Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

Baseline analysis of the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of girls supported by GEC-T projects

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Executive summary

Introduction

The Girls' Education Challenge (GEC) was launched by the UK’s Department for International Development in 2012 as a 12 year commitment to reach the most marginalised girls in the world and is the largest global fund dedicated to girls’ education. The UK is committed to ensuring millions of girls in some of the poorest countries, including girls who have disabilities or are at risk of being left behind, receive a quality education. Through the GEC, we aim to transform the lives of over one million of the world’s most marginalised girls through quality education and learning. Access to a good quality education and learning opportunities will empower these girls to secure a better future for themselves, their families and their communities. The first phase of the GEC (2012 - 2017) directly provided quality education for over a million marginalised girls. The GEC is now in its second phase, working through 41 projects in 17 countries, under two funding windows. The GEC-Transition (GEC-T) Phase II projects are supporting GEC beneficiaries from Phase I to complete primary school, transition to secondary education, and progress on to technical vocational training or employment. Within the second phase, a second cohort of girls are also being supported through the Leave No Girl Behind funding window, which consists of interventions for highly marginalised, adolescent girls who are out of school - either because they have never attended school or have dropped out without gaining a basic education¹.

All GEC projects are being individually evaluated through independent, rigorous, mixed-methods evaluations. DFID currently holds large baseline datasets and baseline evaluation reports from the independent project-level evaluations of 27 projects under the GEC-T window. These contain valuable information on the characteristics of marginalised girls supported by GEC-T projects, their learning levels, and the barriers they face in attending school, performing well, and transitioning into secondary school or vocational/employment pathways. The combined analysis of these datasets has the potential to contribute significantly to the evidence base on girls' marginalisation.

This paper is based on the combined analysis of the 27 GEC-T baseline datasets conducted by Oxford Policy Management (OPM) and Oxford MeasurEd. The analysis of this data helps to understand who the GEC-T girls are and to describe their levels of marginalisation; provides a deeper understanding of the safety and security challenges in GEC-T contexts; contributes to the dearth of evidence on the learning levels of marginalised learners in diverse contexts; provides evidence to support DFID and the GEC Fund Manager (FM) to make informed decisions about how to provide appropriate technical advice and support across the portfolio of GEC programmes; provides evidence to inform DFID’s global influencing and communication strategies; and supports the accountability of public funds.

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Data from the 15 GEC Leave No Girl Behind (LNGB) projects, which focus on supporting the most marginalised girls, are not included within this analysis.

This paper describes how many girls are supported by GEC-T projects, where they are, and the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of the girls supported by GEC-T projects. It further explores how these characteristics differ across projects, regions, and country fragility status, and reflects on the complexities and challenges of targeting marginalised girls across contexts.

Methodology

Three principal sources of information were used for this report: the baseline evaluation reports, the baseline datasets for each of the GEC-T projects, and key informant interviews (KIIs) with a small sample of project implementers.

Baseline evaluation reports for each of the GEC-T projects were provided by the FM and reviewed. Data, including the total number of direct beneficiaries and locations of projects, were sourced from these reports.

After confirming that the baseline data provided are consistent with the baseline report for the project, the data of each individual project were combined into one master baseline dataset. One project, Viva (Uganda), could not be included in the analysis for this report because of inconsistencies in the datasets. The analysis presented in this report therefore consists of baseline evaluation reports for all 27 GEC-T projects but baseline data from 26 GEC-T projects. The data consist of survey interviews with a sample of GEC-T girls and their primary caregivers. The FM provided all project evaluators with a survey template that included a list of pre-specified questions to ensure that comparable baseline data were collected on key indicators across all projects.

The master baseline dataset was used to conduct descriptive analysis of key indicators for the GEC-T portfolio as a whole. In addition to presenting findings for the GEC-T portfolio as a whole, this paper also aggregates the projects by country, geographical region, and Fragile and Conflict-Affected States (FCAS) status. The grouping of projects into these categories is shown in Annex B. Where interesting or unusual findings are observed at the individual project level, these are also reported.

To validate and deepen the interpretation of the findings from the quantitative data analysis, six qualitative KIIs with project implementers were undertaken. Projects were selected for qualitative interviews based on a purposive sampling strategy developed on the basis of feedback received on an earlier version of the paper.

Limitations

The baseline datasets contain a set of questions common to all projects, which offers an opportunity for comparative portfolio-level analysis to learn more about the GEC-T girls and the contexts in which they live and learn. Additional project-specific baseline data were collected by projects based on their need for evidence and scope of activities. Comparability across projects was not the primary focus of the baseline data collection exercise, which presents some limitations to the analysis. As a result of how samples were
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drawn for each project, the GEC-T master baseline dataset is not representative of the GEC-T girl population as a whole.

Findings

The GEC-T projects support 1.3 million girls and young women through 27 projects across 15 countries, according to baseline evaluation reports. These countries are Afghanistan, Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique, Nepal, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

Of these GEC-T girls, 50% live in Eastern and Central Africa, 25% in West Africa, 17% in Southern Africa, and 6% in Asia. In terms of DFID definitions of fragility, 35% of these GEC-T girls are in high fragility countries (Afghanistan, DRC, Nigeria, and Somalia), 11% are in one country classified as moderately fragile (Zimbabwe), 34% are in low fragility countries (Ethiopia, Kenya, and Nepal), 9% are in countries neighbouring fragile states (Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia), and 11% live in non-fragile countries (Ghana, Mozambique, and Sierra Leone).

The majority of girls supported through GEC-T projects were previously part of Phase I of the GEC programme. In KII’s, project staff estimated that between 50% and 97% of GEC-T girls have transitioned from the previous phase. Therefore, many of the girls in the GEC-T baseline data have already been receiving support from projects in previous years.

All GEC-T projects aim to support educationally marginalised girls. Projects define marginalisation based on a range of local and contextual factors which are informed by national data systems or contextual knowledge rather than using one standardised definition. This means that projects support a variety of marginalised girls, including girls living in remote rural locations or pastoralist communities, girls with disabilities, and girls experiencing financial hardship and other barriers to school. Project evaluation reports indicate a range of marginalisation categories that each project targeted. Projects tended not to approach targeting in terms of filling quotas for specific types of marginalisation. For example, no project participating in the KII’s indicated a target for a certain percentage of targeted girls to have a disability, to be a mother, or to be out of school (OOS). In addition, some projects were not solely responsible for targeting and worked in collaboration with other groups (government or community members) to develop the targeting strategy and, in some cases, pick specific girls or schools for inclusion.

The baseline datasets contain information on the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of 45,355 girls supported by GEC-T projects.

The majority of GEC-T projects focus their activities on girls who are enrolled in school. Among the GEC-T girls, 96.7% are enrolled in school, and 3.3% are OOS.

The average age of GEC-T girls represented in the GEC-T baseline datasets is 14 years old, with a range of six to 23 years old. A large minority of GEC-T girls are overage

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2 The GEC-Transition projects aim to support girls who participated in projects funded by Phase I to continue to learn and transition through schools (GEC Phase II Business Case, 2017)
for their grade: 31.5% are overage (one or two years older), and 10.6% are severely overage (three or more years older). By region, the percentage of overage girls is much higher in West Africa, with almost one in five girls more than three years overage for their grade.

The language of instruction (LOI) is different to the main language spoken at home for a very high percentage of GEC-T girls (69.3%), although only 11.3% of the girls do not speak the LOI. Girls themselves are more likely to speak the LOI than their caregivers across all contexts. Across contexts, there seems to be relatively little link in the data between whether the LOI is different to the main language the girl speaks at home, and whether the girl does not speak the LOI.

Most GEC-T girls’ mother and father are alive (96% and 88% respectively) and live with them (83% and 65% respectively). There are no clear patterns regarding single or double orphanage across countries or by FCAS status.

The percentage of GEC-T girls who are married is 1.7%. Rates were generally low across projects, with the exception of the project led by Mercy Corps in Nigeria which is targeting young married girls and women. Of the girls supported by this project, 21.7% are married. The percentage of GEC-T girls who are mothers is similar to the percentage of girls married at 1.9%. The percentage of girls who are mothers follows a similar pattern to the percentage of girls who are married. It is not clear why the overall percentages of girls who are married or mothers is low.

According to GEC-T girls themselves, 8.7% of GEC-T girls have functional difficulty in at least one domain. Caregivers reporting on the functional difficulties of the GEC-T girls report lower rates of functional difficulty than the girls themselves, with 3.5% of caregivers reporting that the girl has a functional difficulty in at least one domain. The FM reported that projects were requested to collect data about disability using the Washington Group (WG) questions and subsequently to use this data to inform project management including initiatives to ensure inclusion of girls with disabilities, and support strategies. In KIIs, several project implementers reported that they perceived targeting girls with disabilities specifically (as reflected in project reports) was a requirement from the FM. The communication on collecting data about disability may have been misconstrued by some project implementers and interviews show that it was perceived by some projects as a request to target disabled girls after targeting activities had already taken place. Implementers reported facing several challenges in reaching larger numbers of girls with disabilities. These included the fact that most projects targeted girls through whole-school projects despite schools not necessarily being accessible to girls with disabilities; the unseen nature of disability; and the likely low survival rates of girls with disabilities in conflict settings.

Across six household economic indicators, the most prevalent difficulty reported by primary caregivers is difficulty affording the costs of girls education at 55%. Of primary caregivers, 42.4% indicate that their household has difficulties meeting basic needs without charity and 30.1% of households do not own land. Of caregivers, 26.8% indicate that the household has gone without cash income most of the time. Smaller percentages of primary caregivers indicate the household has gone without enough clean water for use at home or has gone to sleep at night feeling hungry at 7.2% and 5.1% respectively.
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Of the primary caregivers of GEC-T girls, 72.1% did not complete primary school. Similarly, 63.9% of the heads of households of GEC-T girls did not complete primary school.

