Thematic Review

Understanding and Addressing Educational Marginalisation

March 2018

Part 2: Educational marginalisation in the GEC
This paper is one of a series of thematic reviews produced by the Fund Manager of the Girls’ Education Challenge, an alliance led by PwC, working with organisations including FHI 360, Nathan Associates and Social Development Direct.

The full series of papers is listed below:

- Understanding and Addressing Educational Marginalisation
  Part 1: A new conceptual framework for educational marginalisation
- Understanding and Addressing Educational Marginalisation
  Part 2: Educational marginalisation in the GEC
- Economic Empowerment Interventions
- Community based Awareness, Attitudes and Behaviour
- Addressing School Violence
- Girls’ Self-Esteem
- Extra and Co-Curricular Interventions
- Educational Technology
- Teaching, Learning and Assessment
- School Governance

For further information, contact the Fund Manager at girlseducationchallenge@uk.pwc.com
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Executive summary

Identifying and keeping the most marginalised girls in education is a challenge. Doing this at scale is an even greater one. Despite significant investment, many education programmes still struggle to reach marginalised girls who have never set foot inside a school, or whose education has been seriously disrupted.

The first phase of the Girls’ Education Challenge (GEC) sought to improve access and learning outcomes for up to a million marginalised girls across 18 countries in Africa and Asia. Projects identified and targeted girls aged 6 to 19 who had not been enrolled, had dropped out or who were at risk of dropping out of school. The experience of four years of working with these girls has enabled a more nuanced understanding of educational marginalisation. This learning has been distilled into a definition and a conceptual tool that seeks to define educational marginalisation and identify key barriers and enablers to achieving learning outcomes. The proposed conceptual framework is presented in a separate paper in the thematic paper series (Understanding and Addressing Educational Marginalisation, Part 1). The framework provides the basis for analysis of a number of lessons about defining and responding to educational marginalisation by GEC projects in different contexts.

Broadly, the main findings from projects who have sought to disaggregate and analyse data, refine targeting and adapt programming show how these approaches can support enrolment and attendance outcomes. It has proved challenging for projects to reach the most marginalised girls, including those with disabilities and learning difficulties. This paper highlights key lessons learned from the GEC, which include:

1. The importance of having and using relevant, disaggregated data to understand the situation and progress of marginalised girls
2. The use of mixed methods evaluations to improve data quality
3. The importance of careful consideration regarding targeting strategies and beneficiary selection to avoid missing ‘hidden’ marginalised children
4. Taking an adaptive approach is key to facilitating appropriate responses to emerging and complex marginalisation issues
5. Tracking drop-out patterns is important to highlight whether a particular subgroup is being left behind.

A number of lessons also emerged about the overall targeting of marginalised girls within a large portfolio fund such as the GEC. The Fund Manager developed a broad categorisation system to understand who the fund was reaching and the extent of their marginalisation. The launch of the “Leave No Girl Behind” (LNGB) funding window will build on the experience to date of the GEC and will target some of the most marginalised categories of adolescent girls. The categorisation system also informed key lessons about assessing equity as part of Value for Money (VfM) considerations. Finally, marginalisation analysis has informed the GEC Payment by Results approach and contributed to understanding about the complex set of motivations and considerations when targeting the hardest to reach.
1. Introduction

Using a new definition and conceptual framework based on lessons learned during the GEC’s first phase (see Understanding and Addressing Educational Marginalisation, Part 1) - this paper provides an analysis of how educational marginalisation was understood and addressed across the GEC project portfolio, and attempts to highlight who the Fund’s projects reached.

Responding to DFID’s brief to target ‘marginalised girls’, this paper discusses how the target translated into strategies and approaches, and the limitations and benefits of both. It highlights key results at project level revealed through endline studies for different subgroups of marginalised girls in terms of learning and attendance1 although due to the multi-faceted nature of GEC projects, and the specific GEC evaluation focus on literacy, numeracy and attendance outcomes, there are limitations to the links and attribution which can be established between specific interventions, groups targeted and the projects’ outcomes.

Education is a universal right, bound by the principles of non-discrimination and equality, and recognised in a number of international and regional legal instruments including the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (1948) and the UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960). This right is being denied to around 124 million children and adolescents2 who have never started school or have dropped out. Data suggests that, despite gains in primary school enrolment, many children are not developing basic literacy and numeracy skills even when they spend several years enrolled in school (Pritchett and Sandefur, 2017). The fact that women and girls form two thirds of the world’s non-literate population3, and a significant proportion of those who are out of school, highlights gender as a major dimension of this marginalisation. Girls living in the poorest families in rural areas are the most likely to be out of school and if they do attend school they are the least likely to learn and to complete a cycle of education. When disaggregated further, girls from linguistic and ethnic minorities and those whose mother tongue is different from the language taught at school are even more likely to be over-represented in those out of school and not learning (Sperling, G., Winthrop, R. and Kwauk, C., 2015).

The Girls’ Education Challenge (GEC) was launched as part of the UK Department for International Development’s (DFID) Education Strategy 2010-2015 which included an aim to “prioritise girls and other marginalised groups”. The GEC also reflects DFID’s Strategic Vision for Girls and Women. The GEC’s purpose is to fund projects targeting ‘marginalised’ girls between 6 and 19 years old who have not been enrolled, have dropped out, or are at risk of dropping out of school.

This paper shares how educational marginalisation has been approached in the GEC and the lessons that have informed planning for the next phase. For a more detailed analysis of outcome-level results for marginalised girls across GEC reports, please see the Evaluation Manager’s endline reports (Coffey, 2017.) This paper is part of a suite of papers that analyse

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1 For analysis by sub-group see the GEC Evaluation Manager Endline Reports
the effectiveness of different interventions within the GEC in addressing determinants and dimensions of educational marginalisation.

**Methodology and limitations of this paper**

This paper is based on a review of relevant endline evaluation reports from GEC projects, as well as key documents about the Fund’s design. Readers should note that it has not been possible to fully aggregate data across the portfolio due to variability in definitions of educational marginalisation and in approaches to evaluation. In some reports qualitative data provides useful context, however it is important to note that in some cases there were gaps in capacities of the external evaluators and projects to gather, analyse and provide recommendations relating to the inclusion of marginalised groups within evaluations. These limitations are articulated in a number of lessons that have informed the second phase of the GEC, including in the design of the household survey, capacity requirements of evaluators, and on deeper monitoring and support from the Fund Manager for projects.

2. Overview of the educational marginalisation discourse

Building on learning from the first phase of GEC, a new conceptual model of understanding educational marginalisation has been created, and is featured in a separate paper. The basis of the model is rooted in a rights based approach to education which takes into account universal and contextual characteristics. The model enables the profiling of individual or groups of girls who due to their unique set of intersecting characteristics may experience barriers to education at the home, school or system level (see *Understanding and Addressing Educational Marginalisation, Part 1*.) Further discussion of other models which could add insights into how to target educational marginalisation is included in Annex 1.

**Measuring educational marginalisation**

The limited understanding, or recognition, of educational marginalisation or related terms at a global level is partly due to limitations in education data sets, which have tended to focus on enrolment figures as a proxy for educational achievement. As a result, many education programmes have focused on supporting access to education, rather than the quality of education or learning outcomes. Data disaggregation is essential to DFID and the global community’s commitment to ‘leave no one behind’ and there is a growing momentum towards collecting disaggregated and standardised data. For example:

- **Deprivation and Marginalisation in Education (DME) dataset** for the 2010 EFA Global Monitoring Report was a ground-breaking attempt at disaggregation by key characteristics including gender, ethnicity, religion, wealth, location and region[^4], despite some gaps in country data.

