Opportunity costs: loss of wages or unpaid labor (for example, for household tasks).
- Preference for boys’ education; cultural barriers to girls’ education.
- Peer pressure (performing at school seen as “uncool,” for example); gangs.
- Early marriages and pregnancies.

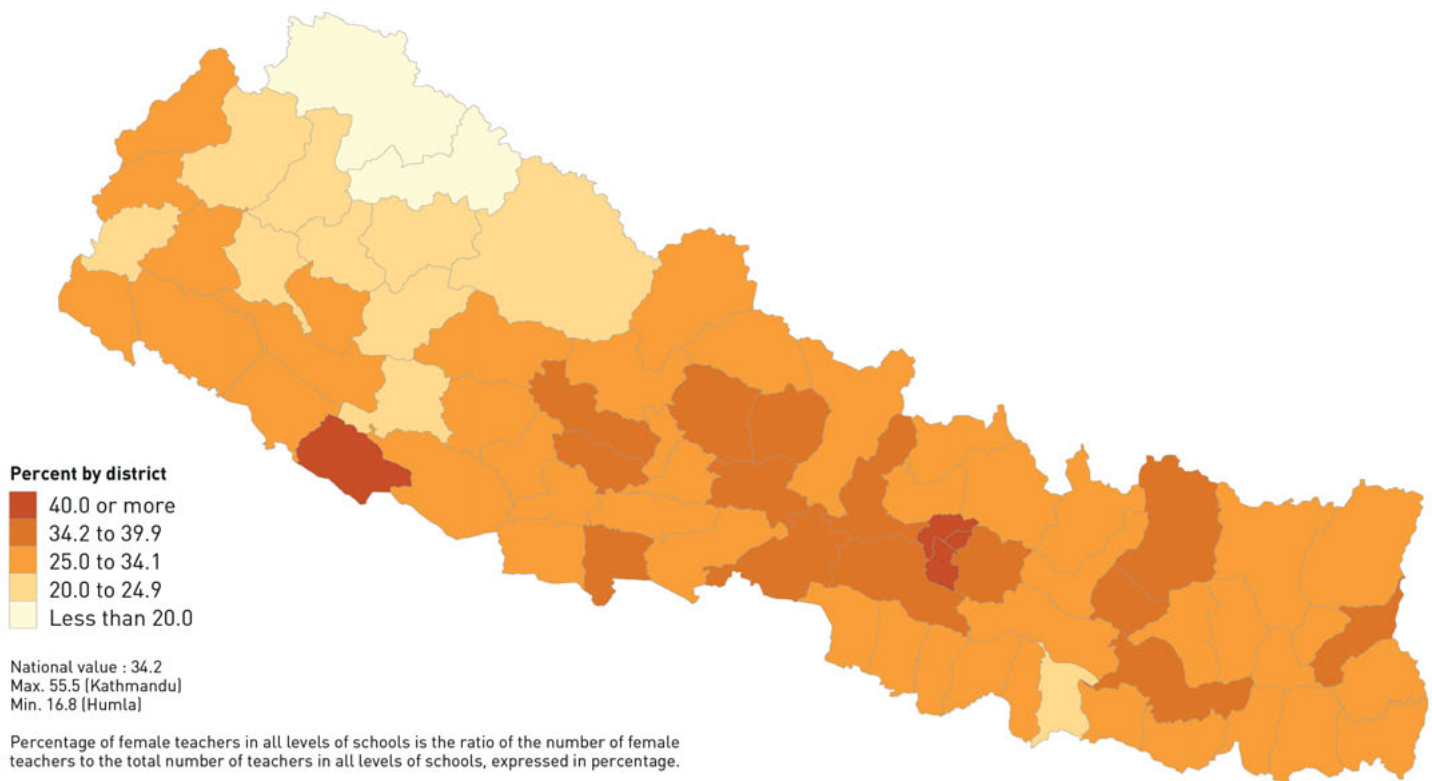
Supply side

- Distance to school and lack of affordable transportation or boarding facilities.
- Low quality of education; high class sizes in lower grades.
- Lack of female teachers.
- Lack of gender awareness among teachers and administrative staff.
- Lack of reporting and response mechanisms to address school-related gender-based violence.
- Lack of sex segregated sanitary facilities and menstrual hygiene management.
- Biased textbooks.
- Education schedules and delivery modes not adapted to children that are employed or in charge of a family.

Adapted from: Sutherland-Addy, 2008.

While global and regional research has identified a range of factors that have a positive or negative influence on girls’ education, the relative importance of these factors in the national or local context can only be confirmed with more detailed analysis. For example, on the supply side, evidence shows female teachers have a positive influence on girls’ access and learning,

although it is not always possible to establish a causal relationship between this factor and girls’ (or boys’) participation. Figure 4.9 highlights the specific situation of female teachers in the different districts of Nepal in 2012. While in the Kathmandu district more than half of the teachers are female, the western districts tend to have low percentages of female teachers

FIGURE 4.9 PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE TEACHERS (ALL LEVELS OF SCHOOLS) IN DIFFERENT DISTRICTS OF NEPAL IN 2012

Source: Government of Nepal, National Planning Commission Secretariat, Central Bureau of Statistics, 2014.

(less than a quarter). This mapping illustrates the unequal distribution of female teachers in the country but does not show the impact of female teachers on girls' education in this context. Additional information on enrollment and completion or girls' and boys' experiences in the classroom would confirm the extent to which the proportion of female teachers is a key factor for girls' participation and learning in Nepal.

4.5.2 IDENTIFYING FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO GENDER DISPARITIES: USING SCHOOL RECORDS, SURVEY DATA AND ECONOMETRIC MODELS

Other commonly used tools to identify factors contributing to gender disparities include school records and surveys and econometric models. School records capture information provided by school personnel. Table 4.1 shows the reasons for girls and boys dropping out in Zambia, as collected in the national EMIS based on school records.

The table shows that the reasons most frequently cited for dropout relate in some way to access to resources, particularly for males. For females, pregnancy is the

most common reason for dropout at the lower and upper secondary levels. These data are useful when identifying appropriate strategies to address dropout in Zambia.

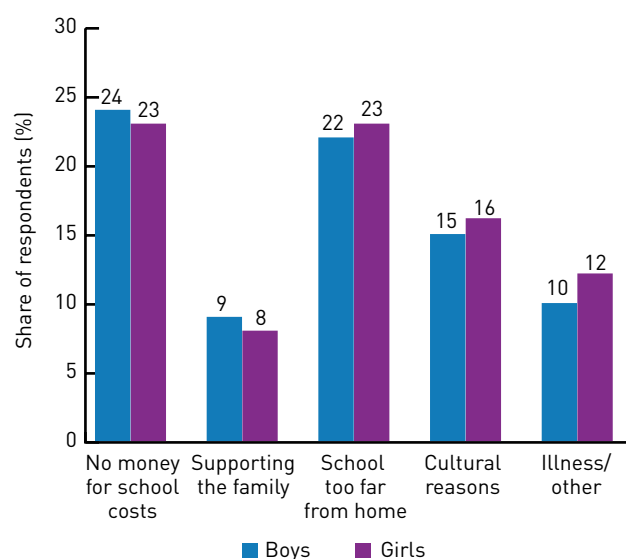
As with other sources of data, it is helpful to complement school records with other data in order to establish a complete picture. Household surveys are another valuable resource for information on why girls and boys are not in school. Unlike school records, household surveys generally reflect the perceptions of parents. Figure 4.10 presents data from the 2009 South Sudan National Baseline Household Survey (NBHS).

Finally, econometric models can also be useful tools to assess the impact of different variables on girls' and boys' access, retention or learning. Instead of directly asking stakeholders for reasons for non-entry, dropout or nonattendance, they use econometric analyses to identify the relationship between certain conditions and gender gaps in progress in education. Figure 4.11 shows the results of an econometric analysis of the impact of the distance to school on girls' and boys' test scores. The analysis was part of an evaluation of

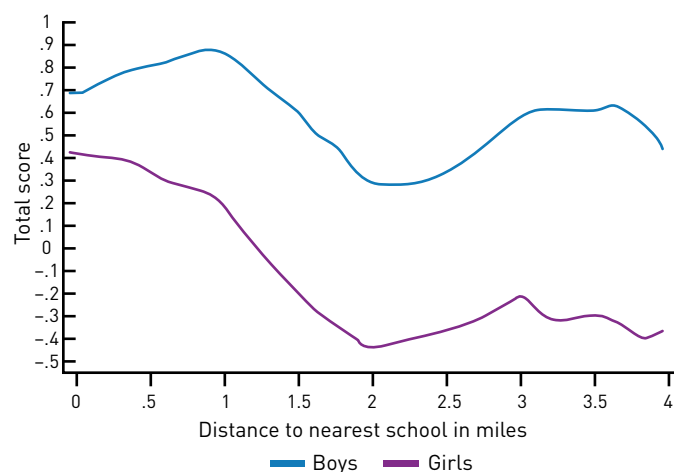
TABLE 4.1 REASONS FOR DROPOUT OF GIRLS AND BOYS AT DIFFERENT EDUCATION LEVELS IN ZAMBIA

Reason	Females			Males		
	Primary (grades 1–7)	Lower Secondary (grades 8–9)	Upper Secondary (grades 10–12)	Primary (grades 1–7)	Lower Secondary (grades 8–9)	Upper Secondary (grades 10–12)
Economic	25%	16%	12%	34%	44%	41%
Pregnancy	15%	46%	57%	0%	0%	0%
Orphaned	15%	8%	6%	19%	12%	6%
Marriage	14%	17%	8%	3%	9%	3%
Illness	5%	1%	2%	6%	3%	6%
Death	2%	1%	3%	3%	2%	6%
Expelled	0%	1%	1%	1%	1%	5%
Other	25%	10%	11%	36%	28%	32%
Total	34742	11685	1999	26615	5877	969

Source: Zambia EMIS, 2014.

FIGURE 4.10 REASONS FOR NOT ENTERING OR ATTENDING SCHOOL IN SOUTH SUDAN, 2009 NBHS


Source: World Bank, 2012.

FIGURE 4.11 TEST SCORES BY DISTANCE AND GENDER, AFGHANISTAN


Source: Burde and Linden, 2012.

the effect of village-based schools (community-based schools) on children’s academic performance in rural northwestern Afghanistan. The impact evaluation used a randomized controlled trial and focused on a single supply-side challenge: school location. The econometric model made it possible to assess the effects of distance to school on enrollment and test scores, independent of other variables such as household characteristics or school quality.

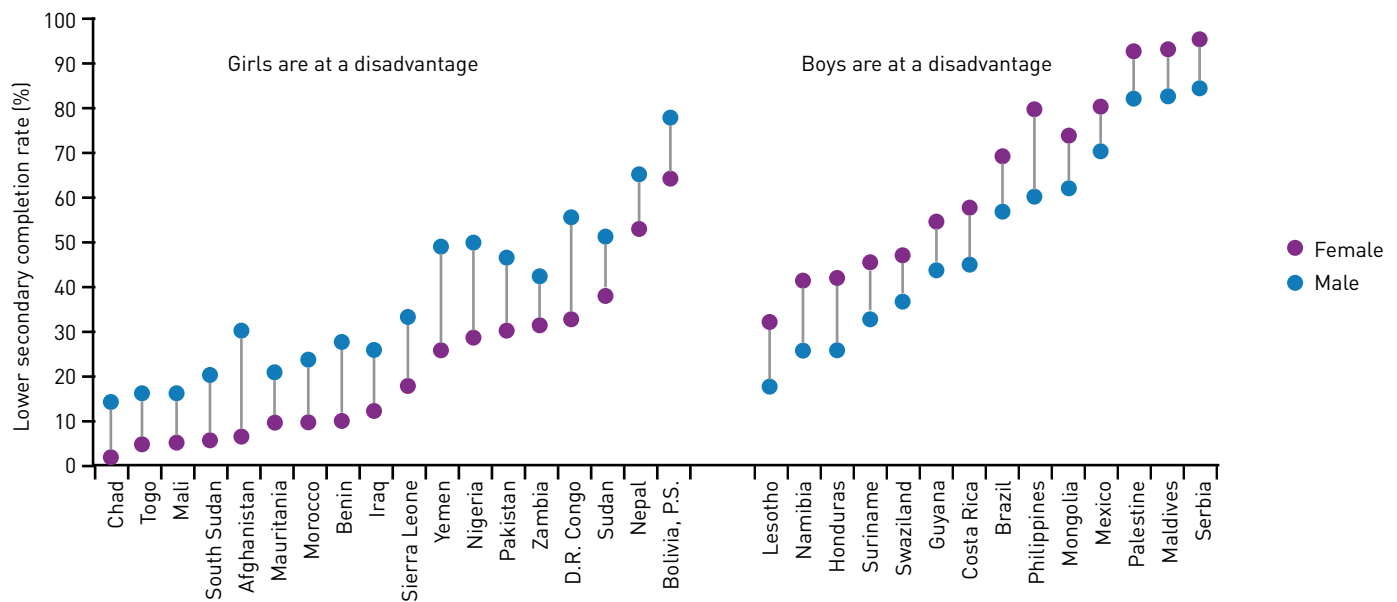
The evaluation found that village schools had a dramatic impact on boys’ and girls’ academic participation and performance, increasing overall enrollment by 42 percent. Further, girls benefited the most, with the intervention virtually eliminating the gender disparity in enrollment and reducing the disparity in boys’ and girls’ test scores by a third in one year. As shown in Figure 4.11, the study found that achievement was very sensitive to differences in distance to school and that girls are more sensitive to distance than boys. Likewise, the enrollment rate for girls falls 19 percent per mile, as compared to 13 percent for boys (Burde and Linden, 2012).

4.6 Understanding Boys’ Disadvantage and Gender Equality in Education

Gender disparities in education relate to both girls and boys. Global data reveal that in a significant number of countries boys face disadvantages in access, participation and learning outcomes, particularly at higher levels of education. This disadvantage can be exacerbated by factors such as location. Using data from household surveys, the Global Education Monitoring Report team analyzed the lower secondary completion rates by gender and location for several countries. Figure 4.12 shows that rural girls face wide gender gaps in countries such as Mali, South Sudan and Afghanistan, where boys’ completion is more than double girls’ completion. In other countries, it is rural boys that face disadvantages in lower secondary completion.

Understanding the conditions that lead to boys’ disadvantage is an important research and policy challenge. For example, in Bangladesh boys have higher

FIGURE 4.12 LOWER SECONDARY COMPLETION RATES, BY GENDER, IN RURAL AREAS OF SELECTED COUNTRIES, 2009–2014



Source: UNESCO, 2016b.

rates of dropout and lower performance than girls at primary and lower secondary levels. While factors such as child labor and limited or poor quality education and skills training contribute to high male dropout,

gender disparities also stem from the introduction of the Female Secondary Stipend Program (FSSP) in rural Bangladesh in the mid-1990s, which contributed to the improvement of girls' participation in secondary

BOX 4.4 BUILDING THE EVIDENCE ON SCHOOL-RELATED GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE (SRGBV)

In order to “*build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender-sensitive and provide safe, nonviolent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all*”—as agreed in the Sustainable Development Goal education target—it is important to understand the nature and extent of SRGBV. This includes understanding how social beliefs and practices contribute to SRGBV and how SRGBV impacts children's rights to education and a safe learning environment. More evidence is needed on what works to address SRGBV, as well as robust data to develop strategies and evaluate their effectiveness in reducing SRGBV.

Questions for exploration include:

- What laws or policies are in place to protect children against SRGBV?
- What is the prevalence of SRGBV in the country? How can data collection on SRGBV be strengthened?
- Are there reporting and response mechanisms in place at the school and district level? Is it multi-sectoral? Are law enforcement, counseling and health care mechanisms in place for survivors and perpetrators?
- Are there institutional codes of conduct for teachers and administrative staff? Do these provide definitions of violence and harassment and specify appropriate penalties for these behaviors? What obligations do teachers, administrative staff, and education ministry personnel have with regard to instances of SRGBV?

