

GPE Country-level Evaluations - Synthesis Report

Financial Year 2018

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Executive Summary

Evaluation purpose and approach

This synthesis report is part of a larger study of the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) that comprises 28 country-level evaluations (CLE). It aims to assess (i) GPE contributions to strengthening national education systems and, ultimately, education results related to learning, equity, equality and inclusion; and hence (ii) the relevance, efficiency and effectiveness of GPE's theory of change and country-level operational model. CLEs are based on a theory-based, mixed social science research methodology known as contribution analysis.

This first synthesis report summarizes key findings and draws conclusions from the eight prospective evaluations that have commenced, and the seven summative evaluations that were completed during Financial Year 2018. The primary intended users of the synthesis report are the GPE Board and Secretariat. Secondary intended users are Developing Country Partner (DCP) governments and members of local education groups (LEGs) in the sampled countries.

The guiding frameworks for compilation of the synthesis report were (i) the evaluation matrix agreed in the assignment inception report and (ii) the generic country-level theory of change. The synthesis report uses elements of Qualitative Comparative Analysis to identify combinations of factors that are likely to have been critical to a given outcome in a given context. Due to the complex nature of the issues reviewed in the CLEs and strong variations in data availability and quality, the report does not claim to reliably identify which of the factors tested are necessary or sufficient to obtain envisaged results. Instead, the report points to (combinations of) factors that are *likely* to have facilitated or hindered results achievement.

At the time of compiling this first synthesis report, the eight prospective evaluations are still in their early stages. As such, they have not yet been able to track changes over time nor have they systematically assessed related GPE contributions. Most sections of this synthesis report therefore draw primarily upon findings deriving from the seven summative CLEs conducted in FY 2018, while indicating where emerging insights from the prospective evaluations (are likely to) support, nuance or refute these findings. The final synthesis report (to be compiled in FY 2020) will give equal attention to prospective and summative CLE findings.

Context

GPE operational model and country-level Theory of Change: The GPE country-level operational model is based on the core levers of (i) national sector planning cycles, (ii) education sector coordinating mechanisms, and (iii) financial support, all of which have to work together in ways appropriate and adapted to the respective context. GPE seeks to impact country-level processes in all three of these areas through levers that influence development cooperation and financing, and through its financial support. This is reflected in the GPE country-level theory of change developed for the country-level evaluations. The theory of change also highlights the central role played by sector plan implementation in furthering progress towards the ultimate GPE goals of strengthening learning outcomes and equity in education.

Diverse country contexts: The 15 countries that were reviewed through summative (blue) and prospective (green) country level evaluations during FY 2018 are shown below. In Pakistan, the evaluation focused on the two provinces of Sindh and Balochistan, while in Nigeria the focus was on the five states of Jigawa, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina and Sokoto.



The 15 countries constitute a highly diverse sample characterized by macro level differences (e.g., poverty levels and income status; federal versus unitary states; existence or absence of recent conflict – with 8 of the 15 countries currently considered Fragile and Conflict Affected), as well as by differences specific to the education sector (such as the size of the school-age population, structure of the education system, and capacities of the ministry/ministries responsible for education). Also, countries varied in the extent to which data was available especially on impact-level trends such as in relation to learning outcomes before and during the respective review periods. The diversity of country contexts constitutes the challenging backdrop against which the GPE operational model and country-level theory of change, and therefore the CLEs, are positioned. To illustrate this point, the table below summarizes some characteristics of the seven countries covered by summative CLEs, which are the focus of this first synthesis report.

COUNTRY	CLE REVIEW PERIOD	FRAGILE/ CONFLICT AFFECTED?	INCOME LEVEL (WORLD BANK FY 2018)	DATA AVAILABILITY	RELEVANT CONTEXTUAL CHANGES
Burkina Faso	2012-2017	No	Low	No functioning EMIS in place. Data on learning outcomes available only up to 2014.	Military coup in 2014

COUNTRY	CLE REVIEW PERIOD	FRAGILE/ CONFLICT AFFECTED?	INCOME LEVEL (WORLD BANK FY 2018)	DATA AVAILABILITY	RELEVANT CONTEXTUAL CHANGES
Cote d'Ivoire	2012-2017	Yes	Lower middle	No functioning EMIS in place. Some data on learning outcomes for part of review period.	Civil war 2002-2007; unrest in 2011
Guyana	2014-early 2018	No	Upper middle	EMIS exists but has limitations. No data on learning outcome trends.	/
Liberia	2010-2017	Yes	Low	EMIS in place. No data on learning outcome trends.	Ebola crisis (2014-2015)
Pakistan (Sindh and Balochistan)	2014-early 2018	Yes	Lower middle	EMIS exists but still has limitations. Data on learning outcome trends during part of review period available for Sindh.	/
Sierra Leone	2014-early 2018	Yes	Low	EMIS exists but has limitations. Some data on learning outcome trends available for part of review period.	Ebola crisis (2014-2015)
The Gambia	2014-early 2018	Yes	Low	EMIS in place. Data on learning outcome trends available for part of review period.	Political unrest (2016)

Overarching observations

Evidence of GPE contributions to positive country-level change is most evident in relation to strengthening education sector plan preparation processes, and more varied and generally weaker for other elements of the country-level theory of change. The least evidence was available for GPE contributions to more and better education sector financing. (This means that less evidence than for other dimensions was available to assess GPE contributions in this regard, but also that most existing evidence did not strongly support the assumption of such contributions). However, future CLEs conducted during FY 2019 and FY 2020 may provide more insights in this regard as they will be more likely to observe effects of the new GPE funding model, in particular the variable tranche and the multiplier mechanism. There is strong evidence of GPE contributions to education sector plan (ESP) implementation, albeit largely limited to those elements of the ESP directly supported through ESP implementation grants (ESPIG).

Validating the country-level theory of change 'higher up' in the results chain – i.e., in terms of likely links between ESP implementation and system-level change and links between system-level change and impact-level trends – proved to be challenging due to (i) frequent lack of specific data on overall ESP implementation; (ii) the relatively short periods covered by summative and prospective CLEs; and (iii) weaknesses in or lack of impact-level data on learning outcomes, enrollment, gender equality and equity etc..

Overall, CLE findings indicate that GPE's intent to simultaneously influence all main elements of the country-level policy cycle is difficult to achieve in practice. Weaknesses in education sector planning, sector dialogue and monitoring, and sector financing likely explain observed gaps in ESP implementation. At the same time, it is not always clear whether and to what extent improvements in/strengths of education sector planning, dialogue, monitoring or financing have been responsible for progress made in ESP implementation and/or subsequent system-level change.

Findings on sector planning

In most reviewed countries, sector planning improved during or before the respective review periods. Summative CLE findings and early evidence deriving from prospective CLEs consistently show that GPE, through both financial and non-financial types of support (especially quality assurance review processes and guidelines), has made notable contributions to helping countries develop systematic, comprehensive, and evidence-based sector plans and doing so in (largely) inclusive and participatory ways.

Despite improvements and despite being considered credible according to GPE/IIEP quality standards, **most reviewed education sector plans show weaknesses in terms of their achievability, limited prioritization of objectives, and varying degrees of attention to equity issues**, in particular to learners with special needs. Further, meeting GPE/IIEP quality standards and being considered credible by external appraisers and LEGs did not guarantee that a sector plan is actually relevant to, and used by, in-country stakeholders as a common and evolving reference document. This is reflected in often incomplete and fragmented ESP implementation.

It is difficult to capture to what extent and how GPE contributed to sustainably strengthening national capacity for education sector planning. This is partly because, until now, GPE has not sufficiently defined or systematically addressed the notion of strengthening national capacity (for planning and/or implementation).

Strategic questions for GPE:

Can a sector plan truly be considered 'credible' if it does not fully meet the quality criterion of being 'achievable'?

Should all ESP quality criteria continue to carry equal weight?

Does the GPE quality assurance review process for ESPs pay sufficient attention to ensuring that sector plans are appropriate and realistic in relation to the country's existing implementation capacity?

Findings on sector dialogue and monitoring

Sector dialogue improved in most of the countries reviewed by summative CLEs and is showing promising foundations in most prospective CLE countries. However, sustaining inclusive dialogue beyond the sector planning phase (in terms of frequency and stakeholder participation), and using this dialogue to ensure partner harmonization and inform ESP implementation remain common areas for improvement.

CLE findings further indicate that sector plan development processes (and related ESPIG application processes) create strong incentives for inclusive and participatory sector dialogue. However, sector dialogue often weakens once the ESP (and/or the related ESPIG) is approved.

Across countries, systematic monitoring of sector plan implementation faced challenges due to weaknesses in monitoring tools and mechanisms and/or their application. Joint sector reviews, if and when carried out, tend to focus on high-level objectives (without explicitly linking observed trends to specific progress made in implementing the current plan) and vary in the extent to which they provide concrete suggestions for how to improve ongoing ESP implementation, including how to ensure that all key sector actors rally behind and support ESP implementation through their financial and non-financial inputs. Progress reporting on ESPIG (co)-funded initiatives tends to focus on the respective project only, without making explicit links to whether and how related achievements contribute to achieving overall sector plan objectives.

Overall, summative and (to the extent that data are available) prospective evaluations found consistent evidence of GPE contributions to sector dialogue and monitoring, especially in encouraging mechanisms to be participatory and inclusive. GPE support has been less consistently influential with regard to ensuring that local education groups and joint sector reviews influence donor harmonization, sector financing, and systematic monitoring of overall ESP implementation. However, initial information deriving from prospective evaluations indicates potential positive effects on both sector dialogue and monitoring deriving from the new GPE financial model, in particular the variable tranche, as it provides an additional incentive for keeping track of sector plan implementation.

The CLEs for Cote d'Ivoire, DRC and Kenya raised questions about the extent to which the GPE operational model reflects principles of mutual accountability given that it provides limited means for developing country governments to hold grant agents accountable for their actions.

Strategic questions for GPE:

Can GPE support further strengthen the use of sector dialogue as a means to facilitate sector plan implementation including in relation to donor harmonization?

Should GPE do more to support the meaningful use of joint sector reviews as mutual accountability tools for sector plan implementation?

Is GPE 'walking the talk' of mutual accountability, i.e. is there sufficient accountability from the Secretariat and grant agents to DCP governments and other in-country stakeholders as regards the management of ESPIG funds?

Findings on sector financing

Overall, CLE findings indicate that observed trends in sector financing appear to have been affected primarily by factors beyond the immediate control of key education sector actors including the respective Ministry of Education. This can explain why, overall, CLEs found limited evidence of GPE influence on the amounts and quality of domestic and international education sector financing.

During the periods reviewed, domestic education financing increased in absolute terms in six of the seven summative CLE countries, usually as a result of general economic growth and/or of overall government budgets increasing in absolute terms. In three countries, education as a share of overall

domestic expenditures increased towards (Burkina Faso and Liberia,) or beyond the GPE target of 20 percent (Cote d'Ivoire), and three countries met or exceeded the GPE goal of allocating 20 percent of total expenditures to education (Cote d'Ivoire, Guyana, Sindh). The share of domestic financing allocated to primary education increased in two (Burkina Faso, Sindh), decreased in another two (Sierra Leone and Cote d'Ivoire), and remained stable in the remaining jurisdictions. Across countries, recurrent costs, especially for salaries, continued to constitute the vast majority (between 70 and 95 percent) of domestic government expenditures for education. Despite increases, available domestic sector financing remains low and insufficient to cover existing education sector needs (as identified in sector plans), with implementation funding gaps ranging from 19 percent (Burkina Faso) to 77 percent (Balochistan).

Trends in *international* education sector financing during the 2010-2016 period were positive overall, with relative and absolute amounts of education official development assistance (ODA) increasing in six and decreasing in only one country reviewed through summative CLE. However, buried within these positive trends are strong fluctuations of education ODA in three countries (Liberia, Sierra Leone, The Gambia) and the fact that, despite recent increases, education financing to Cote d'Ivoire has not yet reached pre-2010 levels.

Early financial data emerging from the *prospective* CLEs indicate that absolute amounts of domestic education expenditures are increasing across countries and that absolute amounts of and international sector financing are either stable or increasing in all but one country (Ethiopia). As they continue during FY 2019 and FY 2020, prospective evaluations will collect and analyze further financial data to identify trends and to assess whether and how GPE requirements and advocacy are contributing to changes.

In most of the 15 reviewed countries, international financing for the education sector has been channeled through project modalities either as stand-alone or co-financed projects, except for Burkina Faso, Ethiopia and Nepal where a pooled fund was in place. This likely contributed to fragmented ESP implementation and limited mutual accountability for sector results. This is despite the fact that by endorsing the respective ESP, development partners formally commit to supporting the plan's implementation.

While often modest in terms of overall sector needs, GPE ESPIGs constituted notable proportions of ESP implementation funding directed particularly to non-recurrent costs. They generally did not crowd out other international education sector financing. However, for small grant amounts, such as in The Gambia and Guyana, ESPIG application processes were incongruently complex and extensive. In the countries reviewed through summative CLE, only two out of eight ESPIG-funded initiatives were found to be fully aligned with government systems, with the remaining six initiatives being partly aligned. In the eight countries covered by prospective CLEs, which review more recent grants, the picture is slightly more balanced, with four ESPIGs being aligned and another four partly aligned.

There is some, albeit limited, indication that GPE advocacy and funding requirements may influence future financing decisions. Summative CLEs found no evident link between ongoing (GPE-supported) sector dialogue and monitoring and domestic (or international) sector financing trends. Instead, evaluations indicate that financing decisions are largely driven by factors such as competing (sub) sector priorities, the country's macroeconomic environment, contextual shocks or unrest, and political considerations. However, two prospective CLEs are indicating promising (future) effects of the GPE Multiplier on resource mobilization. Some CLEs further indicate that good (GPE-supported) sector planning may positively influence international financing by strengthening development partner trust in the respective DCP. These issues will be further explored in CLEs during FY 2019 and FY 2020.

Strategic questions for GPE:

Should GPE consider additional incentives for increased domestic education sector funding beyond those already introduced under the New Funding Model?

How can GPE strengthen its influence in relation to the alignment and harmonization of development partners' funding to education?

Can GPE do more to help ensure that LEGs (or equivalents) and Joint Sector Reviews critically review and help improve the quality of domestic and international sector financing on a regular basis?

Findings on sector plan implementation

Data on overall sector plan implementation is often incomplete, reflecting fragmented ESP implementation (i.e., ESPs implemented through various [mostly donor-funded] initiatives with varying degrees of coordination and gaps in sector monitoring). In most countries, no one, not even national governments, appears to assume responsibility for systematically monitoring overall ESP implementation progress. The resulting absence of data at activity and output levels often made it difficult for CLEs to precisely assess the extent to which overall sector plans had been implemented and with what results.

Where some data were available, they drew a picture of often fragmented ESP implementation. Unrealistic planning, insufficient funding and changes in the respective contexts were key factors that likely negatively affected ESP implementation. In addition, across countries, there are concerns about ministries of education capacity for sector plan implementation. These factors link back to the observation that the sector plans for 14 of the 15 reviewed countries had not met the quality criterion of being 'achievable'. This includes ESPs that had been developed post 2015 under the new GPE funding model (e.g. Ethiopia and Nepal). In addition, in DRC as the only country whose ESP was rated by the Secretariat as meeting the 'achievable' criterion, the respective CLE noted concerns over actually existing implementation capacity and clarity of plan objectives.

In most countries reviewed through summative CLEs, ESPIG (co-)funded projects contributed modestly to covering the total costs of overall ESP implementation but made notable contributions to specific sub-sectors and/or introduced innovative approaches and mechanisms. The number of thematic issues addressed by ESPIG-funded projects is neither proportional to ESPIG size nor does it appear to determine the perceived relevance of projects in the eyes of national stakeholders. The most commonly addressed thematic areas are related to Education Sector Management Information Systems (EMIS), followed by support to enhance the availability of teaching and learning materials, early childhood education, teacher management and in-service teacher training.

Innovative approaches introduced with support from ESPIG funding included: the introduction of 'gender neutral' or 'gender free' schools in Sindh and Balochistan; the extension of conditional payments to Koranic schools to provide alternative ways of accessing education for out-of-school populations in The Gambia; and a community approach to school construction in Cote d'Ivoire. In both Sierra Leone and Guyana, ESPIG (co-)funded projects made considerable contributions for pushing comprehensive reforms in relation to Early Childhood Education, and in almost all reviewed countries ESPIGs were used to help improve existing or emerging EMIS, albeit with varying degrees of visible results. Summative CLE findings on the likely sustainability of such innovations were positive in The Gambia, Balochistan and Sindh, where some formerly ESPIG (co-) financed interventions had been included in government budgets thereby

laying foundations for their continuation. Sustainability-related concerns were noted in Liberia and Sierra Leone due to the small geographic scale and lack of continued funding for ESPIG-supported innovations.

GPE financial and non-financial support to sector planning, dialogue and monitoring did not evidently contribute to assessing or addressing gaps in countries' implementation capacity. CLEs also found limited information on whether and how GPE Civil Society Education Fund grants to civil society organizations contributed to ESP implementation, except in The Gambia.

Strategic questions for GPE:

How robust is the overall GPE country-level theory of change if sector plan implementation remains largely dependent on the achievements of individual donor-funded projects?

What can GPE do more or differently to better support countries in analyzing and addressing gaps in their capacity to implement sector plans?

What is the value-added of GPE investments in sector planning, sector dialogue and monitoring processes if they do not consistently translate into comprehensive plan implementation?

Functioning of the GPE operational model

Summative and prospective CLEs had predominantly positive findings on the contributions of key GPE actors, but also noted areas for improvement deriving from how these roles are currently defined and realized. The latter included:

- Country lead: The expected role and value added of the Secretariat country lead during ESP implementation and monitoring is not well defined.
- Coordinating Agency: The absence of stipends/other forms of remuneration for agencies fulfilling the coordinating agency role was sometimes noted to likely limit the extent to which the coordinating agency can (or is willing to) fulfill its role given that it is also responsible for its own programs.
- Grant Agents: As per its terms of reference, the grant agent's role is currently focused on ensuring effective and efficient grant implementation. There is no explicit expectation for the grant agent to ensure, monitor and report upon whether and how grant (ESPIG) implementation supports overall sector plan implementation. This likely contributes to project-based and thus often fragmented plan implementation.

CLEs found that in-country stakeholder perceptions of and experiences with the GPE operational model differ from how this model is thought to work in theory. Specifically:

- Government, non-government and donor stakeholders tend to perceive the Secretariat as the only 'true' representative of GPE. In contrast, coordinating agencies and grant agents tend to be seen as development partners who happen to carry out selected tasks *for* GPE.
- Bilateral and multilateral donors in most countries tend to align their activities only broadly with the ESP and appear to take on limited responsibility (in their role as GPE members) for monitoring and reporting their achievements under the lens of ESP implementation. While in-country donor representatives are aware of their agency's membership in GPE, donors' country-level priorities and

modus operandi seem to be primarily (re-)focused on responding to political pressures requiring governments to justify ODA investments to their constituents.

In six of 15 countries, CLEs found indications that the application of the GPE operational model and related processes lacked context-specific adaptation or flexibility. In some contexts, this likely negatively affected national ownership of ESPs, while in others it may impede effective functioning of the GPE operational model in the future. Specific examples were:

- GPE insistence that a country allocate 45 percent of the total education budget to basic education; while the government and LEG considered 40 percent more appropriate and realistic
- In hiring a consultant for an external appraisal of the draft ESP, GPE insistence that the country choose a consultant trained in the GPE appraisal methodology, while the LEG preferred a candidate that it felt had better knowledge of the country and context but who was not willing to take the required GPE training
- Limited time for consultations for ESP development and for defining indicators for the variable tranche in order to meet GPE application deadlines (although countries chose which time window they use to submit their application)
- Challenges encountered when the GPE operational model had not been adapted to meet the specific needs of two federally structured countries, e.g. in relation to having only one GPE focal point located at the central, but none at the provincial/state levels.

Strategic questions for GPE:

What operational model, or adjustments to its existing model, would allow GPE to become a stronger, more continuous convening force on the ground? To what extent will the New Funding Model help with addressing current challenges?

What could facilitate partners at country level (in particular donors) reflecting the notion of ‘partnership’ more strongly in how they support ESP implementation and monitoring?

Which GPE processes and quality criteria could be applied with greater flexibility to adapt them to specific contexts? Which need to be the same for all countries?

How can GPE strengthen complementarity (or make existing complementarities more visible) between the GRA/CSEF and other types of GPE support to countries?

Progress towards stronger education systems and links to ESP implementation

Given that prospective CLEs are still in early stages, observations on system-level changes (this section) and impact-level changes (next section) largely derive from summative CLE findings.

Despite facing various challenges, all seven countries reviewed through summative CLEs made improvements that strengthened (or have the potential to strengthen) their education systems by removing barriers to education access, education quality and effective and efficient sector management. The scope of noted improvements ranges from ‘few and isolated’ in some countries to ‘comprehensive’ in others, where individual improvements are (beginning to) build on each other.

In relation to removing barriers to education access, the most consistent progress across countries was improving school infrastructure, and most countries introduced or expanded existing measures to bring out-of-school children into the education system. Limited progress was observed in removing barriers for learners with special needs. Countries varied in the extent to which they put in place new or improved mechanisms to promote gender equality in education. Other measures included lowering cost of education to families and improving access to early childhood education.

With regard to removing barriers to education quality, more progress has been made across countries in providing adequate numbers of qualified teachers than in increasing the availability of teaching and learning materials or applying updated, relevant curricula. In most countries, the pupil to (trained) teacher ratio improved. Most countries put in place new or improved programs for pre-service and in-service teacher training, but in most cases, it is too early to assess the effect on teaching quality. In-service training programs still tend to be fragmented, and graduates from teacher-training institutions sometimes struggle to find employment or are not assigned to teach in the areas in which they have been trained. Ensuring adequate, equitable and consistent access to teaching and learning materials remains a challenge across countries. While all seven countries reviewed had taken steps to improve their basic education curricula, progress has been limited. Focused efforts to ensure more equitable deployment of teachers were noted in only two countries (Cote d'Ivoire and The Gambia).

All summative CLEs noted at least some improvements in education sector management – including in relation to Education Management Information Systems. Some improvements in the respective MoE's ability to collect and/or analyze sector data were noted in all seven countries, e.g. due to training for relevant staff members. However, two of the seven countries do not yet have functioning EMIS in place despite the fact that in both countries the intent to strengthen information systems had been noted in either the ESPIG agreement or the sector plan for the review period. Key factors noted in several contexts that likely contributed to this included physical challenges of regularly collecting reliable data especially in remote areas; challenges to ensure adequate numbers of and technical capabilities of staff for data collection and entry; and challenges to obtain sufficient funds for sector monitoring activities.

At the time of the respective summative CLE, only three countries (Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, the Gambia) as well as Sindh province had quality learning assessment systems in place. Two other jurisdictions had taken steps to establish national learning assessment systems during the review period, but these had not yet produced any (Balochistan) or no comparable data over time (Sierra Leone). Other types of changes in the MoE's institutional capacity during the respective review periods were sporadic and not visibly derived from overarching strategies for organizational strengthening. In several countries, progress was made in strengthening the ownership of education reforms as well as related capabilities of stakeholders at regional, local/community levels (e.g. Sindh and Balochistan, Liberia, The Gambia, and Burkina Faso).

In many cases, ESP implementation may have contributed to (some of) the observed system-level improvements. However, this link is clear only in relation to those ESP elements that were implemented with GPE support. In other cases, available evidence leaves open the possibility that innovations put in place during the respective review period might also have occurred without a comprehensive ESP in place, e.g. if they derived from donor-funded projects that were not visibly informed by the ESP or from local efforts and drivers.