**Implications**

Our analysis finds that GEC-T girls experience disadvantage in multiple ways. More than half of the households in which the girls live have difficulty paying to send girls to school and almost half have difficulty meeting basic needs without charity. Most of the girls are being taught in a language they do not speak at home and many do not have a caregiver who is able to speak the LOI. The majority of GEC-T girls’ caregivers have not completed primary school. Given the limited educational attainment of caregivers, along with most caregivers being unable to speak the LOI, caregivers are likely to find it extremely difficult to support their children in engaging with the content girls are learning at school.

Baseline data shows that fewer OOS girls are supported by GEC-T (GEC Phase II) than there were in GEC Step Change (Phase I) at endline. While eight projects report that they specifically target OOS girls, our qualitative interviews suggest the shift to support girls through schools by a majority of projects may have reduced the percentage of OOS girls, by design.

GEC-T Phase II projects focus on continuing to support girls from GEC Phase I to learn and transition through schools and appropriate pathways beyond school. Most projects work within national government schools and aim to align their work with the wider aims, activities and approach of the schools they work in. As such, this can be seen as a whole-school approach which aims to increase the quality of learning within schools, rather than specifically targeting OOS girls. The LNZG window will support the most marginalised girls, including OOS girls in Phase II.

This highlights the challenges of supporting large numbers of OOS girls when working through schools. Our analysis indicates that some OOS girls who were supported in Phase I have not been transitioned into school for Phase II, perhaps because Phase I projects with high numbers of OOS girls were not transitioned into the GEC-T window and/or because OOS girls supported in Phase I were not transitioned to Phase II.

The percentage of caregivers reporting that GEC-T girls experience functional difficulty in seeing, hearing, mobility, cognition, self-care, or communication is similar to global estimates of disability among children. In KIIs, project implementers reported facing several challenges in reaching larger numbers of girls with disabilities including targeting through schools, the unseen nature of disability, and the likely low survival rates of girls with disabilities in conflict settings.

Differences in marginalisation of girls based on region and FCAS status are not straightforward. Possible reasons for this could include differences in perceptions and reporting across countries, the large percentage of displaced people within neighbouring countries, or potentially the fact that targeting marginalisation within more stable contexts is easier. FCAS status is not fixed and changes in FCAS status take place over time. The FCAS status of a country does not necessarily reflect all geographical areas within the country.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

GEC aims to improve the learning opportunities and outcomes of over one million of the world’s most marginalised girls. The GEC Business Case\(^3\) included a broad definition of marginalisation: “girls (age 6 to 19) who have not been enrolled, have dropped out or are at risk of dropping out of school.” This allowed projects to develop their own context-based definitions of marginalisation.

This analysis finds that many of the GEC-T girls are marginalised. In terms of the forms of marginalisation that are open to measurement and as defined by the marginalisation data requested to be collected by the FM, the GEC-T girls do not represent the most marginalised girls. This is because most GEC-T projects continue to support girls from GEC Phase I and focus on working within whole schools. This means that, for most projects, targeting has focused on marginalised girls within the school population.

\(^3\) DFID, Girl’s Education Challenge Business Case (2012)
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Abbreviations, definitions, and projects

List of abbreviations

CLC Creative Learning Centre
DFID UK Department for International Development
DRC Democratic Republic of the Congo
FCAS Fragile and Conflict-Affected States
FM Fund Manager
GEC Girls’ Education Challenge
GEC-T Girls’ Education Challenge Transition (window)
KII Key Informant Interview
LNGB Leave No Girl Behind
LOI Language Of Instruction
MC Multi-Country
NGO Non-Governmental Organisation
OOS Out of School
OPM Oxford Policy Management
PS Post-Secondary
SG School Graduate
TVET Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UIS UNESCO Institute of Statistics
WG Washington Group

List of definitions

FCAS status DFID FCAS ranking classifies countries as high fragility, moderate fragility, low fragility, and neighbouring country (and non-fragile countries that are not included on the list). The allocation of countries by FCAS status is shown in Annex B.

Region We aggregate into four regions: Asia, Southern Africa, West Africa, and Eastern and Central Africa. The allocation of countries by region is shown in Annex B.

Underage A girl who is one or more years younger than the official expected age for that grade.

Correct age A girl who is the same age, or one year older, than the official expected age for that grade (which provides leeway for birthdays during the school year).
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Overage  A girl who is two or three years older than the official expected age for that grade (which provides leeway for birthdays during the school year). This is distinct from ‘severely overage’ in this paper.

Severely overage  A girl who is four or more years older than the official expected age for that grade (so at least three years older than expected, providing leeway for birthdays during the school year). This is distinct from ‘overage’ in this paper.

Age/grade status  Refers to whether a girl is underage, correct age, overage, or severely overage for her grade, as defined above.

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1 Introduction

1.1 The Girls’ Education Challenge Transition Window

The UK is committed to ensuring millions of girls in some of the poorest countries, including girls who have disabilities or are at risk of being left behind, receive a quality education. DFID’s GEC supports up to 1.5 million of the world’s most marginalised girls across 17 countries to complete a full cycle of either primary or secondary education. GEC Phase I (2012–2017) was funded with a £355 million investment and targeted 1.4 million marginalised girls through 37 different projects. GEC is now in Phase II (running from 2017 to 2025), during which 41 projects will receive £500 million to support their activities.

GEC Phase II consists of two funding windows:

1. a GEC-T window to continue funding 27 GEC Phase I projects across 15 countries and to ensure that up to one million marginalised girls transition successfully from primary education into secondary education, further education, vocational education, or training; and

2. an LNGB window to fund 14 targeted ‘catch-up’ projects for up to 250,000 highly marginalised girls in 10 countries.

GEC projects are designed and delivered by implementing partners, including international NGOs, social enterprises, and private sector organisations, working mostly within government schools. Projects were procured through a challenge fund procurement process. Projects deliver a broad range of interventions, including tailored classroom teaching, teacher development, and school improvement; educational technology and distance learning; community engagement; and financial support to girls, their families, and their schools. All projects have a strong focus on accelerating girls’ learning outcomes so that marginalised girls achieve functional literacy and numeracy and acquire the relevant knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for life and work. Projects also aim to reduce school drop-out during adolescence, including tackling harmful social and gender norms, child marriage, early pregnancy, domestic work, or violence.

All GEC projects are being evaluated through independent, rigorous, mixed-methods evaluations. DFID currently holds large baseline datasets and baseline evaluation reports from the 27 independent GEC-T project-level evaluations. These contain valuable information on the characteristics of marginalised girls supported by GEC-T projects, their learning levels, and the barriers they face in attending school, performing well, and transitioning into secondary school or vocational training. The combined analysis of these datasets has the potential to contribute significantly to the evidence base on girls’ marginalisation.

This paper is based on the combined analysis of the 27 GEC-T baseline datasets conducted by OPM and Oxford MeasurEd. The scope of the analysis is limited to the

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GEC-T projects and does not include the 15 GEC LNGB projects, which focus on supporting highly marginalised girls. The analysis of the GEC-T data helps to understand who the GEC-T girls are and to describe their levels of marginalisation at the portfolio level; provides a deeper understanding of the safety and security challenges in GEC-T contexts; addresses the dearth of evidence on the learning levels of marginalised learners in diverse contexts; provides evidence to support DFID and the GEC FM to make informed decisions about how to provide appropriate technical advice and support across the GEC portfolio; provides evidence to inform DFID’s global influencing and communication strategies; and supports the accountability of public funds.

The scope of work presented in this series of three reports includes robust portfolio-level secondary quantitative analysis of the combined GEC-T baseline datasets to answer research questions about the characteristics of the GEC-T girls, their learning levels, and barriers to learning. This is complemented by a small number of primary qualitative interviews with project implementers and a secondary review of the project baseline evaluations reports. Large-scale comparative analysis at country or regional level, focused thematic and project-level analysis, and in-depth reviews of secondary literature are beyond the scope of work.

The paper describes how many girls are supported by GEC-T projects, where they are, and what their socioeconomic and demographic characteristics are. The paper further explores how these characteristics differ across countries, regions, and country fragility status, and reflects on the complexities and challenges involved in targeting marginalised girls across contexts.

### 1.2 Research questions

This paper answers the question of ‘Who are the GEC-T supported girls?’

It provides answers to the following questions.

- How many girls are reported to be directly supported by GEC-T projects, and where are the projects located?
- What characteristics do GEC-T projects use to target girls?
- What do the baseline data tell us about the individual characteristics of the GEC-T girls?
- How old are the GEC-T girls?
- Are the GEC-T girls enrolled or OOS and what is the status of their progression?
- What is the status of GEC-T girls’ age relative to their grade? Are they often overage?
- How well can the GEC-T girls speak the LOI?
- What is the GEC-T girls’ familial situation? Are they orphans, married, or mothers?
- How many of the GEC-T girls have disabilities, and what types of disabilities do they have?
- What are the household economic contexts of the GEC-T girls, and are their households able to afford the girls’ schooling?
- What is the highest educational attainment of the primary caregivers of the GEC-T girls?
1.3 Methodology

Three principal sources of information were used for this report: the baseline evaluation reports, the baseline datasets for each GEC-T project, and KIIs with a small sample of project implementers.

1. Baseline evaluation reports for each GEC-T project were provided by the FM and reviewed. Data including the total number of direct beneficiaries and locations of projects were sourced from these reports. Initially, some inconsistencies were detected within project reports or between project reports and baseline datasets. These inconsistencies were resolved through discussions with the FM. These discussions also facilitated the team’s understanding of the standardisation and interpretation of definitions across the portfolio. In addition, differences between figures recorded in project reports and figures recorded centrally with the FM were identified. These differences were discussed with the FM, and where justifications for the figures recorded centrally were present and clear, FM figures were used for the purposes of this report.