- Are there training programs for education sector personnel on responding to SRGBV? Does the teacher training curricula include modules on gender sensitivity and SRGBV?
- Does the education sector coordinate with any other institutions to address SRGBV?
- What initiatives are implemented in schools to prevent SRGBV? Are there SRGBV awareness raising and violence prevention activities for students, school management committees or parent-teacher associations?
- What traditional practices, norms or dynamics increase girls' vulnerability to violence in the school context? What traditional practices, norms or dynamics increase boys' vulnerability to violence in the school context?
- Do community members, and girls in particular, view schools as safe environments? Are the routes to school safe? What measures are taken to create safe school environments?

While data is a powerful tool, it can also be misinterpreted and misused and put survivors in danger of retaliation. Practitioners working on gender-based violence must ensure that data are collected in an ethical manner and that data made public are placed in the proper context, with respect for confidentiality.

Sources: EFA-GMR-UNGEI, 2015; World Bank, 2014. For resources on SRGBV and gender-based violence, please visit UNGEI's e-resources page

education. Since 2007, the government has supported a Secondary Education Stipend Project (SESP) that targets both boys and girls belonging to poor households, and there are signs to indicate it is contributing to a reduction in gender disparities in secondary education (UNESCO, 2013).

Boys' underperformance in education is an increasingly important issue and requires policy attention. Unlike girls' disadvantage in education, which tends to emerge earlier in the educational cycle and is rooted in

broader discriminatory gender and social norms, boys' underperformance in education is particularly evident at higher levels of education and coexists with higher social and economic positioning and privileging within family and society. In addition, researchers observe that in the case of girls, peer support for education and education as an individual or collective aspiration have not been an issue. However for boys, peer pressure and perceptions that education is not a desirable "masculine" trait make it much more complex in certain country contexts.

4.7 Exercise for Reflection and Application

The aim of this exercise is to help identify and understand the nature of gender disparities in education within a specific country context. This analysis will help inform the choice of strategies to address these disparities, which is the subject of Module 7.

The exercise relies on the following data and information for the specific country or region:

- Last annual school census;
- Trends in main indicators (from the EMIS) over the past 5 years or for the years available;
- Recent household survey, such as DHS/MICS data (often available in the EPDC database; and
- Recent documentation and research studies (for example, out-of-school children study) related to education and the overall context, which may help provide a deeper understanding of gender issues in the sector.

Step 1: Analysis of Gender Disparities in Education

- Review the indicators identified in the first column for primary, lower and upper secondary education over the past years.
- Using the “guiding questions” in the second column, reflect on the progress made and remaining challenges toward achieving gender parity in education. Do this analysis at both the national and subnational levels.
- Record conclusions and observations in the third column.

Indicators (to be disaggregated by sex and other markers of disadvantage)	Guiding Questions	What Do the Data Tell Us?
<p>Access, participation and completion</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Gross intake ratio (GIR) in the first grade of primary education. ➤ Primary completion rate/GIR to the last grade of primary education (proxy completion). ➤ Transition rate from primary to lower secondary education. ➤ GIR in the first grade of lower secondary education. ➤ Gross enrollment ratios (GER) in lower/upper secondary education (if other indicators are unavailable) and in technical and vocational secondary education. ➤ Lower secondary completion rate/GIR to the last grade of lower secondary education (proxy completion). ➤ Lower to upper secondary transition. ➤ GIR in the first grade of upper secondary education. ➤ Upper secondary school completion/GIR to the last grade of lower secondary education. ➤ Repetition rates or percentage of repeaters, by level of education. ➤ Dropout rates by grade. ➤ Out-of-school estimates. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ How have girls' and boys' educational access, participation and completion changed over the past 5–10 years? ➤ Is there a significant gap between boys and girls for the different indicators? What is the gender parity index; what has been its trend? ➤ How does the country compare with countries of the same region or income group? (Use UNESCO Institute for Statistics data or, for African countries, Pôle de Dakar data) ➤ How do rural vs. urban areas, different regions, income groups, castes, ethnicities or religions fare with regard to gender parity? ➤ Are there any data available on children who are out of school? How many children and who are they? <p><i>Note:</i> comparing data from different sources (such as administrative and household survey data) helps ensure there is confidence in the reliability of the results. Discrepancies, if any, may result from technical issues, e.g., population data, sample sizes, etc., or differences in what is computed in administrative vs. household survey records (different dates, age groups considered, etc.).</p>	

Indicators (to be disaggregated by sex and other markers of disadvantage)	Guiding Questions	What Do the Data Tell Us?
<p>Learning outcomes in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Learning achievement, including differences across subjects. ➤ National examination results.* ➤ International and regional assessments (SACMEQ, PASEC, LLECE, Uwezo, EGRA, etc.). <p>*Data on national examinations are not always available in the statistical yearbooks, but can be obtained from the examinations department. National examination results should be available by sex and by region.</p>	<p>Learning outcomes in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What are the national examination results by sex and by regions? ➤ Is there a significant gap between the examination results of boys and girls? Are there gaps for different subjects? ➤ Are marking policies and pass quotas identical for all students? ➤ Has the country participated in any international assessments (SACMEQ, PASEC, etc.)? Do results reveal gender disparities in learning outcomes at certain levels or in certain subjects? If information is available regarding students' location, wealth, language spoken, etc., are there gender disparities for students of different areas or regions, income levels, or linguistic or ethnic identity? 	

Step 2: Causes of Gender Disparities in Education

- Review information that can shed light on the causes of the disparities noted in Step 1.
- Using the “guiding questions” in the second column, reflect on the factors contributing to gender disparities in the education sector and record observations and conclusions in the third column.

Understanding the Prevalence of Demand, Supply and Environmental Factors	Guiding Questions ⁷	What Do the Data Tell Us?
Policies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ In light of the issues identified in Step 1, review the policies identified in the exercise for Module 3. Are there policies that are more relevant or should be prioritized? Are there additional policies that should be considered? 	
Social and Gender Norms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What percentage of girls get married before age 15? Before age 19? ➤ At what age does the average woman give birth to her first child? What proportion of girls are pregnant or have had a child by age 15? By age 19? ➤ What is the prevalence of child labor? In particular, what are the labor rates of girls and boys of different ages? What are the norms and expectations for girls' and boys' working inside and outside of the home? ➤ Is youth violence an issue? If yes, is there information on the percentage of girls and boys involved? ➤ Are there any available studies on gender-based violence? If so, what is the nature and magnitude of gender-based violence in society? ➤ How are women and girls portrayed in the media? How are boys and men portrayed? 	

⁷ Partly adapted from Mason, 2014. Available at: <http://campaignforeducationusa.org/blog/detail/the-gender-friendly-classroom-tips-and-tools-for-teachers>

Understanding the Prevalence of Demand, Supply and Environmental Factors	Guiding Questions	What Do the Data Tell Us?
Physical and Financial Access to School	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What is the average distance to school for children? ➤ Are there boarding facilities available in secondary education? If so, what is the proportion of girls to boys in these? ➤ Are there fees levied in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education? What is the level of indirect costs (textbook costs, uniforms, etc.)? ➤ What proportion of total education costs are paid by the parents at different education levels? ➤ Are there bursaries, scholarships, stipends, cash transfers or school feeding programs? If so, what categories of children are targeted (girls, orphans, etc.)? At what levels of education? 	
Safe and Nondiscriminatory Learning Environments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What proportion of primary and secondary schools have separate latrines for boys and girls? ➤ Do teachers' codes of practice exist? Do they address gender-based violence, including corporal punishment, bullying, and sexual violence? ➤ Is there a mechanism in place to monitor and address cases of violence in schools? 	

(continued)

Understanding the Prevalence of Demand, Supply and Environmental Factors	Guiding Questions	What Do the Data Tell Us?
<p>Teachers, Curricula and Learning Materials</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What is the proportion of male and female teachers at different levels of the education system and in different regions? ➤ What is the proportion of male and female school leaders? ➤ What are the class sizes at the different levels of the system and in different regions? ➤ Is mother tongue instruction used in relevant areas? ➤ Are there specific modules on gender concepts and gender-sensitive pedagogy implemented in the pre-service and in-service training? ➤ Are there studies that look at teachers' attitudes related to gender? What do they show? ➤ Have curricula been reviewed for gender bias? ➤ Are textbooks and teaching materials screened for gender bias and stereotyping? 	
<p>Community Members, Parents and School Management Committees</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Do community members and parents participate in school related activities? ➤ Do men/fathers and women/mothers participate equally? ➤ Do school management committees receive training on gender issues? ➤ Do school management committees have authority to ensure school safety and security? 	

Analysing Information on the Reasons Why Girls and Boys Are Not in School	Guiding Questions ⁸	What Do the Data Tell Us?
EMIS Records of the Reasons for Student Dropout	<p>What are the main reasons for girls' and boys' dropouts, at different levels of education and for different ages, if available?</p> <p>Are there reasons for dropout that are far more prevalent for girls? For boys?</p> <p>How do the numbers of children dropping out recorded in the EMIS compare to those that can be computed using enrollment and repetition rates (including dropout rates between grades within a level of education and number of children who do not transition between levels of education)?</p>	
Household Survey Information	<p>What are the reasons stated by parents to explain why their children are not in school? How do these differ according to whether the child is a boy or a girl?</p>	
Other Information Sources (e.g., specific studies)	<p>Have there been any in-depth studies of the reasons for children's dropouts? What do they say about gender disparities in education?</p>	
Econometric Models	<p>Is there an analysis or can an analysis be done of the impact of different factors on girls' dropouts vs. boys' dropouts, or girls' achievements vs. boys' achievements?</p>	

⁸ Partly adapted from Mason, 2014. Available at: <http://campaignforeducationusa.org/blog/detail/the-gender-friendly-classroom-tips-and-tools-for-teachers>

Step 3: Bringing It Together

- Based on Steps 1 and 2, identify the key gender disparities that need to be addressed (Column 1), the indicators used to identify these disparities (Column 2) and the critical gaps that need to be addressed (Column 3).

	What Are the Key Gender Disparities? Who Are the Groups for Whom Gender Disparities Are the Highest? How Have Gender Disparities Evolved over Time?	What Are the Main Drivers and Factors at Play? How Do We Know?	What Are the Critical Gaps That Need to Be Addressed?
Access			
Participation and Completion			
Learning Outcomes			

4.8 Additional Resources on Data

Education from a Gender Equality Perspective. Management Systems International (MSI), 2008. Washington, DC: USAID.

Global Education Monitoring Report 2016: Education for people and planet: Creating Sustainable Futures for All. UNESCO, 2016.

Global Education Monitoring Report 2016 Gender Review: Creating Sustainable Futures for All. Gender Review. UNESCO, 2016.

Gender Manual – A Practical Guideline for Development Policy Makers and Practitioners. Helen Derbyshire, 2002. Social Development Division, DFID.

Guide to the Analysis and Use of Household Survey and Census Education Data (2004). Senegal, Burkina Faso, Canada, USA: FASAF, UAPS, UNESCO, UNICEF, USAID, ORC Marco, 2004.

A Manual for Gender Audit Facilitators: The ILO Participatory Gender Audit Methodology (2nd Edition). International Labor Organization (ILO), 2012.

UNESCO eAtlas of Gender Inequality in Education, 2016.

UNESCO World Atlas of Gender Equality in Education, 2012.

Module 5: Assessing Institutional Capacity to Address Gender Equality in Education

5.1 Overview

Assessing the capacity of government ministries and their staff to address gender issues in education is a critical part of a gender analysis of the sector. Assessing the knowledge and skills of dedicated gender units, as well as managers, planners, policy analysts and education program officers at various levels across the ministries, will help ensure that plans are in line with human resource capacity. While this module focuses largely on public sector institutions, the discussion could apply equally to civil society organizations and private sector entities. This module:

- ❶ Provides an overview of institutional capacity issues with a focus on gender and education;
- ❷ Identifies the essential elements of institutional capacity to advance gender equality in education; and
- ❸ Provides a practical exercise for assessing gender capacity of the education sector to inform the development of ESPs.

5.2 The Significance of Institutional Capacity for Achieving Gender Equality in Education

The capacity of a country to deliver on commitments to gender parity and gender equality in education depends largely on individuals and the institutions in which they work: the technical skills, organizational structure and systems, and institutional culture in which they operate. Achieving gender equality goals and targets in education may require strengthening

capacity in all these areas (Aiken and Unterhalter, 2007). Political will, or “support from political leaders that results in policy change” (Odugbemi and Jacobson, 2008), plays an important role in driving change and is essential for developing an institutional culture that supports gender equality (UN Women, 2014b).

5.2.1 SKILLS AND COMPETENCIES FOR GENDER INTEGRATION

Specialized skills and abilities are needed at the individual level for education ministries to integrate gender considerations into the overall functioning of the institution. These skills include an understanding of gender relations and the process of gender analysis, as well as an understanding of how gender considerations influence the various functions of the education ministry, its divisions and associated institutions such as teacher training colleges, statistical bodies and research centers. Leadership skills are also critical for moving the gender equality and girls’ education agendas forward. Leadership skills can be held by individuals at any level and used to motivate others to achieve gender-related goals.

Different roles and types of expertise support the integration of gender considerations within an institution (see Table 5.1). Gender champions are change agents who influence institutional commitment to gender equality, while gender focal points ensure that this commitment is reflected in the operations of the institution. Gender specialists or experts provide technical support to other divisions.

In addition to gender expertise, specialists in other areas such as planning and policy, monitoring and evaluation, budgeting and financing, curriculum design, pedagogy, teacher training and construction who have an understanding of gender issues in education and become alert to gender bias can play an important role in necessary reform.

TABLE 5.1 TYPES OF GENDER-RELATED PROFESSIONAL ROLES AND FUNCTIONS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Type of Expertise	Organizational Role
Gender Champion	Political advocate
Gender Focal Point	Assigned to convene and gather gender expertise, and to oversee and coordinate gender mainstreaming in development institutions/government agencies
Gender Expert	Researcher, policy and data analyst, planner, implementer and evaluator

Source: UN Women, 2014a.

5.2.2 ORGANIZATIONAL SYSTEMS AND STRUCTURES

At the organizational level, systems and structures are necessary to enable education ministries and associated institutions to effectively and efficiently implement gender-related goals and objectives in the administration of the education system. Cross-divisional working groups, specialized units and targeted communication and reporting mechanisms are examples of institutional structures that can help ensure that gender is integrated systematically into the work of the education ministry. Section 5.3 below includes further discussion of gender units and focal points.

From a human resources management perspective, understanding the level of organizational capacity to support gender equality may include reviewing organizational structures, team compositions, job descriptions and performance guidelines, among other processes. Specialized accountability mechanisms can be developed to track progress on organizational capacity to support gender equality. Monitoring may include a range of indicators such as the presence of women at different levels of decision making and leadership; identification and reduction of sex disparities in salary or access to benefits; required courses in gender equality; the existence and implementation of codes

“More women are needed in senior leadership positions. Gender balance and sex composition of an organization send strong signals regarding its commitment to gender equality. Having insufficient women in senior management positions suggests that an organization cannot apply policies on gender equality it advocates for others, thus undermining its credibility.”