Strategic questions for GPE:

Does GPE have sufficiently robust feedback mechanisms and capacity to not only monitor system-level trends, but also to use insights to review its operational model and theory of change?

Given that many countries still face substantial challenges in ensuring quality basic education in general, how realistic is it to expect their education systems to meet specific learning needs such as for children with cognitive and/or physical disabilities in the short term?

Progress towards stronger learning outcomes and equity

Missing, incomplete and sometimes unreliable data make it difficult to identify and compare patterns of progress made in learning outcomes and equity both within and across reviewed countries. Where available, data provide a mixed picture of progress before and during (parts of) the respective review periods in the seven summative CLE countries.

- The limited available data on basic education learning outcome trends before and up until (parts of) the respective review periods indicate modest improvements in The Gambia and in Sindh as measured by national learning assessments at pre-primary and primary levels. For other countries, no time-series data on learning outcomes covering even parts of the respective review periods were available.
- During the review periods, basic education completion rates improved in five and declined in one jurisdiction. No (recent) data were available for Liberia and Guyana.
- Out-of-school rates declined in three countries but increased in three other jurisdictions. No data available for Guyana and Balochistan.
- Gender parity among out-of-school children improved (in two cases marginally or partially) in three jurisdictions (Burkina Faso, Liberia and the Gambia) but worsened in another two (Sierra Leone and Cote d'Ivoire), while no related data were available for Balochistan, Sindh and Guyana.
- The pre-primary gross enrollment rate improved in four countries and declined in one. No data available for Guyana, Sindh and Balochistan.

Despite various improvements, significant inequities based on learners' income level, geographic location (rural versus urban) and, albeit not consistently, gender remain across countries.

There is insufficient data across reviewed countries to make evidence-based claims on links between system-level changes that occurred during the review periods and impact-level trends. This is due to three main reasons:

- The likely time-lag between system-level change and improvements in learning outcomes and/or equity, combined with the fact that impact-level data usually become available only with a two to three-year delay. As such, available data on trends in learning outcomes and equity covered only parts of the respective review periods and likely reflected the effects of changes that had been set in motion either prior to or in the earlier part of these review periods.
- The limited scope of system-level improvements made during the review period (e.g., pilot initiatives that covered only a limited number of schools or regions)

- Limitations in data quality, especially of historic sector data, meaning that available information may not fully reflect actual trends.

Conclusions and suggestions for GPE's consideration

CLEs conducted in FY 2018 highlight strengths and positive effects of GPE support to countries, while raising several questions about the extent to which the GPE operational model and country-level theory of change function in practice. These are reflected in the following conclusions and suggestions for consideration by the intended primary users of this report, namely the GPE Board and the Secretariat.

Conclusion 1: GPE has been much more successful at improving education sector planning processes than at influencing sector plan implementation and monitoring.

Related suggestions:

1.1 The GPE Secretariat, in consultation with the Board, may want to consider giving elevated priority to the ESP quality criterion of being 'achievable'; i.e. a sector plan that is not likely to be achievable should not be considered as being 'credible'. This could include providing more support to country governments to develop short-term action plans to facilitate ESP implementation.

1.2 GPE guidelines and quality assurance processes should pay more attention to what types of capacities are needed to ensure effective ESP implementation (including monitoring of implementation), and what ways there are to analyze and strengthen such capacity.

Conclusion 2: Neither development partners nor GPE Grant Agents actions consistently exemplify the notion of mutual accountability for sector progress through ESP implementation.

Related suggestions:

2.1 The Board could discuss whether GPE could provide country-level incentives for (or link existing incentives to) using joint sector reviews as meaningful tools to monitor and improve sector plan implementation.

2.2 The Board should discuss and make practical suggestions for how GPE can hold individual (donor) members at the country level more accountable for the quality of their education sector financing and in relation to aligning implementation and monitoring of their own initiatives with the overarching objectives and targets of ESPs. Related measures could include individual annual reports from GPE donor members to the Board on how they have handled their bilateral support to countries in terms of alignment with the respective ESP.

2.3 The Board may want to consider whether to suggest that sector plans should include specific proposals for how development partners need to adapt their financial and technical support to best support ESP/TEP implementation. In this context, the Board should also discuss whether GPE can do more to push for/support the establishment and use of pooled funding mechanisms in contexts where these do not yet exist.

2.4 At country level, the Secretariat may want to advise local education groups (including coordinating agencies) to develop and monitor clear expectations of what endorsing an ESP should mean in terms of development partners' aligning their own work with the plan.

2.5 The Secretariat could review the GPE operational model, especially grant agent terms of reference to determine whether these actors' accountability vis-à-vis DCP governments can be strengthened and/or clarified.

Conclusion 3: GPE's contributions to sector plan implementation are evident mostly in thematic areas directly addressed through ESPIG funding. This is important in view of the country level theory of change, which had assumed stronger linkages between sector plan implementation on the one hand and GPE contributions to sector planning, sector dialogue and monitoring, and sector financing on the other hand.

Related suggestions:

3.1 The Secretariat should explore how the GPE operational model could be strengthened to help ensure that sector dialogue and monitoring (through joint sector reviews) informs overall ESP implementation.

3.2 The Secretariat should closely follow whether monitoring of indicators related to the variable tranche leads to stronger involvement of relevant actors in overall ESP monitoring, or whether related efforts are limited to GPE-funded elements and, if so, with what effects.

Conclusion 4: There is room for further increasing the flexibility of GPE approaches to avoid negative effects of a 'one size fits all' model.

Related suggestions:

4.1 The Secretariat should continue its efforts aimed at ensuring that the GPE operational model and the application of GPE quality assurance processes are sufficiently adaptable to different country contexts. While some requirements (such as ESPIG application timelines) may have to be the same across countries to ensure fairness, objectivity and transparency of processes, others may lend themselves to more flexible application, especially in terms of fostering country ownership. Where applying common standards and/or processes is deemed essential, the Secretariat may want to explore whether it can do more to communicate the reasons and benefits of this decision to country stakeholders.

4.2 The Secretariat should consider whether ESP-related quality standards could be adjusted to allow greater flexibility in terms of *when* different countries are likely to achieve progress in different areas. This reflects the question of whether all ESPs can realistically be expected to be both comprehensive and achievable at the same time.

These conclusions and suggestions reflect information and insights available at this stage of the CLE assignment. During FY 2019 and FY 2020, the noted issues will be further explored in continuing prospective CLEs and in upcoming summative CLEs. The final synthesis report (envisaged to be completed by March 2020) will formulate formal recommendations to GPE.

Acronyms

AFD	Agence Française de Développement
AfDB	African Development Bank
BRIC	Brazil, Russia, India, China
CA	Coordinating Agency
CCM	Coordinating Committee Meetings
CEQ	Country Evaluation Question
CLE	Country-level Evaluation
CSEF	Civil Society Education Fund
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DCP	Developing Country Partner
DFID	Department for International Development (UK)
DP	Development Partner
ECD	Early Childhood Development
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EFA	Education for All
EGMA	Early Grades Math Assessment
EGRA	Early Grades Reading Assessment
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ESP	Education Sector Plan
ESPDG	Education Sector Plan Development Grant
ESPIG	Education Sector Plan Implementation Grant
EU	European Union
FCAC	Fragile/Conflict Affected Country
FTI	Fast Track Initiative

GA	Grant Agent
GER	Gross Enrollment Rate
GNI	Gross National Income
GPE	Global Partnership for Education
GRA	Global and Regional Activities Program
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
JSR	Joint Sector Review
KQ	Key Question
LEG	Local Education Group
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MoE	Ministry of Education
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
QCA	Qualitative Comparative Analysis
TEP	Transitional Education Plan
ToC	Theory of change
ToR	Terms of Reference
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
US\$	United States dollar
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Programme

Terminology

Alignment	Basing support on partner countries' national development strategies, institutions and procedures. ¹
Basic education	Pre-primary (before Grade 1), primary (Grades 1-6), lower secondary (Grades 7-9), and adult literacy education in formal and non-formal settings. This corresponds to International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 2011 levels 0-2.
Capacity	In the context of this evaluation we understand capacity as the foundation for behavior change in individuals, groups or institutions. Capacity encompasses the three interrelated dimensions of <i>motivation</i> (political will, social norms, habitual processes), <i>opportunity</i> (factors outside of individuals e.g., resources, enabling environment) and <i>capabilities</i> (knowledge, skills). ²
Education Management and Information System (EMIS)	A system for the collection, integration, processing, maintenance and dissemination of data and information to support decision-making, policy-analysis and formulation, planning, monitoring and management at all levels of an education system. It is a system of people, technology, models, methods, processes, procedures, rules and regulations that function together to provide education leaders, decision-makers and managers at all levels with a comprehensive and integrated set of relevant, reliable, unambiguous and timely data and information to support them in fulfilling their responsibilities. ³
Education systems	Collections of institutions, actions and processes that affect the educational status of citizens in the short and long run. ⁴ Education systems are made up of a large number of actors (teachers, parents, politicians, bureaucrats, civil society organizations) interacting with each other in different institutions (schools, ministry departments) for different reasons (developing curriculums, monitoring school performance, managing teachers). All these interactions are governed by rules, beliefs, and behavioral norms that affect how actors react and adapt to changes in the system. ⁵

¹ OECD, Glossary of Aid Effectiveness Terms.

<http://www.oecd.org/dac/effectiveness/aideffectivenessglossary.htm>. GPE understands 'country systems' to relate to a set of seven dimensions: Plan, Budget, Treasury, Procurement, Accounting, Audit and Report. Source: Methodology Sheet for Global Partnership for Education (GPE) Indicators. Indicator (29) Proportion of GPE grants aligned to national systems.

² Mayne, John. *The COM-B Theory of Change Model*. Working paper. February 2017

³ GPE 2020 Results Framework Indicator 20 Methodology Sheet.

⁴ Moore, Mark. 2015. Creating Efficient, Effective, and Just Educational Systems through Multi-Sector Strategies of Reform. RISE Working Paper 15/004, Research on Improving Systems of Education, Blavatnik School of Government, Oxford University, Oxford, U.K.

⁵ World Bank. 2003. World Development Report 2004: Making Services Work for Poor People. Washington, DC: World Bank; New York: Oxford University Press.

Equity	In the context of education, equity refers to securing all children's rights to education, and their rights within and through education to realize their potential and aspirations. It requires implementing and institutionalizing arrangements that help ensure all children can achieve these aims. ⁶
Financial additionality	This incorporates two not mutually exclusive components: (a) an increase in the total amount of funds available for a given educational purpose, without the substitution or redistribution of existing resources; and (b) positive change in the quality of funding (e.g., predictability of aid, use of pooled funding mechanisms, co-financing, non-traditional financing sources, alignment with national priorities).
Gender equality	The equal rights, responsibilities, and opportunities of women, men, girls, and boys, and equal power to shape their own lives and contribute to society. It encompasses the narrower concept of gender equity, which primarily concerns fairness and justice regarding benefits and needs. ⁷
Harmonization	The degree of coordination between technical and financial partners in how they structure their external assistance (e.g., pooled funds, shared financial or procurement processes), to present a common and simplified interface for developing country partners. The aim of harmonization is to reduce transaction costs and increase the effectiveness of the assistance provided by reducing demands on recipient countries to meet with different donors' reporting processes and procedures, along with uncoordinated country analytic work and missions. ⁸
Inclusion	Adequately responding to the diversity of needs among all learners, through increasing participation in learning, cultures, and communities, and reducing exclusion from and within education. ⁹

⁶ Equity and Inclusion in Education. A guide to support education sector plan preparation, revision and appraisal. GPE 2010; p.3. Available at:

file:///C:/Users/anett/AppData/Local/Packages/Microsoft.MicrosoftEdge_8wekyb3d8bbwe/TempState/Downloads/2010-04-GPE-Equity-and-Inclusion-Guide.pdf

⁷ GPE Gender Equality Policy and Strategy 2016-2020. GPE 2016, p. 5f. Available at:

<http://www.globalpartnership.org/sites/default/files/2016-06-gpe-gender-equality-policy-strategy.pdf>

⁸ Adapted from OECD, Glossary of Aid Effectiveness Terms

<http://www.oecd.org/dac/effectiveness/aideffectivenessglossary.htm>, and from Methodology Sheet for Global Partnership for Education (GPE) Indicators. Indicator (30) Proportion of GPE grants using: (a) co-financed project or (b) sector pooled funding mechanisms.

⁹ GPE 2010, p.3.

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1 Introduction and Context

1.1 Background and purpose of the FY 2018 synthesis report

1. The Global Partnership for Education (GPE) is a multilateral global partnership and funding platform established in 2002 as the Education for All Fast Track Initiative (EFA/FTI) and renamed GPE in 2011. GPE aims to strengthen education systems in developing countries, in order to ensure improved and more equitable student learning outcomes, as well as improved equity, gender equality and inclusion in education.¹⁰ GPE brings together developing countries, donor countries, international organizations, civil society, teacher organizations, the private sector and foundations.
2. GPE's monitoring and evaluation (M&E) strategy 2016-2020 calls for a linked set of evaluation studies to explore how well GPE outputs and activities contribute to outcomes and impact¹¹ at the country level. To this end, during its financial years FY 2018 - FY 2020, GPE is conducting 20 summative and eight prospective country-level evaluations (CLE). Summative evaluations are conducted at or around the time of GPE Education Sector Plan Implementation Grant (ESPIG) completion in a country, while prospective evaluations will follow GPE's activities and programs from 2017 up until 2019 to provide a continuous review of the effectiveness of GPE's operational model in the respective countries.
3. This first synthesis report summarizes key insights and draws conclusions from the eight prospective evaluations that have commenced,¹² and the seven summative evaluations¹³ that were completed during the period January– June 2018. The purpose of the synthesis report is to combine, compare and contrast findings deriving from individual country evaluations in order to identify commonalities and differences across countries as well as likely (combinations of) contributing factors. The primary intended users of the report are the GPE Board and Secretariat. Secondary intended users are Developing Country Partner (DCP) governments and members of local education groups (LEGs) in the sampled countries. Tertiary intended users include the wider education community at global and country levels.

¹⁰ Global Partnership for Education (2016): GPE 2020. Improving learning and equity through stronger education systems.

¹¹ In the context of this assignment, the term 'impact' is aligned with the terminology used by GPE to refer to sector level changes in the areas of learning, equity, gender equality and inclusion (reflected in GPE Strategic Goals 1 and 2 described in the GPE 2016-2020 Strategic Plan). While the country evaluations examine progress towards impact in this sense, they do not constitute formal impact evaluations, which usually entail counterfactual analysis based on randomized control trials.

¹² Countries reviewed through prospective CLEs are: the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Nepal, Nigeria and Zimbabwe.

¹³ Countries reviewed through summative CLEs were: Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Guyana, Liberia, Pakistan, Sierra Leone and The Gambia.

1.2 Methodology

Overview

4. This report presents a synthesis of key CLE findings related to the following three ‘Key Questions’ (KQs) from this assignment’s evaluation matrix as described in the January 2018 inception report. The matrix is included as Appendix I.

- 1) Has GPE support to [country] contributed to achieving country-level objectives related to sector planning, sector plan implementation, sector dialogue and monitoring, and more/better financing for education? If so, then how?
- 2) Has sector plan implementation contributed to making the overall education system in [country] more effective and efficient?¹⁴
- 3) Have changes at education system level contributed to progress towards impact (changes in learning outcomes, equity, gender equality and inclusion)?

5. The guiding frameworks for compilation of the synthesis report were (i) the evaluation matrix that had been agreed in the assignment inception report (Appendix I); and (ii) the generic country-level theory of change (ToC) shown in section 1.4 and elaborated on in Appendix II. The application of both frameworks was informed by lessons learned during the first year of the assignment.

Box 1.1 – Rationale for choosing Thematic Analysis

As noted in the assignment inception report, the evaluation team had originally intended to use Qualitative Comparative Analysis (QCA) to identify different combinations of factors that are necessary or sufficient to obtain envisaged results in a given context.¹⁵ Applying QCA requires the ability to isolate a limited number of likely factors that can explain why a specific change has or has not occurred. However, the situations and processes assessed in the CLEs for this report present (i) many plausible factors and a very large set of combinations;¹⁶ and (ii) not one, but several complex, often emergent and intertwined change processes.¹⁷

Thematic Analysis was chosen as a suitable alternative approach as it allows to identify emerging themes and patterns across cases as well as (combinations of) factors likely to have affected results.

¹⁴ The evaluation team understands ‘education systems’ as collections of institutions, actions and processes that affect the educational status of citizens. Systems are made up of many actors (teachers, parents, politicians, bureaucrats, civil society organizations) interacting with each other in different institutions (schools, ministry departments) for different reasons (developing curriculums, monitoring school performance, managing teachers). All these interactions are governed by rules, beliefs and behavioral norms. Reflecting this broad definition, ‘system level changes’ in the CLEs refer both to issues addressed under Strategic Goal #3 as outlined in the GPE 2020 results framework, but also to additional country-specific indicators related to removing barriers to education access, quality and sector management.

¹⁵ For information on QCA, see, for example: Baptist, C. and Befani, B. (2015): Qualitative Comparative Analysis: A Rigorous Qualitative Method for Assessing Impact. Available at: <http://www.coffey.com/assets/Ingenuity/Qualitative-Comparative-Analysis-June-2015.pdf>.

¹⁶ See section 1.5 and Appendix III for details on diverse country contexts.

¹⁷ In addition, in some countries (such as Pakistan and Nigeria), the unit of analysis was complex, given that both federal and state-level systems shared responsibilities for the education sector.

6. The synthesis report uses Thematic Analysis¹⁸ to identify and systemize patterns across individual country cases. See Box 1.1. To this end, in a first step, findings and supporting information provided in individual CLE reports were coded according to categories derived from the (sub-)questions and indicators in the country-level evaluation matrix.¹⁹ In a second step, the sorted data were reviewed to identify emerging themes or patterns, including the existence of ‘outliers’, e.g. areas in which findings for one or few CLEs positively or negatively differed from those of most others. Thirdly, once themes/patterns were identified, the evaluation team reviewed (combinations of) key factors to establish which ones were likely to have facilitated or hindered results achievement.²⁰ The main factors explored in this regard were:

- The underlying assumptions related to the contribution claims in the GPE theory of change²¹ and the extent to which these did or did not hold in the different countries (as stated in CLE reports)
- The duration and nature of countries’ GPE membership (e.g., size and types of past, current, and expected future GPE grants)
- Country contextual characteristics, including income status, categorization or not as fragile/conflict affected country (FCAC), presence or absence of significant shocks (political changes, health crises, natural disasters), as well as qualitative indicators such as the extent to which the country has a history and tradition of inclusive and participatory education sector processes, or Ministry of Education technical capabilities and leadership.

7. The results of this analysis are captured in explicit findings each of which is accompanied by a summary of the supporting evidence including information on which specific countries a particular observation related to. The report compares and notes differences between countries and, to the extent possible, formulates hypothesis over likely reasons for observed variances.

Color coding scheme used throughout the report

8. Throughout the synthesis report, we use tables to provide readers with broad overviews of key CLE findings on the respective issue. To facilitate quick orientation, we use a simple color-coding scheme that is based on a three-category scale as shown in Figure 1.1. The color coding is intended as a qualitative orientation tool for readers rather than as a quantifiable measure. Its basic logic as a three-level rating scale is applied consistently, but the specific meaning of the colors varies slightly depending on the issue being discussed. For example, while in some places it illustrates a scale from ‘strong’ over ‘moderate’ to ‘low’ (e.g. likelihood of GPE contributions to observed changes), in other cases the relevant scale is

¹⁸ See, Alert J. Mills, Gabrielle Durepos and Elden Weibe. 2010. *Encyclopaedia of Case Study Research; Thematic Analysis*. Sage Publications.

¹⁹ For example, in relation to country-level evaluation questions GPE contributions to sector planning, CLE findings and supporting evidence were first organized along the broad categories of (i) strengths/weaknesses of sector plan preparation and (ii) GPE contribution to sector planning. Within each of these broad categories, data was then coded according to specific sub-issues addressed in the evaluation matrix as well as by issues emerging from the CLE findings, such as (for strengths/weaknesses of ESP preparation) extent to which final ESP met GPE quality standards, degree of DCP government leadership and ownership; degree to which ESP development was participatory and inclusive (and which, if any, specific groups had not been sufficiently included), but also information on whether CLEs found that stakeholders later actually used the sector plan as a common reference point.

²⁰ And/or to explain the absence of differences, e.g. in cases where all/most CLEs presented similar findings across the very diverse contexts.

²¹ Contribution claims are hypotheses about GPE’s intended contributions to change – logically derived from GPE’s 2016-2020 results framework and theory of change – that are being tested and validated in this study. See Appendix II. The respective contribution claim discussed is also named at the beginning of chapters/subsections 3-5.

‘achieved – partly achieved – not achieved’ (e.g. in relation to whether countries have met the objective of developing a credible sector plan).

Figure 1.1 Color coding

Green indicates ‘strong/high/achieved’ ²²	Amber indicates ‘moderate/medium/partly achieved’	Red signifies ‘low/weak/not achieved’	Grey indicates a lack of data
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Data sources

9. Individual summative and prospective CLEs drew upon a wide range of primary and secondary data, including (i) relevant documents from the Secretariat, GPE Grant Agents (GA) and Coordinating Agencies (CA), developing country partner (DCP) governments and development partners; (ii) UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and OECD databases; (iii) selected literature relevant to specific aspects of improving education systems; (iv) consultations with a wide range of stakeholders including from the GPE Secretariat, DCP governments, LEG members, other development partners (including CA and GA) and civil society organizations, and school-level stakeholders (teachers, principals, parent-teacher associations).

10. This synthesis report primarily draws upon the summative and prospective evaluation reports,²³ each of which is based on and provides references to the various specific data sources on which the respective analysis is based. To facilitate readability (and keep the number of footnotes within a reasonable limit), this synthesis report does not provide original data sources for reported country trends. Readers interested in exploring specific information in more depth are encouraged to consult the CLE report(s) for the respective country.

Limitations

11. The compilation of this first synthesis report faced the following limitations:

- At the point of compiling this first synthesis report, the eight prospective evaluations are still in their early stages. As such, they have not yet been able to track changes over time nor have they systematically assessed GPE contributions to such changes. Most sections of this synthesis report therefore primarily draw upon findings deriving from the seven summative CLE that have been completed to date while indicating where emerging insights from the prospective evaluations (are likely to) support, nuance or refute these findings. Throughout the report, where applicable, we indicate whether specific observations derive from only summative or prospective, or from both types of CLE. The next synthesis report envisaged to be completed by March 2020 will give equal attention to both types of CLE given that prospective evaluations will have been able to look back at a longer period.²⁴
- While all CLEs addressed the same evaluation questions and indicators, evaluation reports slightly varied in the level of detail provided on different issues – sometimes due to differences

²² In each case, the specific meaning of the chosen color coding is clarified.

²³ Final evaluation reports in case of summative CLE, and baseline reports as well as first annual reports for the prospective CLE. The synthesis report also reflects discussions of these reports held during the FY 2018 learning workshop that took place in July 2018.

²⁴ Final prospective CLE reports compiled during FY 2019 and FY 2020 will have had the opportunity to assess a longer period of time and elaborate explicit findings. In addition, as of FY 2019, summative and prospective CLEs will use the same report outline, which will facilitate synthesizing and comparing data between countries.

in the types of data available in the country context.²⁵ This sometimes made it difficult to synthesize and compare data across countries. To mitigate this limitation, the evaluation team sometimes adjusted (e.g. broadened or reformulated) individual categories used to compare countries in order to capture information from as many countries as possible.²⁶ Where applicable the synthesis report clearly identifies data gaps and differences in the types of available data.