2. Baseline datasets from each of the 27 GEC-T projects were provided by the FM. These were collected by external evaluators commissioned by each of the GEC-T projects. Two projects operate in more than one country. After confirming that the baseline data provided are consistent with the baseline report for the project, the data of each individual project were combined into one master baseline dataset. One project, Viva (Uganda), could not be included in the analysis for this report because of inconsistencies in the data sets. The analysis presented in this report therefore consists of baseline evaluation reports for all 27 GEC-T projects, but baseline data from 26 GEC-T projects. The data consist of survey interviews with a sample of GEC-T girls and their primary caregivers. The FM provided all project evaluators with a survey template that included a list of pre-specified questions to ensure that comparable baseline data are collected on key indicators across all projects.

The master baseline dataset was used to conduct descriptive analysis of key indicators for the GEC-T portfolio. In addition to presenting findings for the GEC-T portfolio as a whole, this paper aggregates the projects by country, geographical region, and FCAS status. The grouping of projects into these categories is shown in Annex B. Where interesting or unusual findings are observed at the individual project level, these are also reported.

3. To validate and deepen the interpretation of the findings from the quantitative data analysis, six qualitative KIIs with project implementers were undertaken. Projects were selected for qualitative interviews based on a purposive sampling strategy developed on the basis of feedback received on an earlier version of the paper. Based on feedback that indicated historical and targeting reasons for reasonably low numbers of girls with disabilities and OOS girls in GEC-T projects, projects targeting these two groups were selected. In addition, project selection criteria aimed to ensure representation of projects in conflict settings, representation of projects working across the schooling cycle, and regional
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

spread of projects. The sampling strategy for selection of the projects is described in full in Annex D.

Of the six projects selected for the KII s, one is based in West Africa, one is based in Southern Africa, three are based in Eastern and Central Africa, and one is based in Asia. Four projects work in countries that are classified as highly fragile.

The interviews focused on the targeting strategies of each project, which were based on the strategies used within Phase I, any targeting challenges that the project faced, the relationship between the GEC-T project and the GEC Phase I project, the percentage of beneficiaries who transitioned from the Phase I project to the GEC-T project, and the level of satisfaction with the achieved beneficiary group as compared against the targeting strategy. The qualitative interview guide is provided in Annex D. Data were analysed using thematic analysis across projects and by target group.

1.4 Limitations

The baseline datasets contain a set of questions common to all projects, which offers an opportunity for comparative portfolio-level analysis to learn more about the GEC-T girls and the contexts in which they live and learn. However, comparability across projects was not the primary focus of the baseline data collection exercise. The main purpose of the baseline data collection was the collection of information for the independent project-level evaluations that measure project outcomes and impact. Independent evaluators designed an impact evaluation approach for each project and collected baseline data in line with this design. As a result, there are some limitations to conducting comparative portfolio-level analysis on the basis of these datasets.

In particular, the master baseline dataset is not representative of the GEC-T portfolio as a whole for several reasons, outlined below. This means it is not possible to claim that the results of analysing the master dataset are statistically representative of the GEC-T population as a whole.

- First, project evaluators used various sampling strategies to identify a group of GEC-T girls to be included in the project evaluation in accordance with individual project evaluation Terms of Reference and project-specific impact evaluation designs. This means that girls who are sampled to be included in the baseline datasets are not always representative of the girls targeted by the project as a whole, and detailed information on sampling strategies and weighting approaches was not always available. For example, one evaluation covers only a limited number of districts (four of 10 intervention districts) because other districts were being covered by another evaluation of a GEC-T project. In another example, the project operates in disputed territory in Somalia and, at any given time, access to between 30% and 40% of sampled schools is not possible.

- In addition, there is wide variation in the grades targeted by the project and the grades sampled for evaluation purposes (see Annex C). It is very common for evaluations of education interventions to be limited to a smaller number of grades than the project is
targeting overall. Reasons for this include the resource-intensive nature of developing tools, measuring progress, and tracking girls across all grades. As a result, evaluations may focus on younger cohorts that will remain in the intervention scope throughout the evaluation or on girls who will face a major transition (such as that from primary to secondary school) during the course of the evaluation.

- Lastly, some samples are larger than others, which means that when the data are combined into one dataset, projects are not necessarily represented proportionally to how many girls are targeted by the project.

In addition, there were some differences in how questions were administered across projects, which limits the comparability of these indicators. Variable definitions across datasets were not always consistent. Response options vary between projects in some cases, and in other cases there were some limitations to the types of questions asked and to the response options that were provided. For each variable, there were some projects for which the variable was not available or not consistent with the other projects. This has resulted in some loss of data for each indicator.

Although the study incorporates discussion on the challenges and achievements of GEC-T targeting, it is not within the scope of this paper to evaluate each project’s targeting strategy, nor to compare the findings against national statistics. In addition, the scope of the qualitative component was small and limited to interviews with project implementers. It was beyond the scope of the work to conduct interviews with GEC-T supported girls, schools, or communities themselves.

Despite these limitations, the master baseline dataset and the analysis included in this report is expected to include information regarding the diverse range of girls supported by GEC-T projects, which can be informative for project programming. The analysis presented in this paper provides a valuable overview of the GEC-T girl population and the level of marginalisation they face across the full portfolio of GEC-T projects. It provides DFID and the FM with insights into where targeting strategies have worked well and where there is room for improvement.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

2 GEC-T girls by number and location, and targeting strategies of GEC-T projects

This section of the report focuses on the number of girls directly supported by GEC-T projects, their locations and how they were targeted. This information is drawn from GEC-T baseline evaluation reports and complemented by qualitative data from the KIIs which were collected and analysed by the research team.

GEC-T distinguishes between direct and indirect beneficiaries. **Direct beneficiaries** are those girls who are directly targeted by a project and who have received interventions from project implementation activities. The learning outcomes and transition rates of the direct beneficiaries are expected to improve as a result of what the project does. GEC-T projects also target a broader group of **indirect beneficiaries** who receive the benefits of some or all of a project’s interventions (usually because they happen to be in the same class as targeted beneficiaries) but who are not directly targeted. This group may include boys, teachers, parents, community members, and girls who are not directly targeted. Where this report refers to GEC-T girls, this refers to the direct beneficiaries of the project activities.

2.1 How many girls are reported to be supported by GEC-T projects, and where are the projects located?

**Girls and young women are supported by GEC-T projects in 15 countries.** These are Afghanistan, DRC, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique, Nepal, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

According to baseline evaluation reports, **1,339,412 girls and young women are reported to be supported by the 27 GEC-T projects**, of which two are multi-country. The largest number of GEC-T projects are in Kenya (six projects), while there is one GEC-T project per country in DRC, Mozambique, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, and Zambia. The smallest project (Leonard Cheshire Disability Kenya) supports 2,260 girls with physical and/or cognitive disabilities; the largest project (Discovery Learning Alliance Nigeria) is a video-based learning initiative that supports 204,031 girls.

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5 CAMFED runs a multi-country project in Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. DLA runs a multi-country project in Ghana, Kenya, and Nigeria. Note that CAMFED also runs a separate project in Tanzania, which is considered a standalone project.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

Figure 1 summarises this data.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?


GEC-T projects operate across different contexts of fragility and conflict. Throughout this paper, the analysis examines differences in indicators by the country’s FCAS status. DFID’s FCAS ranking classifies countries based on their level of instability, insecurity, and conflict. Countries are classified as high fragility, moderate fragility, low fragility, and neighbouring country (and as non-fragile countries that are not included on the list). Neighbouring countries border at least one country classified as ‘high fragility’. The allocation of countries by FCAS status is shown in Annex B.

Over 400,000 (31.5%) girls supported by GEC-T live in countries defined by DFID as highly fragile (DRC, Afghanistan, Nigeria, and Somalia). Almost the same number (31.1%) live in countries defined as having a low level of fragility (Nepal, Kenya, and Ethiopia). About 15.6% of GEC-T girls live in one country that DFID classifies as experiencing a moderate level of fragility (Zimbabwe) and a further 9.8% live in non-fragile countries (Ghana, Mozambique, and Sierra Leone); 12.0% live in countries which neighbour fragile states (Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia).
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

**Figure 2: Percentage of GEC-T girls by region**

![Figure 2: Percentage of GEC-T girls by region](image)

**Figure 3: Percentage of GEC-T girls by the country’s fragility status**

![Figure 3: Percentage of GEC-T girls by the country’s fragility status](image)

While the largest number of GEC-T girls live in highly fragile countries, not all projects operate in the areas of the country that are highly fragile. For example, one project in Nigeria operates in both the south (Lagos) and the north (Kano) of the country. While the north of Nigeria is highly fragile, it is unlikely that the fragility status assigned to the country applies across the whole nation. In addition, the reasons for a nation to be considered fragile are diverse and fragility is not fixed. For example, in 2015, Nigeria was categorised as moderately fragile (rather than highly fragile) and Kenya was categorised as moderately fragile (rather than having a low level of fragility). Fragility is also informed by a range of factors, including economic fragility.
2.2 What characteristics do GEC-T projects use to target girls?

While all projects have the intention to support marginalised girls, the GEC-T projects target girls based on a range of different characteristics. Major targeting categories include poor girls, disabled girls, remote or pastoralist girls, slum or street-dwelling girls, orphans, mothers, girls who don’t speak the LOI used in school, child labourers, and OOS girls.