—UN Women, 2014a

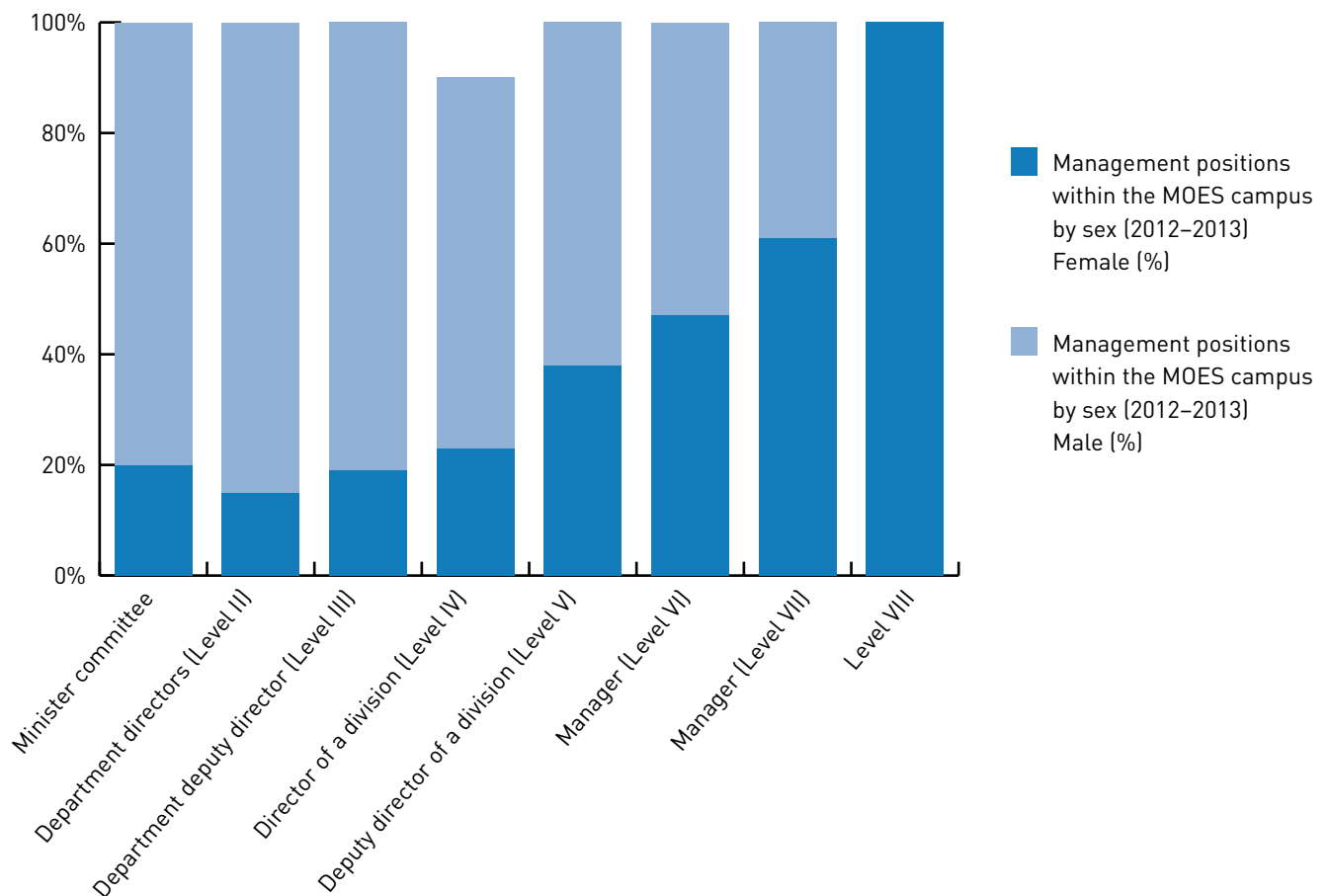
of conduct to address gender-based discrimination or abuse; and systems of reporting and support.

Figure 5.1 shows the percentage of female and male managers at each level of the Lao PDR Ministry of Education and Sports (MoES). While women occupy the majority of lower-level management positions, men dominate managerial positions, particularly at the highest levels. Analyzing this type of sex disaggregated data can give insight into gender dynamics in a given organization and can be used as a jumping off point for further investigation.

5.2.3 ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND GENDER EQUALITY

In organizational change theory, institutions have “cultures” which include the norms, customs, beliefs and codes of behavior in an organization. It involves the ways that staff relate to one another, what are seen as acceptable ideas and attitudes, how people are expected to behave, and what behaviors are rewarded. Organizational culture can support or undermine gender equality. The assumption is that if barriers to girls’ education and gender equality include social norms and gender expectations at play in the broader society, the same norms and expectations are also part of the organizational culture of education departments and ministries, and need to be addressed. The *Ethiopia Gender Strategy for the Education and Training Sector* (2015) recognizes that addressing gender-based violence requires prevention and mitigation measures to be embedded into institutional frameworks and culture at all levels of the education sector. As a result, a sexual and gender-based violence code of conduct will be applied throughout all institutional regulations and disciplinary acts.

FIGURE 5.1 LAO PDR MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SPORTS MANAGEMENT POSITIONS BY SEX (EDWARDS, 2013)



Source: Edwards, Jan. 2013.

5.3 Institutional Mechanisms for the Promotion of Girls' Education and Gender Equality

The 1995 Beijing Platform for Action identified “institutional mechanisms for the advancement of women” as one of twelve areas of action and called on governments to establish or strengthen national machineries that support gender equality (UN Women, 2014a). Since then, many countries have put in place institutional structures such as gender units in various ministries to ensure that gender is integrated into all policies, plans and programs.

In countries across South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, governments have established separate gender units and gender focal points to support girls' education and gender equality within education ministries or other relevant ministries. Their role is usually to (i) promote girls' education, (ii) strengthen stakeholder coordination and (iii) create synergies to increase the effectiveness of activities. Ideally, gender units and focal points act as *catalysts* of change, by working with individuals, departments and ministries to raise gender awareness and ensure that gender concerns are incorporated into major policies, programs, and procedures (Aikman and Unterhalter, 2007). However, while gender units or focal points are not uncommon at the national or ministerial level, few countries report establishing

decentralized structures to support gender equality and girls' education in planning, implementation and monitoring at the regional or district levels.

In some countries, gender units and focal points in the education ministry, as in other ministries, lack the capacity needed to effectively carry out their mandates. A study by UNICEF in eight⁹ West African countries (UNICEF, 2015) showed that the lack of financial, human and material resources limits the role of the gender unit or gender focal point and their ability to influence policy and programs outlined in their mandate. Specific limitations identified through this study include:

- **Funding:** Core funding for the gender units was often provided by external partners rather than through the operational budget of the ministry. Similarly, monitoring the effectiveness of the unit was undertaken based on donor expectations and not integrated into regular government reporting.
- **Coordination:** Activities to promote girls' education and gender equality were often not coordinated at the central level, leading to fragmentation of effort and a lack of synergy between stakeholders. National dialogue on gender issues between and among departments of education, development partners and civil society organizations was often weak. In the eight countries studied, the head of the gender unit or the gender focal point did not systematically participate in meetings of the local education group or in annual sector reviews. Moreover, despite the existence of national strategies on girls' education, there was no real mapping of activities and stakeholders promoting girls' education and gender equality, thus there was little understanding of which development actors in the country were engaged in these areas, where they worked and what they were doing. This introduced the risk that the strategic frameworks were not based on practical experience. There was a lack of communication and reporting among various directorates within the education ministries and each directorate's responsibilities for promoting girls'

education were rarely identified. Thus monitoring and accountability for girls' education was weak.

On the other hand, Ethiopia offers an example of an effective and politically influential gender unit. The gender directorate in the Ministry of Education (MoE) in Ethiopia has a director and six staff with expertise in training and capacity building on gender mainstreaming, planning, monitoring and evaluation. The gender directorate reports directly to the minister of education, unlike other directorates that mostly report to the deputy minister. The gender directorate receives a budget allocation from regular resources to run its annual operations. Regional and district departments, as well as schools, have also been staffed with gender experts or focal points. In the *Education Sector Development Program V 2015/16 to 2019/20*, the MoE highlights the importance of mainstreaming gender into the responsibilities of all implementing bodies. The role of the Gender Directorate encompasses strengthening the capacity of the other directorates in the MoE to mainstream gender into all aspects of their work including programming and monitoring and evaluation.

Ethiopia has also established coordination mechanisms for convening partners working on girls' education. The National Girls' Education Forum includes representatives from various ministries (such as the MoE and the Ministry of Women's Affairs), donor partners, civil society, and other stakeholders (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2015). A Girls' Education Advisory Committee (GEAC) provides the forum with advice and strategic guidance to ensure that the Education Sector Development Program goals related to girls are realized (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2016). The GEAC meetings are chaired by the MoE's gender directorate.

Across various countries we see a great variety of institutional mechanisms to integrate gender considerations into the work of education ministries. Increasing knowledge sharing between countries on what works for strengthening institutional capacity may help propel the gender equality and girls' education agenda forward.

⁹ Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Congo, Senegal, and Togo.

5.4 Exercise for Reflection and Application

Drawing upon knowledge of existing education systems, available documentation and key informant interviews and discussions, analyze the current capacity of the education sector to integrate and address gender issues at the national and decentralized levels.

Guiding questions for reflection and discussion are outlined in the table below. While all questions are not equally relevant to both the national and decentralized levels, where possible reflect on what it means to ensure that similar capacity is available at all levels of the system.

Guiding Questions	National Level	Decentralized Level
<p>Individual Capacity</p>		
<p>1. What knowledge, skills and attitudes are necessary to integrate gender considerations across the education sector? Do current staff meet these requirements?</p> <p>2. Is gender awareness included in all or select job descriptions? Is gender training offered to all staff members, or is it a required course for all staff and appointed officials? Is gender awareness included in job performance criteria?</p>		
<p>Organizational Capacity</p>		
<p>3. Is there a unit or focal point responsible for gender in the Ministry of Education?</p>		
<p>4. To which division or department does the gender focal point or unit report? What are the implications of this reporting and accountability structure for effective integration of gender considerations into education policy, planning and other divisions?</p>		
<p>5. Has a dedicated budget been assigned to the gender focal point or unit? If yes, is this budget recurrent and sufficient to ensure the integration of gender considerations across the education sector? Have any other resources or expertise—human, financial, technical—been allocated to the focal point or unit?</p>		

Guiding Questions	National Level	Decentralized Level
6. Are there institutional structures to support gender equality and girls' education at decentralized levels?		
7. Is there assigned staff responsibility for gender integration in the different departments of the ministry?		
8. Do the planning, monitoring, evaluation and other units in the ministry include at least one person with expertise in gender issues?		
9. Is there a capacity development plan? Does it include a focus on gender equality? Are there gender quotas or targets for participation in capacity development programs?		
10. Does the ministry participate in any national, regional or global networks related to gender equality in education? Does it have any links with other governmental organizations or with civil society organizations that have knowledge and experience related to gender equitable policies?		
Organizational Structure		
11. Are there roughly equal numbers of women and men at the senior, middle and entry levels of the organization? Are there processes in place to address imbalances through recruitment, affirmative action or career enhancement?		

(continued)

Guiding Questions	National Level	Decentralized Level
<p>12. Is there a salary differential between female and male staff? If yes, at what level or area of the system are the differences most significant?</p> <p>13. Is there a mechanism for assessing gender equality in the management of the ministry (e.g., the presence of women at different levels of decision making and leadership, sex disparities in salary or access to benefits)?</p>		
<p>Key Findings</p>		
<p>Recommended Action</p>		

5.5 Additional Resources on Capacity Assessment and Development

Organizational Gender Assessment Tool. Australian Red Cross, 2010.

Gender Equality Capacity Assessment Tool – Tool for assessment of capacity in promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women for the UN System and other partners. UN Women Training Center, 2014.

Rethinking Capacity Development. UNESCO-IIEP publication series on capacity development.

The Challenge of Capacity Building: Working Towards Good Practice. Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), 2006. Also available in French under the title: *Relever le défi posé par le renforcement des capacités : évoluer vers de bonnes pratiques.*

Towards Effective Capacity Development. Capacity Needs Assessment Methodology (CAPNAM) for Planning and Managing Education. UNESCO, 2013.

Without capacity, there is no development. Anton de Grauwe. UNESCO-IIEP, 2009.

Guidance Note. Gender Mainstreaming in Development Programming. UN Women, 2014.

III.

PLAN PREPARATION

Module 6: Gender-Sensitive Stakeholder Consultation and Participation

6.1 Overview

Stakeholder consultation and participation with representation by girls, boys, women and men help to ensure their different needs and priorities are understood and addressed during sector planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. This module focuses on the importance of:

- ➊ Engaging various stakeholders in the ESP planning process;
- ➋ Ensuring that the views of women and girls are adequately represented and incorporated; and
- ➌ Planning for community participation in implementing the ESP and ensuring that gender equality is a central theme.

6.2 Significance of Stakeholder Engagement

In the context of education, a stakeholder can be defined as any individual or entity that is interested and invested in the educational outcomes of girls and boys. The GPE-IIEP guidelines for ESP preparation emphasize the importance of broad participation by a range of stakeholders. These stakeholders should have their perspectives adequately reflected in the ESP. Stakeholders can include representatives from ministries outside of education, development partners, civil society, the private sector, teachers, parents and students, as well as those who will be responsible for implementing the ESP at the local and school levels. Box 6.1 identifies some of the different education stakeholders that may be present within a country.

Stakeholder engagement provides several benefits, some of which include:

- ➊ Helping ensure sector planning is based on a good understanding of the context. Different stakeholder groups have different concerns, capacities and interests that can enhance the process of problem identification, objective setting and strategy selection in education planning;
- ➋ Promoting buy-in and ownership of education policies and programs, which in turn can enhance sustainability; and
- ➌ Securing additional human and financial resources through the engagement of civil society actors, parents and caregivers in school committees, the private sector and others.

Stakeholder consultation and participation is most effective when the process is clearly organized and roles and responsibilities are well defined (GPE-IIEP, 2015). Structures such as education groups, committees, working groups and technical teams can be means of organizing stakeholders. In all GPE countries¹⁰ there is a Local Education Group (LEG) that is comprised of various stakeholders within the education sector who develop, implement, monitor and evaluate ESPs at the country level. Membership within the LEGs varies from country to country, however most groups include government departments and donors who are active in the education sector, and some involve other ministries or departments as well. International NGOs (INGOs) are often represented and on some occasions private sector education providers participate. Although GPE encourages civil society participation in LEGs, local CSOs and teacher representatives are not always included, with civil society often limited to international NGOs (Global Campaign for Education, 2014).

¹⁰ All developing country partners of the Global Partnership for Education have a Local Education Group.

BOX 6.1 EDUCATION STAKEHOLDERS AT THE COUNTRY LEVEL

The involvement and commitment of a range of stakeholders is essential to successful education sector planning and implementation. The type of stakeholders in the education sector planning process will vary but they will likely include a number (if not all) of the following:

- ▶ Education sector representatives from central and decentralized structures
- ▶ Multilateral and bilateral donors
- ▶ International nongovernmental organizations (INGOs)
- ▶ National nongovernmental organizations (NGOs), including women's organizations
- ▶ Teacher unions and other formalized groups within the education profession (for example, associations of HIV positive teachers)
- ▶ Other government ministries that are concerned with gender issues
- ▶ Private sector representatives
- ▶ Local leaders and duty bearers
- ▶ Community leaders
- ▶ Religious organizations
- ▶ Parents and caregivers
- ▶ Students
- ▶ Existing partnerships and networks
- ▶ Youth coalitions
- ▶ Children, youth and adults with disabilities
- ▶ Lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) community representatives

6.3 Gender-Sensitive Stakeholder Analysis

Conducting a gender-sensitive stakeholder analysis is an important first step in making sure all relevant stakeholders and institutions are consulted and that women, men, girls and boys alike are represented. The analysis includes government, civil society and donor representatives involved in areas such as women's rights, education, health, social protection and economic development. It also includes representatives of organizations and groups that work in areas related to justice, protection and police, as well as active coalitions and networks.

A participatory and gender-sensitive stakeholder analysis can and should be undertaken at any stage of ESP development, but is ideally done at the outset of any planning process. During the design phase, conducting a gender-sensitive stakeholder analysis that involves all relevant stakeholders will help shape the ESP and action plans, and inform risk analysis. In the implementation phase, it helps to identify who, how and when female and male stakeholders should be involved in executing the planned activities. In the monitoring and evaluation phase, stakeholder engagement can lead to a better evaluation of policies and programs because it can help identify more areas of impact and improvement by facilitating additional channels of communication and trust.