- The relatively short time-periods covered by the CLEs largely prevented drawing evidence-based conclusions about likely links between ESP implementation and related system-level improvements on the one hand, and impact-level trends in terms of learning outcomes and equity on the other hand. This is due to (i) the time lag between system-level changes and resulting improvements in impact-level trends and (ii) the fact that impact level data typically only becomes available at least two years after the fact. This meant that in most cases available impact-level data covered only the years before, or partway through, the respective review period, and that they likely reflected the effects of changes that had begun prior to that review period. An additional challenge derived from the fact that in many countries system and/or impact level data were either missing or were not fully reliable e.g. due to the fact that data such as on enrollment rates, out of school children or pupil/teacher ratios did not always take into account learners enrolled in private/faith-based or community institutions. Resulting limitations to drawing conclusions about related elements in the country-level theory of change are explicitly highlighted in this report.
- The Secretariat had expressed interest in the synthesis report establishing preliminary hypotheses on differences in results achievement between fragile and conflict affected (FCAC) versus non FCAC countries. The small size and the composition of the country sample explored during FY 2019 prevented this, however, given that 10 of the 15 reviewed countries are classified as FCAC, while the remaining five countries that are non-FCACs²⁷ differ significantly, e.g. in their size (see Appendix III). The evaluation team will continue to explore the potential effects of the FCAC classification, as well as other contextual characteristics, during CLEs in FY 2019 and FY 2020.

1.3 Structure of the report

12. The report is structured into six chapters. Following this introduction, **Chapter 2** comments on the GPE country-level theory of change (ToC) as well as on the diverse country contexts in which the CLEs have taken place. **Chapter 3** reflects on GPE contributions to sector planning, mutual accountability²⁸

²⁵ To give just one example: while all summative CLEs commented on the share of private education providers in the respective country, some CLEs illustrate this by providing data on the percentage of pupils enrolled in public versus private institutions, while other CLEs do so by commenting on the percentage of public versus private schools.

²⁶ For example, in chapter 4 on system level change, the synthesis report deliberately introduced broad categories such as 'changes in MoE capacity in areas other than data collection/analysis' in order to capture a variety of specific improvements observed in different countries. This allowed highlighting a commonality between countries, namely that improvements in Ministry of Education capacity had been isolated and fragmented in most countries.

²⁷ Kenya, Malawi, Nepal, Burkina Faso and Guyana.

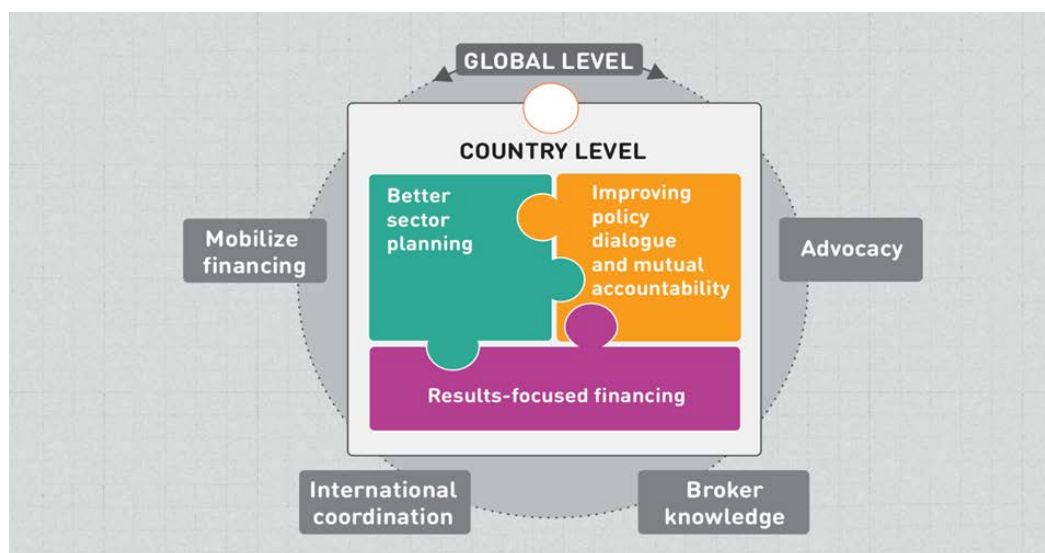
²⁸ The notion of 'mutual accountability' for education sector results is based on the understanding that that while the main responsibility for improved education outcomes lies with the government, development partners are accountable for the provision of financial and technical support, and CSOs as well as private sector partners and

through sector dialogue and monitoring, sector financing, and sector plan implementation. It also provides cross-cutting observations on the GPE operational model and country-level ToC. **Chapter 4** summarizes CLE findings on system-level changes achieved in the reviewed countries during the respective review periods and on likely links between these changes and sector plan implementation. **Chapter 5** provides an overview of impact-level trends in the reviewed countries and possible links of these trends to the noted changes in the national education systems during the review periods. The final **Chapter 6**, building on key messages and strategic questions raised in the previous chapters, formulates overarching conclusions and related suggestions for GPE's consideration.

1.4 GPE country-level operational model and theory of change

13. As reflected in the GPE 2020 (overall) theory of change,²⁹ the GPE country-level operational model is based on the core levers of (i) education sector planning, (ii) mutual accountability through effective and inclusive sector policy dialogue and monitoring, (iii) and sector plan implementation, all of which have to work together in ways appropriate and adapted to the respective contexts. GPE seeks to impact country-level processes and/or structures in all three of these areas through levers that influence development cooperation and financing and through its financial support. Global level efforts related to mobilizing more and better sector financing, advocacy, international coordination and knowledge brokering further aim to support and facilitate country-level processes.³⁰ This is reflected in Figure 1.2 below.

Figure 1.2 GPE at country and global levels³¹



other non-government stakeholders for providing a constructive challenging function. These different stakeholders need to hold each other to account for adequately fulfilling their respective roles. For more information see: <https://www.globalpartnership.org/content/key-takeaways-effective-joint-sector-reviews-mutual-accountability-platforms>.

²⁹ Available at <https://www.globalpartnership.org/content/gpe-2020-theory-change>

³⁰ Sources: (1) GPE (undated): GPE 2020. Power Point Presentation. (2) GPE. *Country-level Process Guide. An overview*. GPE, 2017. (3) GPE 2020 Theory of Change.

³¹ Adapted from: Global Partnership for Education. *GPE 2020. Improving learning and equity through stronger education systems*. Power Point Presentation. GPE 2017.

14. The (generic) GPE country-level theory of change for the present country-level evaluation work that is presented in Figure 1.2 was developed by the evaluation team in consultation with the Secretariat to guide the summative and prospective CLEs. It reflects – in a simplified manner – core elements of the GPE operational model and illustrates how different elements in this model are envisaged to work together to affect change. The ToC highlights the central role played by sector plan implementation in furthering progress towards the GPE goals of strengthening education systems and, ultimately, learning outcomes and equity in education. For each CLE, the generic country-level ToC was adapted to reflect specific characteristics of the respective context.

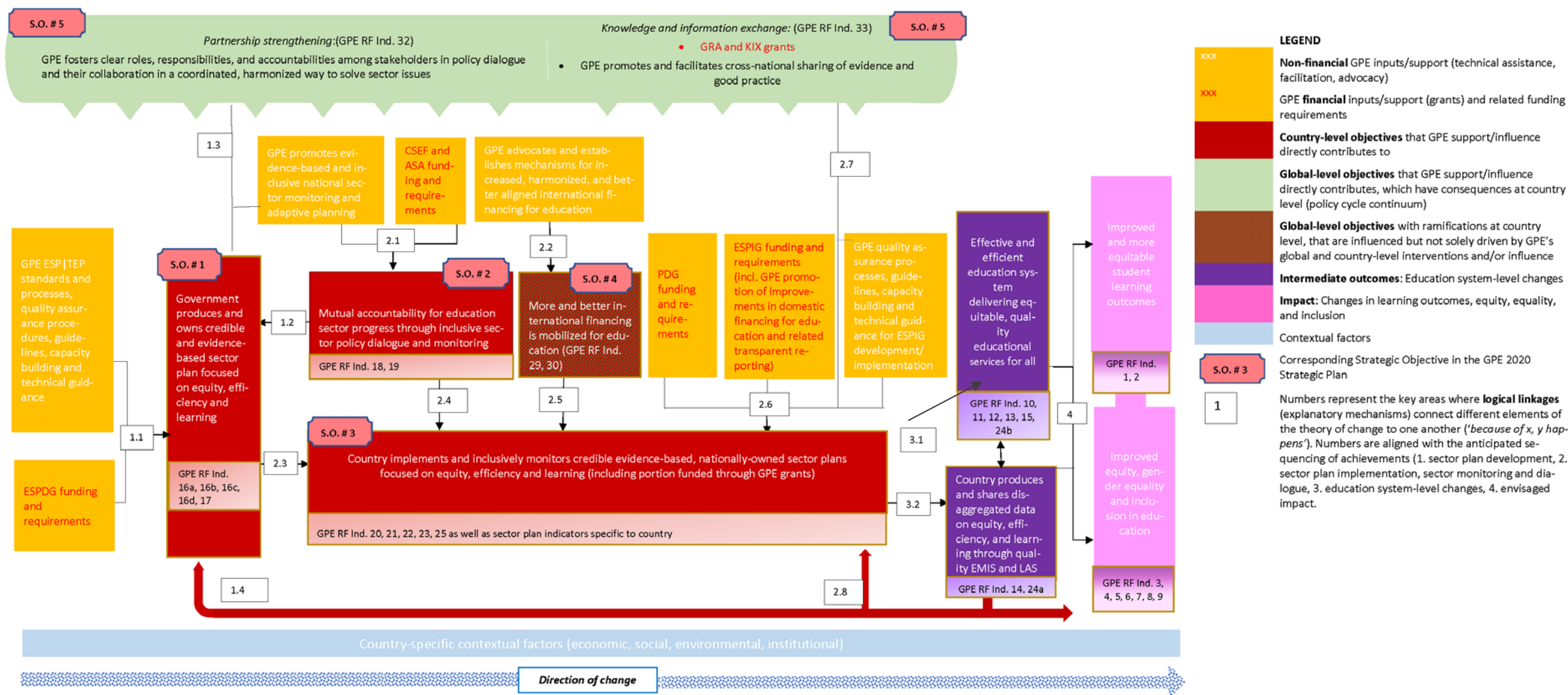
15. The country-level (CLE) ToC (see Figure 1.3 on the following page) follows the structure of the GPE results framework (RF) by distinguishing between country-level objectives (shown in red), intermediary outcomes (shown in purple), and impact (shown in pink). It distinguishes between **financial** GPE inputs (amber boxes/red font), **non-financial** inputs (amber boxes/white font) and global-level levers (green box) but does **not** elaborate on the specific roles played by the GPE Secretariat, Grant Agents, or Coordinating Agencies. Appendix II elaborates on GPE contribution claims that are logically implied by the country-level ToC, on the logical linkages that connect different elements in the theory of change to one another and to the contribution claims, and on related key underlying assumptions that were tested throughout the summative and prospective CLEs.

16. Two elements not explicitly highlighted in the country-level ToC but relevant especially for some of the prospective CLEs³² are:

- 1) The introduction of a **variable results-based component of ESPIGs** as part of the new GPE funding model, adopted in 2015 for the 2015-2018 funding cycle. In order to receive 30% of its total maximum financing allocation, a developing country, in consultation with their local education group, must now identify key strategies which would lead to accelerated progress in equity, efficiency and learning outcomes. Disbursement of the 30% is linked to performance indicators which demonstrate that such progress has effectively been made;
- 2) The GPE Board's introduction of the **GPE Multiplier** as part of a new scalable approach to raising greater and more diverse financing under GPE's new funding and financing framework (FFF) adopted in February 2017. Through the Multiplier, GPE will offer extra grant funds where governments show additionality and co-financing from external sources of at least US\$3 for every US\$1 of GPE grant funds.

³² This first synthesis report provides only limited, preliminary and often hypothesis- based insights on the effects of the variable tranche and the GPE Multiplier given that (i) these mechanisms did not apply in countries reviewed by summative CLEs during FY 2018, and (ii) prospective CLEs are still in early stages and have not yet collected evidence on actual effects of these tools over time. During FY 2019 and FY 2020, the effects of the variable tranche and the Multiplier will be further explored during through both summative and prospective CLE.

Figure 1.3 Generic GPE country-level theory of change



1.5 Country contexts

17. The 15 countries that were reviewed through summative (blue) and prospective (green) CLEs during FY 2018 are shown in Figure 1.4.

Figure 1.4 Countries covered through summative and prospective CLE (FY 2018)³³



18. The 15 countries constitute a highly diverse sample. Five of the seven countries reviewed through summative,³⁴ and five of the eight countries reviewed through prospective CLEs³⁵ are currently categorized as Fragile and Conflict Affected Countries (FCAC). Furthermore, the 15 countries are characterized by differences at the macro level (e.g., in relation to poverty levels and income status; federal versus unitary states; existence or absence of recent conflict, natural/health disasters or political unrest; geographic location; population size; degrees and types of ethnic and/or religious diversity) as well as by education sector specific differences, such as the organization of sector management (e.g., is education under the authority of one or several ministries? How decentralized is sector management?); size of the school-age population; structure of the education system in terms of grades/levels; experience

³³ The summative CLE in Pakistan focused on the provinces of Sindh and Balochistan only. The prospective CLE for Nigeria focuses on the two states of Sokoto and Kaduna only (two of the five states currently supported by GPE).

³⁴ Sierra Leone, Pakistan, Liberia, The Gambia and Cote d'Ivoire.

³⁵ DRC, Ethiopia, Mali, Nigeria and Zimbabwe.

and internal capacities of the respective ministry/ministries of education (MoE);³⁶ number and types of development partners supporting the education sector; to only name a few. To illustrate this point, table 1.1 summarizes some characteristics of the seven countries covered by summative CLEs. Appendix III provides an overview of how these and other contextual characteristics play out across all of the 15 countries covered by CLEs during FY 2018.

19. It is important to keep in mind the diversity of country contexts as the challenging backdrop against which the GPE operational model and country-level ToC (and, therefore, the CLEs) are positioned.

Table 1.1 *Selected contextual features – summative CLE countries*

COUNTRY	CLE REVIEW PERIOD	FRAGILE/ CONFLICT AFFECTED?	INCOME LEVEL	DATA AVAILABILITY	RELEVANT CONTEXTUAL CHANGES
Burkina Faso	2012-2017	No	Low	No functioning EMIS in place. Data on learning outcomes available only up to 2014.	Military coup in 2014
Cote d'Ivoire	2012-2017	Yes	Lower middle	No functioning EMIS in place. Some data on learning outcomes for part of review period.	Civil war 2002-2007; unrest in 2011
Guyana	2014-early 2018	No	Upper middle	EMIS exists but has limitations. No data on learning outcome trends.	/
Liberia	2010-2017	Yes	Low	EMIS in place. No data on learning outcome trends.	Ebola crisis (2014-2015)
Pakistan (Sindh and Balochistan)	2014-early 2018	Yes	Lower middle	EMIS exists but still has limitations. Data on learning outcome trends during part of review period available for Sindh.	/
Sierra Leone	2014-early 2018	Yes	Low	EMIS exists but has limitations. Some data on learning outcome trends available for part of review period.	Ebola crisis (2014-2015)
The Gambia	2014-early 2018	Yes	Low	EMIS in place. Data on learning outcome trends available for part of review period.	Political unrest (2016)

³⁶ Throughout the report, we generically refer to Ministries of Education (MoE) when summarizing related findings across countries, even if the specific ministries in the referenced countries may have slightly different titles.

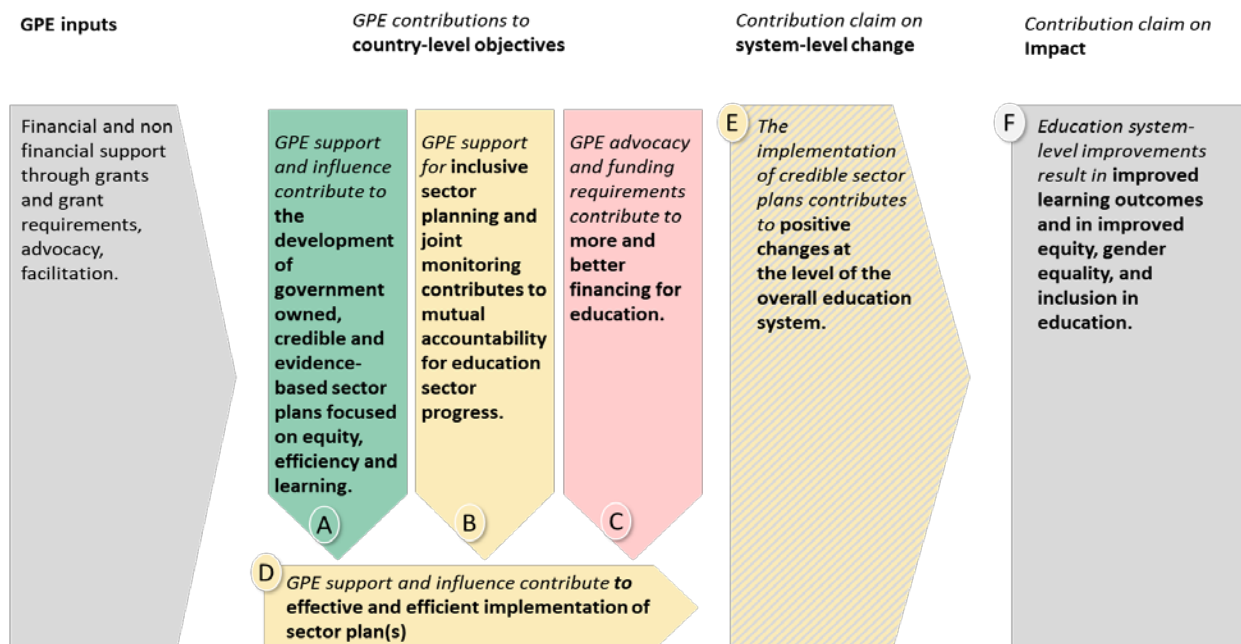
2 Overarching observations

Key messages

- Across the reviewed countries, likely GPE contributions are most evident and consistent in relation to sector planning, more mixed and overall less clear in relation to sector dialogue, monitoring and sector plan implementation, and least clearly supported by evidence in relation to improving domestic and international sector financing.
- The relatively short time period covered by CLEs makes it difficult to arrive at evidence-based insights on likely links between sector plan implementation and higher-level results at system and impact levels.

20. Figure 2.1 provides a schematic summary of overarching summative and prospective CLE findings on the likely extent to which individual elements in the GPE country-level theory of change hold true.³⁷

Figure 2.1 *High-level summary of CLE findings*³⁸



21. Figure 2.1 reflects that:

- Strong/improving education sector planning processes are being carried out in most of the reviewed countries and available evidence indicates positive GPE contributions to these processes and to the quality of resulting sector plans (contribution claim A).

³⁷ Please see section 1.2 for an explanation of the color-coding scheme used throughout this report.

³⁸ For contribution claims A to C, findings based (to varying degrees) on insights deriving from both prospective and summative CLEs; for contribution claims D-F, findings primarily based on summative CLE findings given the early stage of prospective CLEs.

- Mechanisms for inclusive and participatory sector dialogue and monitoring are in place in most countries, but the extent to which they function well varies. Available evidence indicates greater variations between countries in terms of the likelihood and degree of GPE contributions to enhancing mutual accountability for education sector progress than had been noted for sector planning (contribution claim B).
- The CLEs found varying degrees of (positive and negative) changes in the amounts and quality of domestic and international education sector financing, and only a few examples of likely GPE contributions to noted improvements (contribution claim C).
- There is strong evidence of GPE contributions to sector plan implementation (contribution claim D), albeit largely limited to those elements of the education sector plan (ESP) directly supported through ESPIG financing.³⁹ CLEs found varying, and often limited, degrees of information on overall ESP implementation beyond GPE-supported elements, and, where information was available, noted that this implementation tended to be partial and fragmented. As such, despite clear GPE contributions, this element was found to be problematic as is reflected in the amber color coding (contribution claim D).
- Validating the country-level ToC ‘higher up’ the results chain – i.e., in terms of likely links between ESP implementation and system-level change⁴⁰ (contribution claim E) and links between system-level change and impact-level trends (contribution claim F) – proved to be challenging due to (i) frequent lack of specific data on overall ESP implementation (i.e., beyond GPE (co)-funded projects) and, in some cases, on system-level changes; (ii) the relatively short periods covered by summative and prospective CLEs to date, given likely time lag between system-level improvements and impact-level change.

22. CLE findings further show that both financial and non-grant related types of GPE support appear to be of relatively high and approximately even relevance in relation to strengthening sector planning as well as sector dialogue and monitoring. For sector plan implementation, however, GPE grants appear to be the primary means by which the partnership is able to influence in-country processes, while for sector financing, neither GPE grants and grant-requirements nor other types of support showed significant influence.⁴¹

23. These overarching observations are elaborated on in specific findings and supporting evidence in Chapters 3 to 5.

³⁹ The only country in the sample reviewed during FY 2018 that has a Transitional Education Plan (TEP) is Mali, which was developed before the core period reviewed by the prospective evaluation for that country. As such, throughout this report, we only refer to Education Sector Plans (ESP) when making generic reference to sector plans.

⁴⁰ Please see definitions of key terms on page iv for a clarification of the term ‘education system’.

⁴¹ As discussed in section 3.3, this may, however, change through the GPE Multiplier.

3 CLE findings on GPE contributions to sector planning, dialogue/monitoring, financing and implementation

3.1 Findings on sector planning⁴²

Key messages

- In most of the reviewed countries, sector planning improved during or before the respective review periods. Summative CLE findings and early evidence deriving from prospective CLEs consistently show that GPE, through both grant(-related) and non-financial types of support, has made notable contributions to countries developing systematic and comprehensive sector plans and doing so in (largely) inclusive and participatory ways.
- Nevertheless, most reviewed sector plans show weaknesses, including concerns over their achievability and limited prioritization of objectives. ESPs varied in the extent to which they paid explicit attention to equity issues, in particular regarding learners with special needs.
- Meeting GPE/IIEP⁴³ quality standards and being considered credible by external appraisers and LEGs does not guarantee that a sector plan is actually relevant to, and used by, in-country stakeholders.

Strategic questions:

- Can a sector plan truly be considered 'credible' if it does not fully meet the quality criterion of being 'achievable'?
- Should all ESP/TEP quality criteria (continue to) carry equal weight?
- Does the GPE quality assurance review process for ESPs pay sufficient attention to ensuring that sector plans are appropriate and realistic in relation to the country's existing implementation capacity?

Overview

24. Table 3.1 provides an overview of **summative** CLE findings on sector planning.

⁴² Addressing Global Evaluation Questions (GEQ) 1.1 and 1.3 in the evaluation matrix. The related contribution claim as outlined in the country-level ToC for this assignment was: "GPE (financial and non-financial) support and influence contribute to the development of government owned, credible and evidence-based sector plans focused on equity, efficiency and learning". (Contribution claim A).