• **World Inequality Database on Education (WIDE)** brings together data from Demographic and Health Surveys, Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, national household surveys and learning achievement surveys from over 160 countries to enable users to compare education outcomes between countries, and between groups within countries, according to factors that are associated with inequality, including wealth, gender, ethnicity and location.

• **DFID’s (2017) Data Disaggregation Strategy** which calls for all its data to be disaggregated by sex, age, disability status and geography by 2030 with intention to have further categories across social groups beyond this.

• **UNICEF and the Population Council** have worked to develop vulnerability indices focused on adolescent girls, combining indicators across multiple domains to get a more nuanced understanding of how vulnerability outcomes interact and are present in different groups of girls.

• The **Washington Group**, established by the UN statistical commission city group, has established standardised indicators for measuring the range and severity of impairments within populations, which has overcome many of the difficulties posed by trying to define disability. Traditionally, disability data has been very poorly collected leading to inaccurate and incomparable data on prevalence rates across populations. In addition, **UNICEF** is piloting the integration of learning assessment, parental support in education and child functioning (disability) into its Multiple Cluster Indicator Survey tool.

Whilst there are promising developments and a progressive global ambition, there is a still a significant challenge ahead to create systems that can collect, disaggregate and analyse data about different marginalised groups at scale. In the education sector, data collection and analysis of inequalities in academic achievement or out-of-school populations is beginning to be prioritised by funders. However, the most marginalised often remain hidden in big datasets and analyses, not least because global, country or even regional averages hide significant inequalities and outliers. Particular groups also continue to be marginalised because questions related to their characteristics are often not asked in mainstream data collection instruments, or data is not disaggregated. These include children with disabilities, minority ethnic groups and young married girls.

### 3. Addressing educational marginalisation in the GEC

The 2012 GEC Business Case offered 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 organisations to develop their own context-based definitions of marginalisation, aiming to ensure that targeted girls were those not being reached through other avenues. Whilst this broad definition may have increased flexibility within project responses, it also

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5 http://www.education-inequalities.org
6 https://www.unicef.org/uganda/resources_17240.html
7 http://www.washingtongroup-disability.com/
resulted in a wide variation in concepts of educational marginalisation which created a number of challenges for comparing outcomes across the portfolio.

**Categorising marginalisation**

There was an early policy commitment for the GEC to reach one million marginalised girls. In 2016, DFID and the Fund Manager developed a categorisation system to better understand the extent to which the portfolio was reaching marginalised girls and, therefore, assist in understanding the efficacy of GEC’s targeting. This involved three levels of categorisation based on the magnitude and complexity of barriers the girls faced in a given context:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>% of GEC1 girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 1</td>
<td>Hard to reach</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2</td>
<td>Harder to reach</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3</td>
<td>Hardest to reach</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the second phase of the GEC, levels of marginalisation may shift as some beneficiary girls from the first phase who continue into the next phase become less marginalised as a result of interventions, and others become more marginalised as they reach adolescence and face challenges in transitioning to secondary school.

The LNGB window under the next phase of the GEC will target girls at levels 2 and 3 exclusively.

These categories of marginalisation have been used to provide an equity weighting system when calculating Value for Money within the GEC. See annex 2 for full description of marginalisation levels.

**The impact of ‘payment by results’ on targeting marginalisation**

Payment by Results (PbR) is a key feature of the GEC. A number of lessons have emerged which have helped to shape the programme’s focus on marginalisation and to inform the PbR approach for the second phase of the GEC.⁸

PbR in the GEC is based on the principles of risk sharing, encouraging innovation and transparency⁹; however for some projects the premise of using control groups (necessary for calculating PbR) carried risks which meant they opted out of the PbR model.

A 2016 study from the Fund Manager¹⁰ identified that PbR created a complex set of motivations that did not always work alongside the objective of reaching the most marginalised girls in the project context:

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⁸ 15 out of 37 projects opted in to a PBR model in the first phase of the GEC, with payments linked to outcome performance at baseline, midline and endline. Each project had between 10 to 20 per cent of expenditure ‘at risk’ (if projects met their learning targets they would receive the full budget, with an additional 10-20 per cent lost or gained if these were exceeded or not met). The PBR calculations were based on performance against control groups.

⁹ Coffey noted in their process report (2015) “PbR drives coherence and consistency across projects subject to PbR because it unites organisations in achieving a common goal, which in the GEC is improved learning. It also ensures a consistent approach to measuring improvements in outcomes. Interview respondents indicated that PbR drove greater accountability because it shared the risk of not delivering results between projects and DFID because payment was conditional on achieving set targets.

¹⁰ Patch, J. and Holden, J.(2017) *Does skin in the game improve the level of play? The experience of Payment by Results (PbR) on the Girls' Education Challenge (GEC) programme.*
Several projects reported that PbR created a perverse incentive to reaching highly marginalised girls, encouraging prioritisation of short term rather than long term sustainable results. One respondent replied that: “There is a potential risk that PbR can lead to ‘hot-housing’ of cohorts of students and/or distortion of a set of narrow learning outcomes to demonstrate results, to the detriment of the opportunity for systemic change.” Although projects did not want to engage in solutions that would be short lived rather than sustainable, they did report that in some cases there had been pressure from their headquarters, who were concerned about the risk of non-payment, to engage in some of these shorter term strategies.

Due to the nature of programming for marginalised groups, there are inevitably multiple goals; however, having PbR linked to just one goal (learning outcomes), may lead to focus being drawn into achieving only that goal, and not others. The Fund Manager’s Rapid Gender Review revealed some projects were making choices about investing in the interventions that focused on learning outcomes at the cost of generating parental and community support, which are key factors in sustainability of outcomes.

Projects also reported concern that PbR could motivate projects to target the girls who were likely to achieve better learning results rather those who would need additional support, but potentially still not perform sufficiently in tests: “Another project manager from a project that had been taken off PbR due to working in an FCAS context, stated at interview that they had seen an incentive to “play it safe” in terms of the groups targeted, i.e. to work with those in less extreme poverty where targets could be easier to achieve.”

Some projects reported that the PbR incentive made them more risk averse, so that opportunities to learn and innovate in addressing multiple barriers to education in particular contexts were potentially lost.

4. Key findings

This section highlights key results which illustrate how different groups of marginalised girls improved learning and attendance, as identified in project level endline studies, and as far as is possible to compare across projects.

**Ethnic groups and girls unfamiliar with the language of instruction**

In several project contexts, language played a significant role in girls’ ability to engage with education. The language of instruction in primary schools was often different to girls’ mother tongue and often changed again at secondary school. This issue was compounded by the ability of teachers to teach in languages that they had also not always mastered.

- In the VSO Nepal project, ethnicity and geographic grouping of target girls was tracked through the project intervention, which also shone light on the issue of language of instruction. The results very clearly showed that girls from Parsa, where only 2.9% spoke Nepali, the language taught in schools, started and finished at a much lower literacy score than girls from other regions. Numeracy scores also

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11 The GEC Fund Manager presented a paper on Language of Instruction at the 2017 UKFIET conference.
showed a similar pattern by region. The project responded to this challenge through the provision of learning support classes, and consequently showed a significant improvement in scores. These classes gave girls an opportunity to receive specialised support which helped improve their learning. Although data was not collected for boys, the Head Teacher in Surket expressed that a few of the boys who had attended Learning Support Classes had also started showing improvement. These classes helped girls to cope with their studies especially when schools were closed due to political unrest. The Big Sisters’ mentoring scheme, which provided one-to-one support from an older girl, was also credited in Parsa as being a factor in encouraging girls to complete homework, and spend more time studying.