Essential steps in participatory and gender-sensitive stakeholder analysis include:

1. **Identifying the key stakeholders**, their interests (positive or negative) and whether there are differences between women and men. For example do female and male teachers have different opinions on the current teacher deployment policy? Why?
2. **Identifying the best engagement strategies** to ensure that female and male stakeholders engage in the planning process.

Women and men are not homogenous groups; thus a range of women's and men's views and needs should be adequately represented. In order to ensure that both women's as well as men's needs, priorities and constraints are recognized and addressed and that these influence the education agenda, it is important to ensure that all ESP processes involve:

- ➊ Participatory consultation with girls and women as well as boys and men in beneficiary groups;
- ➋ Youth and women, as well as men, in decision making at all levels; and
- ➌ Diverse cohorts that span age (youth through adulthood), socioeconomic class, rural and urban locations, ethnicity and ability. This recognizes that, for example, middle class, urban women cannot necessarily accurately represent the views and priorities of poor, rural women (Derbyshire, 2002).

6.4 Strengthening Civil Society Engagement in the Education Sector

The Global Campaign for Education (GCE) plays a key role in supporting civil society actors to engage actively and effectively in education sector planning. GCE believes that a knowledgeable and active civil society,

facilitating increased citizen participation, is critical to ensuring effective development, implementation and monitoring of education plans and policies that will realize global education goals and national education objectives.

One facility to strengthen civil society engagement in sector planning is the Civil Society Education Fund (CSEF), a program coordinated by GCE and regional partners and financed largely by the GPE, to fund and build the capacity of civil society advocacy coalitions in more than 50 low-income and lower-middle-income countries (Global Campaign for Education, 2014). The fund supports national coalitions through the following regional partners:

- ➊ The Africa Network Campaign for Education for All (ANCEFA) in Africa;
- ➋ The Latin American Campaign for the Right to Education (CLADE) in Latin America and the Caribbean;
- ➌ The Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education (ASPBAE) in Asia and the Pacific; and
- ➍ The Arab Campaign for Education for All (ACEA) in the Middle East, North Africa and Europe.

6.5 Case Study: Supporting Girls' Education in Yemen

The Yemen Coalition for Education for All (YCEA), established in 2009, is a group of several civil society organizations, teachers' unions and training centers. The coalition provides a platform for these various entities to coordinate activities that support the achievement of Education for All.

During a workshop organized by ACEA, with support from the GCE and the CSEF, the YCEA noted that girls' illiteracy was a major problem (Global Campaign for

Education, 2015). The coalition took steps to address this by targeting the village with the highest illiteracy rate in Yemen. The coalition acknowledged that for girls' education rights to be realized, it would require more than government commitment alone. Other actors, particularly tribal leaders, would need to be involved, given their influence and the role of culture in preventing girls' access to education. Consequently, the coalition established partnerships with tribal leaders, the Ministry of Education, local councils and other stakeholders to support girls' education. A

document that identifies the lack of education for girls as a "tribal black shame"¹¹ and punishes anyone who tries to prevent girls' education was drafted. Various activities were carried out, including awareness raising workshops, meetings and discussions, to encourage stakeholders to support the campaign for girls' education and to indicate their commitment by signing the document. The document was signed in February 2014 with tribal leaders, officials and the community (Arab Campaign for Education, 2014, 2016; Global Campaign for Education, 2015).

11 "Black shame" is a term in Yemen that means to deceive someone, a group or a tribe. When the shame deepens it will not be broken until both parties seek a neutral mediator. When the deceit is under the umbrella of a mediator and one of the parties backs down, the term "black shame" is used. Black shame ranks highest and has significant consequences [ACEA].

6.6 Exercise for Reflection and Application

Make a full list of the stakeholders and stakeholder groups that should be involved in the planning and appraisal processes for the education sector plan. Reflect, with other colleagues if possible, on the extent to which these stakeholder groups have been involved in each of the key steps of the education sector planning process so far. For each stakeholder or group, complete the table on the following page.

Use the following symbols to fill each of the boxes:

Y = yes; **N** = No

Afterward, consider the following questions:

- What can be concluded about the involvement of a wide range of stakeholders, including girls and women, in the sector planning process?
- How adequately have girls and women been able to participate? Are girls and women from different socioeconomic, ethnic, linguistic, religious and other groups represented?
- What recommendations can be made to improve the education planning and appraisal process to ensure that priorities reflect the differing needs of women and girls and men and boys, and to ensure meaningful participation by groups and individuals?

TABLE 6.1 ASSESSING AND DESIGNING FOR INCLUSIVE STAKEHOLDER ENGAGEMENT IN THE ESP PROCESS

Stakeholder A	Education Sector Reviews	ESP Design	Decisions on Strategies	Action Plan Development	Budgeting & Financing	Periodic Monitoring	Evaluation of Implementation
Invited to be present							
Adequately represented							
Were able to make relevant inputs							
Inputs were taken into account							
Inputs are reflected in the decisions taken							
Other observations . . .							

Stakeholder B	Education Sector Reviews	ESP Design	Decisions on Strategies	Action Plan Development	Budgeting & Financing	Periodic Monitoring	Evaluation of Implementation
Inited to be present							
Adequately represented							
Were able to make relevant inputs							
Inputs were taken into account							
Inputs are reflected in the decisions taken							
Other observations . . .							

(continued)

TABLE 6.1 CONTINUED

Stakeholder C	Education Sector Reviews	ESP Design	Decisions on Strategies	Action Plan Development	Budgeting & Financing	Periodic Monitoring	Evaluation of Implementation
Invented to be present							
Adequately represented							
Were able to make relevant inputs							
Inputs were taken into account							
Inputs are reflected in the decisions taken							
Other observations . . .							
Key Findings							
Recommended Action							

6.7 Additional Resources on Stakeholder Consultation and Participation

Gender Manual: A Practical Guideline for Development Policy Makers and Practitioners. Helen Derbyshire, 2002.

A Manual for Gender Audit Facilitators: The ILO Participatory Gender Audit Methodology, 2nd Edition International Labor Organization (ILO), 2012.

Module 7: Selecting Strategies and Interventions to Address Gender Disparities

7.1 Overview

This module provides practical guidelines for identifying and selecting strategies to address gender disparities and inequalities in education. In particular, the module:

- Outlines how the information in the previous modules can be used to inform the choice of strategies and interventions;
- Introduces the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis tool, which can be useful for decision making;
- Highlights the importance of using evidence and presents some promising practices for girls' education; and
- Provides criteria that can be used to choose among different strategies and interventions in specific contexts.

7.2 Gender Analysis and Strategy Selection—Making the Link

The process of gender analysis, introduced in Modules 2-4, enables assessment of the different educational needs of girls and boys and the nature of any gender disparities and inequalities, including where they occur, whom they affect, and how they are manifested. This is the basis for identifying strategies to overcome specific gender disparities. Choosing between strategies requires additional information and

sometimes difficult decision making to weigh the benefits of one strategy over another. The most appropriate strategy in a given context will depend on the availability of human resources, the available budget, and the relative cost of different strategies. Finally, the best strategies will be those that achieve results. Reviewing evidence on the effects of education interventions on gender-based barriers and inequalities in a specific context will ensure that the choice of strategies is informed by experience.

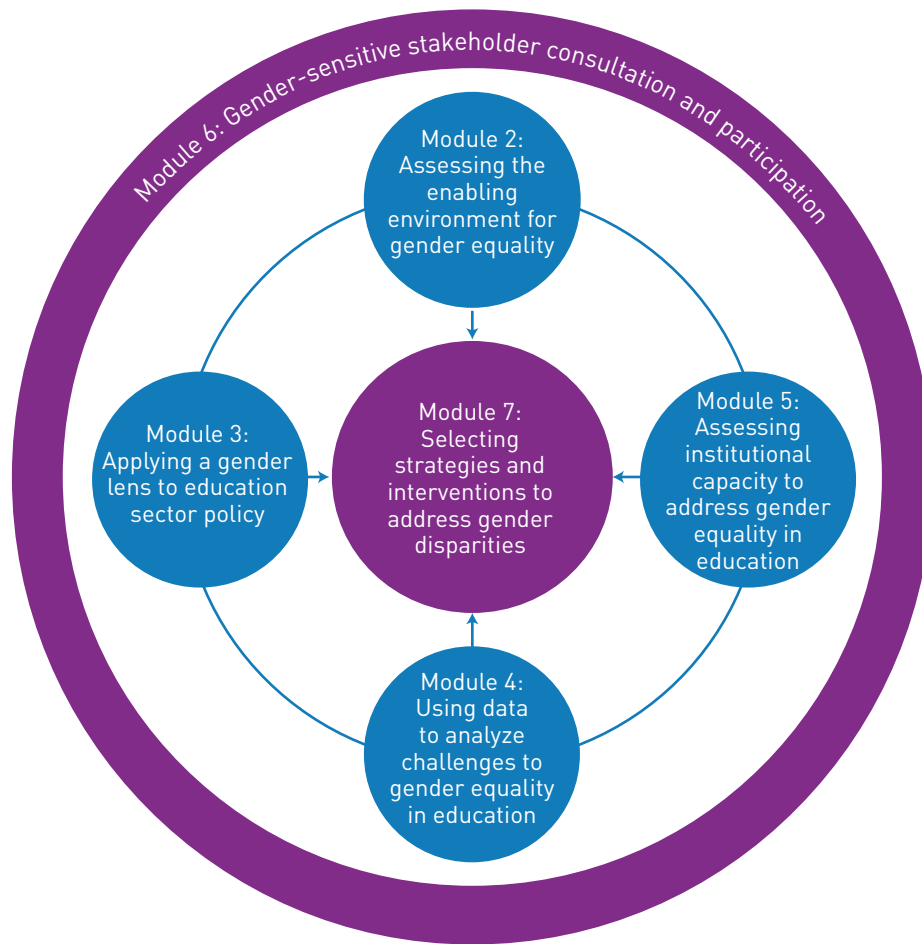
7.3 Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats Analysis¹²

The strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) analysis is a decision-making tool that policy makers and planners can use in the early stages of strategy identification and selection. The tool can provide a snapshot of the education system and the environment in which it operates. The SWOT analysis can help bring to light key issues, enabling planners to identify effective solutions. The SWOT analysis can be completed with information collected during the gender analysis and capacity assessment.

- **Strengths:** Human, financial, institutional and technical capacity and resources that have been effective in addressing gender issues in education. These are internal and should be built on when identifying and selecting strategies.
- **Weaknesses:** Internal attributes that have hindered progress on gender equality and girls' education. These are areas where improvement is

¹² Informed by: UNESCO, 2006. *National Education Sector Development Plan: A result-based planning handbook*. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001447/144783e.pdf>

FIGURE 7.1 BRINGING IT TOGETHER: GENDER ANALYSIS, CAPACITY ASSESSMENT, STAKEHOLDER ENGAGEMENT AND STRATEGY SELECTION



needed in order to eliminate gender disparities and inequalities.

- **Opportunities:** External factors that can help address the weaknesses. These can contribute to eliminating gender disparities and inequalities, and should be taken advantage of where possible.
- **Threats:** These are external factors that can impede the girls' education and gender equality agenda. Steps should be taken to avoid or minimize threats, to the extent possible.

A SWOT analysis from the Rwanda Girls' Education Strategic Plan 2008-2012 is shown in Figure 7.2.

Findings from such an analysis can be used to identify strategies and interventions that capitalize on the opportunities and strengths of the education sector while addressing weaknesses and minimizing threats. For example, the Rwanda Girls' Education Strategic Plan 2008-2012 includes actions to:

- Establish and maintain coordination and implementation mechanisms at national and district levels; and
- Sensitize families and local communities through parent-teacher associations about the importance of girls completing formal education.

FIGURE 7.2 SWOT ANALYSIS OF STAKEHOLDER INTERVENTIONS IN RWANDA

+		-	
Internal	Strengths	Weaknesses	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Positive political will ➤ Existence of Girls’ Education Policy, ESSP, gender policies and strategies ➤ Strong advocacy and actions for women’s self-empowerment ➤ Some existing initiatives for sensitization and empowerment ➤ Separate sanitation facilities in process ➤ Absence of gender stereotyping in curricula ➤ Concrete actions in girls’ education by education ministry and other stakeholders 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Insufficient analysis of the situation of girls’ education and sex disaggregated data in general ➤ Weak coordination of stakeholders and lack of follow-up of monitoring and evaluation ➤ Parent-teacher associations established but some of them are not functioning ➤ Community attitudes have not changed ➤ Few qualified female teachers and lecturers in secondary and higher education systems 	
External	Opportunities	Threats	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Strong commitment by the government and international donors ➤ Current sensitization and communication activities for girls’ education are focused on girls themselves ➤ Decentralized government structure ➤ A complement of women and secondary school and university girls available as role models and to support girls’ education in different ways 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Lack of funding 	

Source: Ministry of Education, Republic of Rwanda, 2008.

7.3.1 EXERCISE FOR REFLECTION AND APPLICATION: SWOT ANALYSIS

Building on the gender and capacity analyses in the previous modules, the goal of this exercise is to highlight the education system’s strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats with regard to addressing gender issues. Results from this exercise will feed into

strategic decision making, which is the subject of the next section.

Using the guiding questions presented in the table on the following page, reflect on your education system’s strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. Record observations and conclusions in the appropriate columns.

+		-	
Internal	Strengths	Weaknesses	
	<p><i>What is working well? What are some advantages? What resources currently exist?</i></p>	<p><i>What could be done better? What are the risks?</i></p>	
External	Opportunities	Threats	
	<p><i>What new frontiers can be explored?</i></p>	<p><i>What are the external issues that can hinder progress?</i></p>	

7.4 Strategy Identification and Selection

Identifying and selecting strategies to address gender disparities and promote gender equality requires making informed choices. The best strategies and interventions respond to issues and underlying factors identified through the gender analysis and align with the stated goals and objectives of the ESP. For instance, the gender analysis might reveal that girls' low enrollment in lower secondary school is related to safety and security threats in and around schools. Appropriate strategies might include the development of a policy on school-related gender-based violence, development of a code of conduct for teachers, or provision of transportation to and from school. In addition, it is important to consider whether a strategy can work by itself or if it requires other strategies to be put in place at the same time. In general, it is a combination of strategies that is most likely to bring about the desired change (Unterhalter et al., 2014).

7.4.1 USING EVIDENCE TO IDENTIFY STRATEGIES

Evidence enables policy makers and planners to make decisions based on what is known to work in a given context, thereby increasing the likelihood of achieving results. The most reliable evidence is generated by research and evaluations. Some research aims to establish a *cause and effect* relationship, showing that an intervention is responsible for a specific outcome. Experimental research designs, such as randomized controlled trials and quasi experimental designs, minimize the risk of bias affecting the results. Other research seeks to provide a deeper understanding of *why* events unfold as they do and why participants hold certain views about the events that affect them (DFID, 2014). Observational research designs and methods, particularly those using qualitative data, add significant value by providing information on contextual issues. Note that there is no globally recognized ranking system for the best research designs and methods. Some believe that the most powerful evidence is produced when different methods are combined

“While each kind of intervention can have a positive impact on improving girls' access to and participation in school, the quality of education they receive, and the extent to which it is empowering to them, this impact will be greatest when a combination of different kinds of intervention comes together, and when adequate attention is paid to the context within which they occur, particularly the social relations that may be constitutive of gender inequalities.”

—Unterhalter et al., 2014

or embedded in a broader methodological approach (DFID, 2014).