⁴³ IIEP – International Institute for Education Planning

Table 3.1 Overall findings on sector planning – Summative CLE⁴⁴

COUNTRY	OBJECTIVE OR PROGRESS TOWARDS A GOVERNMENT-OWNED, ROBUST ESP ⁴⁵	LIKELY DEGREE OF GPE CONTRIBUTIONS TO SECTOR PLANNING ⁴⁶	DEGREE TO WHICH UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS LIKELY HELD TRUE ⁴⁷				
Burkina Faso	Achieved (ESP 2012-2021, endorsed March 2013)	Considerable	1	2	3	4	5
Cote d'Ivoire	Achieved (ESP 2012-2014, endorsed Sept. 2011)	Considerable	1	2	3	4	5
Guyana	Achieved (ESP 2014-2018, endorsed Sept. 2014)	Modest	1	2	3	4	5
Liberia	Achieved (ESP 2010-2020, and ESP 2017-2021, endorsed February 2017)	Considerable	1	2	3	4	5
Pakistan (Balochistan)	Achieved (ESP 2013-2018, endorsed March 2014)	Considerable	1	2	3	4	5
Pakistan (Sindh)	Achieved (ESP 2014-2018, unclear if/when endorsed)	Considerable	1	2	3	4	5
Sierra Leone	Achieved (ESP 2014-2018, endorsed August 2013)	Considerable	1	2	3	4	5
The Gambia	Achieved (ESP 2014-2022, endorsed August 2013)	Considerable	1	2	3	4	5

25. Table 3.2 summarizes insights deriving from the **prospective** CLE on whether the reviewed countries currently have a credible sector plan in place, and whether the country-level ToC appears to be *plausible*⁴⁸ considering past, ongoing, or expected future GPE contributions to sector planning based on the information gathered at baseline and during the first annual evaluation country visit.

⁴⁴ See explanation of color coding in section 1.2.

⁴⁵ In this case, the objective is considered 'achieved' if a sector plan underwent an appraisal process, as per GPE/IIEP guidelines, and/or was endorsed by the respective LEG. As is discussed further below, almost all sector plans showed some weaknesses/gaps despite these processes.

⁴⁶ Related assessment is based on whether the CLE found evidence of (i) GPE support likely having influenced (parts of) sector planning, including, but not limited to, stakeholder perceptions on the relevance (relative influence) of GPE support (ii) additional or alternative factors beyond GPE support that were equally or more likely to explain (part of) the noted progress.

⁴⁷ For sector planning, the five underlying assumptions in the country-level ToC were: (1) country-level stakeholders having the *capabilities* to jointly improve sector analysis and planning; (2) stakeholders having the *opportunities* (resources, time, conducive environment) to do so; (3) stakeholders having the *motivation* (incentives) to do so; (4) GPE having sufficient leverage within the country to influence sector planning, and (5) EMIS and LAS producing relevant and reliable data to inform sector planning.

⁴⁸ While the prospective CLEs have not yet gathered sufficient evidence to support or refute the country-level theory of change, the ToC's plausibility can be assessed based on (i) the logic of the links in the ToC and the likelihood of assumptions within each country-specific ToC holding true; (2) likelihood of other factors, independent of GPE support, playing a major role in bringing about the desired results; and (3) existing evidence against the country-specific theory of change.

Table 3.2 Preliminary findings on sector planning – Prospective CLE

	DRC	ETHIO-PIA	KENYA	MALAWI	MALI	NEPAL	NIGERIA	ZIM-BABWE
Is a credible sector plan in place?	Yes ⁴⁹	Yes ⁵⁰	Yes ⁵¹	Yes ⁵²	No ⁵³	Yes ⁵⁴	Yes ⁵⁵	Yes ⁵⁶
Is the country-level ToC plausible in terms of likely GPE contributions to sector planning?	Plausible	Plausible	Plausible	Plausible	Unclear/at risk	Plausible	Plausible	Plausible

Characteristics of sector planning in countries

Finding 1: During the respective review periods,⁵⁷ sector planning processes improved in most of the countries examined through summative and prospective evaluations.

26. In six of seven countries,⁵⁸ the respective summative CLEs noted improvements in sector planning processes during the review period, in terms of countries:

- using participatory and inclusive processes for sector planning more and/or more meaningfully than in the past (e.g., in Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Liberia and Pakistan), albeit sometimes with room for improvement (see below)
- making more and/or deeper use of existing education sector data (e.g., in Cote d'Ivoire)
- approaching sector planning more systematically than in the past (e.g., the Pakistani provinces of Sindh and Balochistan developed their first ever comprehensive sector plans)
- developing sector plans with ever decreasing use of external technical assistance (e.g., in The Gambia)

⁴⁹ Education sector strategy 2016-2025, endorsed by DPs and CSOs in January 2016.

⁵⁰ Education Sector Development Plan (2016-2020), endorsed in May 2016.

⁵¹ National Education Sector Plan 2013-2018. New ESP was expected to be endorsed in 2018.

⁵² National Education Sector Plan 2013/14-2017/18.

⁵³ At the time of the first prospective evaluation country visit, an Interim Plan (originally designed for the 2015-16 period, but then extended to 2018) was in place. While government-owned, the plan is not considered fully credible as it was not endorsed by the LEG or other mechanisms that involve stakeholders.

⁵⁴ School Sector Development Plan (SSDP) for 2016-2023, endorsed in November 2016.

⁵⁵ The prospective CLE for Nigeria focuses on the two states of Sokoto and Kaduna only (two of the five states currently supported by GPE). ESPs in both states cover the periods 2011-2020.

⁵⁶ Education Sector Strategic Plan 2016-2020.

⁵⁷ Most summative CLEs covered the period 2014-early 2018, with two CLEs (Burkina Faso and Cote d'Ivoire) covering the period starting in 2012, and the Liberia CLE the period since 2010. See Appendix III.

⁵⁸ In Guyana the evaluation noted that some aspects of sector planning appeared to have declined during the review period, including the extent to which related processes were evidence-based, participatory and inclusive.

- In Cote d'Ivoire and Sierra Leone, summative CLEs noted an increase in the extent to which appraisal report recommendations had been reflected in the respective final sector plan.⁵⁹

27. Most countries reviewed through summative and prospective CLEs had strengthened consultative processes around plan development during or preceding the respective review periods. However, in several countries, some stakeholder groups had not been consulted, or were insufficiently consulted, such as representatives from schools that are not government-approved (e.g., Pakistan, Sierra Leone), non-basic education stakeholders (e.g., Burkina Faso, Guyana), and

stakeholders at local levels (e.g., Liberia). Likely domestic reasons for this include political tensions between government and the respective parties, variations in country traditions of consultative processes, as well as resource considerations (time, money, effort) related to expanding consultative processes. See Box 3.1.

Box 3.1: Overall positive assessment of sector planning processes in prospective CLEs

Prospective CLEs noted that the most recent sector planning processes (which in most countries preceded the CLE review period) had been participatory, inclusive, and evidence-based, albeit to varying degrees.⁶⁰

While some countries had long-standing traditions of strong sector planning (e.g., Malawi, Ethiopia), in others the most recent cycle of sector planning constituted a notable improvement (e.g., in the DRC, where the 2016-2025 plan is the first planning document jointly developed and owned by all four ministries sharing responsibility for the education sector).

Similar to summative CLE findings, some room for improvement was noted in relation to the exclusion of certain stakeholder groups from planning consultations (e.g., religious groups in DRC, private sector representatives in Kenya) and the quality and depth of stakeholder involvement, especially of CSOs (e.g., in the DRC, Ethiopia).

Finding 2: Both summative and prospective CLEs noted similar strengths but also weaknesses in the resulting sector plans, including varying degrees of attention paid to addressing equity and gender equality issues.

28. In all 14 countries reviewed through summative and prospective CLEs that had credible sector plans in place,⁶¹ the reviewed ESPs addressed the main challenges facing the respective education sector, covering the areas of education access, equity, education quality and sector management, albeit to varying degrees of detail. In four of seven countries,⁶² summative CLEs noted that the country's most recent sector plans (developed towards the end of the core period reviewed by the evaluations) received

⁵⁹ This may reflect a change in GPE quality assurance review (QAR) guidelines (approved in 2015 but fully applied only since 2017), which require development partners to only endorse a sector plan if recommendations made in the appraisal have been addressed, or if there is at least a plan to address them. Going forward, summative and prospective CLEs will explore strengths and weaknesses of the new QAR process in more depth. This issue is also addressed by a separate study on GPE support to sector planning commencing in the fall of 2018.

⁶⁰ Exception is Mali, which has not yet developed a comprehensive sector plan.

⁶¹ All countries but Mali.

⁶² Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia and Sierra Leone.

higher ratings than previous plans (on which the CLEs had focused) when measured against GPE/IIEP quality standards for ESP.⁶³

29. Figure 3.1 illustrates differences in the extent to which reviewed sector plans met or did not meet GPE quality standards. Key observations in this regard are the following. See Appendix IV for details on specific ESP ratings per country.⁶⁴

- **The three criteria met by all or almost all of the reviewed ESPs** are ‘attentive to disparities’ (met by all ESPs), evidence-based (met by 18 out of 19 ESPs)⁶⁵ and reflecting an ‘overall vision’ (met by 17 out of 19). However, CLEs noted that despite having been rated as meeting the GPE quality standard of ‘attentive to disparities’, several ESPs did not consistently and/or at a sufficient level of detail address issues of gender equality⁶⁶ and equity, in particular with respect to learners with special needs.⁶⁷ In contrast, the 2013-2018 ESP for Kenya is a positive example in that it places considerable emphasis on the education needs of marginalized groups who in the past had often been treated as ‘afterthoughts’ in national planning documents. This includes the needs of nomadic populations, disabled children, displaced children, victims of post-election violence, children in national disaster areas, minorities and indigenous people, illiterate youth and adults, women, refugee and migrant communities, and the poor.
- **Only one of the 19 reviewed ESPs met the ‘achievable’ criterion**, including ESPs that were developed under the new funding model (e.g. Ethiopia and Nepal). Furthermore, in DRC, as the country with the only ESP that had met the criterion of being ‘achievable’ according to Secretariat ratings, the prospective CLE noted considerable gaps in existing implementation capacity, including in relation to decision making processes, and lack of clearly defined priorities, which may negatively affect actual plan achievability.
- **Ratings for the remaining three criteria were mixed**, with 14 ESPs meeting and five plans not meeting the ‘sensitive to context’ standard; ten ESPs meeting and nine not meeting the ‘holistic’ standard; and only eight meeting, but 11 not meeting the criterion of being ‘strategic’, reflecting a lack of prioritization of ESP objectives.

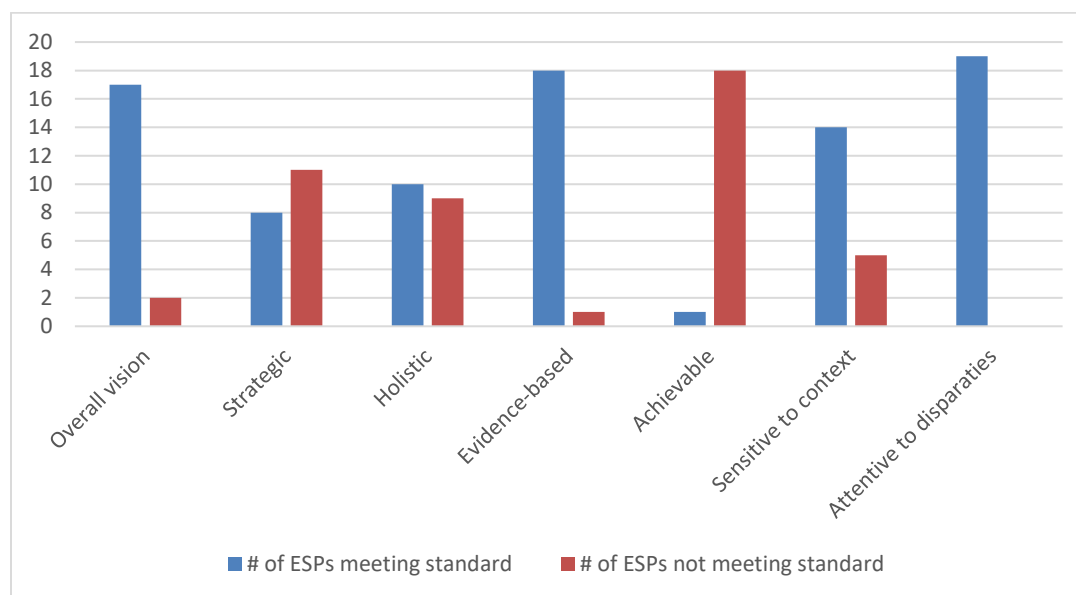
⁶³ In Pakistan, there were no previous sector plans to compare ratings against. No ratings for previous plans were available for Guyana, and prospective CLEs have, up to now, focused on establishing baseline information on the respective current sector plan. Changes in ESP quality and likely factors influencing such changes will be further explored in (summative) CLEs conducted in FY 2019 and 2020.

⁶⁴ Please note that CLEs did not review in detail what specific elements (sub-criteria) of GPE quality criteria were or were not met in each case. Related questions are being explored in the ongoing separate assignment on GPE support to sector planning that is also led by Universalialia.

⁶⁵ N= 19. Prospective CLEs, while addressing eight countries, reviewed ESPs in a total of 11 jurisdictions (six national sector plans and five state level ESPs in Nigeria); summative CLEs reviewed ESPs for eight jurisdictions (six national sector plans and two provincial ESPs in Pakistan).

⁶⁶ e.g., ESPs for DRC and Cote d’Ivoire.

⁶⁷ e.g., ESPs for DRC, The Gambia, Sierra Leone.

Figure 3.1 *GPE quality standards met/not met by reviewed ESPs (N-19)*

30. Additional weaknesses in sector plans emerging from document review and stakeholder consultations included the following:

- Some ESPs lacked clarity about how specific interventions proposed in the ESP were envisaged to 'come together' to address the identified bigger picture issue and/or what specific evidence underpinned proposed approaches (e.g., Guyana, Sierra Leone).
- Other ESPs provided insufficient analysis of MoE capacity gaps relevant to ESP implementation and described limited, if any, explicit strategies for how to address the gaps (e.g., Sindh and Balochistan, Cote d'Ivoire, The Gambia, Guyana and Liberia).

31. Likely reasons for the noted gaps include limited experience and/or technical capabilities (e.g., for analyzing inclusive education needs) among MoE planners, cultural traditions and social norms (e.g., around gender equality, learners with disabilities), as well as the pragmatic reason that providing details on a multitude of competing priorities is challenging.

Finding 3: Sector plan credibility and quality (as per GPE/IIEP standards) does not guarantee that stakeholders will use the sector plan as a common and evolving reference document. This may reflect that most reviewed ESPs, while rated credible overall, were not likely to be fully achievable.

32. Summative CLEs in five of seven countries (Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Guyana, Liberia and Sierra Leone) raised concerns over the limited extent to which ESPs had subsequently been used to guide the ongoing work of in-country stakeholders (both government and development partners) during the review period, despite having met the required minimum number of GPE quality standards⁶⁸ and having followed GPE/IIEP guidelines for sector plan development.

⁶⁸ With exception of Sierra Leone, which only met 4 of 7 GPE/IIEP quality standards. As per the GPE results framework, ESP should meet at least 5 out of 7 (and Transitional Education Plans 3 out of 7) quality standards to be considered credible.

33. Likely reasons for the limited use of sector plans include the following:

- In Burkina Faso and Guyana, due to limited consultative processes, the sector plans were not widely known and thus of limited, if any, relevance to stakeholders outside the ministries of education and especially to actors working in sub-sectors other than basic education.
- In Cote d'Ivoire, while consultations had been carried out during ESP development, national stakeholders (including operational departments within the three ministries of education) largely understood the ESP as a framework intended to attract and coordinate external (donor) investments in the education sector, but not as a common guiding document for all education sector actors.
- In Liberia, in-country stakeholders considered the ESP as a broad inspirational document, rather than an operational plan that would guide their respective work. The sector plan was developed after key development partners (DP) had already completed their own plans. The ESP reflected existing donor priorities but played no role in shaping these. Moreover, the MoE had developed its own separate operational plan whose relationship to ESP implementation remained unclear.
- In Sierra Leone (and to some extent in Liberia) the limited use of the sector plan was largely due to changing external contexts, in particular the Ebola Virus epidemic of 2014-2015, which required emergency response measures. This drew attention away from the previously agreed ESPs, and (in Sierra Leone) led to disagreements among LEG members over the continued relevance of that plan.
- In Burkina Faso, Guyana, Liberia, Sierra Leone and The Gambia, sector plans were either not accompanied by detailed action/implementation plans, or, where such a plan existed (e.g. in Burkina Faso) it lacked detail on specific activities to be implemented by whom and in what year or (e.g., in Sierra Leone) an implementation plan covered only part of the ESP period.

34. **Several of the prospective CLEs raised concerns over similar factors that may negatively affect sector plan relevance and application in future.** These include:

- In the DRC, the sector plan (SSEF) is jointly owned and led by four government ministries⁶⁹ that are considered equal and none has a clear leadership role for sector plan implementation. The ESP and related operational plans provided insufficient information on which entities are responsible for achieving specific ESP indicators and targets.
- In all countries reviewed by prospective CLEs that had an ESP in place, the respective sector plans did not meet the GPE quality standard of being 'achievable'. In addition, in Mali, the practice of developing 10-year sector plans runs the risk of formulating overly ambitious long-term goals while lacking realistic short- and medium-term targets.

⁶⁹ The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education and New Citizenship (MEPS-INC), the Ministry of Technical and Professional Education (METP), the Ministry of Higher Education (MESU), and the Ministry of Social Affairs, Human Rights and National Solidarity (MASAHNS).

GPE contributions to sector planning

Finding 4: In most reviewed countries, GPE has made clear contributions to the development of (more) comprehensive and evidence-based sector plans using (more) participatory and inclusive processes.

35. Positive GPE contributions to sector planning processes were noted in all seven summative CLEs (albeit to a more modest degree in Guyana) and in seven out of eight of the prospective CLEs (all but Mali).⁷⁰ Across the reviewed countries, GPE financial and non-financial support to sector planning appear to have been complementary. Related observations are summarized in Table 3.3.⁷¹

Table 3.3 GPE support for sector plan development

TYPE OF GPE SUPPORT	DESCRIPTION OF LIKELY POSITIVE EFFECTS DERIVING FROM GPE SUPPORT
Financial Support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The prospect of accessing ESPIG funding based on the condition of submitting a quality ESP was among the incentives for ESP development in at least ten countries.⁷² ESPIG funding criteria also influenced elements of ESP content, such as plans for what proportion of the domestic education budget would be allocated to primary education (e.g., in Cote d'Ivoire – see section 3.5). Education Sector Plan Development Grants (ESPDG) facilitated ESP development in almost all reviewed jurisdictions.⁷³ ESPDG resources were commonly used for the hiring of consultants, for the conduct of background studies such as education sector analyses, census, or evaluations, as well as for the conduct of consultative processes/events as part of ESP development.
Non-Financial Support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> GPE/IIEP guidelines and quality criteria for sector plan development provided a roadmap for the process of ESP development as well as benchmarks that were used by LEGs (to varying degrees), the Secretariat and external reviewers for assessing ESP quality.⁷⁴ Across countries, while some stakeholders primarily considered these guidelines and criteria as 'ticking the box' checklists required to receive GPE funding, others considered them meaningful tools to improve planning processes.⁷⁵ The Secretariat, the Coordinating Agencies and/or Grant Agents provided advocacy and facilitation that positively influenced the process of ESP development and content (to varying degrees). Specifically:

⁷⁰ Related insights from prospective CLEs are preliminary at this stage.

⁷¹ Because planning processes in most countries preceded the review period covered by the prospective evaluations, information about GPE contributions to (past) sector planning largely derived from stakeholder consultations and tended to elicit less detailed information on the exact 'how' of GPE contributions. Examples in Table 3.3 therefore largely derive from countries covered through summative evaluations.

⁷² Summative CLE: Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, The Gambia, Pakistan (Sindh and Balochistan). Prospective CLE: Likely in DRC, Kenya, Malawi and Zimbabwe.

⁷³ All countries/provinces/states reviewed through summative and prospective CLE received ESPDG during or before the respective review periods, with the exception of Balochistan (Pakistan).

⁷⁴ CLEs conducted to date have not systematically elicited information on whether specific aspects of existing guidelines and/or quality criteria have been more or less relevant and helpful than others.

⁷⁵ CLE findings compiled during FY 2018 do not allow quantifying related observations e.g. to state whether the respective majority or minority of stakeholders considered the tools meaningful.

TYPE OF GPE SUPPORT	DESCRIPTION OF LIKELY POSITIVE EFFECTS DERIVING FROM GPE SUPPORT
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Secretariat country leads guided country stakeholders through the complex processes of GPE grant applications and related requirements, including the quality assurance process for new or revised ESP/TEP (e.g., in Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, The Gambia, Kenya). CLEs conducted to date have not systematically explored whether and how changes in GPE quality assurance processes (implemented since 2016) have led to changes in the effectiveness of GPE support for sector planning, e.g. in terms of contributing to stronger ESPs.⁷⁶ – Both Secretariat staff and Coordinating Agencies advocated for more or better involvement of civil society and other stakeholders in sector plan development. Stakeholders partly attributed positive change in this regard to this advocacy e.g., in Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, and Malawi. – Coordinating Agencies effectively facilitated the process of ESP review and endorsement through the respective LEG (e.g., in Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, The Gambia and Pakistan). – Grant Agents provided technical assistance for ESP development (e.g., in Guyana, Liberia, Pakistan and Sierra Leone).

36. **However, in Guyana the summative CLE found that despite GPE support, sector planning processes had worsened** since the last policy cycle, e.g., in relation to using participatory and inclusive consultation processes.⁷⁷ This indicated that GPE had no, or only very limited, leverage to influence domestic education sector processes, possibly due to the fact that during the review period Guyana was eligible only for a grant of up to US\$1.7 million, which was considerably lower than the US\$32.9 million⁷⁸ the country had previously received from the EFA-FTI.⁷⁹ As such, the prospect of accessing an ESPIG may not have constituted a sufficiently significant incentive for stakeholders to shape sector planning according to GPE/IIEP guidelines.

37. In other contexts, however, including in The Gambia, which had experienced a similarly dramatic difference between FTI and GPE funding,⁸⁰ declining GPE grant amounts have not had a notable negative effect on the quality of sector planning processes or on related stakeholder motivation. Another country

⁷⁶ However, one preliminary insight – which will be further explored in upcoming CLEs as well as in the separate study on GPE support to sector planning – is that the quality of external ESP appraisal reports has improved as a result of the new QAR processes, which includes mandatory training in GPE/IIEP appraisal guidelines for all external reviewers. Most reviewed recent appraisal reports were stronger than earlier ones in terms of being detailed, addressing all or at least most of the issues suggested in the GPE/IIEP appraisal guidelines, and resulting in explicit and (largely) clear and actionable recommendations for ESP improvement.

⁷⁷ Similarly, in Mali, where sector planning processes are still underway, the prospective CLE raised concerns that gaps in stakeholder technical capabilities and coordination, combined with the overall challenging context, may result in GPE support for sector planning not yielding its envisaged results.

⁷⁸ While the FTI grant covered a longer period (2004-2012) than the GPE ESPIG (2015-2018), it was still more than six times larger when calculated on a funds-per-year basis.

⁷⁹ Thus, in Guyana two of the five assumptions underlying the contribution claim of GPE contributions to sector planning were found to be only 'moderately likely' to apply (assumption that country-level stakeholders have the required motivation and that GPE has enough leverage within the country to influence sector planning). In all other summative evaluation countries, the likelihood of these assumptions holding true was found to be 'strong'.

⁸⁰ From US\$ 29,9 million for the 2009-2013 period to US\$ 6.9 million for 2014-2018.

where sector plan quality recently improved despite declining GPE grant amounts is Burkina Faso.⁸¹ This could mean that even smaller GPE grants are still sufficient to provide an incentive, and/or that intrinsic government/stakeholder motivation and/or capacity to develop strong sector plans exists in these contexts independent of external incentives. Available data do not permit making an informed judgment on the exact ‘why’ of the observed differences.