- In the Democratic Republic of Congo, IRC found that the language of instruction issue was further complicated by the fact that many teachers themselves were hardly literate and were also still mastering the language of instruction. These teachers found the teacher training insufficient for their needs and struggled to support weaker students as both sides were working in a language that they were still learning.

- The Kenya WUSC project worked with both refugees and host communities. Their results illustrated how those who were familiar with the language of instruction were more likely to do the homework and perform better in literacy. Performance differences between the two communities were less pronounced in numeracy, where knowledge of English (as the language of instruction) is less of a factor. WUSC responded to this challenge with remedial classes to support girls struggling academically, or with poor abilities in the language of instruction.

Girls with disabilities

Marginalised girls with a disability often face particular attitudinal barriers, which are compounded by poverty. This can include parents being over-protective, being embarrassed or ashamed of their child, which may lead to lack of investment in them due to a belief that they would not be eligible for education provision, or would not succeed once there. Minimal training and awareness often lead education authorities and teachers to consider it more appropriate for children with disabilities to be educated in special schools – however this restricts access and increases marginalisation. Physical access to schools, including lack of transport facilities, is an added challenge.

Whilst many governments have introduced inclusive education policies, relatively few have had the capacity to allocate appropriate resources to enact them. Hence, across the three projects that explored disability specifically (Viva-Crane in Uganda, Leonard Cheshire Disability in Kenya and Cheshire Services Uganda), it appeared that programming was more successful when it addressed a combination of identified barriers at different levels, for example infrastructural (environmental) and teaching practices (institutional). Projects also highlighted that a first necessary step in addressing the exclusion of children with disabilities was building awareness amongst parents, teachers and communities (attitudinal). Teachers need particular support in terms of their own skills in the classroom to ensure they can cater to different abilities in their lessons, coupled with the provision of appropriate learning materials for different types of learners.

Across the portfolio, many projects found it challenging to meet the complex needs of children with disabilities, particularly when they did not plan to include them from the start.
When larger projects (i.e. those not focused solely on disabled children) considered disability inclusion, they tended to focus on children with physical impairments and responded by improving the accessibility of schools (focusing on environmental barriers), stopping short of considering those with learning difficulties. Although Viva-Crane Uganda included a focus on children with cognitive impairments, they found it almost impossible to mainstream them into government schools due to perceptions and lack of preparedness in the schools, and had to continue to support them in their Creative Learning Centres whilst also working to advocate with education authorities for mainstreaming to be better supported.

The following list represents best practice from GEC projects that targeted girls with disabilities. Drawing cause and effect links from across the portfolio is a challenge, owing to varying definitions of disability and an absence of disability disaggregation. Nevertheless important learning and examples of good practice emerged:

- Eco-Fuels Uganda noted that their free transportation scheme led to an increase in girls’ attendance. In addition, parents indicated that they were happier to let their girls attend school when transport was provided, especially parents of disabled girls.
- Leonard Cheshire Disability (LCD) Kenya designed a holistic project working at all levels to promote inclusive education in mainstream schools. As part of this they were aware of the need to include training for teachers on psychosocial wellbeing, prioritising the need to address child mental health. Awareness about abuse and violence against children with disabilities is a major concern and whilst there was limited reporting of abuse in the endline evaluations, this may be due to under-reporting and weak documentation rather than low levels of abuse. LCD Kenya in particular sought to address this through training of local administrators, medical professionals, the police and the judiciary.
- Technology has the potential to provide learning support for children with disabilities and support to their teachers to facilitate it. Whilst it was not explored extensively in the GEC some projects offer examples of how this worked. The iMlango project in Kenya noted that in some schools, Special Educational Needs (SEN) classes experienced a positive increase in student motivation through use of the computer lab. In the Discovery Project in Kenya, Ghana and Nigeria, teachers reported that educational video materials helped ‘children with special needs’. There is a growing interest across GEC projects in developing targeted support for children with disabilities, using Information Communication Technology (ICT) and other technologies in the second phase.

Some projects reported that backlash against projects’ specific focus on girls was particularly acute when they targeted girls with disabilities, considering that boys with disabilities faced many of the same barriers as girls. In the second phase of GEC, projects will be encouraged and supported to include boys with disabilities as beneficiaries where appropriate.

**Out of school girls (OOSG)**

Many projects reported that household visits from community workers or volunteers were effective in enrolling OOSG; volunteers explained the importance of girls’ education and persuaded parents to take their daughters to school. However, this process was often not well documented so it is not clear whether there were common approaches or training given
related to influencing skills.

- Several projects offered clubs, accelerated learning programmes (ALP) and bridge classes for OOSG. In the Vas-y-Fille project in DRC, project staff had been concerned that ALP might create perverse incentives for children to drop out of regular primary school and enrol in ALP instead, or for children who were not eligible for scholarship at GEC supported mainstream schools to enrol in the ALP scheme as it was free. The evaluation team suggested adjusting the selection criteria to ensure that children are only eligible for ALP after having been out-of-school for at least a year.

- Health Poverty Action in Rwanda found that, although identifying OOSG at baseline was challenging, they managed to identify them during implementation more easily by working with Mothers’ Groups, suggesting that developing relationships, trust, and working with the community facilitates access to the most educationally marginalised girls.

- A small number of projects also offered clubs to a mixture of in-school and out-of-school girls. The Varkey Foundation in Ghana reported that these clubs may benefit in-school girls more than out-of-school girls. They aimed to engage OOSG, including young mothers who were allowed to bring their children to the club. By endline, the project had succeeded in enrolling over 20% of girls targeted through the classes. Whilst the project had an innovative approach to engaging girls with female role model teachers via live video connection, it did not seek to address some of the more pressing barriers of economic hardship that would prevent these girls from having sufficient time or resources to enrol and stay in school.

As documented in their initial endline findings, the GEC Evaluation Manager (Coffey, 2017) pointed to the learning improvements of OOSG as a key success of the first phase of the GEC.

**Early and forced marriage**

Projects recognised early and forced marriages (EFM) as a significant and common barrier to girls’ education, and designed economic, empowerment and gender equality interventions to reduce it. Of the 14 projects with components designed to address EFM, 13 focused on prevention using activities such as community sensitisation, empowering girls to address early marriage themselves, and working with religious and traditional leaders. As is common across the sector, there were challenges in collecting data and measuring the impact on girls’ learning but despite this a number of interesting findings emerged. The lessons underline the complexity and fluidity of behaviours, attitudes and practices related to EFM, with many interrelated factors influencing decision making, and changes in both attitudes and behaviour taking time to establish.

- Save the Children in Ethiopia targeted the issue of whether married girls were allowed to return to school as a first step towards challenging the deep rooted cultural norm of child marriage (Absuma), within pastoralist communities in Afar. They had some success where girls continued to attend school with their husbands, but where secondary schools required significant travel away from their area, there were instances where girls who attended school were reportedly rejected by the
community, and families were asked for compensation for not respecting the marriage.\textsuperscript{12}

- ChildHope Ethiopia identified girls at risk of early marriage and broached the issue through families and peers at school. As early marriage is illegal in Ethiopia it was initially difficult to identify girls who were at risk. The local partner organisation worked with families and girls individually to try and encourage them to delay marriage in favour of completing their education.