At the national level, not all evidence will come from a rigorous study like a randomized controlled trial. As such, it is good practice to assess the strength of evidence that a given intervention will achieve what it is intended to achieve. Undertaking an assessment of the strength of evidence is a challenging task that requires strong technical skills and good judgement. More information on characteristics to consider when assessing strength of evidence can be found in the DFID *How to Note: Assessing the Strength of Evidence* (available at <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/how-to-note-assessing-the-strength-of-evidence>). In general, strong evidence shows that 1) positive outcomes are more attributable to the intervention than to other factors, and 2) that the intervention is likely to produce the same pattern of effects in similar populations and contexts. When evidence is weak or not available, investment in the intervention can be risky because the likelihood of it achieving the desired outcome is unknown. However, an intervention with weak or no evidence of effectiveness can be chosen for circumstances in which there are no interventions supported by stronger evidence. An intervention not strongly supported by evidence might also be chosen if it appropriately addresses the needs of a particular population, culture or context. One approach for managing interventions with weak or no evidence can be to start small with a pilot project and evaluate the results before scaling up.

Table 7.1 brings together a series of strategies and interventions that are considered effective in advancing girls'

TABLE 7.1 TARGETING BARRIERS FACED BY GIRLS: PROMISING INTERVENTIONS AND PRACTICES

To Reduce Costs Paid by the Family, or Opportunity Costs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Provision of bursaries, stipends, scholarships and cash transfers ➤ Elimination of school fees and other costs for textbooks, uniforms and transport ➤ Elimination of hidden, voluntary or school administrative charges ➤ Provision of school meals
To Make Schools More Accessible
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Construction of schools and satellite schools, staffed with qualified teachers, close to communities ➤ Provision of safe transportation ➤ Construction of boarding facilities ➤ Provision of flexible schedules and study and delivery models
To Make Schools More Responsive to Girls' Needs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Development and improvement of safe school policies and practices, including codes of conduct, reporting mechanisms and training for SRGBV, and support mechanisms for victims ➤ Development and improvement of reentry policies for pregnant or married schoolgirls and school-aged mothers ➤ Provision of water, sanitation and hygiene facilities, such as separate toilets ➤ Employment of female teachers ➤ Implementation of gender training for teachers ➤ Provision of life skills and sexual and reproductive health and rights information ➤ Creation of girls' clubs and safe spaces
To Increase School Quality
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Provision of sufficient and trained teachers ➤ Use of mother tongue instruction in schools ➤ Deployment of teachers to rural areas, including female teachers ➤ Provision of performance-based incentives for teachers ➤ Development of bias-free teaching and learning materials, curricula and pedagogy

TABLE 7.1 CONTINUED

To Engage Community Support

- Mobilization of communities through outreach and awareness programs on child marriage and early pregnancy
- Engagement of female mentors and role models
- Transformation of attitudes in the community by working with: (i) family, religious and traditional leaders, and men and boys and (ii) media to support positive messages
- Involvement of parents in schools, e.g., school management committees and parent-teacher associations
- Creation of mothers' clubs

Sources: Unterhalter et al., 2014; Camfed, 2011; Sperling and Winthrop, 2015.

BOX 7.1 PROMOTING GENDER EQUALITY THROUGH STEM EDUCATION

Globally, female labor participation in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) fields has been observed to be low despite the increasing demand for professionals in these areas. The gender gap in STEM field employment is a reflection of girls' low participation in STEM-related subjects at all levels of education. A report analyzing gender gaps in education in Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries reveals that only 14% of young females entering tertiary education for the first time selected to study a science related field versus 39% of young males (OECD, 2015). Based on an analysis of the 2012 PISA results, the report also finds that girls generally have less confidence in their abilities in mathematics and science, and have greater anxiety toward mathematics—these were associated with performance differences equivalent to one-half to one year of school.

Among the various factors that contribute to the gender gap in STEM are gender biases and social norms that perpetuate gender stereotypes about STEM-related subjects and professions. These stereotypes are often reinforced in pedagogy, curricula, and teaching and learning materials and can negatively impact girls' interest and performance in STEM. Education can contribute to increasing the number of females in STEM fields by encouraging and supporting girls to pursue STEM-related

subjects. Some policy recommendations for closing the gender gap in STEM have included eliminating gender bias in teaching, curricula, and teaching and learning materials, providing female role models in STEM, and providing girls with career guidance.

Techno Girl in South Africa is an example of a program that has helped support girls' participation in STEM through mentoring and job shadowing. The program, initially started as a project in 2006 and now scaled up nationally, is led by the Department of Basic Education in partnership with UNICEF. The overall objective of the program is to "enhance and increase the uptake of careers in STEM by disadvantaged girls, thereby increasing the number of women working in careers critical to the economic growth of South Africa" (UNICEF, 2015). The program targets girls, aged 15–18 from grades 9–12. The girls are selected based on academic performance in science and mathematics, and come from schools in the poorest quintiles of South Africa. Girls who are selected then participate in programs at public and private sector businesses that have career fields with limited human resources and/or positions where females are underrepresented. A 2015 evaluation notes that the program has reached 5,896 girls in 1,050 schools over 76 districts in all nine provinces of the country (UNICEF, 2015).

education and gender equality based on an assessment by a number of researchers. In keeping with the suggested “two-pronged approach” to ensuring gender responsiveness, some of these are gender-targeted interventions and some would result from gender integration efforts.

7.4.2 CRITERIA FOR SELECTING STRATEGIES

Adopting and adapting criteria that apply to a wide range of education interventions can help with selecting strategies to address gender-based disparities and inequalities. Broadly speaking, the strategies to choose are those that provide the “best fit” based on the following interrelated criteria adapted from the UNESCO IIEP’s *Educational Planning for Conflict and Disaster Risk Reduction* (UNESCO IIEP, 2012):

Evidence-based: As discussed above, a strategy or intervention should be supported by credible evidence where possible. While experimental evidence is not always available in all countries, research findings from one country context can sometimes be relevant in another. Other evidence gathered through different research designs and methods can also be used to support the choice of strategy. This includes observational research that draws on quantitative data (such as cross-sectional, case control, and cohort or longitudinal studies) as well as qualitative data (including case studies, interviews and focus groups).

Guiding Questions

- ❶ Is there evidence on the strategy? If yes, does it support the decision to select the strategy by showing that the strategy is effective? In what context is the strategy effective?
- ❷ For strategies and interventions that are not strongly supported by evidence, why have they been selected? Should they be piloted on a small scale and evaluated before scaling up? If yes, how will they be monitored to build up the national evidence base?

Feasibility: Checking the resources required (including human, technical, financial, and institutional capacity

and time for implementation) against the resources available helps evaluate the extent to which a strategy is feasible. A strategy is most likely to be successful if backed by sufficient national resources. For a gender review of the curriculum to be feasible, it has to be included in the schedule of other curriculum reforms. Planning would need to take into account the time for teacher training institutes to update their own curricula and train or retrain teachers. Consideration of the costs and human resources required would also be critical.

Guiding Questions

- ❶ Does the human, technical, financial and institutional capacity exist to implement the targeted strategy?
- ❷ Are training and technical assistance available to support implementation? If not, does the strategy include measures that will develop the required capacity?
- ❸ Can the strategy be implemented within the proposed timeframe?
- ❹ Are monitoring and evaluation systems in place to help track and assess implementation performance?

Affordability: This criterion looks at the costs associated with implementing the strategy. Choosing effective strategies is important, but impact should be considered along with cost (see Box 7.2). The financial cost of the strategy should be within the means of the government. Given changing economic and political environments, different financing scenarios should be explored. Ultimately, the strategies selected may need to be reevaluated or modified, based on the financing scenarios, which will be discussed in Module 8. Political and social costs of the strategy should also be considered. Providing girls with free bicycles, introducing a school bus program, or building boarding facilities are interventions that might be considered to improve girls’ access to secondary school. The cost implications for each option would be different, including for initial capital outlay and recurrent maintenance costs.

BOX 7.2 VALUE FOR MONEY

The challenge of selecting the optimal mix of strategies is complicated by the ever increasing demands on limited funds. Weighing the value for money, or benefit derived from each dollar spent, will help when comparing strategies with different costs, scale and expected impact. In some cases, more costly approaches may offer better value if the impact per dollar is greater than a lower cost approach.

Cost-effectiveness analysis (CEA) is one tool that can be used to assess the value for money. CEA links information about the effectiveness of interventions with information on their costs, looking into impact relative to cost in order to maximize outcomes for a given level of resources. In a context where education decisions are constrained by the availability of financial resources, CEA helps decision makers and planners choose judiciously among different courses of action for advancing girls' education. For example, if one intervention provides girls with bicycles to increase their enrollment in secondary school, and another intervention builds boarding facilities to do the same thing, then policy makers and planners would look at the relative cost per unit of impact and choose the option that has the highest impact on enrollment for the same amount of resources. This selection can also help free up resources for other uses.

Due to the technical nature of the process, cost-effectiveness analysis is not always conducted by education ministries, despite its importance. Given the importance of assessing value for money, education ministries that develop or strengthen their capacities to conduct analyses such as CEA may be able to make better informed decisions for education programming. Partnerships with institutes and universities with experience in value for money calculations is one approach to enhancing capacity.

Guiding Questions

- Can the country afford to implement the strategy based on its cost and the anticipated allocation of resources to the sector? Are there alternative scenarios?
- Does the strategy have cost implications for households? What are the implications for girls from poor households?
- Are there any political costs associated with strategy?

Desirability: A strategy must be suitable for the country and community, cultural context and local circumstances. A desirable strategy takes into account the interests of the government and those of the community. Engaging stakeholders during strategy formulation helps ensure their needs are addressed (see Module 6). This also promotes ownership and accountability, which can in turn help the sustainability of the outcomes. The choice of strategy should also be aligned with the broader goals and objectives of the ESP.

One example that highlights the desirability criteria comes from Afghanistan. The Asia Foundation *Survey of the Afghan People* (Shawe, 2013) reported that there is a high demand for girls' education, but this demand is dependent on the availability of gender-responsive infrastructure and facilities, including separate schools for girls, female teachers, boundary walls and safe passage from home to school (Jackson, 2011). Building separate schools and recruiting female teachers may not be cost-effective interventions, but because of high desirability, they might be prioritized.

Guiding Questions

- Is the strategy appropriate for the given cultural and country context? Is there consensus that the strategy is appropriate? Did members of the target group or community (including women and men and, where appropriate, girls and boys) participate in the strategy formulation process?

- Does the strategy align with the broader goals and objectives of the ESP?

Sustainability: As the impact of interventions is often seen over long periods of time, it is essential to consider the long-term requirements for a strategy (UNESCO IIEP, 2012). Sustainability refers to the degree to which a strategy can be supported in the long run based on both financial and nonfinancial resources. This requires building robust human, technical, financial and institutional capacity, which should be integrated into ongoing plans, programs and budgets. Additionally, strong political will and leadership as well as broad-based community support are critical.

Guiding Questions

- Can the strategy be sustained in the long run in terms of personnel, staff time and funding availability?

- Will there be long-term support for the strategy at the political and community levels? Are there girls' education or gender equality champions who can support the strategies?

- Are monitoring and evaluation systems in place to help to demonstrate sustained impact?

The right choice and combination of strategies for girls' education is critically important to achieve success and will depend on the criteria above applied to the individual country and context. Strategy selection often comes down to weighing the different options and making trade-offs. Ultimately, the trade-off process requires strategic dialogue between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Finance, other relevant ministries, technical experts, and stakeholders.

7.5 Exercise for Reflection and Application

This exercise will enable policy makers and planners to begin the process of identifying strategies for addressing gender issues in education as an integral part of the education sector plan preparation process. Note that the results of the SWOT analysis should be considered as this exercise is completed.

Step 1

Based on the gender analysis (Modules 2-4), write down an problem identified, along with its underlying factors.

Problem	
Factors	

Step 2

List a strategy or strategies that can be put in place to address the problem and the underlying factors identified above. The list of promising practices provided in Box 7.1 can be used as a reference. Apply the criteria to evaluate each strategy. In the far right hand column, “Comments,” write down any observations.

Strategy	Criteria					Comments
	Evidence-Based	Feasibility	Affordability	Desirability	Sustainability	

7.6 Additional Resources on Strategy Identification and Selection

EVIDENCE ON EFFECTIVE EDUCATION INTERVENTIONS

Global Guidance on Addressing School-Related Gender-Based Violence. UNESCO and UN Women, 2016.

Evidence on girls' secondary education. Health and Education Advice and Resource Team (HEART), 2015.

How to Note: Assessing the Strength of Evidence. DFID, 2014.

Identifying Effective Education Interventions in Sub-Saharan Africa: A meta-analysis of rigorous impact evaluations. Katherine Conn, 2014.

Impacts of Conditional Cash Transfer Programs on Educational Outcomes in Developing Countries: A Meta-analysis. Juan Esteban Saavedra and Sandra Garcia, 2012.

International Initiative for Impact Evaluation. Evidence Gap Maps.

Interventions to enhance girls' education and gender equality. Elaine Unterhalter, Amy North, Madeleine Arnot, Cynthia Lloyd, Lebo Moletsane, Erin Murphy-Graham, Jenny Parkes and Mioko Saito, 2014.

What Works in Girls' Education: Evidence for the World's Best Investment. Gene B. Sperling and Rebecca Winthrop, 2015.

What Works in Girls' Education in Ghana: A critical review of the Ghanaian and international literature. Camfed, 2011.

VALUE FOR MONEY

Comparative Cost-Effectiveness Analysis to Inform Policy in Developing Countries: A General Framework with Applications for Education. Iqbal Dhaliwal, Esther Duflo, Rachel Glennerster and Caitlin Tulloch, 2011.

Guidance for DFID country offices on measuring and maximising value for money in cash transfer programs. Anthony Hodges, Matthew Greensdale and Philip White, 2013.

Module 8: Using Costing to Inform the Choice of Strategies and Interventions for Promoting Gender Equality

8.1 Overview

Integrating the costs of gender-responsive strategies and interventions into ESPs is critical for achieving goals and objectives related to gender equality and girls' education. Costing exercises can be used to inform the choice of strategies and to ensure that sufficient resources are allocated in the education budget to implement the selected strategies. This module describes:

- ❶ Why costing is important for gender-responsive planning;
- ❷ How to conduct gender-based costing and financing exercises using education simulation models (ESMs) during ESP preparation;
- ❸ How to ensure that the ESMs feature parameters that support the inclusion of gender-related priorities and strategies in ESPs; and
- ❹ Gender-responsive budgeting as a strategy to promote gender equality in education.

8.2 Costing for Gender Equality

Costing is the process of calculating or estimating the financial costs associated with implementing a strategy. In short, it requires assessing and quantifying all

the resources needed—human, physical and material. Costing provides policy makers and planners with an overview of the resources and financing required to achieve the goals and objectives of the ESP.

Financial and political support for strategies that address gender disparities in education are necessary if gender equality and girls' education goals are to be achieved. Measuring the costs associated with these strategies increases the likelihood of implementation and of equitable and efficient resource allocation. In addition, calculating the costs of not addressing gender disparities in education can also help support the case for investment in specific strategies. For example, a recent study by RTI International found that bullying could cost low- and middle-income countries up to \$17 billion annually (RTI International, 2015). In countries where bullying is identified as an issue, this information could be used to advocate for resources to implement strategies that addresses school-related gender-based violence.

“While governments have made commitments to action on gender equality, the lack of data on the costs of translating policy commitments into resources and investments limits the effectiveness and impact of their interventions.”

—UN Women, 2015

8.3 Building ESPs on Gender-Sensitive Financial Scenarios Using Education Simulation Models

There are a number of different tools that can be used to analyze the cost of a strategy or policy. One common tool is the education simulation model (ESM), which is a planning tool that tests the financial and logistical implications of an education policy or strategy. The model takes into account available resources in order to estimate the funding gap and help make potential trade-offs. ESMs support evidence-based policy dialogue and decision making. Additionally, ESMs help in resource negotiations between the education and finance ministries, as well as with donors. In order to secure adequate financial resources for strategies and interventions that address gender disparities and inequalities, the costs should be included in the ESM. This enables the development of a financing framework that is technically sound, sustainable and gender-responsive.

There are a variety of ESMs¹³ developed by individual countries or promoted by development partners. These ESMs, which support education planning throughout the entire policy cycle, as well as in specific stages such as analysis or operational planning, often differ in their approach, structure, presentation, and scope depending on the focus of national planning (see Box 8.1).