The following table provides information on how targeting categories for each GEC-T project are described in the baseline evaluation reports.
## Table 1: Targeting of girls by project as reported in baseline evaluation reports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Projects</th>
<th>Poor girls</th>
<th>Disabled girls</th>
<th>Remote/pastoralist girls</th>
<th>Slum/street-dwelling girls</th>
<th>Orphaned girls</th>
<th>Mothers/expecting</th>
<th>Do not speak LOI</th>
<th>Child labourers</th>
<th>OOS girls</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AKF</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
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<td>Avanti</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Educationally or socially marginalised</td>
</tr>
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<td>✔</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAMFED – Tanzania</td>
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<td>CARE</td>
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<tr>
<td>Childhope</td>
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<td>✔</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Migration, high risk of work</td>
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<td>CSU</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Long-term illness</td>
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<td>DLA – MC</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Overage</td>
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<td>HPA</td>
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<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>Parents who do not value girls' education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICL</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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6 Notes: CAMFED and DLA have projects in multiple countries. In addition, CAMFED has a separate project in Tanzania.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Projects</th>
<th>Poor girls</th>
<th>Disabled girls</th>
<th>Remote/pastoralist girls</th>
<th>Slum/street-dwelling girls</th>
<th>Orphaned girls</th>
<th>Mothers/expecting</th>
<th>Do not speak LOI</th>
<th>Child labourers</th>
<th>OOS girls</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mercy Corps – Nepal</td>
<td>✔</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mercy Corps – Nigeria</td>
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<td>Ill parents</td>
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<tr>
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<td>✔</td>
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<td></td>
<td>HIV status</td>
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<tr>
<td>Plan International</td>
<td>✔</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Disabled parents, cultural marginalisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Relief International</td>
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<td>Internally displaced</td>
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<td>Save DRC</td>
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<td>Ethninc groups, conflict</td>
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<td>Viva</td>
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<td>HIV status, violence</td>
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<tr>
<td>VSO Nepal</td>
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<td>World Vision</td>
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<td>WUSC</td>
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<td>Internally displaced</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of girls supported through GEC-T Phase II projects were previously part of the Phase I GEC portfolio, where the focus was on marginalised girls (including OOS girls). The purpose of Phase II was to continue to support girls from Phase I who are marginalised and/or were previously not attending school. For Phase II, GEC-T projects have either continued to target individual girls from GEC Phase I within the community or have targeted specific schools within identified geographical locations with high levels of poverty and marginalised girls, focusing on the schools where the majority of GEC Phase I supported girls were enrolled.

In KIIIs led by the research team, projects reported that between 50% and 97% of current GEC-T girls have transitioned from the previous phase. Projects in non-conflict settings reported higher rates of transition from the previous phase. Migration due to drought and conflict were reported as reasons why girls did not transition from the previous phase. For projects that target at the school-level in the GEC-T phase, the number of girls transitioning from GEC Phase I has been affected by girls transferring out of the schools supported by the project.

Projects tended to not approach targeting in terms of filling quotas for specific types of marginalisation. For example, no project participating in the KIIIs indicated a specific percentage target for girls to be mothers, to have a disability or to be OOS. In addition, some projects were not solely responsible for targeting and worked in collaboration with other groups (government or community members) to both develop the targeting strategy and, in some cases, pick specific girls or schools for inclusion. For some projects this presented a targeting challenge: some groups of girls who were considered marginalised by the project were not considered to be so by other stakeholder groups and/or trade-offs needed to be made to reflect different stakeholder perspectives and ensure the project could continue to operate with the support of these stakeholders.

Importantly, many projects targeted girls on their vulnerability to educational disadvantages based on criteria that not measured in the baseline dataset. For example, many projects targeted girls in communities where gendered social norms place girls at risk of early marriage, disempowerment, and exclusion from education. These criteria are difficult to measure quantitatively. In addition, distance from school was repeatedly noted as a criterion used to determine vulnerability to exclusion from school.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

3 What do the baseline data tell us about the characteristics of the GEC-T girls?

This section of the report outlines the key socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of the girls represented in the GEC-T baseline datasets. This includes 45,355 GEC-T girls supported by 26 GEC-T projects for which data were available at the time of writing this report.\(^7\)

3.1 How old are the GEC-T girls?\(^8\)

The average age of girls represented in the GEC-T baseline datasets is 14 years old. The youngest GEC-T girls are six years old; the oldest are around 23 years old.\(^9\) Age patterns are observable by project, with some projects focusing on younger girls (under 14) and others focusing on older girls (over 14).

Figure 4: Age distribution of the GEC-T girls

3.2 Are the GEC-T girls enrolled or OOS, and what is the status of their progression?\(^10\)

One of the most distinct forms of marginalisation is not being enrolled in school (also referred to as OOS). However, it can be difficult or costly to identify and reach OOS girls.

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\(^7\) Data collected for benchmark purposes and for evaluation purposes, such as comparison groups, were excluded.

\(^8\) The number of observations with available data is 43,903 (Section 3.1).

\(^9\) There were 22 observations that were considered to be outliers going up to the age of 34.

\(^10\) The number of observations for enrolment status is 45,355 and for grade 45,132. Repetition and enrolment status in the previous year is based on caregiver reports; the number of observations with data available is 23,687 and 25,053 respectively (Section 3.2).
The GEC-T projects follow on from Phase I projects, which had a stronger focus on OOS girls, including transitioning OOS girls into schools.

The majority of GEC-T projects focus their activities on girls who are enrolled in school. Among the GEC-T girls, 43,872 girls (96.7%) were enrolled in school at the time of baseline data collection and 1,483 girls (3.3%) were OOS (Figure 6).

**Figure 5: Schooling status of the GEC-T girls**

Fewer OOS girls are in GEC-T than at the endline stage of the GEC Phase I Step Change window, based on available endline data as presented in Coffey’s (2017) Endline Evaluation Report. Informants from the six projects with whom we conducted KIIs explained this change as being due to a shift in the aims and objectives of GEC-T compared to the Step Change window, and also being due to targeting challenges. During KIIs with project implementers, projects reported that Phase I focused on supporting OOS girls, while GEC-T (Phase II) supports a transition into schooling and many projects provide support directly through the whole school. However, targeting challenges were also experienced, and each GEC phase has experienced unique barriers in targeting. Phase I projects faced significant challenges in reaching the most marginalised sub-groups, including those living with a disability and OOS girls. Different groups required different kinds of support and projects ‘sometimes had to adapt their interventions to either include or exclude particular sub-groups of girls from their original design’ (Coffey, 2017). In Phase II, most GEC-T projects shifted to targeting girls through a whole-school system approach. This reduced the percentage of OOS girls being supported in GEC-T by design. A new LNGB window in Phase II was designed to focus specifically on projects that reach the most marginalised girls.

The difference in the percentage of OOS girls in the Phase I Step Change window and in GEC-T (Phase II) is large. Endline data from the Step Change window showed that on average between 14% of girls were OOS (Coffey, 2017), compared to 3.3% of girls in GEC-T.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

It is not clear why the proportion of OOS girls differs so much between the available data for GEC Phase I and GEC-T (Phase II). One possible explanation is that the projects with the highest proportion of OOS girls in Phase I did not transition to the Phase II GEC-T window. An alternative explanation could be the shift in focus to whole-school approaches in Phase II, reducing the number of OOS girls supported by individual projects.

Of those enrolled in school, Figure 6 shows that the highest percentage of GEC-T girls were in grade 5 and in grade 9 (18.7% and 17.0% respectively). Given that the GEC-T projects focus on the transition of girls into secondary school or into other forms of education or vocational training, it is to be expected that most GEC-T girls are in the upper primary or upper junior secondary grades.

**Figure 6: Grade level of the GEC-T girls**

There is incomplete data on whether the girls in school are currently repeating a grade or whether they were not enrolled in school last year. Of those who are in school and for whom data is available, a moderate percentage of girls was repeating the same grade as the previous year (13.6%) and a relatively small percentage of girls was not enrolled in school during the previous year (8.3%).
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

Figure 7: Grade repetition and previous year’s enrolment status of GEC-T girls who are currently enrolled in school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Currently repeating the same grade as last year</th>
<th>Was not enrolled in school last year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20,462</td>
<td>22,982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,224</td>
<td>2,070</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Based on primary caregiver reports. The question on grade repetition is asked for girls who are enrolled in school.

3.3 What is the status of the GEC-T girls’ age relative to their grade? Are they often overage? 11

Marginalised girls are more likely to be older than the official expected age for a given grade due to delayed entry to school, repetition of earlier grades, or long periods of absence from school. Being overage can have negative consequences for learning and drop-out (Taylor, Mabogoane, Shindler, & Akoobhai, 2010). In this analysis, we consider ‘underage’ girls to be younger than the official expected age for that grade, ‘overage’ girls as being two or three years older than the official expected age for that grade (which provides leeway for birthdays during the school year), and ‘severely overage’ girls as being four or more years older than the official expected age for that grade.

Of the GEC-T girls, 31.5% were overage and 10.6% were severely overage (42.1% combined). EDT (Kenya) reported targeting overage girls specifically, although the percentage of overage and severely overage girls in their sample was not much larger than the overall average. By project, the percentage of overage and severely overage girls ranged from 6.5% for the CAMFED single-country project in Tanzania to 86% for the CARE project in Somalia.

By region, the percentage of overage girls was much higher in West Africa, with almost one in five girls severely overage for their grade (Figure 8). The lowest percentage of overage girls was in Southern Africa, where the majority of girls were the correct age for their grade. Non-fragile countries have the highest percentage of overage

11 The number of observations with data available is 43,616 (Section 3.3).
children and countries that neighbour fragile countries have the lowest percentage (Figure 9).

**Figure 8: Percentage of underage, overage, and severely overage girls, by region**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Underage</th>
<th>Correct age</th>
<th>Overage</th>
<th>Severely overage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern and Central Africa</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Africa</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Africa</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 9: Percentage of underage, overage, and severely overage girls, by FCAS status**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fragmented Context Status</th>
<th>Underage</th>
<th>Correct age</th>
<th>Overage</th>
<th>Severely overage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not fragile</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighbouring country</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate / low fragility</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High fragility</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the portfolio level and by FCAS status and region, GEC-T projects have a higher percentage of overage girls compared to the national average in the countries where GEC-T projects operate (Figure 10 and Figure 11). These figures likely capture the
marginalised status of GEC-T supported girls in that their overage status may have resulted from starting school late or repeating grades throughout their schooling. The pattern of overage enrolment across regions and FCAS status in the GEC-T data is not similar to the pattern in the available UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) data. For example, national data suggest that West Africa has the lowest percentage of overage girls, while the percentage of overage girls in the GEC-T data is highest in West Africa (see Figure 10). Analysing how and why there are differences across the portfolio and in comparison to national data could be explored in further research activities.