- VSO Nepal’s Big Sisters mentoring model engaged female champions to encourage mentees to delay marriage in favour of education. Fostering community discussion on the issue of EFM, advocating for parents to make time for girls to study, and appointing teacher champions have all anecdotally been successful in reducing incidences of child marriage within the project context and changing wider attitudes and behaviours towards EFM. In response to concerns that the project could put ‘Big Sisters’ in a position where they might be advocating against strongly held views about EFM, the Big Sisters have support from project staff and teachers to ensure their wellbeing and safety.

A challenge reported by a number of projects, including ChildHope in Ethiopia, is that while it was initially presumed that communities and parents influenced and enforced EFM, girls themselves also demonstrated a desire to get married – showing how deeply the social norms are entrenched. Enhancing informal community child protection mechanisms through capacity building has been reported to strengthen communities’ understanding and action on EFM. In these cases, working with government stakeholders is key to supporting community level work. Many projects addressed EFM on a case-by-case basis through community outreach workers who negotiated with parents and parents-in-law to allow girls to go back to school. These activities usually focused on girls who had dropped out rather than school-aged girls who were married and had never enrolled. The absence of proactive activities to find and target out-of-school married girls suggests that one of the most marginalised groups of girls has not yet been reached by GEC interventions.

**Fragile and conflict affected communities**

A number of GEC projects are located in fragile and conflict affected communities, particularly in Afghanistan and Somalia, where there are some of the largest gender gaps in school enrolment in the world. In these contexts, cultural and security barriers restrict girls and women’s mobility, especially in relation to accessing education. The project endlines found that, whilst these projects have not sought transformational approaches that challenge the status and opportunities for women and girls or marginalised groups in the community, they have successfully addressed immediate, practical elements of marginalisation. Four projects in Afghanistan focused on setting up and running schools close to communities, especially in conflict affected and remote areas. In two projects, theories of change revolved around stimulating communities’ confidence in supporting girls to travel to school, with strategies to gradually integrate girls into government schools further away from the community once they had completed a series of accelerated learning classes.

Successful interventions in these contexts included:

\textsuperscript{12} PAGES, Save the Children Endline Report, April 2017, pg92
• Community engagement through capacity building and consultation with school management committees were reported to be critical success factors in stimulating and sustaining girls’ attendance in both Afghanistan and Somalia. In remote and disputed regions local school committees can be very influential. Examples of community activity included committees building boundary walls for safety and raising funds for infrastructure and for bursaries for the most marginalised girls.
• BRAC Afghanistan trained and financially incentivised young women from the community, khalas (aunties), to act as chaperones for groups of girls who received bursaries to support their attendance. The project endline found ‘khalas’ were often not accompanying girls to school and often families were meeting this need, which suggests bursaries and community engagement may have been more influential on attendance.

Given the immediate and every day challenges faced by projects working in FCAS, in these settings projects often felt they did not have the capacity to address additional marginalisation factors such as disability\textsuperscript{13} or early marriage. In many cases, this would require projects to challenge dominant power relations in the communities, which may risk doing harm in highly volatile and culturally conservative contexts. In the next phase of the GEC, projects will seek to redouble efforts to deliver more gender transformative approaches in their programming, through activities involving men and boys and considering ways to ensure inclusion of children with disabilities in community based schools.

**Nomadic and pastoralist groups**

Common lessons learned emerging from the projects which targeted nomadic or pastoralist groups (ChildFund in Afghanistan, the Somali Girls’ Education Project implemented by Care UK and Save the Children in Ethiopia) include the unpredictability of migration patterns. This significantly affected attendance and dropout for these projects.

• ChildFund Afghanistan found over time that insecurity led to many Kuchi families becoming more sedentary, settling close to urban areas. ChildFund’s response was to adapt its support and promote the integration of students into government schools, combined with sensitisation and capacity building of government school teachers and Ministry of Education to better support the inclusion of the Kuchi community.
• Care UK’s project in Somalia faced the challenge of supporting both pastoralist communities and communities migrating due to drought at different points during the life of the project. The project responded to this by developing an accelerated learning component for pastoralist groups to be implemented in the next phase of the GEC.

Community concern with respect to the inclusion of boys appears to be more acute with migratory populations, who are in effect equally educationally marginalised through a lack of access to education that aligns with their migration. ChildFund reported boys being put under pressure to work on livestock rearing instead of going to school, and Care Somalia found higher than expected rates of boys not attending due to pastoralist migration patterns.

\textsuperscript{13} In the next phase of GEC, projects working in FCAS will be encouraged to look more widely for helpful resources such as the INEE guidelines on including children with disabilities in emergency situations.
The question of educational relevance is a key learning area in nomadic populations. In Kenya and Ethiopia, mainstream education provision is sometimes perceived as a risk to the nomadic way of life and parents reportedly choose to send some children to school and retain others (both girls and boys) at home to be taught the traditional way of life and maintain livestock. Education Development Trust in Kenya reported that communities in northern Kenya often keep boys back from school to take part in traditional ceremonies and learn how to rear livestock; girls too are sometimes kept from school in order to remain in the communities when they grow up, as if they are educated communities fear that they will leave the community to migrate to urban areas for work.

**Forced and temporary migration**

For projects in Afghanistan, Kenya, Nepal, Somalia and Ethiopia migration, both forced and economic, remained one of the primary reasons given for attrition and dropout.

- In Kenya, WUSC’s KEEP project developed remedial classes as an important response to this to ensure girls could catch up if they had just arrived in the refugee camp where the project worked. A key lesson was the need to be conscious of power dynamics, particularly between refugees and the resident host community. The project worked hard to deliver equivalent interventions for both communities to mitigate this risk and promoted positive relationships through a shared scholarship component. However, some refugee girls placed in host schools reported feeling isolated, affecting their ability to perform well and others dropped out because of difficulties associated with assimilating to a new environment. Further challenges arise when girls move on from the camp and want to continue their studies. In response, KEEP put in place a school transfer procedure to support secondary school girls who may have to transfer schools.

- In Somalia, Care UK’s project endline report highlighted the dilemma faced by girls and their families making difficult decisions of whether or not to re-enrol in school, weighing up the cost of education against the challenge of surviving in a volatile or extremely poor context without employment opportunities. Many adolescent girls re-enrolling in education said they also needed courage to overcome shyness when engaging with new teachers and classmates.

**5. Key lessons**

In 2015, a key finding of Coffey’s (GEC Evaluation Manager) process review was that whilst the GEC is targeting marginalised girls, the programme was not systematically targeting the most marginalised girls. A key lesson for GEC is the need for a more clearly stated aim of who the fund intends to reach. Further recognition of the diversity of ‘girls’ within any group is also critical to this – targeting needs to go beyond gender as a defining characteristic of barriers, and look at context and intersections of characteristics to understand how barriers differ for different groups.

With the acknowledgement that the first phase of the GEC reached a lower proportion of highly marginalised girls than anticipated, the 2016-2025 business case for the next phase of
the GEC included the “Leave No Girl Behind” (LNGB) window. This has been designed specifically to support girls who are the hardest to reach, to “further refine GEC’s methodology for targeting marginalised girls and to identify the most effective approaches for reaching the most marginalised girls”. There is recognition that working with highly marginalised girls in the context of education requires careful planning and resourcing in order to uncover and removing systemic, institutional and attitudinal barriers.