8.3.1 HOW TO DESIGN A GENDER-RESPONSIVE EDUCATION SIMULATION MODEL

Designing a gender-responsive education simulation model requires a team to collect all the necessary sex disaggregated baseline data and unit costs, including for

the proposed strategies, in advance at the analysis stage. Possible policy choices and assumptions are then identified and translated into different scenarios, which are tested through a process of trial and error. The cost and financing implications of these scenarios are then projected and inform policy dialogue and decision making.

Key steps for integrating gender equality and girls' education strategies and interventions in an ESM are further detailed below:

1. Collect baseline data

- ➊ This first step in designing an ESM is to collect baseline education data for population, enrollment, teaching and non-teaching staff and unit costs, including for buildings, latrines, bursaries, and teaching and learning materials as relevant. The data are then entered into the model.
- ➋ A gender-responsive ESM includes sex disaggregated baseline data, such as the current gross intake rates for girls and boys at the primary level. Baseline data on infrastructure and pedagogical materials will likely not be sex disaggregated. However, their associated unit costs may be entered in the model at a higher price if it is expected that they would feature specific elements for becoming gender responsive. For example, there may be additional costs associated with producing textbooks or teacher guides that are free from gender bias, or building separate latrines for girls and boys (see Box 8.2).
- ➌ Besides baseline education data and unit cost information, any type of simulation (gender-responsive or not) requires collecting macroeconomic information to help assess the financial feasibility of the selected strategies. Some of the macroeconomic information needed include gross domestic product (GDP) growth, domestic

Collect baseline data

Identify assumptions

Generate scenarios

¹³ Visit the Inter-agency Network on Education Simulation Models website inesm.education.unesco.org and http://www.unicef.org/education/bege_SEE.html for more information on different ESMs.

BOX 8.1 EXAMPLES OF ESMS

The *Education Financial Simulation Model (EFSM)*, the *Education Policy and Strategy Simulation model (EPSSim)*, and the *Simulations for Equity in Education (SEE) model* are three examples of ESMS that help project education resource and financing needs in relation to a number of policy assumptions.

In the EFSM and EPSSim, estimates of student flows are made (based on targeted progress on variables such as intake, repetition, dropout and transition) to determine how many students will be enrolled at each level given the expected school-aged population. The number of students, in turn, along with the targeted progress on student teacher ratios, helps determine how many teachers will be needed. Information on teacher numbers and expected changes in salaries, training costs, and non-teacher costs, for example, help with projecting overall education costs. In the EPSSim model, gender disaggregation of some results and interventions is already built in. For example, girls' enrollment is separate from boys' and provisions are made to input the number of intervention beneficiaries by gender (for example, for pro-poor

subsidies or school feeding programs). Such information would have to be added to the EFSM. In both models, the national team needs to input the expected impact of gender interventions on student flows. For example, if latrine construction, more female teachers and teacher training are expected to contribute to lower dropout rates for girls, the team must make an assumption about the resulting decrease in girls' dropouts and input this value in the model.

The SEE model, on the other hand, focuses on modelling interventions targeted to marginalized groups. The model starts from proposed interventions, predicts their expected impact, and compares their cost-effectiveness, something that does not exist in the EFSM and EPSSim models. While the SEE model projects the expected impacts and costs of selected interventions targeting marginalized groups (which can help estimate the result of specific interventions targeting poor rural girls, for example) it does not provide a full simulation of costs in the education sector. Therefore its results have to be integrated within more traditional ESMS.

revenues as a share of GDP, and share of domestic revenues allocated to recurrent education spending.

2. Identify assumptions

- ➊ The next step in the design of an ESM is the identification of assumptions. In most ESMS, once proposed strategies and activities are identified, their expected impacts must be included in the model as assumptions.
- ➋ A gender-responsive ESM integrates gender-related assumptions. For example, if one intervention is expected to contribute to a decrease in girls' dropouts, then this decrease is integrated as part of the assumptions of the model. Gender-related variables such as girls' and boys' intake, repetition, dropouts and transition rates must therefore be set as variables with targets that simulate the results of the proposed strategy.
- ➌ Using assumptions regarding the evolution of girls' dropout rates, the ESM can help project the changes in variables such as gross enrollment rates and number of teachers needed. For instance, analysis may have shown that 35 percent of parents of out-of-school girls cite fear for their security in and around school as the main reason their daughters are out of school. In

BOX 8.2 EXAMPLES OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE STRATEGIES AND THEIR INTEGRATION IN ESMS

Building latrines is a possible component of an education policy that can have an important influence on girls' attendance. In the ESM, a specific variable labelled as "latrines" can therefore be considered. The number of existing latrines in the baseline year will need to be entered in the model and the chosen policy option (such as separate latrines for girls and boys for each school) should be expressed as a ratio (1 latrine to xx boys/ 1 latrine to xx girls). The timeline for reaching the policy goal (expressed in number of years) should also be incorporated in the model.

If a government wants to introduce bursaries for girls at the lower secondary level, the unit cost of

the bursary should be estimated, along with the number of beneficiaries to be reached over the planned period. The ESM will show if this strategy is feasible in terms of financial resources required. Depending on the structure of the model, planners can decide whether to make "bursary for girls" a specific line item or include it in a broader category, such as "social subsidy."

Creating a specific department, directorate or unit dedicated to promoting girls' education and gender equality in education involves additional expenditure on administrative costs such as staff, equipment and supervision. These costs should be included in the simulation model.

response, planners decided to create new legal frameworks, develop prevention and response mechanisms, sensitize teachers and empower students. Along with integrating the costs of these interventions, the simulation team must estimate their expected impact on girls' dropouts by setting relevant dropout targets. The model then helps project the changes of other variables over the planned period as a direct consequence of these assumptions.

- 🔍 Note that some ESMs, like the Simulations for Equity in Education (see Box 8.1), automatically project the impact of proposed gender strategies and interventions on outputs such as intake and dropout rates or learning outcomes.

3. Generate scenarios

- 🔍 The design of an ESM concludes with the generation of different scenarios to inform policy dialogue on the proposed strategies. At this stage, the ESM is used to project the resource needs and costs associated with the baseline information that was entered, the assumptions, and targets. This includes the human resources

such as teaching and non-teaching staff, physical resources such as schools, classrooms, latrines and other relevant education infrastructure, and financial resources needed to implement the identified strategies. Several scenarios can then be developed to test the impact of different sets of strategic choices and assumptions.

- 🔍 Through this process, the ESM helps policy makers and planners evaluate the financial and logistical sustainability of the proposed gender-responsive strategies, including cost estimates and budget implications. As policy dialogue progresses and different options are carefully weighed, a particular scenario will emerge as the optimum scenario that will serve as the reference framework for drafting the education sector plan.

The choice to integrate gender variables in the model is contingent upon a combination of political and technical issues. These may include the following, as well as other factors:

- a. The focus and level of explicitness of gender issues in the national development policy;
- b. The political will to reduce gender disparities and inequalities and the capacity of the Ministry of Education and other actors to translate it into action;
- c. Donors' perspectives and influence;
- d. The structure of the simulation model; and
- e. Availability of resources to address gender disparities and inequalities.

8.4 Exercise for Reflection and Application

The *Education Policy and Strategy Simulation (EPSSim)* model (discussed in Section 8.3) is an ESM developed by UNESCO in 2001. Since then it has undergone continuous development. EPSSim is a sector-wide, generic model. It aims to create broad support by reflecting the concerns and interests of diverse stakeholders (beyond the education, finance and planning ministries) and including additional components at the intersection of education and other sectors, such as pro-poor targeting and school feeding. Table 8.1 shows a set of variables entered as assumptions in the EPSSim model used. The second column contains variables that will be projected by the model based on these assumptions. *Note that there is no line-by-line correspondence between variables on the left and on the right.*

TABLE 8.1 TYPE OF VARIABLES USED IN EPSSIM, THE UNESCO SIMULATION MODEL

Variables Imputed as Assumptions		Variables Computed by the Model	
Category "Students"			
Intake rate in first grade		New entrants in first grade	
Flow rates (e.g., repetition, survival)		Number of pupils and gross enrollment ratios	
Pupil-class ratio		Gross enrollment ratios	
Proportion of multigrade classes		Number of classes/classrooms	
Proportion of double shift classes		Number of multigrade and/or double shift classes	
Category "Teaching and other staff"			
Pupil-teacher ratio		Salary expenses	
Turnover and attrition rates		Recurrent expenditures	
Staff supervision rates		Investment expenditures	
Proportion of non-teaching staff		Financing gap	
Category "Cost and financing"			
% yearly increase in salaries		Salary expenses	
Salary scale and other emoluments		Recurrent expenditures	
Budgetary allocations		Investment expenditures	
Macroeconomic indicators		Financing gap	

Adapted from: UNESCO, 2012.

Part 1

For each category in Table 8.1, identify which variables would need to be sex disaggregated for the simulation model to be more gender responsive.

Category	Set of Variables in Table 8.1 That Would Need to Be Sex Disaggregated
Students	
Teaching and other staff	
Cost and financing	

Part 2

The table below includes some strategies for addressing gender disparities in education. Identify which simulation variables in Table 8.1 would be impacted by the strategies. For example, would fee waivers for school-going girls influence girls' intake rate? Would it have an impact on girls' repetition or survival?

Strategy to Address Gender Issues	Set of Variables in Table 8.1 That Would Be Impacted by Strategy
Fee waivers for school-going girls in selected areas	
Construction of schools close to communities	
(Conditional) cash transfers to families	
Provision of in-kind support such as school feeding, school uniforms, and books	
Providing scholarships and bursaries	
Provision of water, sanitation and hygiene facilities (e.g., separate toilets)	
Development of bias-free teaching and learning materials and curricula	
Improving the level and quality of teacher training	
Learning outside the classroom through formal and informal extracurricular activities such as tutoring and after-school clubs	

8.5 Gender-Responsive Budgeting

Gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) is an approach that seeks to ensure that gender-related issues are considered and addressed in all government policies, including in the education sector. GRB can be an effective next step after the answer to the question “What is the impact of the education sector budget on girls and women, boys and men?” is revealed and examined. GRB is important for moving commitments forward to gender equality and human rights and increasing the efficiency of government budgets through better informed financial resource allocations. Through improved analysis and understanding of the differing budgetary impacts on girls and women compared to boys and men, GRB can also increase the effectiveness of government policies and programs.

Gender-responsive budgets typically have three main objectives (Sharp, 2003):

1. To raise awareness and understanding of gender issues and the impact of current budgets and policies;
2. To increase government accountability for policy and budgetary commitments to boost gender equality; and
3. To promote progress in gender equality through changes in government budgets and policies.

A phased approach to improving gender equality can be helpful. The first phase might involve training workshops and capacity building on gender responsive budgeting for planners, parliamentarians, NGOs and women’s organizations. In the next phase, civil servants, parliamentarians and NGOs might analyze the budget to understand how existing allocations affect girls, women, boys and men differently and then decide which changes would be beneficial. Including NGOs and CSOs in the budgeting process can increase accountability.

Education sector financing decisions can promote gender equality in a number of ways, including:

- **Gender-targeted expenditures**, such as budget allocations focused on improving gender equality, including stipends or scholarships for girls or funding for girls toilets, or setting quotas for girls’ school entry or other affirmative action.
- **Staff-related expenditures**, such as setting enhanced allocations to redress imbalances after conducting a comparative analysis of women’s and men’s salaries and employment terms and conditions. For example, making greater allocations for women’s professional development.
- **General expenditures**, such as increasing the proportion of funding for early childhood education so that women and older girls benefit alongside younger girls who access early learning opportunities.

Gender-responsive budgeting has been implemented in some countries, but with varied outcomes. Ecuador provides an example of a country where GRB has successfully contributed to gender equality by reducing school-based violence. For the 2009 budget cycle, officers in the Ministry of Education received training and technical assistance on gender budgeting from UN Women. Consequently, gender was mainstreamed in the projects and monitoring frameworks of the Ministry. Additionally, around 6 percent of the budget was designated to the elimination of violence against women, and these resources were used to combat violence and sexual harassment faced by girls in schools (Lo and Alami, 2011). Another GRB success story comes from Tanzania. In 1997, the “Gender Budgeting Initiative” was pioneered by a group of NGOs to encourage gender-sensitive approaches in policies and budgets. The initiative comprised a variety of activities, including training sessions and open street meetings about GRB, and involved various actors including government representatives. Following this, the government acknowledged the initiative and gender was mainstreamed into the budget. For instance, the budget

allocation for the water sector was increased from three to six percent of the national budget, providing low income households with free access to 80 buckets of water and thus reducing girls' household labor time (Plan International, 2012).

8.6 Additional Resources on Costing

EPSSim User Guide: Education Policy & Strategy Simulation Model. UNESCO, 2012.

Gender budgeting: Practical Implementation Handbook. Sheila Quinn, Council of Europe, 2009.

Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Preparation. GPE and UNESCO-IIEP, 2015.

Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Appraisal. GPE and UNESCO-IIEP, 2015.

National Education Sector Development Plan: A result-based planning handbook. Gwang-Chol Chang, UNESCO, 2006.

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Budgeting for Equity: Gender budget initiatives within a framework of performance oriented budgeting. R. Sharp, 2003.

Gender-Responsive Budgeting in Education, Education and Equality Series, Program Insights. Oxfam GB, December 2005.

Financing for Gender Equality: Reframing and Prioritizing Public Expenditures to Promote Gender Equality. S. Seguino, 2013.

Gender-responsive budgeting in education. UNESCO Bangkok, 2010.

Financing for gender equality. UN Women, 2015.

Module 9: Monitoring and Evaluation to Support Gender Equality

9.1 Overview

A robust ESP monitoring and evaluation (M&E) framework helps capture and track the effectiveness of interventions to achieve gender equality outcomes in the education sector. This chapter focuses on:

- ➊ Understanding the purpose of M&E and its importance in advancing gender equality in education;
- ➋ The types of information needed to monitor whether or not planned activities to address gender disparities are being effectively implemented and to understand how gender issues in education are evolving; and
- ➌ The structures and processes required for regular monitoring and evaluation of progress toward gender equality.

9.2 The Importance of Integrating Gender Considerations in Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring refers to the continuous examination of progress achieved during implementation, in order to track compliance with a plan and make decisions to improve performance (UNEG, 2005).

Evaluation refers to the periodic assessment of activities, programs, policies and other interventions in order to understand why, and the extent to which, intended and unintended results are achieved and their impact on stakeholders. Evaluations aim to determine

the relevance, impact, effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability of an intervention.

Gender responsive M&E are both critical for:

- ➊ **Determining whether the implementation of the ESP is on track to meet gender-related targets and achieve gender-related objectives** and if changes are needed. For example, has the expected number of teachers been trained in gender-sensitive pedagogy? To what extent has gender balance among teachers in rural areas been achieved? Have enrollment rates among ethnic minority girls increased as planned? M&E is essential in helping policy makers, implementers, donors and civil society acquire the information and understanding they need to make informed decisions about ESP operations, and for holding these stakeholders accountable to one another for gender outcomes.
- ➋ **Building a strong evidence base around what works in advancing girls' education and gender equality.** M&E contributes to a strengthened understanding of the multiple and interrelated factors causing gender disparities in education and the effectiveness of the response at various levels (school, district or

An evaluation that neglects or omits consideration of gender equality deprives the government of evidence about who benefits (and does not) from its interventions, risks perpetuating discriminatory structures and practices where interventions do not follow government policy related to gender equality, and may miss opportunities for demonstrating how effective interventions are carried out.

—Adapted from United Nations Evaluation Group, 2011

national) and geographic regions. M&E not only helps assess whether or not the intervention was successful, but also helps to better understand why or why not. It can help test expectations as to how change will be achieved, for example, the extent to which incentives were successful in increasing the number of rural female teachers and the extent to which higher numbers of rural female teachers resulted in an increase in girls attending school. If monitoring showed that more female teachers did not take up positions in rural schools, a review of the project design would be necessary. If monitoring showed that even where female teachers were present, girls' attendance did not increase, it would be necessary to reconsider the project's theory of change and examine other barriers to attendance faced by rural girls.