**Figure 10: Percentage of overage girls in national data (where available) compared to GEC-T baseline data, by region**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>National data (averaged across countries where GEC-T operates)</th>
<th>GEC-T baseline data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern and Central Africa</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>40.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Africa</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Africa</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>31.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

**Figure 11: Percentage of overage girls in national data (where available) compared to GEC-T baseline data, by FCAS status**

![Chart showing percentage of overage girls by FCAS status.](chart11)

**Older GEC-T girls are more likely to be overage by grade than younger GEC-T girls** (Figure 12). Only about 9% of girls are overage at age 10. This increases significantly to 45% of girls at age 13, reaching 100% at age 19. This is likely due to late entry into school, periods of drop-out or disruption, and grade repetition.

**Figure 12: Percentage of GEC-T girls and percentage of overage GEC-T girls, by age**

![Chart showing percentage of GEC-T girls and overage girls by age.](chart12)

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12 Left axis corresponds to Figure 4.
3.4 How well can the GEC-T girls speak the LOI?\textsuperscript{13}

Another important way in which girls can be marginalised relates to difficulties understanding the LOI used in school, as well as transitioning to a foreign language LOI during their schooling life. The evidence suggests mother tongue instruction is best, when possible (Ball). However, in some contexts, teaching in the mother tongue is not necessarily the best option—for example, where materials are not available in the mother tongue, where the mother tongue is oral, and/or where the supply of qualified teachers who speak the mother tongue does not match demand. Several different languages are spoken in many of the countries where GEC-T projects operate.

In the baseline dataset, primary caregivers of GEC-T girls reported on three questions: if the language the girl speaks at home is different to her LOI at school; whether the girl speaks the LOI; and whether the primary caregiver speaks the LOI. These questions examine aspects of potential disadvantage as girls take on the additional toil of learning a new language while learning subject content. For some children, not taking lessons in the mother tongue may not be a disadvantage, while others may not have the social and economic capital available to support the development of a second language. Moreover, the extent to which primary caregivers can assist in their children’s schoolwork is severely constrained when the caregiver does not speak the LOI.

The LOI was different to the main language spoken at home for a very high percentage of GEC-T girls (69.3%), although only 11.3% of the girls did not speak the LOI. Girls themselves were more likely to speak the LOI than their caregivers across all contexts. However, it is likely that some GEC-T girls are not able to speak and understand the LOI well but can speak and understand more than their primary caregiver, who therefore overestimates the ability of the girl to speak the LOI.

Across contexts, there is relatively little link in the data between whether the LOI is different to the main language the girl speaks at home and whether the girl does not speak the LOI. For example, the ICL project in Kenya has one of the highest percentages of girls for whom the LOI is different to their main language, but has the lowest percentage of girls who do not speak the LOI. This suggests that the LOI is widely spoken as a second or additional language.

\textsuperscript{13} The number of observations with data available for ‘Language the girl speaks at home was different to her LOI at school’ is 21,605; for ‘The girl speak the LOI’, 21,362; and for ‘The primary caregiver speaks the LOI’, 22,079 (Section 3.4).
By region, the percentage of GEC-T girls for whom the LOI is different to the main language spoken at home was highest in West Africa, where almost all girls (98%) were learning in a language that is different to the language they speak at home. In contrast, only about a third (35.5%) of girls in Asia learn in a language that is different to the main language they speak at home.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

Figure 14: Percentage of girls whose LOI at school differs from the main language they speak at home, by region

By country, the highest percentage of girls for whom the LOI is different to the main language spoken at home is in Sierra Leone (98.0%) and the lowest percentage is in Ethiopia (0.9%). This reflects the language policies in these countries: English is the LOI in Sierra Leone, while Ethiopia has adopted a multilingual language use policy.

Figure 15: Percentage of girls for whom the LOI is different to the main language spoken at home by country

Non-fragile countries and neighbouring countries have higher percentages of girls who do not speak the LOI as their main language at home compared to fragile countries.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

Figure 16: Percentage of girls whose LOI at school differs from the main language at home, by FCAS status

The baseline data indicate that potential language disadvantage is a key area of marginalisation for GEC-T supported girls.

3.5 What is the GEC-T girls’ familial situation? Are they orphans, married, or mothers?\(^{14}\)

Most GEC-T girls’ mother and father are alive (96% and 88% respectively) and live with them (83% and 65% respectively).

By region, the lowest percentage of mothers living in the household of the GEC-T girls is in West Africa (66%), increasing to 75.4% in Southern Africa, 87.2% for Eastern and Central Africa and 97% in Asia. This pattern is similar for the fathers of GEC-T girls, with a lower percentage of the fathers in West Africa living in the household (56%) than in Asia (92%). This regional pattern is not observed regarding the percentage of mothers and fathers who are alive, indicating potential social and economic reasons why fewer parents live in the household in West Africa.

Of GEC-T girls, 11.6% are single orphans (either their mother or father is deceased, but not both) and 2.1% are double orphans (both their parents are deceased) (Figure 17). GEC-T girls who are either single or double orphans are much more common in Southern Africa (24% and 4.9% respectively), followed by Eastern and Central Africa (13.3% and 2%), West Africa (12.9% and 1%) and Asia (3.6% and 0.2%). This pattern is reflected in regional HIV prevalence data, where the average GEC-T country in Southern Africa has an HIV prevalence rate of 12.4%.\(^{15}\) There are no observable patterns regarding single or double

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\(^{14}\) This section is based on primary caregiver reports. The number of observations with data available ranges between 24,701 and 29,284 (Section 3.5).

\(^{15}\) HIV prevalence (percentage of adult population, by region; average by GEC-T country using UIS data) is 12.4% in Southern Africa, 2.8% in Eastern and Central Africa and in Asia, and 1.1% in West Africa.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

orphan status by FCAS. Around one in three girls in Tanzania are single orphans, followed by Zimbabwe and Zambia (27%) and Sierra Leone (25%). In the rest of the countries, single orphans range from 0% to 17%.

Figure 17: Percentage of GEC-T girls, by orphan status

The percentage of GEC-T girls who are married is 1.7%. The highest percentage of married girls is in West Africa (6.4%) and the lowest percentage is in Asia (0.6%). This high incidence in West Africa is due to the particular targeting strategy of the Mercy Corps project in Nigeria, where 21.7% of the supported girls are married.16

The percentage of GEC-T girls who are mothers is similar to the percentage of girls who are married at 1.9%. Some projects, however, only asked the girl whether she had children if she was married. This is likely due to social norms in some locations.

Figure 18: Percentage of GEC-T girls who are mothers

16 Mercy Corps Nigeria includes 198 married girls (21.7%) and 202 girls who are mothers (22.1%).
A higher percentage of GEC-T girls in countries with high fragility are married or mothers than in countries of different fragility categories. Otherwise, the averages are relatively similar across the other categories of fragility. However, as previously highlighted, this is affected by the prevalence of married girls and mothers within the Mercy Corps Nigeria project. Excluding this project, there is no clear pattern between FCAS status and the marital or motherhood status of the GEC-T girls. There is also no clear pattern between FCAS status and fertility rates in global data.¹⁷

### 3.6 How many GEC-T girls have disabilities, and what types of disabilities do they have?¹⁸

To assess functional difficulties in different domains, girls and primary caregivers were asked a set of questions taken from the Short Set and the Child Functioning module, developed by the WG on Disability Statistics. Girls reported on their own level of functional difficulty, while primary caregivers reported on the level of functional difficulty of the girl. Here, we report data on disability using the questions taken from the Short Set to enable some comparison between girl and caregiver responses and because most projects administered this scale.¹⁹ The questions in the WG Short Set assess functional difficulty across six domains including seeing, hearing, mobility, cognition, self-care, and communication. For each domain, respondents rate the girl’s level of difficulty carrying out an action on the following continuum: no difficulty at all; some difficulty; a lot of difficulty; or completely unable to carry out the action. In this section, we present information on girls’ level of functional difficulty using two cut-offs: first, we consider a functional difficulty to include girls who have a lot of difficulty or are completely unable to carry out the action; and second, we include girls who have some difficulty carrying out the action. The WG recommends the first cut-off for estimating disability prevalence rates. However, in some circumstances, it may be useful to also consider a lower cut-off of functional difficulty, as even girls with some difficulties functioning in these domains may benefit from additional educational support.

We then triangulate caregiver and GEC-T girl responses using a sub-sample of responses where the same set of questions was posed to both the caregiver and GEC-T girl, and is linked at the individual girl level. International surveys often collect data from one source (i.e. the primary caregiver) about difficulties children may have. In this dataset, we have information on difficulties in functioning from two different sources about the same girl. This offers the unique opportunity to triangulate data and examine differences.

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¹⁷ Fertility rates (average by GEC-T country using UIS data) is 4.8% in non-fragile GEC-T countries, 4.8% in neighbouring countries, 4.7% in highly fragile GEC-T countries, 4.5% in non-fragile countries, and 3.7% in moderately fragile countries.

¹⁸ The number of observations with available data is 33,479 for girls’ reports and 15,407 for caregivers’ reports on disability (Section 3.6).