Many other lessons have been learnt from projects working with marginalised girls during the first phase of the GEC, which can be applied to the next phase and more widely. Some notable project designs have enabled projects to track and enhance our understanding of the dimensions of marginalisation. To build on this work and ensure consistency across the portfolio, a set of Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Minimum Standards will apply to all projects in the next phase of the GEC (Annex 3). The following section sets out the key lessons learnt from the first phase of the GEC, and discusses how and why these can improve programming with marginalised girls.

**Lesson one: The importance of relevant, disaggregated data collection and analysis**

A critical success factor in understanding the situation and progress of marginalised girls is having and using relevant data. By mapping girls’ marginalisation characteristics and the barriers they face in achieving project outcomes it is possible to track whether barriers are changing, and assess whether interventions could be replicated and adapted in the future.

The following levels of data disaggregation should be considered when working in contexts with marginalised girls:

- Age disaggregated data to track patterns of drop out across girls’ life cycles
- Sex disaggregated data to understand the impact on girls and boys in the same setting
- Disability data to understand prevalence, types and severity of impairments and assess whether a project is providing appropriate inclusive education strategies.

Data can then be analysed against specific individual and contextual characteristics, for example different levels and types of disability, migration, child marriage, household chore/work burden and participation in the labour force. The ability to compare data from marginalised and non-marginalised groups in the same setting is also key to understanding how effective the project is in addressing barriers to education. Collecting such data is challenging and GEC projects in general struggled to achieve the level of nuance and disaggregation which could helpfully inform their ongoing project implementation.

**Age disaggregated data**

Age disaggregated data has been used by some GEC projects to try to understand key life stages at which girls drop out of education or fail to transition to the next phase of education. This has been vital in understanding patterns of drop-out at various points in school progression. For example, in DRC the Vas-y-Fille project noted a pattern of drop-out just before the last year of primary school, as children felt they were unlikely to pass the final exam or continue to secondary education, so rather than incur additional costs they would drop out before completing the year. The redesign of the bursary component of the project...
therefore included costs for the last two years of primary to respond to this tendency to drop out before participating in the exam.

**Sex disaggregated data**

From a rights based and gender transformative perspective, there is a strong argument to collect data for boys as well as girls. Sex-disaggregated data can contribute to an understanding of whether GEC projects are having any effect on gender gaps in learning and transition; which interventions have led to changes for girls compared to boys; whether prioritising girls’ education in some of the most marginalised places in the world is leaving boys behind; and whether prioritising girls leads to better outcomes for boys and fewer barriers for all children in marginalised areas.

Several projects were able to shine a light on these questions:

- The STAGES project in Afghanistan\(^{15}\) showed that girls were learning better in single sex classes, whereas boys performed better in literacy when in mixed gender classrooms. Girls fell behind in mixed-sex classes (attributed to a lack of confidence to ask questions) and often showed poorer attendance due to household responsibilities. Regarding teacher performance, initially disparities were observed in gender-fair practices of male and female teachers but by endline at least 95% of both male and female teachers were observed to exhibit gender-fair practices and behaviours.
- HPA Rwanda\(^{16}\) collected data on boys’ attitudes towards girls’ education through their household surveys and found that “the better the attitude a boy in the household has towards girls’ education, the more likely it is that a girl will perform better in numeracy.”
- The endline evaluation of the Vas-Y-Fille project in the Democratic Republic of Congo\(^{17}\) found that boys’ school enrolment in treatment areas dropped from 83% at baseline to 66% at endline. There was general dissatisfaction amongst boys, and caregivers perceived that boys were being “neglected” and that the project’s focus on girls had improved teacher’s behaviour towards girls but not towards boys. Whilst pressures to work or economic factors may have also played a significant role in boys’ dropout/lack of enrolment (scholarships were only given to girls), gathering this data was vital in identifying that the project needed to find ways to include boys and address their and their caregivers’ concerns about their perceived exclusion.

Many projects limited data collection to girls only, and so struggled to understand gender dynamics, or to anticipate issues like community backlash. The gender approach of DFID and the Fund Manager has evolved since the start of GEC, formalising the need for gender analyses and application within project designs. In the new phase there will be a more clearly articulated objective to contribute to gender transformation at a project level.

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\(^{15}\) The Steps Towards Afghan Girls’ Education Success (STAGES) project is implemented and led by the Aga Khan Foundation with a consortium of partners that includes Aga Khan Education Services, Care International, Save the Children, Catholic Relief Services, The Afghan Education Production Organisation and Roshan Telecom

\(^{16}\) The Rwandan Girls’ Education and Advancement Programme is implemented by Health Poverty Action (HPA)

\(^{17}\) Valorisation de la Scolarisation des Filles (Vas-Y-Fille) is led and implemented by the International Rescue Committee (IRC) with a consortium of partners that includes Save the Children and Catholic Relief Services in partnership with the Government of Democratic Republic of Congo
Disability disaggregated data

Collecting data on prevalence, severity and types of disability is complex. Collection methods and terminology significantly influence the prevalence rates that are reported. The methodology for collecting this information was varied in the first phase of the GEC and as a result no conclusive understanding of the numbers of girls with disabilities included in project interventions has emerged. Two projects, implemented by Cheshire Services Uganda and Leonard Cheshire Disability in Kenya recorded all of their beneficiaries as disabled and a number of others recorded a proportion of their beneficiary group as having disabilities.

Many project evaluators noted variations in definitions of “disability” and also reported on the stigma attached to asking caregivers about disabled children, so it is anticipated that many impairments were not recorded. For the next phase of GEC, all projects will be using the Washington Group short, or child functioning set of questions to provide a standardised and more accurate approach to data collection.

Both CSU Uganda and LCD Kenya placed a primary focus on girls with disabilities being included in mainstream schools and used the Washington Group short set of questions to measure the prevalence of various impairments across their populations. The ability to map learning results against specific impairments led to some degree of analysis of whether the learning environment was appropriately addressing the barriers girls faced. LCD, for example, noted that girls with visual impairments performed much better than girls with intellectual impairments; however, the analysis did not go deeper to explore which interventions responded to which specific impairments and led to success within one group over another. Even within each impairment, the evaluator of this project provided information on range and proportion of girls who fell into levels of severity across the various groups, which gave a much richer understanding of the complexities, response required and results achieved. However, because the whole beneficiary group comprised girls with disabilities, the evaluation did not consider how disabled children might be performing in comparison to their non-disabled peers, which limits our ability to draw conclusions as to whether or not inclusive education approaches are working effectively.

Lesson two: How using mixed methods improves data quality

Another aspect of data collection methodology that builds the picture of dimensions of marginalisation is the use of robust mixed-method evaluations. To complement the disaggregation of quantitative information by subgroup, several projects used qualitative approaches to analyse barriers of specific groups against performance.