38. In contexts where government planning capacity and motivation were already strong before the respective review period (e.g. in Ethiopia and Malawi), CLEs found that the main value added by GPE support lay in the partnership’s push for inclusive and participatory planning processes, providing additional structure and guidance for ensuring ESP quality through the QAR process, and providing resources (ESPDG) to facilitate planning activities.

39. **Additional factors beyond GPE support** that summative and prospective CLEs found to have influenced sector planning (positively or negatively) are listed below.

Table 3.4 *Additional factors beyond GPE support influencing sector planning*

POSITIVE/SUPPORTIVE	NEGATIVE/HINDERING
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ministry of Education sector planning prior experience and existing technical capabilities (e.g., The Gambia, Ethiopia, Malawi) Government/ministry of education commitment to and leadership for evidence-based, inclusive and participatory sector planning (e.g., The Gambia, Ethiopia, Malawi, Nepal) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Changes in government and related effects on education sector priorities. For example, in Nepal, the latest sector plan was developed during an ongoing process of decentralization. Resulting changes may require substantial modifications to the ESP in the coming years. External crises that negatively affected stakeholder perceptions of the continued relevance of the existing sector plan (Sierra Leone) or stakeholders’ lack of ability and/or willingness to work together (e.g., Mali) Government practices leading to constrained/limited consultations with civil society organizations (e.g., Ethiopia, Nepal) or faith-based organizations (e.g., DRC) Gaps and lack of quality in available sector data as the basis for planning decisions (e.g., Kenya, Pakistan)

Finding 5: It is difficult to capture how and to what extent GPE contributed to sustainably strengthening national capacity for sector planning, specifically related individual and collective *capabilities*. This is partly because GPE has, until now, insufficiently defined and has not systematically addressed the notion of strengthening national capacity.

40. A 2018 examination of GPE key actors’ roles noted that within the GPE operational model the concept of capacity development is insufficiently defined and that there is ambiguity about what is meant by and expected of capacity development in the GPE model.⁸² Insights deriving from CLEs completed to date support this observation. See Box 3.2.

⁸¹ Similarly, in Cote d’Ivoire and Liberia, where anticipated future ESPIG amounts are lower than the ones received during the core review period, CLEs did not find negative effects on the development of new sector plans aiming to cover the respective upcoming grant periods.

⁸² Nicola Ruddle, Kelly Casey, Gabi Elte, Anaïs Loizillon (2018): “Examination of key actors’ roles in GPE’s country-level operational model towards GPE 2020 delivery”. Oxford Policy Management, May 2018, p.64.

41. Most of the summative evaluations noted that GPE support had likely contributed to strengthening country capacity for sector planning by helping to create related *opportunity* (through ESPDG funding) and/or *motivation* (through the incentive of accessing an ESPIG based on submission of a quality sector plan).⁸⁴

42. The evaluations had fewer clear insights, however, on whether and how GPE support has contributed to strengthening individual and collective *capabilities* (knowledge, skills) for sector planning. GPE (global level and country-specific) documents reviewed for the CLEs provided no indication of a clear conceptualization e.g., of the types of technical skills that government/MoE planners should possess or how different types of GPE support could contribute to developing these capabilities.

43. Interviewed in-country stakeholders (e.g. in Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Sierra Leone and the Gambia) frequently indicated that the experience of taking part in systematic, evidence-based, benchmark-driven and (more or less) participatory sector planning processes had created individual as well as collective experience, knowledge, skills and expectations that were likely to inform future sector planning processes. However, they could provide only vague information on how guidance from the Secretariat or technical assistance from the Coordinating Agency and/or Grant Agent contributed to this. Overall, CLE findings highlight the fact that measuring capacity and related improvements over time is challenging given the complex and largely qualitative nature of the concept of 'capacity'.

Box 3.2: The notion of 'capacity'

The CLEs approached the notion of individual or organizational 'capacity' as incorporating the three interrelated dimensions of: capabilities (knowledge, skills, experience), motivation (e.g., incentives), and opportunity (e.g., funding and a conducive external environment).⁸³

However, most stakeholders consulted during the course of the summative and prospective evaluations to date, as well as GPE documents (including the ToR for the country-level evaluations) tend to use the term 'capacity' synonymously with 'capabilities' (i.e., the technical ability of individuals or organizations to fulfill specific tasks in order to achieve a particular goal) as well as with 'experience'.

3.2 Findings on sector dialogue and sector monitoring⁸⁵

Key messages

- Sector plan development processes create incentives for inclusive and participatory sector dialogue, and most countries reviewed by CLEs have established LEGs or similar consultative structures that (largely) function in participatory and inclusive ways. However, sector dialogue often weakens in terms of frequency and/or stakeholder participation once the ESP is approved.
- Joint sector reviews (JSR), if and when carried out, tend to create valuable opportunities for assessing progress towards overarching sector objectives. JSRs vary in the extent to which they provide concrete

⁸³ Mayne, John. *The COM-B Theory of Change Model*. Working paper. February 2017.

⁸⁴ Albeit, as noted above, to varying degrees as shown in the Guyana CLE.

⁸⁵ Addressing GEQ 1.2 and 1.3 in the evaluation matrix. The related contribution claim as outlined in the country-level ToC for this assignment was: "GPE (financial and non-financial) support for inclusive sector planning and joint monitoring contribute to mutual accountability for education sector progress". (Contribution claim B). With regard to monitoring, this section focuses on participatory sector monitoring. For further discussion of sector, in particular ESP (implementation) monitoring, see sections 3.4 and chapter 4.

suggestions for how to improve ongoing ESP implementation, including how to ensure that all actors rally behind and support ESP implementation through their work.

- Summative and (to the extent that data are available) prospective evaluations found consistent evidence of GPE contributions to sector dialogue and monitoring, especially in encouraging mechanisms to be participatory and inclusive. GPE support has been less consistently influential in ensuring that LEGs and JSRs influence donor harmonization, sector financing, and systematic and detailed monitoring of overall ESP implementation.
- Some DCP governments criticized that they did not have adequate mechanisms for holding grant agents to account for their performance during ESPIG implementation.

Strategic questions

- Can GPE support further strengthen the use of sector dialogue as means to facilitate sector plan implementation including in relation to donor harmonization?
- Should GPE do more to support the meaningful use of joint sector reviews as mutual accountability tools for sector plan implementation?
- Is GPE 'walking the talk' of mutual accountability, i.e., is there sufficient accountability from the Secretariat and grant agents to DCP governments and other in-country stakeholders as regards the management of ESPIG funds?

Overview

44. Table 3.5 provides a high-level overview of summative CLE findings on progress made in strengthening sector dialogue and monitoring as well as related GPE contributions. It also illustrates the extent to which assumptions underlying the respective contribution claim in the country-level ToC likely held or did not hold true in different country contexts.

Table 3.5 Overall findings on mutual accountability – summative CLE

COUNTRY	PROGRESS TOWARDS MUTUAL ACCOUNTABILITY THROUGH SECTOR DIALOGUE	PROGRESS TOWARDS MUTUAL ACCOUNTABILITY THROUGH JOINT SECTOR MONITORING	LIKELIHOOD AND DEGREE OF GPE CONTRIBUTIONS TO STRENGTHENING MUTUAL ACCOUNTABILITY ⁸⁶	DEGREE TO WHICH UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS LIKELY HELD TRUE ⁸⁷			
				1	2	3	4
Burkina Faso (2012-2017)	Progress but room for improvement	Progress but room for improvement	Likely, but limited to basic education	1	2	3	4
Sierra Leone (2014-2018)	Progress, but room for improvement	Progress, but room for improvement	Very likely/considerable	1	2	3	4

⁸⁶ Related assessment is based on whether the CLE found other factors beyond GPE that were equally or more likely to explain all aspects of the noted progress, stakeholder perceptions of the relevance/influence of GPE support.

⁸⁷ For sector dialogue and monitoring, the four underlying assumptions in the country-level ToC were: (1) GPE has sufficient *leverage* at global and country levels to influence LEG existence and functioning; (2) country-level stakeholders having the *capabilities* to work together to solve education sector issues; (3) stakeholders have the *opportunities* (resources, time, conducive environment) to do so; (4) stakeholders have the *motivation* (incentives) to do so.

COUNTRY	PROGRESS TOWARDS MUTUAL ACCOUNTABILITY THROUGH SECTOR DIALOGUE	PROGRESS TOWARDS MUTUAL ACCOUNTABILITY THROUGH JOINT SECTOR MONITORING	LIKELIHOOD AND DEGREE OF GPE CONTRIBUTIONS TO STRENGTHENING MUTUAL ACCOUNTABILITY ⁸⁶	DEGREE TO WHICH UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS LIKELY HELD TRUE ⁸⁷			
Cote d'Ivoire (2012-2017)	Progress	Progress- limited during 2012-2016, but recent improvements	Likely, with positive and perceived negative effects ⁸⁸	1	2	3	4
Liberia (2010-2017)	Progress, but room for improvement	Progress, but room for improvement	Very likely/ considerable	1	2	3	4
Guyana (2014-2018)	Limited progress	Limited progress	Not likely	1	2	3	4
The Gambia (2014-2108)	Strong (prior and during review period)	Progress, but room for improvement	Likely, but modest	1	2	3	4
Pakistan (Sindh) (2014-2108)	Progress, but room for improvement	Progress, but room for improvement	Very likely/ considerable	1	2	3	4
Pakistan (Balochistan) (2014-2108)	Progress, but room for improvement	Progress, but room for improvement	Very likely/ considerable	1	2	3	4

45. Table 3.6 summarizes early insights from the prospective CLE including on the extent to which the country-level theory of change appears to be *plausible* considering possible (in some cases future) GPE contributions to strengthening mutual accountability in the reviewed countries.

Table 3.6 Preliminary observations on mutual accountability – prospective CLE

ISSUE	DRC	ETHIOPIA	KENYA	MALAWI	MALI	NEPAL	NIGERIA	ZIMBABWE
LEG or equivalent in place? ⁸⁹	Yes, but meets infrequently	Yes	Yes	Yes, but meets infrequently	Yes, but varying buy-in from DPs	Yes	Yes	Yes
JSRs conducted?	Yes, but need improvement	Yes, but frequency unclear	Not since 2015	Yes, but need improvement	Yes, but need improvement	Yes	Not at federal level but in 5 GPE-supported states ⁹⁰	Yes

⁸⁸ See unintended consequences of GPE support to Cote d'Ivoire discussed in section 3.1 on sector planning above.

⁸⁹ An 'LEG equivalent' is a formally established group consisting of several non-government sector stakeholders that, while not being labelled 'Local Education Group', fulfills LEG functions related reviewing and monitoring education sector plans.

⁹⁰ Jigawa, Kaduna, Katsina, Kano, and Sokoto.

ISSUE	DRC	ETHIOPIA	KENYA	MALAWI	MALI	NEPAL	NIGERIA	ZIMBABWE
Is country-level ToC plausible re GPE contributions to mutual accountability?	Plausible	Plausibl e	Plausibl e	Plausibl e	Some- what plausible	Plausibl e	Some- what plausible	Plausible

Characteristics of sector dialogue

Finding 6: During the respective review periods, sector dialogue improved in most of the countries reviewed by summative CLEs and is showing promising foundations in most prospective CLE countries. However, sustaining inclusive dialogue beyond the sector planning phase, and using this dialogue to ensure partner harmonization and inform ESP implementation, remain common areas for improvement.

46. All but one⁹¹ of the 15 countries assessed through summative and prospective CLEs possess one or more participatory mechanism for sector dialogue.

47. **Summative CLEs noted that sector dialogue improved** during the respective review periods in Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Pakistan with respect to one or several of the following dimensions:⁹²

- First time creation of a LEG (or equivalent) as a formalized mechanism for sector dialogue (in Sindh and Balochistan) – see also Box 3.3.
- Improvements to existing mechanisms, e.g., by setting up a LEG to complement an existing but ineffective and inefficient larger dialogue body (e.g., Liberia)
- Improved composition of existing LEG or equivalent, in terms of ensuring better representation of relevant non-government sector stakeholders (e.g., in Sierra Leone, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia)

Box 3.3: Good practice example – LEGs in Sindh and Balochistan

During 2013-2018, education sector dialogue in both provinces became more participatory and inclusive, with Local Education Groups (LEGs) established in Sindh and Balochistan in 2012 and 2015 respectively. While there is room for improving LEGs in both provinces (e.g., broader stakeholder participation), they used sector dialogue to inform ESP implementation.

In both Sindh and Balochistan, the LEGs served as the main forums for identifying actors concerned about specific issues and for grouping LEG members into thematic technical groups to provide policy recommendations. In Sindh, for example, the drafting of a Non-Formal Education policy resulted from the work of a dedicated thematic task force within the LEG. In both provinces, LEG meetings were also used to report on progress on ESP implementation, prepare members for upcoming joint education sector reviews, and coordinate ESP implementing actors within the respective provincial education departments.

⁹¹ Guyana

⁹² In the Gambia, sector dialogue had been strong before, and remained strong during, the review period without notable, positive or negative, changes. In Guyana, sector dialogue is not formalized and provides no regular means for non-government stakeholders to inform decision making or exchange information. This did not change during the reviewed period.

- Increased relevance/influence of the LEG as a consultative body that informs government decision making (e.g., in Burkina Faso).

48. **Non-government stakeholders, in particular civil society organizations (CSOs), are represented on all reviewed LEGs, but the degree of their involvement varies** and is strongly dependent on the willingness of the respective DCP government to engage these actors. The roles played by and the thematic priorities of different CSOs varied within and across countries and country-level evaluation findings do not indicate clear patterns regarding specific roles typically played by civil society organizations (e.g. related to advocacy for certain population groups).⁹³

49. **Furthermore, several types of non-government actors have not yet been included in LEGs**, such as non-basic education stakeholders (Burkina Faso) and private, including faith based, and informal education providers (in DRC, Burkina Faso, Pakistan, Sierra Leone).⁹⁴ In Nepal and Ethiopia, some stakeholders raised concerns that only a small number of preferred CSOs are being included in sector dialogue. This also meant that not all relevant stakeholder groups provided input to the development of ESPs (see section 3.1), which likely contributed to (or may affect future) limited ownership and subsequent use of the plan (see section 3.4).

50. **Across countries, the extent to which LEGs visibly influence sector decision making has been most evident during the development of sector plans.** Once the sector plan is approved and endorsed,⁹⁵ LEGs in several countries (e.g., DRC, Sierra Leone) continued to meet, albeit less regularly and sometimes with declining member participation (e.g., in the DRC, Pakistan and Nigeria), and with little, if any, visible influence on government decision making or fostering collaboration among education stakeholders. In most reviewed countries,⁹⁶ LEG meetings were not used to systematically discuss or improve ESP implementation.⁹⁷ In most cases, sector actors used meetings to inform each other about their respective (project-level) activities, but without individual contributions being synthesized under the lens of whether and how they jointly contributed to meeting ESP objectives and targets.

⁹³ In the Gambia, a national CSO coalition (with financial support through a GPE CSEF grant) conducted research and advocacy on learners with special needs. However, the CLE found no indication of whether and how this had influenced the coalition's role in and contributions to ongoing sector dialogue.

⁹⁴ This is despite the fact that, in Sierra Leone, approximately 60 percent of existing schools are considered non-government approved and are run by one of these stakeholder groups. Similarly, in DRC faith-based organizations account for about 80 percent of basic education services, yet representatives noted that they did not feel sufficiently involved during sector planning or subsequent sector dialogue.

⁹⁵ And – possibly – once the country's application for a related ESPIG has been submitted and approved, which usually happens around the same time. Consulted stakeholders primarily referred to completion of the ESP as the main event they perceived as marking a change in LEG attendance, however, it is possible that completion of the ESPIG application process has a similar, or maybe even stronger, effect. This will be further explored during CLEs conducted in FY 2019 and FY 2020.

⁹⁶ Related insights primarily derive from summative CLE as sector plan implementation is only starting or is underway in countries addressed through prospective CLE.

⁹⁷ Positive exceptions include Cote d'Ivoire, Kenya and Pakistan.

Characteristics of sector monitoring

Finding 7: Systematic monitoring of ESP implementation faced challenges due to weaknesses in monitoring tools and mechanisms and/or their application.

51. All summative CLEs conducted in FY 2018 found –albeit varying degrees of – limitations to systematic and comprehensive monitoring of ESP implementation.⁹⁸

- **Mixed quality of monitoring tools:** ESPs in all of the eight reviewed countries/provinces were accompanied by results frameworks, but these varied in quality. For example, in The Gambia, Burkina Faso and Cote d'Ivoire, results frameworks focused on high-level (system and impact level) indicators, but did not formulate results, targets and indicators at activity/output or intermediate outcome levels. In Liberia, indicators lacked specification through markers such as gender or location.
- **Insufficiently defined monitoring mechanisms:** Several ESPs and related operational plans (e.g., in Cote d'Ivoire, Balochistan, Liberia, Sindh, Sierra Leone) lacked information on roles and responsibilities for ESP implementation monitoring, as well as in relation to the nature and frequency of related data collection and reporting.
- **Existing tools and mechanisms not consistently used:** In Guyana and Liberia, summative CLEs found no indication of the existing ESP results frameworks having been used – despite the fact that, in case of Guyana, the ESP had included relatively clear information on related roles and responsibilities. CLEs did not find clear explanations for why existing frameworks had not been applied. In Burkina Faso, the detailed results framework for the Strategic Basic Education Program (PDSEB) was systematically applied, but the (different) frameworks for the overall Education Sector Plan was not. As such, monitoring was conducted only for the basic education sub-sector.

52. In Burkina Faso, Sindh and Balochistan, the government produced annual progress reports on progress in ESP (or, in Burkina, PDSEB) implementation. In other countries (Liberia, The Gambia, Sierra Leone) some, though usually not all, of the ESP indicators were used to develop background information for joint sector reviews (JSR) –see finding 8 below.⁹⁹

Finding 8: Across countries, joint sector reviews tend to focus on high-level objectives rather than on the specifics of ESP implementation and vary considerably in the extent to which they result in actionable, targeted recommendations that are used to improve sector plan implementation.

53. Joint sector reviews, or equivalents, have been carried out in all the countries reviewed through summative CLE with the exception of Guyana, and in six of the eight prospective CLE countries.¹⁰⁰ Most JSRs in the summative CLE countries met, or at least approached, GPE quality standards of being comprehensive (e.g., in Liberia, Sindh and Balochistan), evidence-based (e.g., in the Gambia, Balochistan and Sindh), participatory and inclusive (e.g., in Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, the Gambia and Sierra Leone), a

⁹⁸ To date, prospective CLEs have raised fewer concerns over the quality of monitoring tools, possibly indicating related improvements given that the respective ESPs are more recent than the ones assessed through summative CLE in FY 2018. This will be further explored during CLEs in FY 2019 and 2020.

⁹⁹ In Sierra Leone, a one-time comprehensive mid-term evaluation of ESP 2014-2018 implementation was conducted in 2017 that reflected on progress made towards ESP objectives and high-level indicators. Given its timing, the review helped inform development of the new ESP 2018-2020 rather than implementation of the 2014-2018 one.

¹⁰⁰ There is no evidence of any JSR having been conducted in Nigeria. In Kenya, no JSR has taken place since 2015.

monitoring instrument (e.g., Liberia), and anchored into an effective policy cycle (e.g. the Gambia). Countries varied in the frequency and regularity of sector reviews: for example, in Burkina Faso, annual JSRs have been conducted since 2012, and in The Gambia, reviews have taken place every two years since 2014. Other countries conducted two or three JSRs each during the respective review period, but without a clear pattern underlying their frequency.

54. Across countries assessed through summative and prospective CLEs, remaining areas for improvement in relation to JSRs included:

- Lack of government ownership of and leadership for sector reviews, with JSRs largely regarded as a 'ticking the box' exercise to meet donor expectations (e.g. in Liberia)
- Lack of participation from senior development partner representatives, teacher organizations, district government representatives and parent teacher associations (e.g., in Sindh and Balochistan)
- A focus on donor, as opposed to government and other stakeholder, needs and priorities (e.g., in Ethiopia)
- Focus on reviewing progress made in the basic education sub-sector alone, with no similar reviews of other sub-sectors (e.g., in Burkina Faso, Ethiopia)
- Missing or only broad recommendations deriving from sector reviews, with no clear allocation of responsibilities and timelines for addressing them (e.g., in DRC, Sierra Leone)
- Challenges due to prevailing (indicator-related) data gaps and/or limited data quality in terms of data completeness, validity, and consistency (e.g., in Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Sindh and Balochistan). The prospective CLE for the Democratic Republic of Congo noted stakeholder concerns about conducting expensive and time-consuming JSRs as there would be *"little to review and discuss in the absence of data."*

55. **Most JSRs have tended to focus on high-level indicators without explicitly linking observed trends to specific progress made in implementing the current sector plan.**¹⁰¹ This reflects the noted weaknesses in ESP results frameworks. Similarly, reviewed JSRs have not systematically addressed the question of whether, how and to what extent individual development partners' initiatives have contributed to progress towards ESP implementation.

56. As a consequence, visible JSR influence on decision making largely consisted of relatively high-level

Box 3.4: Good practice example – sector monitoring leading to improved school feeding programs in Burkina Faso

In 2015, the Burkina Faso Joint Sector Review noted inefficiencies in the delivery of existing school feeding programs (SFP) including due to a centralized approach to purchasing, stocking and transporting food. The JSR recommended that Burkina Faso implement a decentralized approach, train 302 school management committees in SFP management, and open bank accounts at the Commune level to allow for transfer of funds.

In 2016, the JSR confirmed that these recommendations had been carried out. Based on the success of these measures, the MoE decided to transfer all centralized financial resources for SFP management to the Communes. The Council of Ministers also requested that SFPs purchase local products to boost local economies.

¹⁰¹ Positive exceptions from this observation being Liberia, The Gambia, Kenya and Nepal.

recommendations that informed priorities of the next sector plan (e.g., in Sierra Leone), but their effect on influencing ongoing ESP implementation was in most cases undetectable. Similar (preliminary) observations were made by the prospective CLE for the DRC. **However, as described in Box 3.4, there are also examples of good practice in this regard.**¹⁰²

GPE contributions to sector dialogue and monitoring

Finding 9: GPE has made notable contributions to establishing and/or strengthening country mechanisms and processes for sector dialogue and monitoring. GPE support has had limited effect, however, on ensuring that sector dialogue and monitoring lead to mutual accountability for sector progress.

57. GPE support to strengthening mutual accountability mechanisms consisted of reciprocally complementary financial (i.e., related to GPE grants and funding requirements) and non-financial inputs. Table 3.7 summarizes where and to what extent GPE support has, or has not, contributed to strengthening processes and mechanisms for mutual accountability, as well as their application through in-country stakeholders.

Table 3.7 GPE support to strengthening sector dialogue and monitoring

TYPE OF GPE SUPPORT	DESCRIPTION
Financial (grant-related) Support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ESPIG funding criteria¹⁰³ likely acted as an incentive for the creation and/or continuation of LEGs in all summative CLE countries except The Gambia, which already had strong existing mechanisms, and Guyana, which does not have formalized mechanisms, as well as (likely) in most prospective CLE countries. • ESPIG funding, once received, was used to finance one-off or regular events related to sector dialogue and/or monitoring, including JSRs in all summative CLE countries except Guyana and Pakistan, and in at least one prospective CLE country (Malawi). • Civil Society Education Fund (CSEF): In some countries,¹⁰⁴ CSOs used CSEF funding to carry out sector monitoring-related activities such as studies of particular sector issues. However, the evaluations found <u>no strong evidence that resultant studies or reports subsequently informed sector dialogue, planning or decision making.</u>
Non-financial support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Secretariat and Coordinating Agency advocacy positively influenced LEG composition, especially in ensuring and/or improving the meaningful participation of CSOs, including teachers' unions (e.g., in Burkina Faso, Liberia, Cote d'Ivoire, Sierra Leone).