- **Helping identify the most valuable interventions and best use of resources.** Monitoring progress towards planned objectives as well as budget expenditure over time can highlight the cost-effectiveness of interventions. For example, latrine construction and providing conditional cash transfers have been shown to increase adolescent girls' attendance in some countries. However, the level of effectiveness and the cost of the two interventions can be quite different. M&E is an integral part of the policy cycle because it provides the necessary data and information to guide strategic planning, to design and implement interventions to address gender disparities, and to allocate and reallocate resources in better ways based on performance.

9.3 Gender-Responsive M&E Frameworks and Mechanisms

9.3.1 UNDERSTANDING THE RESULTS CHAIN

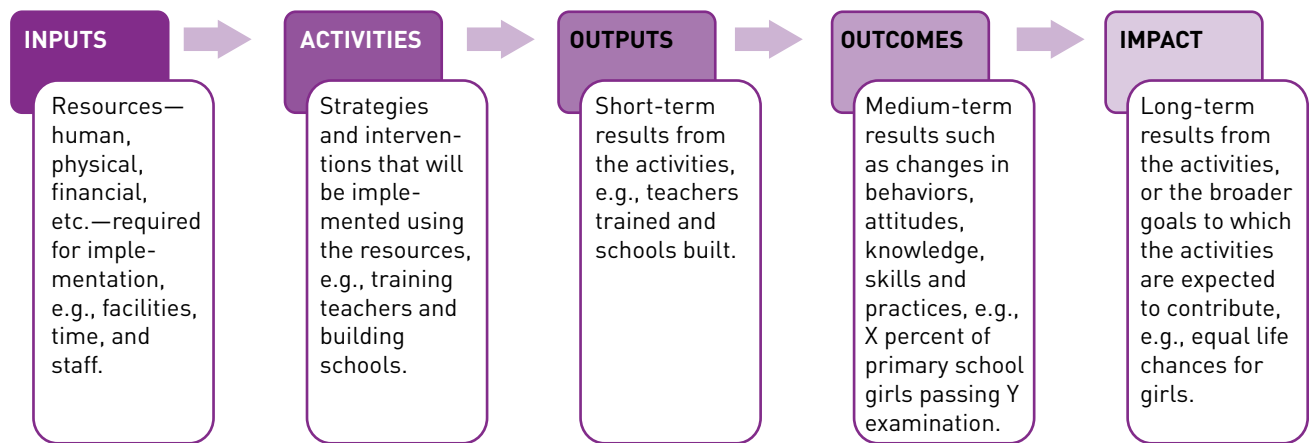
Developing a sound gender-responsive M&E framework requires an understanding of how the planned strategies and interventions are expected to lead to the desired change. For example, how are awareness

BOX 9.1 SOME KEY QUESTIONS THAT MONITORING AND EVALUATION HELP ANSWER

- Are the proposed activities being carried out in the manner outlined in the ESP operational plan? Why or why not?
- Are activities leading to expected results?
- Is the intervention making a difference? To what extent is the intervention responsible for the measured or observed changes?
- Is the intervention feasible and acceptable?
- Did it have an impact? Is it affordable and cost-effective?
- Can it be scaled up? That is, can the intervention be adapted, replicated or built on to increase its reach or scope for a larger population or a different region?
- What interventions and strategies are most effective and cost-effective at addressing gender disparities in education?

Excerpted and adapted from the *Virtual Knowledge Center to End Violence Against Women and Girls, 2012b*.

campaigns on the importance of girls' education expected to help improve girls' enrollment rates? There are different approaches that can be used to conceptualize the desired change such as the *logical framework approach*, a methodology that articulates the assumptions connecting a project's activities, outputs, purpose and goals, and *theory of change*, a detailed description of the causal linkages that are expected to bring about a desired change. (See Annex B for an example of a theory of change for a component of a program to address violence against women and girls). In general,

FIGURE 9.1 THE RESULTS CHAIN

Source: World Bank and IEG 2012.

both approaches have the same purpose, to illustrate the relationship between interventions and expected results, or the link between the inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes and impact. A results chain is a simple tool that can be used to visualize the relationship between these components (see Figure 9.1).

9.3.2 DEVELOPING A GENDER-RESPONSIVE M&E FRAMEWORK

Once the link between project or program components has been conceptualized, a more detailed plan for monitoring progress in strategy implementation and achievement of expected results can be developed. This can be done through an M&E indicator system or results framework and requires specifying indicators that will serve as markers of success for each level of the results chain. Indicators should be specific, measurable, attributable, realistic and time bound (World Bank and IEG, 2012).

To measure progress towards the gender-related goals and objectives of the ESP, a results framework should include gender-sensitive indicators. A gender-sensitive indicator is simply an indicator that measures gender-related changes in society over time. Examples of indicators at each level of the results chain are as follows:

- **Activity:** A new module on gender-sensitive pedagogy introduced at teacher training centers and institutes.
- **Outputs:** The number of female and male teachers trained on gender-sensitive pedagogy; the number of teacher training centers and institutes integrating the module within their curricula.
- **Outcomes:** Changes in teacher attitudes regarding gender issues; the number of teachers able to effectively demonstrate gender-sensitive teaching in the classroom.
- **Impact:** The number of girls and boys completing lower secondary school.

The results framework should include baselines (see Box 9.2) and targets for the indicators and a timeline for progress.

Some elements to consider when developing an M&E framework include:

- **Developing a limited set of key indicators aligned with the agreed gender-related strategies, outputs and outcomes can be strategic.** The results framework can benefit from the indicators that are already

BOX 9.2 WHAT ARE BASELINE DATA?

Baseline data are critical reference points for assessing change. They constitute a starting point for gauging progress towards goals and objectives and measuring the level and direction of change. They establish a basis for comparing the situation before and after an intervention and making inferences as to the effectiveness of the intervention.

Baseline data can be quantitative, qualitative or a combination of both and should include information that will enable changes to be measured in accordance with the objectives of the program or intervention. For example, if the ESP includes a program to train teachers on gender-responsive teaching and learning practices, a survey could be

used to collect information on teachers' knowledge, attitudes and practices. Information about the experiences of girls and boys in the classroom could be collected through interviews and focus group discussions.

The gender analysis and needs assessment can contribute information toward developing a baseline. If a separate baseline study is not conducted, data and information for establishing a baseline can be consolidated from other sources such as the national EMIS and household and other surveys.

Source: Adapted from the Virtual Knowledge Center to End Violence Against Women, 2012a.

collected and reported on through the EMIS and other national data collection systems. Good indicators provide a detailed overview of progress and focus on the most important aspects necessary for the desired change to be achieved (UN Women, 2014).

- **Implications for M&E will differ depending on the approach that is selected, whether gender targeted or gender integrated.** Indicators for a gender-targeted approach relate to the needs of the target group and the impact of the actions to address those needs (ibid.), for example, the number of girls receiving stipends to complete lower secondary school or the number of young mothers who return to school following the introduction of a reentry policy. The data collected for a gender-integrated approach would aim to capture the extent to which policies take into account gender or the conditions in which services are delivered, including their responsiveness to the needs of marginalized girls (ibid.). Indicators might include the number of rural schools with boarding facilities or WASH facilities, or the percentage of textbooks reviewed for gender bias.

“A combination of quantitative and qualitative data and data collection methodologies is important, as they have their own advantages and disadvantages . . . Each M&E instrument can capture important elements of change towards gender equality goals, but no one method can address the many complex dimensions of change.”

—UN Women, 2014

- **Collecting a mix of both quantitative and qualitative data is critical.** Administrative data, census data, household surveys and learning assessment information are the main sources of quantitative data for monitoring gender disparities in the education sector (see Module 4). While quantitative indicators disaggregated by sex are a crucial way to begin monitoring and evaluating gender differences, there are gender dimensions that can only be assessed using qualitative data and methods. Qualitative data can be collected through information sources such as specific surveys, interviews and focus groups. Box 9.3 provides an excerpt of a tool used to collect quantitative and qualitative data

BOX 9.3 MONITORING TOOL FOR GENDER RESPONSIVENESS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS—UGANDA



203. Give reasons for absenteeism in your school

- Menstruation
- Lack of books
- Long distances
- Poor sanitation
- Lack of school feeding

204. Have you had cases of children dropping out as a result of pregnancy?

- Yes No

205. If yes, how many cases since 2010?-----

206. What are the mechanisms in place to handle cases of pregnancy?

- a) -----
- b) -----

Source: Republic of Uganda. Ministry of Education and Sports, 2016.

on gender responsiveness in primary schools in Uganda. The full tool can be accessed in Annex A.

🕒 When choosing indicators, the importance of the proposed indicator or measurement method needs to be balanced with the ease and frequency of data collection. For example, if one key activity is to sensitize teachers to gender issues, measuring progress at the output level such as the number of sensitization trainings provided can generally be carried out easily. However, measuring changes in attitudes resulting from this activity would generally require a separate monitoring mechanism and this may add a significant reporting burden. If it is decided to include this measure, then it would be important to identify the method and frequency of

data collection and whether additional human and financial resources will be needed to collect and analyze the data.

9.3.3 INSTITUTIONAL REQUIREMENTS FOR SUPPORTING GENDER INTEGRATION IN M&E

Developing a mechanism that lays out the process for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of gender-related strategies and interventions as described in the ESP requires:

- 🕒 Establishing coordinated and common reporting tools, assigning responsibilities for information gathering with attention to gender, determining the

timeframe and frequency of data collection, and allocating resources for M&E.

- **Assessing the internal capacity to carry out the proposed M&E activities** in a gender-sensitive manner, including analysis of data collected. Investing in developing the capacities of statistical offices and ministry staff at centralized and decentralized levels may be necessary, as well as determining if outside expertise in gender will be needed. Being realistic is crucial because “ideal” monitoring frameworks that surpass existing capacity may never be implemented.
- **Ensuring gender expertise** in survey design as well as the gender sensitivity of research or evaluation teams. This may mean recruiting trained female as well as male enumerators and gender research experts. Both male and female team members should have gender expertise (UN Women, 2014). Establishing partnerships with organizations, universities and research centers that have capacity in gender training and analysis, as well as those that have gender-sensitive data and information that can be used in monitoring (UNICEF, 2006).
- **Establishing accountability** for the implementation and monitoring of gender-related activities, which may include third party verification.

South Sudan provides an example of how monitoring and evaluation will be used to support the

implementation and assessment of its Girls’ Education Strategy for 2015-2017:

MoEST (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology), through the directorate of gender, will be responsible for the monitoring process at all levels and will be tasked to report the achievements and challenges on the implementation of the strategy. In terms of evaluating the strategy plan, a baseline assessment in 2015, a mid-term assessment in 2016 and a final evaluation in 2018 will be carried out to assess effectiveness, efficiency, coherence and coordination of the proposed strategies. The evaluation results will be used to demonstrate and account for planned results and determine the corrective actions that need to be taken to ensure necessary changes within the strategy are made beyond 2018.

—Girls’ Education Strategy for South Sudan, 2015-2017

9.4 Example of a Performance Indicator Framework

Results frameworks will vary. Figure 9.2 provides a snapshot of the Key Performance Indicators Framework from the Ethiopia Education Sector Development Program V (ESDP), which uses an integrated approach to gender. The framework includes baselines and annual targets for the period covered by the plan. Additionally, a number of the indicators have been sex disaggregated. The ESDP indicates that the primary source for the data will be the EMIS, but other sources such as the General Education Quality Improvement Program monitoring and evaluation system, surveys, evaluations and studies will be used.

FIGURE 9.2 KEY PERFORMANCE INDICATORS (KPI) FOR THE ETHIOPIA EDUCATION SECTOR DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM V 2015/16–2019/20

KPIs (All targets stated as female/male where relevant; all expressed as percentages unless stated)	Baseline (2013/14 unless stated)	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19	2019/20
Quality						
Preprimary teachers holding the ECCE diploma	0/0	0/0	2/2	5/5	9/9	15/15
Grades 1–4 teachers appropriately qualified	63/48	70/58	77/68	84/79	92/89	100/100
Teachers in grades 1–12 that are licensed	0/0	10/10	21/21	38/38	55/55	70/70
Primary schools at level three or above classification	21	29	37	44	52	60
Secondary schools at level three or above classification	30	36	42	48	54	60
Schools (grade 1–12) access to broadcast and digital technologies assisted instruction (all varieties)	46	53	63	73	79	83
TVET completers who are assessed as competent	60	63/63	66/66	69/69	72/72	75/75
TVET OS approved in all priority sectors (number)	650	701	738	775	812	850
Academic staff mix in universities (Bachelor: Masters: Doctorate)	27 : 58 : 15	22 : 60 : 18	16 : 63 : 21	11 : 65 : 24	5 : 68 : 27	0 : 70 : 30

(continued)

FIGURE 9.1 CONTINUED

KPIs (All targets stated as female/male where relevant; all expressed as percentages unless stated)	Baseline (2013/14 unless stated)	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19	2019/20
Equity						
GPI in preprimary (index)	0.95	0.96	0.97	0.98	0.99	1.00
GPI in grades 1–8 (index)	0.93	0.94	0.95	0.96	0.98	1.00
GPI in grades 9–12 (index)	0.91	0.92	0.94	0.96	0.98	1.00
Females as a share of students in formal TVET system	51	50	50	50	50	50
Females as a share of undergraduate enrollment	32	34	36	38	41	45
Females as a share of IFAE (2-year) program graduates	54	56	62	67	69	70
Enrollment rate of children with SNE, grades 1–8	4	18	32	47	61	75
Enrollment rate of children with SNE, grades 9–12	7	15	22	30	37	45
Females as a share of school leaders (principals and supervisors)	8	9	10	13	16	20

Source: Federal Ministry of Education, Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2015.

9.5 Exercise for Reflection and Application

The table below provides a series of questions to highlight gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation processes and activities. Reflect on these questions in relation to the ESP.

Questions	Comments
<p>What tools and mechanisms for M&E are included in the ESP (for example, Theory of Change, logical framework, or M&E indicator system)?</p>	
<p>How do the existing M&E tools and mechanisms integrate gender?</p>	

9.6 Additional Resources on Gender-Sensitive Monitoring and Evaluation

Gender-sensitive Education Statistics and Indicators: A Practical Guide. UNESCO.

Integrating human rights and gender equality in evaluation: Towards a UNGE guidance. United Nations Evaluation Group, 2011.

“Measuring gender equality in education.” Elaine Unterhalter, Chloe Challender and Rajee Rajagopalan, in Sheila Aikman and Elaine Unterhalter (eds.) *Beyond Access: Transforming Policy and Practice for Gender Equality in Education*, Oxfam GB, 2005.

Quick guide to gender sensitive indicators. Oxfam GB, January 2014.

IV. PLAN APPRAISAL

Module 10: Summary Checklist: Is the Education Sector Plan Gender Responsive?

Module 1 outlined key elements and an organizing framework to guide the development of a gender-responsive ESP and the successive modules have further elaborated on these. This module provides a summary checklist for assessing whether an ESP is gender-responsive. It can be used in addition to the GPE-IIEP Guidelines for Education Sector Plan

Appraisal. This checklist can also be used separately by countries that have not gone through the other modules.

Review the appraisal questions in the second column and record responses in the third column labelled “Comments.”

<p>A Gender-Responsive ESP Is</p>	<p>Appraisal Questions</p>	<p>Comments</p>
<p>Informed by gender analysis Modules 2, 3 & 4</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Has a recent gender analysis of the education sector been conducted as part of an education sector analysis (ESA) or as a separate exercise? Does it cover all education subsectors? 2. Does the ESA clearly identify the key issues relating to gender and access, quality and learning, building on both quantitative and qualitative information? Does it include analysis of female and male teacher deployment across subsectors? Have quality issues such as the gender sensitivity of the curriculum, teachers' attitudes and violence in schools been analyzed? 3. Has gender been reviewed in combination with other factors of disadvantage? Has the impact of these factors on priorities, resources, and risk mitigation been analyzed? For example, are the enrollment, retention and learning outcomes data analyzed by sex as well as other socioeconomic variables? 4. Were research studies or analyses, including household surveys and studies from international or national nongovernmental organizations, used to inform the gender analysis? Do they show similar or different data regarding education and gender compared to the official education statistics? 	