¹⁹ All projects administered the WG Short Set to girls (irrespective of their age). For the primary caregiver survey, projects were recommended to choose between the Short Set and the Child Functioning Module, depending on whether more than half of the baseline sample consisted of girls aged 12 or older. In practice, however, the majority of the projects administered the Short Set to primary caregivers. AKF, Avanti, DLA Kenya, DLA Nigeria, and Save Mozambique administered the Short Set to caregivers despite more than 50% of their sample consisting of girls under 12. Four projects—EDT, LINK, LCD, and Save the Children DRC projects—only administered the Child Functioning module to primary caregivers, despite only Save the Children DRC having more than 50% of their baseline sample of girls under the age of 12.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

Using all data available from girl reports, 8.7% of GEC-T girls report having a functional difficulty in at least one domain. Difficulties seeing are reported most often (3.3%) followed by difficulties with cognition (2.8%) and difficulties hearing (2.2%). Using the lower cut-off, 34.5% of girls report that they have at least some difficulty functioning in at least one of the domains.

**Figure 19: Percentage of GEC-T girls with functional difficulties using two cut-offs (girl reports)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seeing</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognition</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Care</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Based on WG Short Set, using data from 26 projects: AKF, BRAC, CAMFED–MC (Tanzania and Zimbabwe), CAMFED Tanzania, CARE, Childhope, CSU, DLA (Ghana, Kenya, and Nigeria), EDT, HPA, ICL, LCD, LINK, Mercy Corps Nepal, Mercy Corps Nigeria, Opportunity, PEAS, Plan International, Relief, Save the Children Mozambique, VSO, World Vision, and WUSC. Data were not available for Avanti and CAMFED – MC (Zambia).

Using all data available from caregiver reports, caregivers report that 3.5% of GEC-T girls have a functional difficulty in at least one domain. Using the lower cut-off, caregivers report that 18% of girls have at least some difficulty functioning in at least one of the domains.

Overall, caregivers report fewer cases of girls having at least one functional difficulty than the girls themselves. This is the case even when the sample is limited to those girls where information on the same girl is available from both herself and from her caregiver (see Annex E). Caregivers are less likely to report that the girl has a functional difficulty across all six domains. Across all dimensions of functional difficulty, there is little agreement between girls' and caregivers' perceptions of functional difficulty. For example, only 37 girls and their caregivers agree that the girl has a functional difficulty in seeing. On the other hand, 327 girls (but not their caregivers) and 136 caregivers (but not the girl) report that the girl has a functional difficulty in seeing.

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20 The difference between caregiver and girl reports is statistically significant at the 5% level for five of the six domains.
Figure 20: Percentage of GEC-T girls with functional difficulties using two cut-offs (caregiver reports)

Note: Based on WG Short Set, this graph draws information from 16 projects: AKF, Avanti, BRAC, CAMFED – MC (Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe), CAMFED Tanzania, CARE, DLA (Ghana, Kenya, and Nigeria), HPA, ICL, Mercy Corps (Nepal), Opportunity, Plan International, Relief, Save the Children Mozambique, VSO, and World Vision. Data on the WG Short Set were not available for Childhope, CSU, EDT, LCD, LINK, Mercy Corps Nigeria, PEAS, Save the Children DRC, Varkey, and WUSC.

According to caregiver reports, GEC-T girls with functional difficulty in at least one domain are more prevalent in Southern Africa (4.6%) and Eastern and Central Africa (4.3%), followed by Asia and West Africa (both 1.7%). The three projects with the highest prevalence of functional difficulty are CAMFED Tanzania (13.5%), CAMFED – MC (Tanzania) (9.3%), and World Vision (6.6%). The share of girls with disabilities is lower in countries with low, moderate, or high fragility (2.9%) compared to non-fragile countries (4.7%).

Global estimates of disability rates differ substantially depending on the definition and measure of disability. The Global Burden of Disease estimates that 5.1% of children between the ages of zero and 14 experience a moderate or severe disability, but a literature review of studies in low- and middle-income countries found that prevalence estimates ranged widely depending on the study, from 0.4% to 12.7% (World Report on Disability, 2011). The WG reports that estimates of disability prevalence among adults usually range between 6% to 12% when using the WG questions.21 Disability rates in children would be expected to be lower given the correlation between age and disability. The percentage of girls with functional difficulties represented in the GEC-T baseline datasets is therefore


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Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

broadly similar to global estimates of disability among children, although the difficulties in the measurement of disability make it challenging to draw a comparison.\footnote{Since global estimates are usually based on caregiver reports, the GEC-T caregiver reports are most comparable to global data. These estimate that 3.5 percent of GEC-T girls have a disability; however, caregiver data was not available for the two projects that target the largest numbers of girls with disabilities (LCD and CSU). If data had been available for these two projects, overall estimates are likely to have been similar to the estimates from the Global Burden for Disease.}

DFID did not require all projects to target girls with disabilities. Projects were however expected to collect data about disability to enable them to understand if and how girls with disabilities are represented in the beneficiary group. Project implementers who participated in the KIIIs expressed that they had perceived the need to collect data on disability as a request to include disability as a targeting criterion. In addition, projects that did initially target girls with disabilities discussed challenges they faced in reaching larger numbers of girls with disabilities.

The inability of the government schooling system to meet the needs of girls with disabilities was cited by several project implementers as a reason why girls with disabilities may not be attending school. Most projects target girls through a whole-school approach, and this therefore posed a barrier to reaching more girls with disabilities, although this was not a requirement for projects. Many project implementers cited the unseen nature of disability and noted difficulties in finding girls with disabilities due to social stigma and social norms, and due to a reportedly lower prevalence of girls with disabilities in FCAS countries as a result of low survival rates of children with disabilities in conflict and remote settings.

It is should be noted that differences exist between the baseline evaluation reports of some projects and the baseline data collected. For example, two projects—CSU and LCD—state that all GEC-T girls in their project have a disability, but the baseline data shows a different picture. For both projects, caregiver reports could not be used in the analysis.\footnote{The CSU dataset had missing data, while for LCD, only the child functioning module was administered to caregivers.} However, based on girls' reports, only 43% of girls in the CSU project and 35% of girls in the LCD project reported having a disability as defined by the WG guidelines (a lot of difficulty in at least one functional area). It is possible that projects used the 'some difficulty' threshold to define disability for their targeting criteria. When using the lower 'some difficulty' threshold, rates of functional difficulty are substantially higher but still below the reported target: 90.6% of girls in the CSU projects and 75.3% of girls in the LCD project report having at least some difficulty in at least one domain.
3.7 What are the household economic contexts of the GEC-T girls, and are the households able to afford the girls’ schooling?²⁴

Household economic characteristics have a significant impact on learning outcomes, as well as interacting with many of the other potential forms of marginalisation. As a result, 21 of the 27 GEC-T projects specifically stated in the baseline evaluation reports that they were targeting girls in poor households. GEC-T girls’ caregivers were asked to report on six household economic questions, as follows.

1. Does your household have land?
2. Has the household gone without cash income most of the time?
3. Has the household gone without enough clean water for use at home?
4. Has the household gone to sleep at night feeling hungry?
5. Is the household unable to meet basic needs without relying on charity?
6. Does the household have difficulty affording the costs of education a girl child?

More than half of the GEC-T girls’ households have difficulty affording the costs of educating a girl child (55.0%), and 42.4% are unable to meet basic needs without relying on charity. In addition, 30.1% of households do not own land and 26.8% indicated that the household had gone without cash income most of the time in the previous year. Small percentages of primary caregivers indicated that the household had gone without enough clean water for use at home or that household members had gone to sleep at night feeling hungry (7.2% and 5.1% respectively) most of the time in the previous year.

While these rates of economic difficulties are high, the average poverty rate for sub-Saharan Africa stands at about 41%.²⁵ While not directly comparable, this suggests that the extent to which the household economic contexts of GEC-T girls differs from the average situation in those countries is not clear.

²⁴ The number of observations with data available for each of the six household economic indicators is as follows: 25,275 (do not own land); 22,017 (gone without cash most times); 21,998 (gone to sleep at night feeling hungry); 22,221 (gone without enough clean water for use at home); 12,957 (unable to meet basic needs without relying on charity); and 23,806 (difficulty paying to send girl to school).
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

**Figure 21: Six household economic factors affecting GEC-T girls**

By region, primary caregivers in Southern Africa are most likely to report that the household has difficulty paying to send girls to school (72%), while only 26% of primary caregivers in Asia report facing this difficulty. The percentage of caregivers who report difficulties paying to send girls to school is lowest in high fragile countries (25%) and highest in non-fragile countries (77%).

**Figure 22 and Figure 23** further disaggregate the percentage of households facing difficulties in paying to send the girl to school by region and FCAS status.
3.8 What is the educational attainment of the primary caregivers of the GEC-T girls? 26

The educational attainment of primary caregivers and heads of households of GEC-T girls impacts on the girls’ educational marginalisation. This is evidenced in the literature concerning first-generation learners 27 and can take a range of forms, such as the potential for receiving support with schoolwork.

Figure 24 compares the educational attainment of primary caregivers with the heads of households of GEC-T girls. The majority of primary caregivers and household heads of GEC-T girls have not completed their primary education, and a substantial proportion have no education at all. The education levels of primary caregivers and household heads are relatively similar, although household heads are more likely to have completed primary education and less likely to have no education at all.

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26 The number of observations with available data is 23,637 (primary caregiver) and 24,226 (head of household).
27 Ogando and Atherton (forthcoming) ‘The prevalence and consequences of being a first-generation learner in schools in developing countries’. 

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As the education attainment is relatively similar between primary caregivers and heads of households, and assuming that GEC-T girls are likely to receive greater support from their primary caregivers, their educational attainment is considered in more detail below.