¹⁰² Similarly, the CLE for The Gambia noted that Joint Donor Review (JDR) discussions on emerging weaknesses of in-service training measures implemented to that date led to an agreement to subsequently check all in-service instructors' content knowledge and pedagogical skills, and that the JDR also informed additional technical assistance to train instructors provided by the GPE co-funded READ project.

¹⁰³ Until 2015 (i.e. before the new GPE Funding Model was put in place), ESPIG applications only required the existence of a LEG-approved credible sector plan. ESPIG applications for all the summative CLE countries reviewed in FY 2018 were based on these requirements. Under the New Funding Model, countries have to meet more criteria, including demonstrating the availability of critical data, or a strategy to use and produce data. During FY 2019 and FY 2020, prospective and summative CLEs conducted in countries that submitted ESPIG applications under the New Funding Model will explore, whether and how the new requirements have influenced sector dialogue and, especially, monitoring.

¹⁰⁴ Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, The Gambia and Sierra Leone

TYPE OF GPE SUPPORT	DESCRIPTION
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coordinating Agencies facilitated LEG meetings, a role that was particularly appreciated by LEG members in countries where the government faced capacity constraints in terms of staff with appropriate experience and skills, such as Sierra Leone, Pakistan and Cote d'Ivoire. The CAs' facilitation allowed LEGs to complete time sensitive review processes (e.g., across countries, for reviewing ESPIG proposals or draft ESPs). <u>It appears to have had less influence on ensuring that LEG meetings post ESP completion play a role in problem-solving or monitoring sector actors' alignment with and contributions to sector plan implementation.</u> • Quality reviews of Joint Sector Reviews through the GPE Secretariat had <u>no detectable effect on changing JSR content or processes.</u> However, CLEs did not systematically explore whether, how and when these ratings had been shared with in-country stakeholders – as such, LEGs may simply not have been aware of existing ratings.¹⁰⁵ In The Gambia, the CLE found that while JSRs had received low ratings in terms of GPE quality criteria for JSR, they had been inclusive, participatory, evidence-based and, most importantly, policy relevant by informing subsequent actions taken by the Ministry of Basic Education to improve aspects of ESP implementation.

58. Overall, CLE findings indicate that GPE financial and non-financial support have been successful at influencing the existence and composition of LEGs (or equivalents) and the conduct of JSRs but have had varying and mostly limited effect on the content and use of sector dialogue and monitoring by in-country stakeholders as means to ensure mutual accountability for sector progress through ESP implementation.

59. However, initial information deriving from the ongoing prospective CLEs indicates that the new GPE financial model, in particular the variable tranche of ESPIGs,¹⁰⁶ has the potential to influence sector dialogue and monitoring by providing an additional incentive to in-country stakeholders for keeping track of ESP implementation. This is further discussed in Box 3.5.

60. GPE provided both financial and non-financial support to help strengthen mutual accountability mechanisms in partner countries. While these types of support complemented each other, contextual differences between countries meant that different types of support had relatively more or less influence on country mechanisms during the respective review period than others. For example:

- Before joining GPE, countries such as Sierra Leone, Cote d'Ivoire and Pakistan¹⁰⁷ did not have a strong tradition of inclusive and participatory education sector dialogue. In this

Box 3.5: Variable tranche and indicators (prospective CLE)

In Zimbabwe and Ethiopia, stakeholders lauded the introduction of the variable tranche as part of the ESPIGs as it helped to make ongoing sector dialogue more meaningful by providing a focus and incentive for closely following (parts of) ESP implementation.

In the DRC, the indicators for the variable tranche of the 2017-2021 ESPIG are also regarded as an important (potential) monitoring tool. However, at the time of the first evaluation visit, planned LEG meetings to monitor progress against these indicators had not taken place as regularly as envisaged and related baselines had not yet been developed. This may negatively affect the release of funds and thereby also the achievement of other indicators.

¹⁰⁵ Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, The Gambia and Sierra Leone

r Secretariat ratings of JSRs should be systematically shared in order for them to be useful beyond GPE-internal tracking of progress against the GPE results framework indicators.

¹⁰⁶ Please see section 1.4 for information on the new funding model.

¹⁰⁷ Provinces of Sindh and Balochistan.

context, GPE support, including ESPIG funding requirements, GPE guidelines and technical support/advocacy through the Secretariat and the CA, had a strong influence on shaping the creation, composition and functioning of the LEGs.¹⁰⁸

- In Liberia, an existing sector mechanism, the Education Sector Development Committee (ESDC) had been created prior to the review period to meet (then) EFA-FTE requirements. During the period covered by the CLE,¹⁰⁹ technical assistance from the country lead informed the creation of a separate LEG to complement the existing but inefficient consultative mechanism. In this case, given that GPE funding requirements had already been met by the existence of the ESDC, GPE non-financial support appears to have been most relevant for influencing sector dialogue in the country.
- The Gambia has a long tradition of and strong existing mechanisms for participatory sector dialogue and monitoring that predated the review period. During this period, the key ministries MoBSE and MoHERST¹¹⁰ provided strong leadership and had a clear vision of what sector dialogue and monitoring should look like. As such, external incentives, such as advocacy through the Secretariat, had no detectable influence during the review period on shaping the nature of sector dialogue (or monitoring) in the country. GPE financial support through ESPIG funding, which was used to support Coordinating Committee Meetings¹¹¹ and Joint Donor Reviews, therefore turned out to be GPE's most relevant contribution in this area. Overall, GPE support to The Gambia had only modest, if any, influence on the nature and content of in-country mechanisms for mutual accountability – reflecting the fact that existing mechanisms were already functioning well and had no particular need for further strengthening.¹¹²
- In Guyana, GPE support (ESPIG funding requirements, country lead advocacy) had no detectable effect on improving sector dialogue or monitoring, both of which remained unstructured during the review period.¹¹³ Likely factors influencing this were that (i) as noted above, ESPIG funding requirements constituted a relatively weak incentive, meaning that GPE had very limited, if any, leverage to influence participatory sector planning and related country mechanisms for sector dialogue and monitoring; and (ii) in-country stakeholders expressed only limited interest in formalizing sector dialogue and monitoring, partly due to the fact that the number of development partners supporting the education sector is very small and that interactions tend to be informal.¹¹⁴

¹⁰⁸ I.e., there are no other evident factors beyond ESPIG funding criteria that would explain the creation of LEGs at the respective points in time. In other countries, e.g., Liberia, GPE funding criteria likely had a similar influence albeit before the period reviewed by the CLE.

¹⁰⁹ 2010-2018.

¹¹⁰ Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (MoBSE), Ministry of Higher Education, Research, Science and Technology (MoHERST).

¹¹¹ Sector dialogue and (joint) sector monitoring in The Gambia revolve around three mechanisms: Coordinating Committee Meetings (CCMs) held at least once a year in each of the country's six regions; capital-based local education group (LEG) meetings; and bi-yearly joint donor reviews (JDRs).

¹¹² This is not a negative assessment of GPE contributions, i.e. it does not mean that GPE support was ineffective but rather that only limited (and primarily financial) support was required in the given context.

¹¹³ During the time of the evaluation Guyana did neither have a LEG or equivalent nor had it recently conducted any joint sector reviews.

¹¹⁴ However, in The Gambia the number of development partners is also small, but this has not negatively affected sector dialogue and monitoring mechanisms.

Finding 10: While CLE findings on GPE support to sector dialogue and monitoring were largely positive, evaluations in three countries raised questions about the extent to which GPE country-level processes (especially around the grant agents' role) consistently reflect and promote the principle of mutual accountability.

61. CLEs for most countries did not identify unintended negative effects of GPE support to sector dialogue and/or sector monitoring. However, CLEs for Cote d'Ivoire, DRC and Kenya noted critically that there were limited mechanisms in place for the governments to hold GPE Grant Agents to account during their management of the respective ESPIG-funded projects.¹¹⁵ In Cote d'Ivoire, which is a francophone country, the GA prepared monitoring reports for the ESPIG-funded project in English only and submitted them to the Secretariat but not to the Cote d'Ivoire government. In both DRC and Cote d'Ivoire, government stakeholders perceived the respective GAs as having made unilateral decisions on where and how project funds could be used without consulting the respective governments.¹¹⁶ In Kenya, several development partners raised concerns over the fact that the GA took the lead in the conduct of education sector reviews. Given that the agency had a vested interest in demonstrating successes in ESPIG-supported areas, stakeholders perceived the GA's leadership for sector reviews as creating the risk of a conflict of interest.

62. Stakeholders perceived these issues as undermining local ownership of and government accountability for education sector results, while also putting into question the Grant Agents' (and/or GPE's) commitment to 'living' the notion of mutual accountability.

Additional factors beyond GPE support

63. Additional factors beyond GPE support that summative and prospective CLEs considered likely to have influenced mutual accountability for education sector progress are listed below.¹¹⁷

Table 3.8 Additional factors beyond GPE support influencing sector dialogue/monitoring

POSITIVE/SUPPORTIVE	NEGATIVE/HINDERING
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> External crises, such as the Ebola crisis in West Africa, which forced more frequent and closer collaboration among key stakeholders in both Sierra Leone and Liberia to address urgent and evolving sector needs. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>Capability</i> gaps among LEG members, JSR participants, and/or government representatives (co-) chairing the LEG/JSR; lack of clarity over roles and responsibilities where several ministries share responsibility for the sector (e.g., DRC). In Guyana, the absence of a national coalition of civil society organizations likely contributed to CSOs, until now, having had limited opportunity to consistently contribute to policy or strategy decisions in the education sector.

¹¹⁵ Countries can respond to (actual or perceived) weak GA performance by not selecting the same agency for the next grant, but, in the view of in-country stakeholders, have no strong mechanisms to hold GAs to account during ongoing grant implementation.

¹¹⁶ The respective CLEs found no evidence that would allow either validating or refuting this perception.

¹¹⁷ See also overview Table 3.5, which indicates the extent to which the key assumptions underlying each contribution claim applied in summative CLE country contexts. The assumption that relevant stakeholders had the *capabilities* required to work together and solve education issues was found to be 'strongly likely' in only one country and 'moderately likely' in the other six. The likelihood of the assumption that stakeholders had the required *motivation* was rated 'strong' in three countries and 'moderate' in four, while the likelihood of relevant *'opportunities'* being in place was found to be 'strong' in five and 'moderate' in two countries.

POSITIVE/SUPPORTIVE	NEGATIVE/HINDERING
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (History of) government leadership for and commitment to inclusive, participatory, systematic and evidence-based sector dialogue and monitoring (intrinsic motivation), e.g. in the Gambia. • Steps taken by countries prior to the review period to ensure availability of comprehensive and reliable sector data.¹¹⁸ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited buy-in of key in-country stakeholders for inclusive, participatory sector dialogue, indicating limited intrinsic or extrinsic <i>motivation</i> (e.g., external incentives beyond GPE funding) among stakeholders to further improve sector dialogue or monitoring (Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Guyana). • Lack of <i>opportunities</i> (money, time, conducive environment, security situation), e.g. in Pakistan.¹¹⁹ • External crises, such as the Ebola crisis in West Africa, which disrupted functioning of existing mechanisms and processes. • In federal states, absence of federal level dialogue mechanisms with linkages to provincial LEGs (Pakistan, DRC, Nepal).

3.3 Findings on sector financing¹²⁰

Key messages:

- Both domestic and international education sector financing are strongly influenced by factors beyond the immediate control of key education sector actors, including Ministries of Education. As such, sector financing lends itself less to direct GPE influence than sector planning, dialogue and monitoring. This is reflected in CLEs, which overall found less compelling evidence of GPE contributions to 'more and better' sector financing than to sector planning or mutual accountability.
- However, some CLEs indicate that good (GPE-supported) sector planning has the potential to help increase amounts of international sector financing by strengthening development partner trust in the respective DCP, and that the GPE Multiplier may have future positive effects on leveraging funds from development partners.¹²¹ Also, while often modest in terms of overall sector needs, GPE ESPIG funds constitute notable proportions of ESP implementation funding directed particularly to non-recurrent costs. With the potential exception of one country, CLEs found no evidence of GPE funds having replaced funding from other development partners.
- By endorsing an ESP, development partners formally commit to supporting the plan's implementation. However, in most reviewed countries, DPs tended to manage their own initiatives as stand-alone projects whose implementation and monitoring is not explicitly, or only broadly, aligned with those of the respective ESP. Similarly, ESPIG-funded initiatives are often only partially aligned with government systems and are rarely channeled through pooled sector funding mechanisms.

¹¹⁸ Under the new GPE funding model, countries have to demonstrate the availability of critical sector data as part of their ESPIG application. Whether this requirement contributes to enhancing data availability will be explored in CLEs conducted in FY 2019 and 2020.

¹¹⁹ In Pakistan's provinces of Sindh and Balochistan, LEG meetings tend to be held in the respective provincial capitals. The security situation, combined with the required investment of time and travel costs, makes it difficult for LEG members who are not based in the capitals to regularly attend LEG meetings.

¹²⁰ Relevant in view of GEQ 1.3 in the evaluation matrix. The related contribution claim as outlined in the country-level ToC for this assignment was: "*GPE advocacy and funding requirements contribute to more and better financing for education in the country.*" (Contribution claim C).

¹²¹ CLEs conducted to date have not yet examined the (likely) effects of the new GPE funding model in depth, in particular the use of the variable tranche, e.g., in influencing amounts or quality of domestic sector financing. This will be further explored in upcoming summative CLEs during FYs 2019/FY2020 and in continuing prospective CLEs.

Strategic questions:

- Should GPE consider additional incentives for increased domestic education sector funding beyond those already introduced under the New Funding Model?
- How can GPE strengthen its influence in relation to the alignment and harmonization of development partners' funding to education?
- Can GPE do more to help ensure that LEGs (or equivalents) and Joint Sector Reviews critically review and help improve the quality of domestic and international sector financing on a regular basis?

Overview

64. Table 3.9 summarizes summative CLE findings on changes in education sector financing and related GPE contributions. Note that, unlike similar tables in previous chapters, the columns on GPE contributions deliberately focus on the '*likelihood*' of such contributions, reflecting that the nature of the change processes in question makes it difficult to identify whether and to what extent GPE support has influenced observed changes. Details on the financial trends depicted in the table are provided in Appendix V.¹²²

¹²² Unless otherwise noted, all data on education sector finding presented in this section are in constant 2016 US\$.

Table 3.9 Overall findings on sector financing during respective review periods – summative CLE

COUNTRY (PERIOD COVERED BY FINANCING INFORMATION) ¹²³	PROGRESS TOWARDS MORE/BETTER EDUCATION SECTOR FINANCING					LIKELIHOOD OF GPE CONTRIBUTIONS TO:			UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS APPLIED? ¹²⁴	
	Total domestic educ. ex- penditure	Education share of domestic ex- penditure	Met 20% domestic financing goal? ¹²⁵	Total intl. education financing to country	Quality of intl. financing	Amount of domestic financing	Amount of intl. financing	Quality of financing		
Burkina Faso (2010-2015/16)	Increase by 86%	Increase from 16.2% to 18%	Approache d	Decrease	Improved	Low	Low	Strong	1	2
Cote d'Ivoire (2010/11-2015/16)	Increase by 85%	Increase from 21.7% to 23.6%	Met	Increase on average but net decline ¹²⁶	No change	Modest	Low	Low	1	2
Liberia (2010-2016/17)	Increase by 64%	Increase from 13% to 15% ¹²⁷	Not met	Increase ¹²⁸	No change	Modest	Low	Low	1	2

¹²³ The periods for which information was available on domestic and international sector financing respectively sometimes varied. If this is the case, differing start dates of the period covered by available data is indicated through a '/', e.g., for Burkina Faso, information on domestic financing is available up until 2015, but for international financing up until 2016. This is shown as "2009-2015/16".

¹²⁴ For sector financing, the two underlying assumptions in the country-level ToC were: (1) GPE has sufficient *leverage* to influence the amount and quality of domestic education sector financing, and (2) *External (contextual) factors* permit national and international stakeholders to increase/improve the quality of sector financing.

¹²⁵ Under the New GPE Funding Model (in place since 2015), one ESPIG funding requirements is that 20 percent of government expenditure be invested in education, or that government expenditures on education show an increase toward the 20 percent threshold. Even before the New Funding Model was established, country leads consistently advocated for countries to aspire to meet this goal. While none of the ESPIGs reviewed through summative CLEs during FY2018 had been developed under the new funding model, the evaluations still explored whether countries had, or were on track to meeting this objective.

¹²⁶ And total net ODA to education remains lower than before the 2010/11 political crisis.

¹²⁷ With temporary drop to 10.6% in 2014/15 during the Ebola crisis.

¹²⁸ Declined from 2010 until 2014 but rose strongly in 2015 and again in 2016.

COUNTRY (PERIOD COVERED BY FINANCING INFORMATION) ¹²³	PROGRESS TOWARDS MORE/BETTER EDUCATION SECTOR FINANCING					LIKELIHOOD OF GPE CONTRIBUTIONS TO:			UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS APPLIED? ¹²⁴	
	Total domestic educ. ex- penditure	Education share of domestic ex- penditure	Met 20% domestic financing goal? ¹²⁵	Total intl. education financing to country	Quality of intl. financing	Amount of domestic financing	Amount of intl. financing	Quality of financing		
Guyana (2010/2014-2016) ¹²⁹	Increase by 17%	Stable around 20%	Met	Increase	No change	Low	Low	Low	1	2
Sierra Leone (2010/2012-2016)	Decrease by 8%	Decrease from 14.9% to 12.5%	Not met	Increase ¹³⁰	No change	Low	Modest	Low	1	2
The Gambia (2010-2015/16)	Increase by 7%	Fluctuating around 15% ¹³¹	Not met	Increase ¹³²	Improved	Modest	Strong (indirectly)	Modest	1	2
Pakistan (Sindh) (2010/2011-2016)	Increase by 42%	Remained stable at 20.1%	Met	No data ¹³³	No change	Low	No data	Modest	1	2
Pakistan (Balochistan) 2010/2011-2016)	Increase by 125%	Decrease from 18.8% to 16.8%	Not met	No data	No change	Low	No data	Modest	1	2

¹²⁹ 2009-2016 for data on Education ODA as share of overall ODA.

¹³⁰ Education-specific and overall ODA fell dramatically in 2014 and 2015 but recovered in 2016 (last year of OECD data), and the CLE identified a positive trend post-2016 based on projections of donor commitments.

¹³¹ However, the government projected a 17% decrease in 2018.

¹³² Fluctuated, particularly low in 2015, but overall highest education ODA of entire 2010-2016 period in 2016, and 2014-2016 average above 2010-2013 average.

¹³³ Increase in education ODA to Pakistan overall but no data on provincial level.

65. As shown in Table 3.10, most of the prospective CLEs are not yet in a position to make evidence-based statements on the likelihood of GPE contributions to sector financing in the reviewed countries. However, in the two countries that have applied for a GPE Multiplier¹³⁴ (Nepal and Zimbabwe), a direct GPE contribution to leveraging additional international financing appears plausible given that a successful multiplier grant application is conditional on other donors indicating their willingness to contribute new, additional sector funding. Appendix V provides some descriptive data on sector financing in the eight countries reviewed through prospective CLEs.

Table 3.10 *Prospective CLE – Plausibility of GPE contributions to sector financing (preliminary observations at Year 1)*

	DRC	ETHIOPIA	KENYA	MALAWI	MALI	NEPAL	NIGERIA	ZIMBABWE
GPE contribution s to amounts of domestic financing	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Too early to assess
GPE contribution s to amounts of intl. financing	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Plausible - GPE Multiplier	Too early to assess	Plausible - GPE Multiplier
GPE contribution s to the quality of sector financing?	Too early to assess	Plausible as ESPIG part of pooled fund	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Too early to assess	Plausible as ESPIG part of pooled fund	Too early to assess	Too early to assess

Characteristics of domestic sector funding

Finding 11: Domestic education financing increased in absolute terms in six of the seven summative CLE countries during the periods reviewed, while education as share of overall DCP financing increased in four. Observed trends appear to have been affected primarily by contextual factors outside of the education sector.

66. As reflected in Table 3.9 above and summarized in Appendix V, total education expenditures (inflation-adjusted) increased during the review periods in almost all summative CLE countries, usually as a result of general economic growth and/or of overall government budgets increasing in absolute terms.¹³⁵ Education financing as a share of total government expenditures increased in three countries (Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia), and three countries met or exceeded the GPE goal of allocating 20 percent of total expenditures to education (Cote d'Ivoire, Guyana, Sindh).

¹³⁴ See section 1.4 for a description of the Multiplier.

¹³⁵ In Sierra Leone, while domestic education financing did not improve, the government was able to protect existing levels of financing during the Ebola crisis, something that other sectors in the country had not been able to do.

67. Despite increases, available domestic sector financing remains low and insufficient to cover existing education sector needs. This was reflected in actual funding gaps for sector plan implementation,¹³⁶ which ranged from 19 percent (Burkina Faso),¹³⁷ 33 percent in Sierra Leone, to 77 percent (Balochistan).¹³⁸ (See also section 3.4)

68. Across the reviewed countries,¹³⁹ recurrent costs, especially for teacher salaries, remained more or less stable and continued to make up the vast majority of domestic education expenditures: 95 percent in Cote d'Ivoire and 70 to 80 percent in other countries. Donor contributions have therefore been responsible for most capital (non-recurrent) expenditures that occur.

69. The share of domestic education sector financing allocated to basic education increased in two jurisdictions (Sindh and Burkina Faso)¹⁴⁰, decreased to below 40 percent in Sierra Leone,¹⁴¹ and remained stable in Cote d'Ivoire,¹⁴² Balochistan, The Gambia and Liberia at rates varying between 40 and 75 percent during the period 2010-2015/16 (see Appendix V).

70. Summative CLEs provide no conclusive or linear explanations for observed trends in domestic sector financing. For example, there was no strong indication that sector dialogue (including during sector planning processes) had lasting effects on actual amounts or quality of domestic education sector financing. Instead, related decisions often appear to be driven by high-level factors beyond the direct influence of the MoEs and/or even the influence of country governments. Some key factors are summarized in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11 Contextual factors likely influencing domestic sector financing

TYPE OF FACTOR	EXAMPLES
Factors partially within the control of the respective MoE	Competing sub-sector priorities: Countries allocating decreasing proportions of their overall education budgets to basic education (e.g. Cote d'Ivoire and Sierra Leone) indicates competing priorities within the education sector. This can reflect demographic pressures on higher levels of the education system deriving from countries having provided (nominally) free access to basic education but can also be due to political pressure to strengthen prestige-rich higher education.
Factors beyond the control/direct influence	Competing sector priorities (and sector funding targets): Not being able to meet the 20% target for education (e.g. Sierra Leone, Liberia, The Gambia, Balochistan) reflects, among other factors, the existence of other, equally pressing priorities that the DCP government is trying to

¹³⁶ Reviewed countries varied in the amount and types of data available on estimated and/or actual funding gaps for ESP implementation. Data on actual funding gaps (i.e. calculated at the end of sector plan implementation) was available for only three countries. This is further discussed in section 3.4 on sector plan implementation.

¹³⁷ This figure only applies to the Strategic Basic Education Program however, which covered part of the overall ESP. No data were available on the funding gap for the full ESP including higher education portions.

¹³⁸ This figure reflects data as of 2016 and thus before the end of the ESP period. Final figures may change.

¹³⁹ Where related data were available for the respective review period

¹⁴⁰ In Burkina Faso from 56.5% to 63.8 % between 2012-2015 and in Sindh from 35% in 2012 to 80% in 2016.