A Gender-Responsive ESP Is	Appraisal Questions	Comments
<p>Transacted through a participatory and gender-sensitive stakeholder consultation process</p> <p>Module 6</p>	<p>5. Did the analysis and ESP development include the participation of stakeholders with expertise on gender and inclusion, such as civil society members, Ministry of Women’s Affairs representatives, and gender and inclusion focal points within the Ministry of Education?</p> <p>6. Did the process to develop the ESP create opportunities for the views of women and men (including female and male teachers), girls and boys to be heard?</p>	
<p>Reflective of gender strategies and lessons learned and integrates gender throughout</p> <p>Modules 7, 8 & 9</p>	<p>7. Are the broader national vision, principles and values relating to gender equality reflected in the ESP? Are the main elements of national policies and strategies on gender, girls’ education and gender equality in education reflected in the ESP?</p> <p>8. Are the strategic policies and plan priorities to address gender issues informed by a detailed gender analysis, as well as lessons learned from past policies and implementation experience?</p> <p>9. Is there a combination of gender-targeted and gender-integrated strategies?</p> <p>10. Are there specific strategies for girls and boys belonging to marginalized and at-risk groups, for example based on disability or geographic location? Do the strategies and interventions reflect a distribution of the resources and inputs to the system that will lead to greater equity in education?</p>	

(continued)

A Gender-Responsive ESP Is	Appraisal Questions	Comments
	<p>11. Are the underlying causes of gender and social inequality relating to efficiency and learning addressed through the selected strategies and programs?</p> <p>12. Does the ESP address gender issues specific to the different levels of education (early childhood through tertiary)?</p> <p>13. Does the ESP include any strategies and interventions that involve working with sectors and ministries outside of education, for example, those related to school-related gender-based violence, early marriage, early pregnancy, menstrual hygiene and management, and child labor, among others?</p>	
<p>Backed by adequate financial resources</p> <p>Module 8</p>	<p>14. Are all the costs associated with the identified strategies to address gender disparities in education budgeted for across all subsectors? Are the cost estimates consistent with the gender targets set?</p> <p>15. Are the domestic resources adequate to cover planned recurrent expenditures to address gender in education?</p>	
<p>Reflected in the operational plan</p>	<p>16. To what extent are gender strategies and budgets integrated in the annual operational plan?</p>	

A Gender-Responsive ESP Is	Appraisal Questions	Comments
<p>Backed by necessary institutional capacity Module 5</p>	<p>17. Do the institutional structures identified to implement the ESP include clearly defined roles and responsibilities for gender?</p> <p>18. Does the ESP include capacity development components?</p>	
<p>Strengthened through gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation Module 9</p>	<p>19. Are the ESP's M&E key indicators sex disaggregated and do they reflect plan priorities and expected outcomes related to gender? Have sex disaggregated baselines and targets been established, such as for girls' and boys' enrollment, repetition, dropouts and completion rates and learning outcomes?</p>	

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ANNEX A: Uganda Ministry of Education and Sports Monitoring Tool for Gender Responsiveness in Primary Schools



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SPORTS

MONITORING TOOL FOR GENDER RESPONSIVENESS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

SECTION 1- Background Information

101. District: _____
102. County: _____
103. Sub-county: _____
104. Name of School: _____
105. EMIS No. _____
106. Rural Peri-urban Urban

SECTION 2-Pupils

201. Indicate the school enrolment by gender, SNE in 2011 / 2012 and attendance of pupils on the day of the visit.

Class	Enrolment in 2011		Enrolment at beginning of 2012		SNE Children in 2012		Attendance on the day of monitoring		Attendance of children with special needs	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
P1										
P2										
P3										
P4										
P5										
P6										
P7										

202. Does your school use registers to track pupils' daily attendance

- Yes No



203. Give reasons for absenteeism in your school

- Menstruation
- Lack of books
- Long distances
- Poor sanitation
- Lack of school feeding

204. Have you had cases of children dropping out as a result of pregnancy?

- Yes No

205. If yes, how many cases since 2010?-----

206. What are the mechanisms in place to handle cases of pregnancy?

- a) -----
- b) -----
- c) -----
- d) -----
- e) -----

207. Indicate the total number of repeaters and entrants in this school by class and gender for 2012

Class	Repeaters		New entrants	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
P1				
P2				
P3				
P4				
P5				
P6				
P7				

208. Grades for pupils sitting P7 for 2010 and 2011

Grade	2010	2011
1 st grade		
2 nd grade		
3 rd grade		
4 th grade		
Ungraded		
X		



209. Does the school have any clubs?

Yes No

210. If yes, list the most popular clubs in the school and the number of pupils who are members

Name of clubs	Girls	Boys

211. Where GEM Clubs exist, what are their activities?

212. In your view, what are the key achievements of these clubs?

213. What are the challenges of these clubs?



Classroom Facilities

214. Please indicate the total number of classrooms allocated to each class

Class	Enrolment	No. of classrooms	No. desks	Pupils who sit on the floor	
				Male	Female
P1					
P2					
P3					
P4					
P5					
P6					
P7					

Sanitation and Health

215. What is the main source of water used by this school?

Water source	Tick
Tap	
Borehole	
Well	
Spring	
Lake/River	
Rain Water	

216. How far is the water source from the school?

- a) Less than a Kilometer
- b) 1 Kilometer
- c) More than 1 Kilometer
- d) 5 Kilometers

217. Indicate the number of sanitary facilities in your school

Facilities	Pupils		Teachers		Children with special needs		Shared
	Boys	Girls	Male	Female	boys	girls	
Latrine stances							
Washrooms/changing rooms							
incinerators							



218. Observe the status of water for washing hands and record respectively.

- a) No hand washing facility
- b) Hand washing facility available but with no water
- c) Hand washing facility available with water
- d) Others (specify.....)

219. What items are contained in the changing rooms?

Items	Tick what is available	No.
Basin		
Water		
Sanitary pads		
Emergency uniforms		
Others (specify)		

220. Does your school have a senior woman and senior man teacher?

	Yes	No
Senior Woman Teacher		
Senior Man Teacher		

221. If yes, are the senior women/senior men teachers trained on their roles?

Yes No

222. How often does a senior woman/man teacher guide and counsel pupils in General?

- a) Every day
- b) Once a week
- c) Once a month
- d) Once a term
- e) Others (specify.....)

223. How does the senior woman/senior man teacher handle issues of growing up and sexual maturation? (Check the SWT/SMT files)



3 -TEACHERS

301. Number of teachers: Male _____ Females _____

302. Allocation of teachers by class

Class	No of teachers	
	Male	Female
P1		
P2		
P3		
P4		
P5		
P6		
P7		

303. Indicate number of teachers by the following categories

Category	Male	Female
Registered		
Licensed		
Not registered/Licensed		
Graduate		
Grade V		
Grade III		
Untrained		

304. How many of these teachers have added responsibility?

Male _____ Female _____

305. What responsibilities do they have?

Male teachers

Female teachers



306. Does your school have teachers' houses?

Yes No

307. If yes, how many teachers reside within the school?

Male _____ female _____

308. Does the Head teacher reside at school? Yes No

Continuous Professional Development

309. Does the school have continuous professional development training?

310. If yes, how many CPDs did you have this term?

311. How many teachers benefitted from the CPDs? Male _____ Female _____

312. Has there been any gender specific training in this school? Yes No

313. If yes, how many teachers attended this training? Male _____ female _____ (probe further for details of the training)

4 -MANAGEMENT

401. How many teachers are in management positions?

Male _____ Female _____

402. Does your school have a Functional School Management Committee (SMC)?

Yes No

403. If yes, how many members is Males _____ and Females _____?

404. How many times did the SMC meet last term? _____ (*check for evidence of minutes and comment*)

405. What issues are discussed in the SMC meetings? (Probe on gender specific issues)

- a) Construction
- b) Welfare of teachers
- c) Issues of drop-out
- d) Sanitation
- e) Absenteeism of teachers/children
- f) Safety of children



- g) Time management
- h) pregnancy
- i) Others(specify)

406. Have your SMCs been trained on their roles?

Yes No

407. If yes, what specific needs for girls and boys did the training address?

s/n	boys	s/n	Girls
1		1	
2		2	
3		3	
4		4	
5		5	
6		6	

Staff meetings

408. How often does the school hold staff meetings?

- a) One a week
- b) Twice a month
- c) Once a term
- d) Others(specify)

409. What are the key issues discussed in the staff meetings (**probe for issues related to gender**)

- a) -----
- b) -----
- c) -----
- d) -----
- e) -----

410. Does the school have school based rules and regulations? (Observe) Yes No

411. If yes, who enforces the rules? (*Please all that is appropriate*)

- a) Head teacher
- b) Deputy Head teacher
- c) Senior Woman Teacher
- d) All Staff Members
- e) Prefects
- f) Others(Specify)



412. How many prefects do you have in the school?

No. of prefects	Boys	Girls	Total

413. Do prefects get any gender related training? Yes No

414. What is the role of prefects in ensuring gender responsiveness in the school?

415. Which of the following policies/policy guidelines/handbooks/readers does your school have?

Reader/policy/guidelines/handbook	tick
School rules and regulation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gender in education policy	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gender responsive Pedagogy Handbook	<input type="checkbox"/>
Guidelines on Policy roles and responsibilities of stakeholders in UPE implementation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Creating a gender responsive Learning Environment(Hand book for mainstreaming gender in education)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Alternatives to Corporal Punishment(Handbook)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hygiene for the Girl Child in primary schools	<input type="checkbox"/>

417. Do you have any gender related initiatives in your school? Yes No

418. If yes, what are these initiatives?

- a) -----
- b) -----
- c) -----
- d) -----
- e) -----
- f) -----



419. How are the above initiatives incorporated in the school program?

- a) Incorporated in lessons
- b) Clubs
- c) Debates
- d) MDD
- e) Messages in the compound
- f) Posters
- g) Talks
- h) Counseling sessions
- i) Others(specify)

420. Are there any mechanisms or initiatives of engaging the community to ensure safety of children to and from school?

430. If yes, which are these mechanisms/initiatives?

- a) -----
- b) -----
- c) -----
- d) -----

Does the school have a work plan for these activities? (Observe the notice boards)

Yes No

421. Does the School have any initiatives for management of:

Gender issue	Tick
Menstruation	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pregnancy	<input type="checkbox"/>
Drop-out	<input type="checkbox"/>
Early Marriage	<input type="checkbox"/>
Violence in school	<input type="checkbox"/>

422. If yes, how are the children involved in these initiatives?

- a) -----
- b) -----
- c) -----
- d) -----

423. How are the teachers involved in these initiatives?

- a) -----
- b) -----
- c) -----



424. How is the community involved in these initiatives?

- a)
- b)
- c)

424. In your own view, what can be done to promote girls' education?

.....

.....

END

Names of respondents	Designation

Date

Stamp

.....

.....

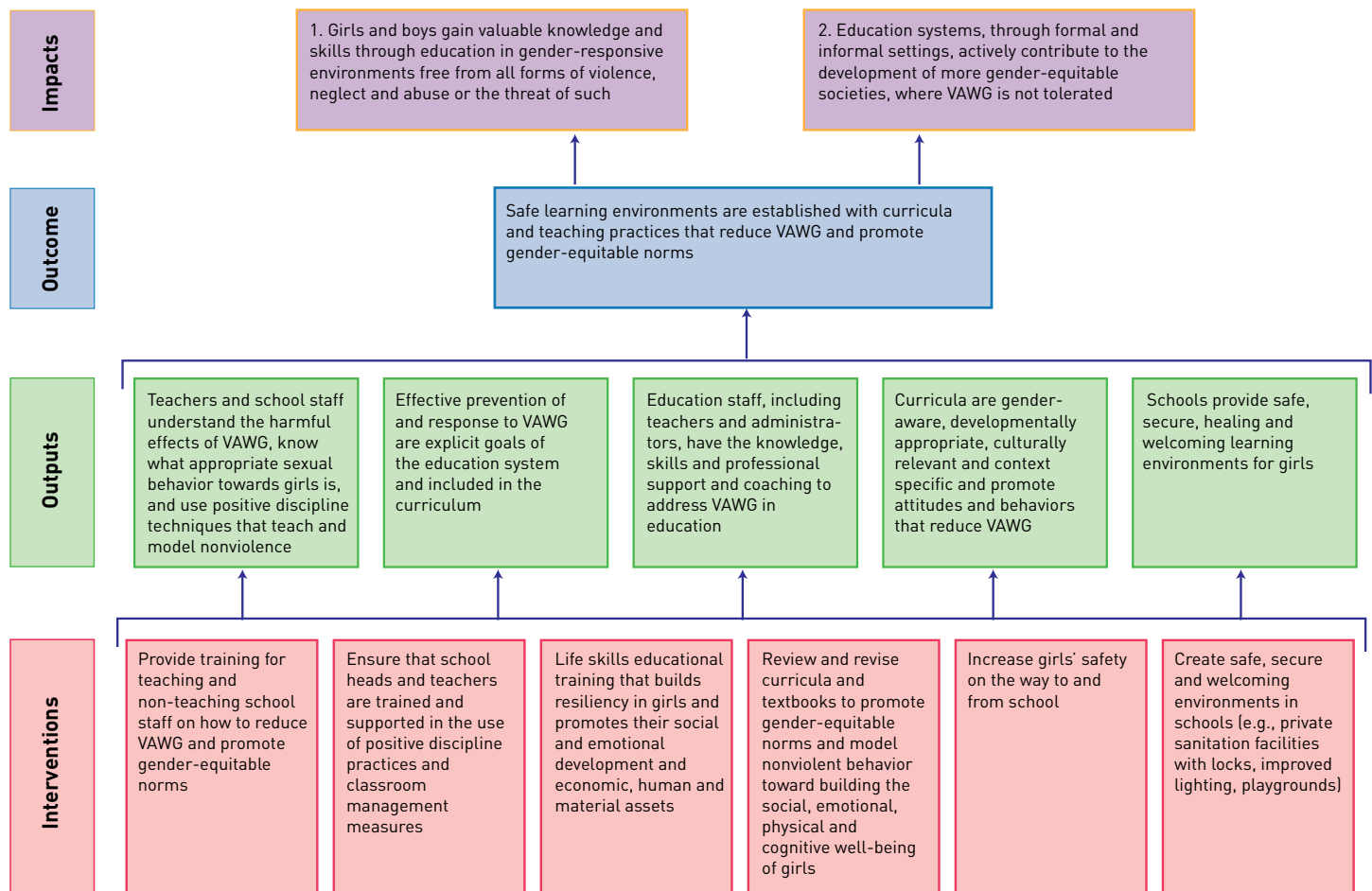
For Official use only

Name of Monitoring Officer

Signature

Contact

ANNEX B: Excerpt of a DFID Theory of Change for Addressing Violence against Women and Girls (VAWG) through Education Programs



Source: Fancy, Khadijah and Erika McAslan Fraser, May 2014. *DFID Guidance Note on Addressing Violence against Women and Girls in Education Programs—Part B*. London: VAWG Helpdesk. <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/violence-against-women-and-girls-addressing-violence-against-women-and-girls-in-education-programming>

*Please note that Figure 9.2 only shows interventions and outputs for one of four outcomes that will contribute to achieving the impacts.



Office Location:

1850 K Street N.W.
Suite 625
Washington D.C., 20006
USA

Mailing Address:

Global Partnership for Education
MSN IS6-600
1818 H Street NW
Washington D.C., 20433
USA

www.globalpartnership.org

 facebook.com/globalpartnership

 twitter.com/gpforeducation