Relief International’s (RI) Educate Girls End Poverty project in Somalia measured location based data (among other subgroups). Through qualitative interviews, key stakeholders all indicated that distance to schools and poor roads in rural areas persisted as substantial barriers to attendance and, therefore, learning. Considerable investments were made by the Ministry of Education into these rural schools, with frequent monitoring visits, and the provision of extra lesson time for rural students who struggled with attendance. Quantitative

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18 http://www.washingtongroup-disability.com
19 The Educate Girls End Poverty (EGEP) project was led by Relief International in consortium with Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA) and International Committee for the Development of Peoples (CISP)
research at endline revealed a significant improvement in the literacy and numeracy scores of these rural girls. These same stakeholder groups were consulted through key informant interviews at endline and indicated that “with the help of NGOs such as RI, efforts are being made to reduce the substantial barriers facing girls in rural communities”.20

The IGATE, Zimbabwe project also used mixed method evaluation approaches to map distance-based barriers to a successful intervention response.21

Lesson three: Key considerations in targeting and beneficiary selection

Targeting strategies varied across the portfolio. A number of projects selected beneficiaries based on a particular characteristic (for example disability, refugee status), but the majority of projects selected girls using national level data based on indicators such as being out of school or having low levels of learning. A challenge was that much of this national level data tended to ‘hide’ the most marginalised children as, for example, children with disabilities, girls who are married, child labourers and those who are displaced may not be included in the data.

At baseline, GEC projects were encouraged to collect data from a representative sample of the target population so that results could be disaggregated by group (for example in-school or out-of-school girls) and context (for example rural or urban girls). As a result GEC project proposals and baselines outlined numerous barriers facing a homogenous population of girls but in many cases did not include specific analysis of marginalised groups who may experience a multitude of barriers and to different degrees. To a large extent, definitions of barriers and subgroups were used interchangeably and in many cases assumptions about subgroups underlying projects’ theories of change were not evidenced. For example, ‘attitudes’ was cited as a barrier in many proposals, but only six projects provided evidence of it at baseline.22 The design of sampling strategies is also key, so that they accurately and proportionately represent the beneficiary group and sub-groups.

Whilst Cheshire Services Uganda (CSU), for example, focused its interventions on a single, highly marginalised group (girls with disabilities), one lesson that emerged was the need to analyse the intersectionality of disability with other characteristics and the barriers related to this (e.g. girls with disabilities who were also refugees or orphans) in order to design interventions which would fully support these girls. Concerns were also raised by communities that boys as well as girls were marginalised, and should be included in interventions, something which CSU has adapted to and addressed within its design for the second phase of the GEC.

We can summarise the lessons about targeting as follows:

a) Dynamic approaches that balance planning with responsiveness are key. Targeting should not be a one-off process done at design stage, rather it should be frequently reviewed and adaptations made to ensure that the project is meeting its objectives. The cohort tracking approach used by the GEC - created to provide

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20 EGEP Endline evaluation report March 2017
21 IGATE introduced a Bicycle Education Empowerment Programme (BEEP) for girls who lived significant distances from school
22 Coffey (2014) GEC Innovation Window Baseline Report
reliable, ‘scientific’ and ‘robust’ data - has at times had to be carefully balanced with the flexibility and adaptability needed to respond to changing marginalisation and a learning approach. In Afghanistan the STAGES project overcame this challenge by using a locally managed, flexible response fund to support adaptations. This fund was used by programme staff to respond to emerging barriers and issues and allocated to activities such as heating for classrooms in colder months, learning aides for children with disabilities and individual needs identified by school management committees doing outreach with parents. As projects move to the next phase of the GEC, they will be encouraged to place increasing emphasis on both planned and responsive interventions – it is known that children’s capacities evolve with age, and that new barriers emerge during adolescence. Ongoing, nuanced analysis is needed to understand how barriers emerge and what works to address them, especially in contexts where gender norms restrict girls’ mobility and access to education in adolescence.

b) Analysis of sub-groups enables the design of bespoke interventions In cases where projects implemented specific support for sub-groups of girls, more detailed eligibility-focused criteria were used to define the most educationally marginalised girls within a broader target group. Specific support was usually of a practical nature such as the provision of disability aides, school materials or bursaries. Eligibility criteria were mostly pre-defined by the project, based on educational, social or economic indicators. Some projects facilitated the setting of community-based eligibility definitions of marginalisation and a small selection of projects used community mapping. Two projects selected beneficiaries for specific components based on merit and one project included self-referral as an aspect of targeting. See annex 4 for a full list of groups that projects identified and proposed to target.

c) Tensions exist between the use of universal targeting strategies and bespoke approaches to defining, identifying and targeting girls. These include balancing the need for a community-based and contextually rooted definition of marginalisation with time and cost considerations, and the risk of further marginalising particular groups if they are labelled as vulnerable. There are also ethical considerations to take into account, especially in communities where the majority of girls are marginalised in one way or another, for example, extremely poor rural communities. Poverty and inequality are multifaceted, and singular interventions will not reach everyone; in some cases focusing on a single group or issue may even exacerbate marginalisation. Herein lie two key challenges that projects have faced in their targeting approaches:

- building an understanding of what marginalisation means in each context and establishing whether the project is designed to target the most marginalised girls within a geographic area; and
- after initial targeting or identification, the need to extend interventions to others, or to subsequently adopt a blanket approach because initial approaches resulted in design issues or backlash. (This arose when projects distributed material goods or funds to girls only, without considering boys’ marginalisation or eligibility if, for example, they faced the same household poverty barrier to enrolment. In
some cases this backlash reportedly led to increased vulnerability for some girls, through an increased risk of beatings, verbal harassment, theft of project material from girls and other forms of violence. See the thematic paper on Addressing School Violence for more information on this point.)

**Lesson four: Adaptive programming approaches**

Taking an adaptive approach to project design and evaluation to enable projects to learn and adjust interventions is key to facilitating appropriate responses to emerging and complex marginalisation issues. The contexts in which projects are working are constantly changing, with several projects facing increasingly complex scenarios through the onset or escalation of crises related to violent conflict or environmental and health disasters which contribute to the fluidity of girls’ circumstances. An adaptive approach is being fostered in the next phase of the GEC through biannual Review and Adaptation meetings (RAMs) that will provide a forum to discuss findings from real time monitoring and use the data to improve and refine activities.

It can also prove worthwhile to include an element of flexible funding and research to better integrate learning, monitoring and evaluation into project cycle processes. Responsive project management systems should also consider ethics and monitoring for unintended consequences, including explicit opportunities to adapt programming when ethical concerns arise.

Some projects in the first phase of the GEC placed importance on evaluating continuously and adapting their strategy. The following are examples of how projects adapted their intervention, including their selection processes, and responded to girls’ needs as they learnt more about them.

- **Camfed Zimbabwe and Tanzania** facilitated a community-driven approach to selecting girls for the project but did not prescribe marginality indicators to selection committees. A review of the selection process found that beneficiaries met the local definitions of marginality and/or met Camfed’s criteria for marginality. Camfed disaggregated their cohort by key marginality factors and aggregated these to compare learning outcomes of marginalised and less marginalised girls.
- **The Vas-y-Fille project** in DRC adapted its scholarship policy to cover all girls in selected years in intervention schools due to the time and cost implications of implementing a more selective process, which had led to delays in the payment of scholarship fees and resulted in some girls being sent home from school for non-payment of fees. The project also reflected that the original process may also have excluded girls whose parents and guardians had low levels of literacy as some were unable to complete the application form.
- **Childhope Ethiopia** adapted interventions during the life of the project cycle as they became aware of girls with disabilities within their beneficiary group. They partnered with a local organisation specialising in learning and communication difficulties and provided teacher training on the identification of visible and invisible disabilities, models of addressing disabilities and how to educate others about disability. A core group of teachers were also trained in assessment for disabilities as this became a priority.
- **In Kenya**, WUSC found there was a need to revise its targeting process for remedial learning tutorials as they were over-subscribed and facilitators found it difficult to turn students away. They found unaccompanied children and children from child-headed households were struggling the most and, therefore, changed their selection criteria.
to include them. WUSC was initially concerned that its merit-based targeting criteria for its scholarship component was based on passing a primary level exam at a particular pass mark. However, the project reported that awareness of the scholarship motivated girls to study for the exam and many more girls than expected met the required criteria.