¹⁴¹ Sierra Leone, financing for basic education decreased from 66.7% in 2012 to 38.9% in 2016.

¹⁴² In Cote d'Ivoire, while overall allocations to basic education remained relatively stable around 55% there was a shift in that primary education allocations decreased from 41.5 % in 2010 to 37.8 % in 2015, while lower secondary allocations increased from 14.1 % to 16.9 %.

TYPE OF FACTOR	EXAMPLES
of the respective MoE	address. In several contexts, education is not the only sector for which countries are trying to meet specific budget allocation targets. ¹⁴³ Political considerations: Reasons for difficulties in eliciting additional funding for education from the respective Ministry of Finance are in most cases political rather than technical in nature. ¹⁴⁴
Factors beyond the control/direct influence of the MoE, MoF and/or overall DCP government	Country's macroeconomic environment , e.g., in Sierra Leone growth in education budget constrained by freezing of government-wide nominal wage bill following negotiations between government and International Monetary Fund in response to country's deteriorating financial situation. Contextual shocks or unrest , e.g., due to political changes, health crises or natural disasters can affect decisions around the amounts and quality of both domestic and international education sector financing (as evidenced, for example in Sierra Leone, Liberia, Cote d'Ivoire), and, such as in Sierra Leone, can lead to the depreciation of the national currency, resulting in real time spending drops. Such contextual factors can also influence donor and LEG decisions on the most adequate modality that international education sector resources, including GPE funds, should be channeled through. Prospective CLEs noted similar negative effects on domestic education sector financing due to post-emergency and/or conflict settings in DRC, Mali and Nepal (earthquake).

Characteristics of international education sector financing

Finding 12: During the review periods, relative and absolute amounts of international education sector financing increased in six countries and decreased in one. In most countries, international financing has been channeled through project modalities, which likely contributed to fragmented ESP implementation and limited mutual accountability for sector results.

71. As shown in Table 3.12, during the period 2010-2016, the absolute amounts of international education sector financing increased in six countries¹⁴⁵ and considerably declined in one (Burkina Faso). Education sector financing as a percentage of overall ODA increased in the same DCPs and declined in Burkina Faso. However, in three countries the positive overall trend incorporates significant fluctuations of international education sector financing during the 2010-2016 period (Liberia, Sierra Leone, The Gambia), and in Cote d'Ivoire, while there has been an increase when comparing 2016 amounts to the annual average for preceding years, net amounts in 2016 were lower than they had been in 2010. Furthermore, even in countries that experienced an increase in education ODA, this was not sufficient to fill funding gaps for ESP implementation (see section 3.4).

¹⁴³ E.g., under the Abuja declaration, all African Union member states are expected to allocate 15% of national resources to the health sector. The Common African Agricultural Development Policy (CAADP), also known as the Maputo and/or the Malabo Declaration, commits signatories to allocating 10% of the national budget to the agriculture sector.

¹⁴⁴ Reasons can include MoF perceptions MoE budget execution capacity; competing sector priorities; budgeting timelines that are not aligned. A recent GPE-commissioned study notes that "Any attempt to mobilize additional resources from the national budget (via Ministry of Finance) must recognize that budgeting is mainly a political process, not a technical one." See: Oxford Policy Management Group (2018): The Education Sector Investment Approach. Unpublished Draft for deliberation and recommendation to the GPE Board. September 2018, p.15.

¹⁴⁵ Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Guyana, Pakistan (overall), The Gambia and Sierra Leone.

72. The table further illustrates varying trends in relation to ODA specifically to basic education. Sierra Leone is the only country where basic education ODA increased during the review period both in terms of absolute and average amounts and also as a share of total education ODA. In five other countries (Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Guyana and the Gambia), the basic education as share of total education ODA decreased during the same period, indicating shifting donor priorities to other education sub-sectors.

Table 3.12 *Total Education ODA and Education ODA as % of overall ODA¹⁴⁶*

COUNTRY	TOTAL EDUCATION ODA UP TO AND DURING REVIEW PERIODS	ODA TO BASIC EDUCATION DURING SAME PERIOD (US \$ MILLION AND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EDUCATION ODA)	EDUCATION ODA AS PERCENTAGE OF OVERALL ODA	OVERALL ODA DURING SAME PERIOD (US\$ MILLIONS)
Burkina Faso	Decreased (net and on average) from US\$ 82 million in 2010 to US\$ 67.5 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$70m).	Decreased (net and on average) from US \$39 million in 2010 to US\$ 23 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 32 million).	Decrease (net and on average) from 8.4 percent in 2010 to 6.2 percent in 2016 (2010-2016 average was 6.9 percent)	Increase (net and on average) from US\$970m in 2010 to US\$1091m in 2016. (2010-2016 average was US\$1025m).
		Decreased as percentage of total education ODA (from 47 percent in 2010 to 34 percent in 2016)		
Cote d'Ivoire	Increase on average, despite net decrease from US\$ 53 m in 2010 to US\$ 44 m in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$39m).	Net decrease from US\$ 15 million in 2010 to US\$ 9 million in 2016 but increase on average (2010-2016 average was US\$ 7 million).	Increase on average, despite net decrease from 6.1 percent in 2010 to 4.5 percent in 2016 (2010-2016 average was 3.3 percent)	Decrease on average, despite net increase from US\$881m in 2010 to US\$985m in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$1427m).
		Decreased as percentage of total education ODA from 29 percent in 2010 to 21 percent in 2016.		
Liberia	Increase (net and on average) from US\$ 46m in 2010 to US\$ 70.885 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$43m).	Increase (net and on average) from US\$ 27 million in 2010 to US\$ 41 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 21 million).	Increase (net and on average) from 2.8 percent in 2010 to 8.6 percent in 2016 (2010-2016 average was 5.5 percent)	Decrease (net and on average) from US\$1,640m in 2010 to US\$820m in 2016. (2010-2016 average was US\$882m).
		Slight decrease as percentage of total education ODA from 59		

¹⁴⁶ Source: OECD-DAC Creditor Reporting System data, all donors, gross disbursement, constant prices (2016)

COUNTRY	TOTAL EDUCATION ODA UP TO AND DURING REVIEW PERIODS	ODA TO BASIC EDUCATION DURING SAME PERIOD (US \$ MILLION AND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EDUCATION ODA)	EDUCATION ODA AS PERCENTAGE OF OVERALL ODA	OVERALL ODA DURING SAME PERIOD (US\$ MILLIONS)
		percent in 2010 to 58 percent in 2016.		
Guyana	Increase (net and on average) by 346 percent from US\$ 1.65m in 2010 to US\$ 7.38m in 2016 ¹⁴⁷ (2010-2016 average was US\$4.1m).	<p>Slight increase (net and on average) from US\$ 1 million in 2010 to US\$ 1.4 m in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 1.2m)</p> <p>Strong decrease as percentage of total education ODA from 61 percent in 2010 to 17 percent in 2016</p>	Increase (net and on average) from 1.1 percent in 2010 to 8.4 percent in 2016) (2010-2016 average was 4.4 percent)	Decrease (net and on average) from US\$154 in 2010 to US\$88m in 2016. (2010-2016 average was US\$114m).
Pakistan overall (no separate data on Balochistan and Sindh)	Increase (net and on average) by 37 percent from US\$468 million in 2010 to US\$642 million in 2016. (2010-2016 average was US\$503m).	<p>Increase (net and on average) from US\$ 115 million in 2010 to US\$ 181 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 148m) for Pakistan overall- no provincial data available</p> <p>Increase as percentage of total education ODA from 25 percent in 2010 to 28 percent in 2016</p>	Increase net and on average (from 13.3 percent in 2013 to 17.8 percent in 2016) for ODA to Pakistan overall – no provincial data available (2010-2016 average was 14.3 percent)	Increase (net and on average) from US\$3531 in 2010 to US\$3611 in 2016. (2010-2016 average was US\$3515m).
The Gambia	Increase overall (net and on average) despite fluctuating around US 5 million from 2009 to 2013 (US\$ 6.6m in 2010), decline to US 3.499 million in	Decrease (both net and on average) from US\$ 2 million in 2010 to US\$ 1.4 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 1.8 million)	Increase (net and on average) from 6.5 percent in 2010 to 7.9 percent in 2016	Decrease on average, despite net increase from US\$102m in 2010 to US\$108 in 2016. (2010-2016 average was US\$112m).

¹⁴⁷ Following decline from 2007 to 2009.

COUNTRY	TOTAL EDUCATION ODA UP TO AND DURING REVIEW PERIODS	ODA TO BASIC EDUCATION DURING SAME PERIOD (US \$ MILLION AND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EDUCATION ODA)	EDUCATION ODA AS PERCENTAGE OF OVERALL ODA	OVERALL ODA DURING SAME PERIOD (US\$ MILLIONS)
	2015, then increase to US\$ 8.591 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$6.0m).	Decrease as percentage of total education ODA from 32 percent in 2010 to 16 percent in 2016	(2010-2016 average was 5.6 percent)	
Sierra Leone	Increase overall (net and on average) despite strong fluctuations – from US\$ 18.425 million in 2014 (US\$ 18m in 2010) down to US\$ 9.181 million in 2015, and up to US\$ 33.359 million in 2016 ¹⁴⁸ (2010-2016 average was US\$19m).	Increase (net and on average) from US\$ 5 million in 2010 to US\$ 10 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 8 million) Increase as percentage of total education ODA from 28 percent in 2010 to 30 percent in 2016	Increase (net and on average) from 4.3 percent in 2010 to 4.6 percent in 2016 (2010-2016 average was 3.6 percent)	Increase (net and on average) from US\$415m in 2010 to US\$726m in 2016. (2010-2016 average was US\$596m).

¹⁴⁸ Despite fluctuations, education ODA in 2016 lay above the 2010-2016 period average.

73. CLE findings reflect global trends in education sector financing, which indicate increases in education ODA levels (despite decreasing overall ODA),¹⁵⁰ but also persistent gaps in the geographic allocation of this aid – see Box 3.6.

74. In most countries, main education sector donors tend to be either multilateral (e.g., WB, AFD, EU, AfDB, UNICEF, WFP) or bilateral agencies (e.g., DFID, USAID). Non-traditional donors, such as BRIC (Brazil, Russia, India, China) donors, were found to play either no role in the education sector, or only limited ones (e.g. in Guyana) usually in sub-sectors other than basic education.¹⁵¹ Philanthropic foundations were present in a few countries (e.g., Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire), but tended to provide relatively limited financial support to specific sub-sectors outside of basic education and were not considered major players influencing the sector. Even where non-traditional donors were present in the country, LEG membership tended to be focused on OECD-DAC members.

75. In countries reviewed by summative CLEs, the quality of international sector financing (in terms of harmonization and alignment with DCP government systems) marginally improved in

Box 3.6: Global trends in education ODA¹⁴⁹

Between 2015 and 2016, aid to education grew by US\$1.5 billion, or 13% in real terms, to reach US\$13.4 billion and the share of education in total aid increased for the first time since 2009. Two-thirds of this increase is due to an increase in aid to basic education, which increased by 17%, from US\$5.1 billion in 2015 to US\$6 billion in 2016.

However, aid disbursements are still not allocated to countries most in need. The share of basic education aid to low income countries fell from 36% in 2002 to 22% in 2016. The shortfall reflects the long-term decline in the share allocated to sub-Saharan Africa, which is home to half of all out-of-school children worldwide. While the region used to receive half of total education aid, this share has been on a downward trend reaching 24 percent in 2016. GPE, which predominantly targets sub-Saharan Africa, is an exception in this regard.

Box 3.7: Good practice example - Channeling ESPIGs through pooled funding mechanisms

The summative CLE for Burkina Faso as well as prospective CLEs for Ethiopia and Nepal indicate that channeling ESPIGs through pooled (sub-)sector funding mechanisms positively contributes to donor collaboration, alignment and harmonization, strengthening DCP government leadership for sector progress while reducing related transaction costs by eliminating the need for individual donor planning and reporting. In Burkina Faso, the pooled funding mechanism also adds financial flexibility given that, unlike government and some donor funding, any resources unspent at the end of the fiscal year are simply rolled over to the next FY.

For individual development partners, including GPE, drawbacks of using pooled mechanisms are a reduction in possible levers for direct (bilateral) influence on government decision-making as well difficulties in tracking individual development partner contributions to results. Additionally, in Ethiopia, the timing of ESPIG application and approval versus the timing of developing the programme of work supported through the pooled funding mechanism has meant until now that GPE has limited influence on determining programme objectives.

¹⁴⁹ Source: UNESCO/Global Education Monitoring Report (2018). Aid to Education: a return to growth? Policy Paper 35, May 2018. Available at: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0026/002636/263616e.pdf>.

¹⁵⁰ In the reviewed sample this is reflected in Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Guyana and The Gambia, where increases in education ODA occurred while overall ODA to these countries declined. At the same time, education ODA to Burkina Faso – despite being categorized as being among the Least Developed Countries, declined.

¹⁵¹ Summative and prospective evaluations alike found no evidence of BRIC donors supporting the education sector in any of the reviewed countries. Where they were present, e.g., China as a donor in Guyana, they focused on extraction of natural resources or infrastructure.

only two countries (Burkina Faso and The Gambia) and remained the same in the other five. In the 15 countries reviewed by summative and prospective CLEs, development partners tend to channel their education sector support through stand-alone projects or projects co-financed with one or few other partners; the exceptions are Burkina Faso, Ethiopia and Nepal, where education sector pooled funds are in place.¹⁵² See Box 3.7. Only one CLE to date found evidence of general budget support provided by a DP being tied to the respective country meeting specific education sector targets (EU in Sierra Leone). As further discussed in section 3.4, DPs' reliance on project modalities likely contributed to the frequently observed fragmentation of ESP implementation and lack of oversight of progress made towards achieving overarching sector wide objectives.

76. Country-specific document review and interviews with in-country development partners provided only limited insights into the 'why' of how donor contributions to a country had evolved over time. CLEs found no evidence of ESP quality or ongoing sector dialogue in the LEGs and donor-specific forums having noticeable effects on the amounts or quality of international financing. Instead, related decisions appear to be driven by factors and considerations beyond the control

of the in-country DP representatives. This includes global, regional or sub-regional priorities of the respective donor agency that evolve largely independently from its membership in GPE.¹⁵³ See Box 3.8.

Box 3.8: Change in income status affecting international financing

Guyana's shift to an upper middle-income country (2016) led to challenges in attracting donors, although support is still required considering existing disparities. While ODA to education increased, overall ODA decreased by 78% from US\$405 million in 2006 to US\$88 million in 2016.

Similarly, Kenya no longer qualifies for interest-free loans and may face an overall decrease in donor support due to its categorization as a lower middle-income country in 2014.

GPE contributions to education sector financing

Finding 13: Education Sector Plan Implementation Grants (ESPIG) added, in most cases modestly, to overall education sector resources and were generally found to not have crowded out other international education sector financing. GPE ESPIG application processes, which are the same regardless of ESPIG size, were incongruently extensive for small grant amounts.

77. ESPIG funding constituted the most direct GPE contribution to education sector financing both in providing resources to support sector plan implementation, and in (potentially) modeling good practices in harmonization with other partners and alignment of international financing with national systems.

78. In one country (Cote d'Ivoire), the World Bank stopped providing its own education sector resources while acting as GPE Grant Agent, indicating the possibility of GPE funding having replaced WB resources, instead of having leveraged additional sector financing.¹⁵⁴ No similar evidence was noted in the other six summative CLEs.

¹⁵² In Kenya and Malawi, efforts are underway to strengthen the use of pooled funding mechanisms.

¹⁵³ Similar findings are presented by Oxford Policy Management Group in their (draft) concept paper for the GPE Board on the Education Sector Investment Case (September 2018). The study notes (p. iii) that decisions by bilateral donors and multilateral or regional development banks about how much is allocated at the national level are mainly exogenous to the ESP as it depends on the country needs relative to other sectors (and other countries).

¹⁵⁴ Several in-country stakeholders were of the view that such a replacement had taken place. However, related decisions may also reflect WB assessments of changes in the country's demand for funding.

79. Table 3.13 summarizes some characteristics of GPE ESPIGs in the seven countries reviewed through summative country evaluations. It illustrates significant variances in grant amounts (from US\$ 1.7 million in Guyana to US\$78.2 million in Burkina Faso) as well as in the ESPIG's relative contribution to covering the overall (estimated) costs for sector plan implementation (from 0.16 percent in Guyana to 16.8 percent in Cote d'Ivoire). However, in several cases, in-country stakeholders considered ESPIG funding to add value beyond its mere dollar value (see also section 3.5). This perceived relevance of GPE financial contributions appeared to be somewhat, but not solely, influenced by the total number of education sector donors in the respective country, the relative size of the ESPIG compared to other donors' contributions. In Zimbabwe, for example, GPE is one of only two key donors (the other being DFID) who, together, fund almost all capital investments in the education sector. In this context, local stakeholders tended to describe GPE contributions as 'crucial'. In contrast, in Guyana, while GPE is also one among only few sector donors, GPE contributions were valued, but viewed as comparatively less significant for the overall sector, possibly due to the fact that the most recent ESPIG of US\$ 1.7m was dramatically smaller than the preceding FTI grant of US\$32.9m, and that it constituted only 6 percent of total ODA to education during the review period.

80. As is also shown in Table 3.13, most of the reviewed ESPIGs used a single donor or co-funding project modality; the ESPIG was channeled through a pooled funding mechanism in only one country assessed through a summative CLE (Burkina Faso). Also, most reviewed ESPIGs were only partly aligned with national development strategies, institutions and procedures, as measured against the alignment indicators of the GPE 2016-2020 results framework.¹⁵⁵

Table 3.13 *Characteristics of ESPIGs (summative CLE)*

COUNTRY	ESPIG AMOUNT DURING REVIEW PERIOD	ESPIG AS PERCENTAGE OF ESTIMATED ESP IMPLEMENTATION COSTS ¹⁵⁶	ESPIG AS SHARE OF TOTAL ODA TO EDUCATION	DEGREE OF HARMONIZATION (ESPIG MODALITY)	ESPIG ALIGNMENT WITH NATIONAL PROCEDURES? ¹⁵⁷
Burkina Faso	US\$78.2 million	Estimated 2.9% of total ESP costs for 2013-16 period ¹⁵⁸	21 percent	High: Pooled fund	Aligned (met 9 of 10 alignment criteria)
Cote d'Ivoire	US\$41.4 million	16.8% of estimated costs	16 percent	Low: Single donor project	Met 3 of 10 alignment criteria)

¹⁵⁵ The picture is more balanced for the eight countries covered by prospective evaluations. ESPIGs were found to be aligned in four countries (Ethiopia, Kenya, Nepal and Nigeria) and partly aligned in the other four (DRC, Malawi, Mali and Zimbabwe).

¹⁵⁶ Actual implementation costs where data are available, otherwise estimated costs as per ESP projections.

¹⁵⁷ 10 GPE alignment criteria as described in the GPE Results Framework, indicator 29. For GPE, for a grant to be considered 'aligned', it needs to meet 7 of the 10 criteria.

¹⁵⁸ This estimate is based on the ESP's expectation that 74.6% (862 billion CFA) of the estimated total 1,115 billion CFA for the 2013-15 period would be for basic education and that the GPE ESPIG contributed 3.88% of PDSEB (primary education project) costs. However, calculating the ESPIG's relative size is difficult as the ESP provided estimates only for the 2013-15 period, while the ESPIG covered 2013-16. Also, while the ESP provided cost estimates for non-basic education, actual implementation efforts were, in fact, directed to basic education with no significant expenditures made for other sub-sectors.

COUNTRY	ESPIG AMOUNT DURING REVIEW PERIOD	ESPIG AS PERCENTAGE OF ESTIMATED ESP IMPLEMENTATION COSTS ¹⁵⁶	ESPIG AS SHARE OF TOTAL ODA TO EDUCATION	DEGREE OF HARMONIZATION (ESPIG MODALITY)	ESPIG ALIGNMENT WITH NATIONAL PROCEDURES? ¹⁵⁷
The Gambia	US\$6.9 million	3.2% of estimated costs ¹⁵⁹	17 percent	Medium: Co-funded project	Met 5 of 10 criteria)
Guyana	US\$1.7 million	0.16% of estimated costs	6 percent	Low: Single donor project	Met 1 of 10 alignment criteria)
Liberia	US\$40.0 million	5.6% of estimated costs ¹⁶⁰	13 percent	Low: Single donor project	Met 4 of 10 alignment criteria)
Pakistan (Balochistan)	US\$33 million	6.7% of estimated costs	No data	Medium: Co-funded project	Met 2 of 10 alignment criteria)
Pakistan (Sindh)	US\$66 million	0.9% of estimated costs	No data	Low: Single donor project	Aligned (met all 10 criteria)
Sierra Leone	US\$17.9 million	3% of estimated costs	18 percent	Medium: Co-funded project	Met 1 of 10 alignment criteria

81. In three of the seven countries reviewed through summative CLEs,¹⁶³ the ESPIG amount for the period under review was smaller than what the country had previously received through GPE or the FTI. This was particularly striking in the former FTI recipient countries Guyana and The Gambia. In these, but also some

Box 3.9: Diminishing GPE country allocations

GPE's current approach of determining maximum country allocations based on overall economic levels (GDP/capita), population size and on the total number, rather than the percentage, of out-of-school children places small countries at a disadvantage.¹⁶¹ Some government representatives in Guyana and The Gambia, which had received relatively large grants under the FTI but significantly smaller amounts under GPE, expressed regret over the fact that GPE had not continued the FTI's focus on 'donor orphans'.

In The Gambia, declining country allocations also involuntarily signal that the country's strong performance in implementing FTI and GPE grants, and its overall progress in addressing education sector challenges, is not being rewarded. Meanwhile, larger countries receive higher levels of funding regardless of their performance.¹⁶²

¹⁵⁹ For implementation of the 2014-2017 Medium Term Education Sector Plan.

¹⁶⁰ While the ESPIG was originally intended to support the first three years of the 2010-2020 ESP, it was implemented over a 6-year period. The total estimated ESP costs for this period were US\$714 million.

¹⁶¹ To at least partly mitigate this, the Board decided in March 2017 that small island states whose MCA is below US\$ 1.3 million when calculated by the allocation methodology will have their MCA increased to this amount, and other eligible countries whose calculated MCA is below US\$ 5 million will have their MCA increased to \$ 5 million. (Source: Eligibility, Allocation and Proportionality: Recommendations from the Strategic Financing Working Group. BOD/2017/03 DOC 04)

¹⁶² The introduction of the variable tranche only partly addresses this issue.

¹⁶³ Burkina Faso, Guyana, and The Gambia. The same applies to three countries reviewed through prospective CLEs, namely Kenya, Nepal and Zimbabwe.

other countries, several national and international stakeholders noted that recent ESPIG applications had meant “a lot of effort for not a lot of money.”¹⁶⁴ See Box 3.9.

Finding 14: In summative CLE countries, ESPIG funding requirements, other GPE grants and non-financial support had only limited effects on the amounts and quality of domestic and international education sector financing. However, some prospective CLEs are indicating promising (future) effects of the GPE Multiplier on resource mobilization.

82. Beyond ESPIG funding, the following types of GPE support aimed at influencing domestic and/or international education sector financing through other development partners applied (in varying combinations) in the reviewed countries:

- **Country-level advocacy** through the Secretariat country lead during country visits and/or joint sector reviews in all countries for increasing domestic funding to meet the target of allocating 20 percent of total government resources to education. For countries that have not yet achieved universal primary education, GPE further suggests that 40 percent of the total education sector budget be allocated to primary education.
- **CSEF grants** to civil society organizations with the intent to support research and/or related advocacy for increasing domestic education spending ¹⁶⁵
- **Advocacy during global GPE events**, such as the GPE replenishment conference in Dakar in February 2018, which was attended by ministers of education (all countries).
- **Technical assistance** to government and other sector stakeholders through the country lead.¹⁶⁶
- **ESPIG funding requirements:** For ESPIGs developed under the NFM,¹⁶⁷ country applications need to provide evidence of DCP government commitment to financing the endorsed ESP/TEP.