At the regional level, the educational attainment of caregivers of GEC-T girls varies significantly as shown in Figure 25. The percentage of caregivers who have completed primary school ranges from 6.0% in Asia, to 45.1% in Southern Africa. In particular, 82.9% of caregivers in Asia have not attended school at all.
As with other types of marginalisation reported in this analysis, the relationship between FCAS status and caregiver educational attainment is not straightforward as shown in Figure 26. This may reflect the fact that caregiver educational attainment reflects historical conditions (when caregivers were in education), which may be different from current fragility conditions, or that projects in non-fragile countries are reaching harder-to-reach girls whereas in fragile countries projects are reaching better-off households. In countries that are not fragile, 86.0% of the sampled caregivers have no education or have not completed primary school. These figures are lower in low and moderate fragility countries and much lower in high fragility and neighbouring countries.

**Figure 26: Highest educational attainment of primary caregivers, by FCAS status**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FCAS Status</th>
<th>None</th>
<th>Primary school incomplete</th>
<th>Primary school completed or higher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not fragile</td>
<td>54.8</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighbouring Country</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>56.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate / low fragility</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High fragility</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>64.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

4 Summary of the findings and implications for DFID and GEC

According to project reports 1.3 million girls and young women are reported to be directly supported by GEC-T projects. These projects range in size from 2,260 to 204,031 beneficiaries. About half of the GEC-T girls live in Eastern and Central Africa and the largest percentage of girls live in highly fragile countries, compared with other FCAS categories.

GEC-T projects mainly target poor girls, girls with disabilities, remote or pastoralist girls, slum or street-dwelling girls, orphans, mothers, girls who don’t speak the LOI, child labourers, and OOS girls.

4.1 GEC-T girls and their marginalisation status

Marginalisation is generally understood to refer to a comparison of some kind. While there is no agreed definition, according to UNESCO (Concept Paper on Marginalisation, 2009) marginalisation is ‘a form of acute and persistent disadvantage rooted in underlying social inequalities’. Social inequalities exist across communities, districts, nations, and regions globally.

The terms ‘marginalisation’ and ‘disadvantage’ are often used interchangeably in education contexts, with some institutions favouring the use of one term over the other. However, when the terms are treated as distinct, ‘disadvantage’ is often used to refer to the different types of barriers restricting educational attainment, while ‘marginalisation’ is more commonly used to refer to the overall extent to which a child’s education attainment is restricted. For example, a child with a number of different educational disadvantages is likely to be more educationally marginalised. DFID, and the GEC, more commonly speak in terms of marginalisation.

Lewin (2007) initially discussed educational marginalisation in terms of six zones ranging from those that never attended any school to those at risk of dropping out of secondary school. Subsequently, the Education For All Global Monitoring Report introduced categorical indicators of ‘education poverty’ (those with fewer than four years of education) and ‘severe education poverty’ (those with fewer than two years of education). More recently, however, a number of institutions have preferred definitions that consider some of the different causes (or disadvantages) of marginalisation. For example, the 2018 USAID Education Policy explains that their definition of ‘Marginalised Children and Vulnerable Groups’

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28 https://girlseducationchallenge.org/#/about
29 ‘Zones of exclusion’: exclusion being another term commonly interchanged with marginalisation, although the term itself implies a more deliberate, or binary, expression of marginalisation. UNICEF’s Five Dimensions of Exclusion model followed similar lines to the Lewin (2007) model.
30 Children who never attended school, children who dropped out during primary school, children at risk of dropout during primary school (due to low achievement/poor attendance/being overage, etc.), children who did not transition to secondary school, children who dropped out during secondary school, and children at risk of dropping out during secondary school.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

Includes girls, children affected by or emerging from armed conflict or humanitarian crises, children with disabilities, children in remote or rural areas (including those who lack access to safe water and sanitation), religious or ethnic minorities, indigenous peoples, orphans and children affected by HIV/AIDS, child laborers, married adolescents, and victims of trafficking.

Similarly, the 2017 DFID 'Leave No One Behind' agenda explains that for marginalisation 'there is a multidimensional aspect, with social, economic and political barriers all contributing to the marginalisation of an individual or group of individuals. People can be marginalised due to multiple factors; sexual orientation, gender, geography, ethnicity, religion, displacement, conflict or disability.'

The baseline data provide insights into the individual characteristics of the GEC-T girls.

Our analysis finds that GEC-T girls experience disadvantage in multiple ways. More than half of the households in which the girls live have difficulty paying to send girls to school, and almost half have difficulty meeting basic needs without charity. Most of the girls are being taught in a language they do not speak at home and many do not have a caregiver who is able to speak the LOI. The majority of GEC-T girls' caregivers have not completed primary school. Given the limited educational attainment of caregivers, along with most caregivers being unable to speak the LOI, caregivers are likely to find it extremely difficult to support their children in engaging with the content girls are learning at school.

There is incomplete data on the progression status of GEC-T girls, and therefore the extent to which GEC-T girls are at risk of dropping out cannot be assessed. However, overall about 40% of GEC-T girls are overage or severely overage. Although UNESCO Institute of Statistics data are measured by level of education rather than for each individual grade, the ratio of overage learners reported in GEC-T countries (where available) ranges from 10% (Sierra Leone) to almost 40% (Rwanda and Nepal). Compared to UIS data on overage enrolment, a greater percentage of GEC-T girls are overage than in the relevant population as a whole.

Fewer OOS girls are supported by GEC-T (GEC Phase II) than in the GEC Step Change window (Phase I) at endline. While eight projects specifically target OOS girls, the majority of projects have shifted to support girls through a whole-school approach to supporting girls rather than targeting girls with specific characteristics within local communities. Informants from six GEC-T projects reported that this shift has reduced the percentage of OOS girls, by design. GEC Phase I focused on transitioning girls into school and Phase II has focused on improving learning through identifying girls and working within schools and local communities. This highlights the challenges of supporting OOS girls when working through schools, and also indicates that some OOS girls who were supported in Phase I have not been transitioned into school for Phase II.

The percentage of caregivers reporting that GEC-T girls experience functional difficulty in seeing, hearing, mobility, cognition, self-care, or communication is similar to global estimates of disability among children. Project implementers report that they faced several challenges in reaching larger numbers of girls with disabilities, including
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

working through schools, the unseen nature of disability, and the likely low survival rates of girls with disabilities in conflict settings.

**One project has had success in targeting married girls and mothers: the Mercy Corps project in Nigeria. However, overall, only 1.7% of the GEC-T girls are married and 1.9% are mothers.** This is a low percentage, given the rates of pregnancy and early marriage in many of the countries in which GEC-T projects are operating.\(^{31}\) This is likely to be as a result of most projects targeting girls through schools.

**GEC aims to improve the learning opportunities and outcomes of over one million of the world’s most marginalised girls.** This analysis finds that many of the GEC-T girls are marginalised. While they do not represent the most marginalised girls, the Phase II focus on ‘supporting GEC beneficiaries from Phase I to complete primary school, transition to secondary education, and progress on to technical vocational training or employment\(^{32}\) and consequently focuses GEC-T targeting on those who are Phase I beneficiaries and are marginalised within the school-going population.

### 4.2 Regional and FCAS differences

**Assessing differences in marginalisation by regional and FCAS status is not straightforward.** GEC-T girls in West Africa are more likely to be overage or severely overage, pregnant, or married, and are more likely to be learning in a language that is different to the main language of the household. The percentage of GEC-T girls who report functional difficulty in one or more domains is higher in Southern Africa than in other regions. The percentage of caregivers of GEC-T girls who have not attended or completed primary school is much higher in Asia than in other regions.

**Assessing the relationship between FCAS status and marginalisation is not straightforward.** Countries with high fragility often fare better than those with low fragility, and fewer girls in FCAS countries report economic difficulties compared to girls in neighbouring countries. Possible reasons for this could include differences in perceptions and reporting across countries, the large percentage of displaced people within neighbouring countries, or potentially easier targeting of marginalisation within more stable contexts. FCAS status is not fixed and changes in FCAS status take place over time. The FCAS status of a country does not necessarily reflect all geographical areas within the country.

### 4.1 Potential further research

The findings presented in this paper suggest avenues for further research, either using the master dataset developed as part of this project, using the wider evidence base, or by collecting new qualitative and quantitative data, as follows:

\(^{31}\) In 2013, sub-Saharan Africa had the highest prevalence of adolescent pregnancy in the world. Half of all births that occurred in the region were to teenage mothers, with an estimated 101 births per 1,000 women aged 15–19, almost double the global average (Gunawardena, Fantaye, & Yaya, 2019).

\(^{32}\) ADD REFERENCE
1. The analysis reveals that girls and caregivers have different perceptions of girls’ levels of functional difficulties. Qualitative research could explore the reasons why girls and caregivers perceive girls’ functioning differently, and what implications this may have for the educational support that girls receive (for example, when their caregivers may not be aware of a difficulty they are experiencing). This research could also consider the validity of the WG questions across different respondents.

2. Questions assessing household’s economic difficulties can be subjective and interpreted differently across different contexts. To better understand the economic difficulties faced by households of GEC-T girls, further research could use questions from validated poverty measures or questions from household surveys in the respective countries to produce measures of household poverty that are comparable to other available measures in the country. This would allow comparing the GEC-T girl population to the general population in the country. It is possible that some project evaluations already include such questions or measures in their datasets in questionnaires that were beyond the scope of analysis for this work. This data could be explored further.

3. This report has provided possible explanatory factors behind the low prevalence of girls who are OOS, are married or mothers, and have disabilities in the GEC-T portfolio. KIIIs carried out with a sample of projects provided potential explanations for these figures, but further research could be undertaken to further understand explanatory factors. In particular, qualitative research on aspects of marginalisation that are not open to measurement could make a further contribution to answering the question: ‘Who are the GEC-T girls?’
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

List of references


Ogando, MJ and Atherton, P (forthcoming). *The prevalence and consequences of being a first-generation learner in schools in developing countries*.


Who are the GEC-T supported girls?
Annex A  Full series of papers

This paper forms part of a series of two published papers presenting analysis of the baseline datasets from the GEC-T projects conducted by OPM and Oxford MeasurEd.

The two papers in this series cover the following topics.