Lesson five: Retention strategies to prevent and respond to drop-out

Tracking drop-out patterns highlights whether a particular subgroup is being left behind. Having data and mechanisms that allow visibility of who is dropping out and why will reveal whether there is a pattern of drop-out for a particular context. When girls become pregnant for example, they may be expected to drop out of school, while girls who live a certain distance from school often drop out simply because the distance is too much to cope with.

- Childhope Ethiopia introduced a number of initiatives to track and support girls who had dropped out of school or were at risk of doing so. Firstly, they had an individualised tracking system that recorded all the girls’ details, including age, what interventions she received, her learning performance and attendance. Additionally, the project used volunteer students to respond to teachers’ identification of non-attendees. These volunteers visited girls at home and supported their return to school. A third element was a self-reporting “Letter Link” box where girls could report concerns ranging from difficulties within school to the threat of an arranged early marriage. The project committee developed a system for responding to all letters within a week. Whilst these approaches were focused and supportive, they presented sustainability challenges as the counsellors were covered by project budgets. In the next phase of GEC, the project is considering ways that these outreach responsibilities could be handed over to school and community members.

- IGATE Zimbabwe’s Mothers’ Groups involved male and female community members in tracking drop-out and conducting home visits with girls. Members adopted strategies to facilitate their return, including inviting them to Mothers’ Groups for support and facilitating negotiations with school authorities.

- STC (Save the Children) Mozambique also involved women’s groups in conducting home visits to encourage girls back to school and discuss key issues like early marriage, pregnancy and child protection.

6. Considerations for practitioners and policy makers

Recommendations for Practitioners

1. Comprehensive analysis of the intersecting characteristics and barriers that girls face even before they engage with education is crucial. Girls’ own agency in decision making around education should be included as a factor in this analysis. Girls sometimes express a desire to drop out of school, get a job or get married. This is challenging in some cases where poor quality of education and lack of job opportunities mean the value of
staying in school is unclear for communities. Strategies to support girls in informed decision making is explored further in the *Thematic Review on Extra-curricular and Co-curricular Interventions*.

- Undertake detailed gender and social inclusion analysis as part of project design and monitoring to understand inequalities and the potential to transform social norms which exclude certain groups.
- Partnering can be an effective way of tapping into the necessary skills to support subsets of girls. Seek out organisations with specialist knowledge and experience to partner with, for example, women’s rights organisations, child protection services, inclusive education specialists.
- Recognise that whilst community ownership of selection criteria for interventions such as bursaries is preferred, it may sometimes reproduce inequalities through selection bias. These mechanisms should be reviewed and where possible include strategies to avoid bias. Within their selection strategy projects should clearly communicate who they are supporting, why any sub-groups may be receiving additional support and whether other members of the community will also benefit.
- Include strategies to address stigma and ensure representation of marginalised groups in beneficiary selection, monitoring and design.

2. It is important to proactively design strategies to identify and target children who have been educationally marginalised, recognising that some children might be ‘invisible’ due to limited available data. Segmentation of cohorts and analysis of specific barriers for different groups might be a helpful way to approach targeting, and to support focused design in future. Allowing for inception and review periods post-baseline might also support deeper analysis and response to analysis of barriers and subgroups.

When reviewing project progress:

a. **Frequently review processes throughout the project lifecycle making use of new data** as the project’s understanding of marginalised groups is refined and new sub-groups are revealed. Community leadership, local activists and representatives of marginalised groups should be consulted as part of these reviews.

b. **Consider how barriers might change according to beneficiaries’ life stage** and plan interventions accordingly at project inception - this is particularly important when working with adolescent girls.

c. **Design flexible project management frameworks** to respond to emerging barriers and changing contexts (for example in conflict and emergencies) during the life of the project.

d. **Clarify processes** for incorporating data collection and analysis to inform project management and policy reform. Adopt mixed method (qualitative and quantitative) and participatory approaches wherever possible

e. **Ensure data disaggregation by age, sex, disability and location** is standard across all projects to provide an in-depth understanding of project dynamics and impact. Where possible, these factors should be expanded to include wider sustainable development goal (SDG) factors.

f. **Disaggregate outcome data (qualitative and quantitative) by sub-groups** to enable assessment of what works for whom (for example, young mothers; girls with certain impairments). Qualitative data should explore why and how interventions have assisted different groups in their educational achievement and which barriers remain/ have been overcome.
g. **Use common metrics** where appropriate so that they are comparable across contexts, for example the use of the Washington Group questions on disability.

**Recommendations for policy makers**

Addressing educational marginalisation is complex, often with multiple inter-related and self- and mutually-reinforcing barriers. The root causes of these barriers cannot be adequately addressed in short term programmes and the extension of the GEC into a second phase, enabling the same girls to be supported for up to 10 years, is a welcome opportunity to learn about what works.

**Research**

1. Further research on educational marginalisation would be useful in order to understand how various characteristics intersect and give rise to barriers and enablers which determine paths towards educational outcomes. Research to deepen understanding of inclusive approaches within education projects for a variety of excluded groups and individuals will help in the design of initiatives to reduce marginalisation. Particular emphasis needs to be put on child brides, children with disabilities, young mothers, and children who migrate (forced and temporary).

**Donor Approaches**

1. Commitment to the SDG aspiration for better data collection will help fill in the acknowledged gaps, and inform policy makers about patterns of successful inclusion within education for traditionally marginalised groups and individuals.
2. Adaptive approaches to grant and fund management are crucial to allow a deeper understanding of populations and the fluidity of marginalisation through the project cycle, and to promote responsiveness so that interventions can have the greatest impact.
3. Further exploration is needed into how funding mechanisms that include features such as Payment by Results interact with programming aspirations to reach highly marginalised populations.
4. Acknowledgement that projects benefit from having some flexibility within the project budget is important in order to empower projects to address emerging needs of populations or to respond to political or environmental factors that may have resulted in significant changes in status and movement of people in the project area.
References


Annexes

Annex 1: Theoretical approaches towards targeting educational marginalisation

Despite growing recognition of the need for a global equity agenda in development, there is little research into or evidence of approaches to targeting and addressing educational marginalisation in developing countries. Unterhalter et al. found in their comprehensive literature review that only a minority of studies had a specific focus on marginalised communities associated with poverty or other forms of exclusion, and very limited research and resources for interventions focused on changing social norms and promoting inclusion.

Nevertheless there are some promising models developed by other sectors which offer possible insights into how to target educational marginalisation. The disability sector’s shift in paradigm from an individual impairment based (medical/charity) understanding to one rooted in a rights based approach provides a useful basis for considering other educationally marginalised groups. Dominant approaches to programming for the educationally marginalised appear to focus on groups in isolation (an individual approach), without recognising their relationship to a wider society that has excluded them in the first place (rights based approach), something which the social model of disability seeks to address.

A critical challenge in targeting lies in how to approach the complex barriers that prevent inclusion. Within low resource settings where teachers lack training and support, the assumption is that it is only possible to deal with a limited number of barriers children or groups of children face. Current models of development often do not allow sufficient time or resources to effectively challenge the root causes of marginalisation (as described in the marginalisation framework), so interventions often focus on identifying and addressing the most common (or obvious) barriers. For example, bursaries or stipends are often prioritised (poverty being assumed to be a barrier to education), however this approach is rarely sustainable and does little to address the underlying causes of marginalisation. In effect, this approach is ‘needs based’ rather than ‘rights based’, since it does not address the underlying power imbalances that create the barriers the results are unlikely to be sustained. In some cases interventions are designed for a specific group and don’t address their inclusion within a wider geographic or social context. The diagram below illustrates how these different approaches to addressing educational marginalisation affect what kinds of programmes are developed:
Furthermore, projects face the challenge of demonstrating and measuring change quickly, and at low cost, which isn’t always compatible with more transformational approaches to changing attitudes and behaviours towards marginalised groups. Tackling educational marginalisation in a sustainable way requires attention being paid to uncovering and removing complex barriers. Whilst approaches to tackling these barriers need to be highly specific to context (e.g. in some context work with religious leaders is key, in others it may be working with women themselves who sustain norms) and difficult to scale, the process might be relevant to many contexts.

In a similar vein, interventions to address the exclusion of particular groups from the education system have to strike a difficult balance between planned versus responsive interventions. Croft (2010) conceptualises this by comparing the slope of a line between response versus planning as steeper or shallower or curvilinear depending on the context and available data, see Figure 3 below. Extrapolating her concept further, we can draw an example which might involve a project identifying high prevalence of non-speakers of the language of instruction and planning a response to this, compared with emerging barriers for smaller numbers of girls where a more responsive intervention would be required, for example increased incidence of early pregnancy which might require the introduction of childcare support. Looking at how this concept might apply too at different levels, Croft uses the example of prevalence of learners needing to use Braille is generally low in a particular context. Here, Braille textbook supply needs to be planned at regional or national level so that it can be drawn on as need arises by schools. This also highlights the need for project implementers to recognise not all interventions need to be developed by the projects at high cost – sometimes interventions aimed at reducing educational marginalisation may be as simple as sharing information with teachers and school management and creating linkages/putting into use existing resources or policies.
The gender integration discourse which focuses on moving interventions away from being ‘accommodating’ of power imbalances (effectively only addressing immediate need) to being more transformational (changing the social dynamics that sustain gender inequality in the first place), offers promising approaches in terms of process to addressing inequities more sustainably. These could also be used to address wider educational marginalisation. These approaches include providing educational role models from/within marginalised groups and raising aspirations, engaging marginalised community leaders in school management committees, creating linkages with minority and rights activists, supporting dialogue and engagement between majority/ dominant groups/ power holders (e.g. ministries of education/ local education governance representatives) and marginalised groups, and creating opportunities for marginalised groups to be involved in decision making.
Annex 2: Marginalisation Levels referred to in the GEC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marginalisation level</th>
<th>Targeting</th>
<th>Provision of education and support</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level 1: marginalised – Easier to reach</strong></td>
<td>The project is targeting girls generally rather than specific sub-groups with particular barriers, the project may use stipends or some other financial support to help those from poorer families.</td>
<td>Existing infrastructure and facilities are already available, but the project may need to work to make these more girl-friendly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Girls are at a lower risk of dropping out education (formal or non-formal), and are likely to make the proposed transition with minimal support if relatively simple interventions are made.)</td>
<td></td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level 2: marginalised – harder to reach</strong></td>
<td>The project may be targeting specific sub-groups of marginalised girls who will need some additional support.</td>
<td>The project may be operating in an environment with little or no existing educational provision, or where the existing provision excludes particular groups of girls. The project will need to make significant investments to make facilities available and consider barriers that may exist at system or community level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Girls are at considerable risk of dropping out of education (formal or non-formal), and are unlikely to make the proposed transition without considerable support)</td>
<td></td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level 3: extremely marginalised – hardest to reach</strong></td>
<td>The project may be targeting particular sub-groups of girls who face multiple forms of discrimination that mean they will need a more complex set of interventions to address their marginalisation</td>
<td>The project may be operating in an environment with little or no existing educational provision, or where the existing provision excludes particular groups of girls. The project will need to make significant investments to make facilities available as part of a response that will also address systemic change and barriers that exist at school, home or in the community. Detailed tracking systems need to monitor drop out and provide suitable remedial measures to sustain regular attendance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(These girls are at very high risk of dropping/ have already dropped out of education (formal or non-formal), and are highly unlikely to make the proposed transition without intensive support.)</td>
<td></td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annex 3: GEC Gender Equality and Social Inclusion (GESI) Minimum standards

1. A gender analysis of the context is conducted and used to inform the project’s final design and Theory of Change.
2. The logframe includes gender-sensitive and disability focused quantitative and qualitative indicators.
3. Bi-annual reporting includes reflections on i) progress towards meeting gender transformative standards (further guidance forthcoming), ii) to what extent activities identified and addressed barriers to inclusion and opportunities for participation for people with disabilities.
4. Monitoring and evaluation processes include and differentiate girls from a variety of sub groups, including those with disabilities, from the start of the project. This data should track girls’ experiences and whether interventions are responding to their needs.
5. A retention strategy that captures the reasons for girls’ drop-out from school and provides appropriate support to re-engage girls in response to the common issues is articulated in project activities.
6. Do no Harm, Child Protection and risk analyses are informed by a gender equality and social inclusion lens.
7. Sex, age and disability disaggregated data is collected and analysed at baseline, midline and endline.
8. Disability data differentiates between the type and severity of disability of beneficiaries.
9. The project is resourced with staff, partners and contractors who have appropriate gender and social inclusion expertise.
10. Lesson learning and sharing of best practice captures achievement towards i) gender equitable and transformative outcomes and ii) the inclusion and participation in planning, implementation and M&E of people with disabilities.
## Annex 4: GEC1 projects sub group targeting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th># projects who targeted each group in proposal/ design</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Out-of-school girls</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls at risk of drop out</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls with disabilities (GWD)</td>
<td>16 - 3 projects focused solely on targeting GWD (Viva, LCD and CSU)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Adolescent girls                           | 30:  
- EFM: 19  
- Pregnancy/ young mothers: 11  
- Transition to secondary school: 11                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                           |
| Ethnic, nomadic, caste groups, and forced migrants | 3 focused solely on a single marginalised groups:  
- Save the Children Ethiopia: Afar ethnic group, located in rural region  
- ChildFund Afghanistan: nomadic Kuchi community, located in conflict-affected regions  
- WUSC Kenya: refugees in Dadaab and Kakuma refugee camps in Northern Kenya  
Others, not solely focused on single marginalised group:  
- MercyCorps Nepal: Dalit and Janjati castes and sub castes  
- EGEP Somalia: IDPs, minority clans across three autonomous regions                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 |
| Other groups                                |  
- Orphans, child-headed households: 10  
- Sick parent/ husband: 1  
- Refugees, IDPs: 2  
- Geographical marginalisation (remote, rural, nomadic, migrants, slum dwelling): 18  
- Female headed households: 5  
- First generation learners: 1  
- Child labourers: 9  
- Sex workers: 5  
- Children affected by HIV: 5  
- Homeless/ street involvement: 2  
- Drug users: 1
The Girls' Education Challenge is a project funded by the UK's Department for International Development and is led and administered by PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP, working with organisations including FHI 360, Nathan Associates London Ltd. and Social Development Direct Ltd.

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