**Paper 1: Who are the GEC-T supported girls?**

The first paper in this series describes how many girls are supported by GEC-T projects, where they are, and their socioeconomic and demographic characteristics. It further explores how these characteristics differ across projects, regions, and fragility status, and reflects on the complexities and challenges of targeting marginalised girls across contexts.

**Paper 2: GEC-T girls' learning levels and predictors of learning**

This paper explores the learning levels of GEC-T girls. It reviews the literature and evidence on the learning levels and predictors of learning globally and explores contextual and regional differences. The paper then presents findings on the baseline learning levels of GEC-T girls and the predictors of learning, exploring contextual and regional differences. It examines the extent to which the predictors of learning are similar or different for GEC-T girls in comparison to other populations and considers the implications for DFID and GEC.

In addition, the research team completed baseline analysis about GEC-T girls' perceptions and experiences of safety in and on the way to school which will be used to inform the design and content of an evaluation about this topic.
## Annex B  Country, region, and FCAS status groups

Table 2:  GEC-T projects by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Project</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>AKF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BRAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Save DRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Childhope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LINK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>DLA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Varkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Avanti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DLA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ICL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LCD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WUSC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>Save Moz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>MercyCorps Nepal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VSO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>DLA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MercyCorps Nigeria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>HPA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>CARE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>CAMFED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CAMFED Tanzania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>CSU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Opportunity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>PEAS</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Viva</td>
</tr>
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<td>Zambia</td>
<td>CAMFED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>CAMFED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>World Vision</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

Table 3: Geographical regions where GEC-T projects are implemented

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>West Africa</th>
<th>Southern Africa</th>
<th>Eastern and Central Africa</th>
<th>Asia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Nepal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: FCAS status of countries where GEC-T projects are implemented

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High fragility</th>
<th>Moderate fragility</th>
<th>Low fragility</th>
<th>Neighbouring country</th>
<th>Not fragile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
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<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>Ghana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>Mozambique</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annex C  To what extent are GEC-T girls represented in the baseline dataset?

The table below provides information on the grades targeted by each project compared to the grades that are represented in the baseline dataset for that project. Red bars show the grades targeted by each project. Where numbers are shown, this shows the number of girls in the baseline dataset for each grade. For example, while the AKF project in Afghanistan targets grades 1–12, only grades 1, 2, 4, 5, and 7 are represented in the baseline dataset. For most projects, the full range of grades targeted by the project are not represented in the baseline datasets.
### Table 5: Project targeting and grade distribution of baseline sample by project

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Project</th>
<th>System</th>
<th>OOS</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Grades</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>AKF</td>
<td>6-3-3</td>
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<td>539</td>
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<td>168</td>
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<tr>
<td>DRC</td>
<td>SAVE DRC</td>
<td>6-2-4</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>80*</td>
<td>532</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>CHILDOPE</td>
<td>8-2-2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>LINK</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>298</td>
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<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Project</td>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>Receiving an Intervention in Baseline Datasets</td>
<td>Number of Girls</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>CAMFED TANZANIA</td>
<td>7-4-2</td>
<td>1022 1025</td>
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<tr>
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<td>27 37 63 54 54 10 20 2</td>
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<td>381</td>
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<td>PEAS</td>
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<td>VIVA</td>
<td>7-4-2</td>
<td>CLC [Information not available]</td>
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<td>WORLD VISION</td>
<td>7-4-2</td>
<td>208 211 201 201 192 233 217</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>All projects</td>
<td></td>
<td>208 211 201 201 192 233 217</td>
<td>45,729</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes:** Red bars show the grades targeted by each project. Where numbers are shown, this shows the number of girls receiving an intervention in the baseline datasets for each grade or enrolment status. There are 45,729 GEC-T girls in the baseline datasets, but a total of 45,355 were included for analysis and a total of 43,589 have grade data available. ‘System’ refers to the structure of the education system showing the number of grades by primary school, lower secondary school, and senior secondary school. This is also reflected by the colours in the table. CLC = Creative Learning Centre, OOS = out of school girls, Other = alternative forms of education including special needs education, PS = post-secondary, SG = school graduate, and TVET = technical and vocation education and training.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

Annex D  Qualitative methodology

D.1  Qualitative purposive sampling strategy

The first stage of purposive qualitative sampling of the GEC-T projects for KII s identified the projects focusing on both girls with disabilities and OOS girls. This was based on the feedback from an earlier draft of this paper, indicating that there are historical and targeting reasons for reasonably low numbers of both girls with disabilities and OOS girls in GEC-T projects.

This process identified six projects.

The second stage of purposive qualitative sampling focused on ensuring an appropriate mix of primary, junior secondary, and secondary as the targeted school levels. This was based on the literature regarding the different educational risks girls face at different stages of the lifecycle. Appropriate representation of primary, junior secondary, and secondary target school levels ensures the qualitative data provides insights into targeting strategies, approaches, challenges, and weakness across the stages of schooling.

After reviewing the already identified six projects, it was clear that an appropriate mix of primary, junior secondary, and secondary target school levels were already present. This included five projects focusing on primary schools, six projects focusing on junior secondary schools, and four focusing on secondary schools (projects target multiple levels).

The third stage of sampling focused on ensuring adequate representation of projects working in conflict settings. This was identified as important based on the feedback on an earlier draft of the paper, whereby financial and other barriers to education were experienced by fewer girls in conflict settings than girls in non-conflict settings. Understanding the contextual factors around this and the targeting strategies of projects in conflict settings will guide the interpretation of data.

This process identified that, of the six selected projects, four function in countries that are highly fragile.

D.2  Qualitative interview guide

The following semi-structured interview guide was used to guide interviews with project implementers.

- Can you tell us about [your GEC-T project]? Can you tell us about the history of the project, including the relationship with past GEC windows?
- Can you tell us about the purpose of [your GEC-T project]? What are the main outcome objectives and the strategies to achieve these objectives?
- Did the project exist before the GEC windows? Have the objectives and strategies changed since being included in the GEC window?
- How many and/or what proportion of the direct beneficiaries in the GEC-T programme transitioned from the previous window?
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

- What were the characteristics of the girls who transitioned from the previous window? What were the characteristics of those who did not transition?
- What were the key barriers to transitioning girls from the previous window (if there were challenges/barriers)?
- How did you go about deciding which girls to target for [your GEC-T project]? For GEC Phase I? For GEC-T?
- How did you prioritise certain characteristics for targeting over others? For GEC Phase I? For GEC-T? Did this differ by schooling level (primary, junior secondary, secondary)?
- How did you and your colleagues go about actually targeting the girls in line with your targeting priorities? For GEC Phase I? For GEC-T? Did this differ by schooling level (primary, junior secondary, secondary)?
- How did you target OOS girls? Prompt: According to the baseline data, the proportion of direct beneficiaries who are OOS is [X]%. Do you have any reflections on this?
- How did you target girls with disabilities? Prompt: According to the baseline data, the proportion of direct beneficiaries who have a disability is [X]%. Do you have any reflections on this?
- Were you satisfied with the targeting of the girls for both the GEC Phase I and for the GEC-T window?
- What barriers or challenges did you face in actually targeting girls with the types of marginalisation prioritised in your targeting strategy? For GEC Phase I? For GEC-T? Did this differ by schooling level (primary, junior secondary, secondary)?
- To what extent do you think the girls supported by your programme are marginalised compared to the general community in the area? How do you know/how did you test this?
- According to the baseline data, the proportion of direct beneficiaries who speak a language other than the LOI in your project is [X]%. Can you tell us more about the linguistic community in the sites of your programme?
- For projects in conflict settings: Our baseline analysis shows that the girls being supported by GEC-T programmes in highly fragile countries tend to be less economically constrained, have parents with higher education levels, and are less likely to have challenging familiar situations than those supported by GEC-T in non-fragile countries. Do you have any reflections on why this might be?
- Can you tell us about the issue of overage girls in your programme? How many or what proportion of your direct beneficiaries are overage and what are the main drivers and challenges in the context of your project?
- The data in the baseline datasets represent a sample of the girls supported by your programme. Do you have any information on how decisions were made regarding which girls/grades etc. would be included in the baseline evaluation/data?
Annex E  Further analysis on reporting of functional difficulties

Panel A reports the prevalence of functional difficulties based on girl and caregiver reports to the Adult Functioning module of the WG questions for the full sample. As shown in the last column, more girls were asked to report on their functional difficulties compared to caregivers. To account for this, Panel B reports on the sub-sample where girls and their caregivers both answered the same set of questions. Across all domains, girls report higher rates of functional difficulty than caregivers. The differences between girl and caregiver reports are statistically significant across all domains except in the domain of difficulties with communication. Three stars in the 'Difference' row indicate that differences between girl and caregiver reports are statistically significant at the p < .01 level. In addition, there are low levels of agreement between girl and caregiver reports.
Who are the GEC-T supported girls?

Table 6: Analysis of girl and caregiver reports on whether the girl has functional difficulties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents' perception</th>
<th>Seeing</th>
<th>Hearing</th>
<th>Mobility</th>
<th>Cognition</th>
<th>Self-care</th>
<th>Communication</th>
<th>% of girls with functional difficulty in at least one domain</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PANEL A: Full sample</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% girls</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>33,479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% caregivers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>15,407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PANEL B: Sub-sample: girls and caregivers with information on the same set of questions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% girls</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>12,283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% caregivers</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>12,283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference</td>
<td>1.6***</td>
<td>1.3***</td>
<td>1.2***</td>
<td>2.2***</td>
<td>1.1***</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>4.1***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Caregiver's perception**

| % girls' agreement      | 27.2   | 16.3    | 24.4     | 14.8      | 15.2      | 8.1           | 24.9                                                   |    |

**Girl's perception**

| % caregivers' agreement | 11.3   | 3.6     | 9.4      | 3.5       | 3.1       | 7.4           | 11.5                                                  |    |