83. Table 3.14 provides an overview of summative country-level evaluation findings on the types of likely GPE contributions to and influence on domestic and international education sector financing. It shows that, overall, there is some, but fragmented evidence of GPE support having had tangible effects.

¹⁶⁴ Consultations with the Secretariat indicate that in June 2018 the Board provided the option for countries with grants up to \$5 million to choose whether or not they want to include results-based financing (variable tranche) in their ESPIG application. In addition, the Secretariat is currently piloting some more streamlined quality assurance processes for smaller grant amounts.

¹⁶⁵ All summative CLE countries except Guyana received CSEF funding.

¹⁶⁶ For example, during a 2017 mission to Burkina Faso, the GPE country lead participated in a workshop intended to improve the ‘Compte d’Affectation Spécial du Trésor’ (CAST), a pooled funding mechanism that receives most bilateral education funding to Burkina Faso including GPE funds. The country lead suggested using 3.9% (US\$1.3 million) of GPE’s maximum country allocation to Burkina Faso to pay for annual audits and other oversight and capacity building arrangements.

¹⁶⁷ This applies to none of the ESPIGs reviewed through summative CLEs during FY 2018 but to all current or upcoming ESPIGs in countries reviewed through prospective CLEs.

Table 3.14 *Types of (likely) GPE contributions to sector financing - summative CLEs*

CONTRIBUTIONS TO...	TYPES OF GPE CONTRIBUTIONS
Increasing the amount of domestic sector financing	<p>In both Burkina Faso and Liberia, Secretariat advocacy likely contributed to protecting existing levels of domestic education sector financing but, in Liberia, did not contribute to a sustained increase in domestic education spending.</p> <p>In The Gambia, the ESPIG attracted government co-funding for capital investments under the READ project.</p> <p>Prospective CLEs have not yet generated insights on whether and how ESPIG funding requirements under the new GPE funding model are affecting domestic sector financing. This will be further explored during FY 2019 and FY 2020.</p>
Countries meeting or approaching the 20% goal	<p>In four countries (Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, Liberia, and The Gambia), advocacy through the GPE Secretariat country lead likely contributed to keeping the 20% goal on government agendas.¹⁶⁸ However, available evidence does not permit establishing a causal relationship between this awareness and country progress toward this goal. The latter appears to be primarily influenced by contextual factors, in particular competing demand from other sectors as well as from other education sub-sectors.</p>
Increasing the amount of international sector financing	<p>In Sierra Leone, the ESPIG and advocacy through the GA, CA and the Secretariat likely contributed to leveraging co-funding for the ESPIG/WB-funded REDiSL project from DFID. (However, part of this funding was withdrawn during the Ebola epidemic). In addition, the World Bank allocated an additional US\$10 million to continue and extend performance-based school grants beyond the duration of the REDiSL project.</p> <p>In The Gambia, International Development Association (IDA) funding in support of the next ESP (2016-30) is expected to increase significantly to partly compensate for the decrease in ESPIG amounts. The increase in IDA funds was justified with the observation that under FTI and GPE (co-) funded projects in the past, The Gambia had consistently shown strong performance and dedication to improving the education sector.</p> <p>In the Pakistani provinces of Sindh and Balochistan, several stakeholders stated that the existence of robust, GPE-supported sector plans was helping (or was likely to help) attract additional donor funding in both provinces.¹⁶⁹</p>
Maintaining or improving the quality of (domestic and international) sector financing	<p>Harmonization of international funding: In Burkina Faso, channeling the ESPIG through the existing pooled funding mechanism helped maintain the existing quality of sector financing.¹⁷⁰ In Sierra Leone, The Gambia and Balochistan (Pakistan), channeling the ESPIG through co-funded projects marginally contributed to enhancing the quality of sector financing, which, otherwise, largely depended on single-donor projects.</p> <p>Alignment of international financing: Most ESPIG (co-)funded projects in countries reviewed by summative CLEs made no or only very limited contributions to modelling alignment of financial support with government strategies, systems and procedures. Only two out of eight projects (Sindh province and Burkina Faso) were considered 'aligned' when measured against GPE's criteria on alignment.</p>

¹⁶⁸ Cote d'Ivoire had already met the goal and there was no indication of GPE advocacy having increased awareness of government stakeholders. In Pakistan, the GPE focal point is located at the federal level, which may partly explain why provincial governments did not appear to be informed about the 20% goal. In Guyana, there was no evidence of GPE advocacy having kept the issue on the government's agenda.

¹⁶⁹ Given the absence of detailed province-level financial data, the CLE was not able to verify related statements.

¹⁷⁰ The same will likely apply in Nepal and Ethiopia, which also use pooled funding mechanisms.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO...	TYPES OF GPE CONTRIBUTIONS
	Quality of domestic financing: In Cote d'Ivoire, Secretariat advocacy contributed to the government increasing the percentage of sector funds allocated to basic education above the ratio initially considered feasible by the government and other LEG stakeholders. As further described in section 3.5, GPE's influence on this decision was, however, criticized by some stakeholders as being undesired and not realistic in the country context. Actual allocations to primary education in Cote d'Ivoire decreased during the review period from 41.5% in 2010 to 37.8% in 2015.

84. Available evidence does not provide clear explanations of why GPE has been able to (slightly) influence sector financing in some contexts but not others.¹⁷¹ Formulating informed hypotheses on this question is made more difficult by the noted influence of various external/contextual factors on sector financing. In addition, several of the noted likely GPE contributions to leveraging additional donor funds appear to have been *indirect* e.g., due to other DPs filling a funding gap caused by ending or decreasing GPE grants. In these cases, GPE's contribution may lie in the fact that preceding ESPIG (co-)funded projects had introduced initiatives that other DPs found worthwhile to continue and/or had provided a DCP government with the opportunity to demonstrate its commitment and ability to manage change (e.g., in The Gambia).

85. However, two of the *prospective* CLEs (Nepal and Zimbabwe) are indicating that more direct (future) effects of the GPE Multiplier¹⁷² appear likely in the reviewed countries. Nepal has applied for up to US\$15 million from the Multiplier and expects to leverage US\$69 million from the Asian Development Bank, USAID and Australia in addition to education sector allocations that had previously been considered by these agencies. See Box 3.10 for information on Zimbabwe. Progress in realizing expected development partner commitments to providing additional funding will be followed closely as the prospective CLEs unfold.¹⁷³

Box 3.10: GPE Multiplier in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe's application for accessing US\$10 million through the GPE Multiplier was approved in 2018. The successful application was based on the Government of Zimbabwe and development partners confirming that the country was likely to mobilize an additional US\$43.3 million from Germany's KfW Development Bank and DFID, thus exceeding the required \$3 leveraged for each \$1 provided through the Multiplier.

The Multiplier includes both a fixed and a performance tranche. In Zimbabwe, the fixed tranche of US\$7 million will be used as a one-off top up to school improvement grants for 1,000 poorest schools. The performance tranche (US\$3 million) will be combined with the variable tranche for the country's current ESPIG (US\$8.82 million) to fund selected priorities in the dimensions of equity (e.g., revising the education act), efficiency (e.g., increasing the female survival rate, incentivizing timelier release of EMIS data), and learning (e.g., improving performance in mathematics through in-service training for 12,000 teachers). Additional committed resources from KfW will likely be channeled through a UNICEF-implemented program supporting education sector plan implementation; the use of additional DFID funds had not been further specified at the time of the CLE's first annual report.

¹⁷¹ Related questions will be further explored during CLEs in FYs 2019 and 2020.

¹⁷² For information on the GPE Multiplier, see <https://www.globalpartnership.org/funding/gpe-multiplier>. At the time of completing the First Annual Reports for the respective prospective CLE, Zimbabwe was the only country whose application for a Multiplier grant had already been approved.

¹⁷³ Key questions in this regard will be to further explore the specific role that the possibility of a Multiplier grant had in eliciting additional funding commitments from other donors, and to compare progress made in fixed versus variable tranches of both the ESPIG and the Multiplier. Upcoming CLEs for Senegal, the Kyrgyz Republic and Mauritania (and, potentially, others) will add further insights in this regard.

Additional factors

86. Factors beyond GPE support likely to have influenced sector financing were discussed under findings 11 and 12 above.

3.4 Findings on sector plan implementation¹⁷⁴

Key messages

- Data on overall sector plan implementation is often incomplete, reflecting gaps in related monitoring mechanisms.
- Where data exist, they reflect fragmented ESP implementation through various (mostly donor-funded) initiatives with varying degrees of coordination as well as gaps in countries' implementation capacity.
- GPE contributions to sector plan implementation primarily consist of achievements in those ESP components addressed through ESPIG (co-)funded projects.
- Across countries, no one appears to be responsible for systematically monitoring overall ESP implementation. Ongoing sector dialogue and joint sector reviews provide limited, if any, concrete inputs to ESP implementation.

Strategic questions

- How robust is the overall GPE country-level theory of change if sector plan implementation remains largely dependent on the achievements of individual donor-funded projects?
- What can GPE do more/differently to better support countries in analyzing and addressing gaps in their capacity to implement sector plans?
- What is the value-added of GPE investments in sector planning and sector dialogue processes if they do not consistently translate into comprehensive and effective plan implementation?

Overview

87. Table 3.15 summarizes overall summative CLE findings on sector plan implementation. Details on the high-level assessment in the table are provided in the findings that follow.

Table 3.15 Overview CLE findings on sector plan implementation – summative CLE

COUNTRY	PROGRESS MADE TOWARDS SECTOR PLAN IMPLEMENTATION	DEGREE OF GPE CONTRIBUTION	DEGREE TO WHICH UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS LIKELY HELD TRUE ¹⁷⁵					
Burkina Faso	Moderate – data only available for basic education component of ESP	Considerable (but for basic education only)	1	2	3	4	5	6

¹⁷⁴ Addressing GEQ 1.1 and 1.3 in the evaluation matrix. The related contribution claim as outlined in the country-level ToC for this assignment was: “GPE (financial and non-financial) support and influence contribute to the effective and efficient implementation of sector plans.” (Contribution claim D).

¹⁷⁵ For sector plan implementation, the six underlying assumptions in the country-level ToC were: (1) Relevant government actors having the *motivation* to implement the sector plan; (2) government actors gave the *opportunity* (resources, time, conducive environment) to implement the plan; (3) government actors have the technical

COUNTRY	PROGRESS MADE TOWARDS SECTOR PLAN IMPLEMENTATION	DEGREE OF GPE CONTRIBUTION	DEGREE TO WHICH UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS LIKELY HELD TRUE ¹⁷⁵					
Sierra Leone	Weak to moderate - implementation was partial and unsystematic. Most strategic objectives missed partially or entirely.	Modest for overall ESP, but significant in early childhood education (ECE) component and aspects of teacher management	1	2	3	4	5	6
Cote d'Ivoire	Moderate – about half of planned interventions completed or under implementation by end of 2016	Modest for overall ESP, but considerable for improving education access	1	2	3	4	5	6
Liberia	Mixed. As of 2016 (latest available data), targets for a little over half of ESP objectives met or under implementation.	Unclear for overall ESP, but considerable for education access and sector management	1	2	3	4	5	6
Guyana	Available data limited to stakeholder perceptions – report on progress of specific interventions (e.g., in relation to teacher training), but overall progress less than hoped for.	Modest for overall ESP, but significant in ECE	1	2	3	4	5	6
The Gambia	Likely considerable progress, but difficult to assess as available monitoring data focus on high-level impact indicators (e.g., enrollment), but did not consistently track individual initiatives of the ESP.	Unclear for overall ESP, but considerable for education access, moderate for teaching quality and sector management	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pakistan (Sindh)	By June 2018, 23% of planned activities completed, but 63.2% have seen no progress.	Modest for overall ESP, but considerable in education access and sector management	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pakistan (Balochistan)	Latest available data (2016) indicate that 26% of planned interventions had been completed.	Modest for overall ESP, but considerable in education access, ECE and sector management	1	2	3	4	5	6

88. For the eight prospective CLE countries, it is too early to summarize insights on strengths and weaknesses or related GPE contributions to sector plan implementation. However, emerging information on possible factors likely to support or hinder ongoing/future ESP implementation in these countries is mentioned, where applicable, in the discussion below.

capabilities to do so; (4) country-level stakeholders have the motivation and opportunity to align their own activities with the priorities of the ESP; (5) country-level stakeholders take part in regular, evidence based joint sector reviews and apply resulting recommendations to enhance ESP implementation; (6) the sector plan includes provisions for strengthening EMIS and LAS to produce timely, relevant and reliable data.

Characteristics of sector plan implementation

Finding 15: In most countries, no one systematically monitored overall ESP implementation progress. The resulting absence of data at activity and output levels often made it difficult for CLEs to precisely assess the extent to which sector plans had been implemented and with what results.¹⁷⁶

89. In most countries,¹⁷⁷ regular sector monitoring (including through JSRs) tended to focus on high-level indicators and trends related to system and impact level changes,¹⁷⁸ but provided little if any, systematic insights on progress made in implementing specific activities or meeting output-level targets outlined in the sector plans. The same applies to information available through mid-term or final evaluations/reviews of sector plan implementation, where those exist. Similarly, in most countries, neither the LEG, nor the MoE, nor the Grant Agent or Coordinating Agency consistently monitored ESP implementation. Detailed data down to the level of activities and outputs was therefore available mostly on progress made in implementing projects (co-) funded by the ESPIGs (see finding 17) and, in some countries, on projects funded through other donors.¹⁷⁹ See Box 3.11.

Box 3.11: ESP implementation is, by and large, a fragmented, emergent process

Most summative CLEs¹⁸⁰ found that instead of constituting the execution of a relatively linear roadmap, ESP implementation tended to derive somewhat organically from achievements made under multiple sub-projects/initiatives led by different actors (within MoE and various DPs). Often, assigning responsibilities to DPs appeared to focus on ensuring that a particular development partner would be able to fund a particular sub-sector, while the 'how' and 'what' of subsequent interventions were largely left to the DP. Overall ESP implementation thus tends to emerge as the product of many stand-alone projects that were only loosely connected, if at all, with each other. This made it difficult for MOEs to retain oversight and keep track of overall ESP implementation – especially in contexts where ongoing sector dialogue and/or monitoring were not consistently focused on reflecting on change under the lens of plan implementation.

90. Where ESP implementation data were available, they drew a picture of mixed success.¹⁸¹ The limited data that were available do not allow drawing conclusions on likely reasons for more or less progress made in certain thematic areas.

¹⁷⁶ This applies to the seven countries reviewed in summative CLEs. Similar limitations are already emerging in prospective CLE countries (e.g., Mali and Nigeria).

¹⁷⁷ With the exception of Sindh and Balochistan and to some extent, Burkina Faso, where data are available for implementation of the basic education-focused PEDSEB but not for the overall ESP.

¹⁷⁸ E.g., trends in school infrastructure, teacher/pupil ratios (system level) or changes in enrollment and completion rates, learning outcomes or gender parity (impact level).

¹⁷⁹ In Kenya and Nigeria, for example, interview questions regarding the progress of ESP implementation were often met with project-level implementation information. Most stakeholders were unable to conceptualize how the various projects relate to the broader plan.

¹⁸⁰ The exception is Burkina Faso, where a pooled fund and one joint project is in place (focused on basic education).

¹⁸¹ However, in some cases (e.g., Balochistan), data are only available on progress made by about mid-point of ESP implementation.

- In Burkina Faso, progress reports for the country's Strategic Basic Education Program indicate that between 2014 and 2016 the annual completion of planned activities for the basic education sub-sector plan¹⁸² ranged from 64 to 83 percent, with least progress made in activities related to non-formal basic education and most progress made in activities aiming to help enhance the quality of education.
- In Balochistan (Pakistan), according to the most recent available Education Sector Annual Performance Progress Report, by November 2016, 26 percent of planned ESP interventions for the 2013-2018 period had been implemented with most progress achieved in relation to education quality and relevance as well as governance and management, and less progress in enhancing access and equity and strengthening adult literacy and non-formal education.
- In Sindh (Pakistan), in June 2018, data available from the Sindh Education and Literacy Department's dashboard indicates that six months before the end of sector plan implementation, 23.6 percent of planned activities had been completed, 13.2 percent were in progress, and 63.2 percent had recorded no progress. Most progress had been made in the areas of governance and accountability, non-formal education, and teacher education, while the least progress had been made in education infrastructure, information and communication technology, and public private partnerships.
- In Cote d'Ivoire, by the end of 2016, a year before the end of ESP implementation, 49 percent of planned interventions across three overarching objectives had been completed or were under implementation, with least progress made in the areas of education quality and governance, and most progress made in improving access to education.¹⁸³

Finding 16: Unrealistic planning, insufficient funding, implementation capacity gaps and changes in the context were key factors that negatively affected sector plan implementation.

91. Stakeholder consultations and document review indicated that, in most cases, sector plan implementation had not proceeded as systematically, effectively and efficiently as hoped for, partly due to the following factors. Several of these factors link back to observed weaknesses in sector planning, sector dialogue and monitoring, and sector financing (see sections 3.1-3.3). Key factors included:

- **Unrealistic expectations** regarding: the country's ability to raise sufficient funds for their implementation (e.g. in Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone and Balochistan) and available in-country management and implementation capacity at both central and regional/local levels (e.g., in Burkina Faso, Guyana, Sierra Leone, Cote d'Ivoire) **combined with insufficient prioritization** of ESP objectives. Similar (forward looking) concerns were raised by the prospective CLEs for Kenya, Malawi and Nigeria. As noted in Finding 3, **none of the ESPs across the 15 reviewed countries fully meet the 'achievable' criterion.**

¹⁸² While there was a comprehensive plan covering all sub-sectors, only the basic education component had received substantial donor funding, leading to the basic education sub-sector programme plan becoming the de-facto guiding document for most stakeholders. See section 3.1.

¹⁸³ In the absence of a results measurement framework, regular progress reports and clear responsibilities and mechanisms for ESP implementation monitoring, data provided here are drawn from reports on the achievements of seven donor-funded projects that, together, represented more than 92% of education ODA as a proxy for overall sector plan (PAMT) implementation.

- **Insufficient funding** (due to unexpected shortfalls in domestic or international resources, or to absence of a realistic strategy for how to fill existing funding gaps) leading to the delay, modification or cancellation of planned interventions (e.g., in Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, The Gambia). At the time of ESP completion, estimated (anticipated) funding gaps for full implementation of sector plans ranged from 10 percent (Guyana) over 15 percent (Sierra Leone), 16 percent (Burkina Faso), 20 percent (Sindh), to 25 percent in The Gambia and 25.6 percent in Liberia.¹⁸⁴ Data on actual funding gaps established towards the end of ESP implementation are available for only three of the seven countries. In all three, the originally anticipated funding gap had grown (in Burkina Faso from 16 percent to 19 percent,¹⁸⁵ in Sierra Leone from 15 percent to 33 percent due to a shortfall in expected donor resources, and in Balochistan to 77 percent due to a shortfall in federal domestic financing).¹⁸⁶ ESP underfunding was also noted as a potential future concern by the prospective CLE for the DRC.
- **Limited ownership of the ESP among (some) education sector stakeholders** (e.g., non-basic education stakeholders in Burkina Faso, and non-donor and non-basic education actors in Cote d'Ivoire) negatively affected the extent to which stakeholders, including DPs, tailored and monitored their work under the lens of contributing to ESP objectives.
- **Weaknesses in sector dialogue and monitoring.** As noted in section 3.2, in most countries, summative CLEs found limited evidence of LEGs contributing to strengthening the extent to which key sector actors rallied behind and supported ESP implementation. In Cote d'Ivoire, gaps in dialogue also affected communication between the three ministries involved in the mobilization of resources for sector plan implementation. Similarly, joint sector reviews contributed little to improving ESP implementation. Concerns over possible future limitations in ESP implementation deriving from superficial or infrequent sector dialogue and monitoring were also raised in the prospective CLEs for DRC and Malawi.
- **Ministry of Education implementation capacity gaps**, including due to turnover in senior MoE staff that interrupted sector plan implementation (e.g., in Liberia, Guyana),¹⁸⁷ insufficient numbers of MoE staff to provide continued and informed oversight of progress in all sub-sectors (e.g., in Sierra Leone), and previously undetected gaps in technical capacities (e.g., in Liberia in relation to school construction). Similarly, prospective CLEs noted concerns that past and current ESPs did not sufficiently consider gaps in MoE and general sector capacity (Malawi, Nigeria) and that ESP implementation responsibilities had not yet been clearly defined (DRC).
- **External shocks/crises:** The Ebola epidemic interrupted all work in the education and other sectors in Sierra Leone and Liberia. In Sierra Leone, it also negatively affected some stakeholders' perception of the continued relevance of the (pre-Ebola) sector plan, leading to the partial withdrawal of co-funding for the GPE-supported REDiSL project. In Balochistan, the province's

¹⁸⁴ For Cote d'Ivoire and Balochistan no data on the estimated funding gap at the time of ESP approval was available.

¹⁸⁵ These figures relate to the costs of implementing the "PDSEB", which was focused on addressing Basic Education, alone. Data on estimated and actual funding gaps for implementing the full ESP including higher education components were unavailable.

¹⁸⁶ No data on the exact size of the originally expected funding gap were available. The shortfall in (federal) domestic funding reflects that provinces in Pakistan have very limited space for additional revenue generation beyond what they are allocated from the federal level.

¹⁸⁷ And that also negatively affected the sustainability of capacity development achievements made with support from ESPIG funded projects.

challenging security situation caused delays in ESP implementation. Similar challenges are expected, for example, in Mali.

- **Macro-level, pan-governmental constraints.** For example,
 - In Balochistan and Sindh, the provincial governments experienced fiscal constraints deriving from Pakistan's federal structure, leading to a considerably higher than expected shortfall in available resources for ESP implementation
 - In The Gambia, the country's constrained macroeconomic environment resulted in the Ministry of Finance being unable to ensure transfer of funds from the central account to the Ministry of Basic Education, resulting in the cancellation of disbursement linked indicators originally used for the ESPIG co-funded READ project
 - In Sierra Leone, slow progress in implementing the government-wide decentralization agenda led to limited implementation capacity outside of the central MoE.

GPE contributions to sector plan implementation

Finding 17: In most countries reviewed through summative CLEs, ESPIGs contributed only modestly to covering the total costs of ESP implementation and meeting overall ESP objectives. Nevertheless, ESPIG (co-) funded projects made notable contributions to specific sub-sectors such as Early Childhood Education and/or introduced innovative approaches to addressing existing education sector challenges.

92. Across the seven countries reviewed in summative CLEs, GPE financial support through ESPIGs was the partnership's main direct contribution to ESP implementation. In absolute terms, ESPIG amounts were relatively modest, covering between 0.9 percent (Pakistan Sindh province) and 16.8 percent (Cote d'Ivoire) of total expected ESP implementation costs (see Table 3.13 in section 3.3).¹⁸⁸

93. Nevertheless, the perceived relevance and benefits deriving from GPE-supported interventions sometimes exceeded the monetary value. This likely reflects the fact that GPE and other international donors were the main source for capital investments and other inputs likely to facilitate innovation and changes relevant for strengthening the overall education system (see chapter 4). As noted in section 3.4, the perceived relevance of GPE financial support appears to be influenced, though not determined, by the total number of education sector donors and the relative size of the ESPIG compared to overall education ODA.

94. Table 3.16 provides a schematic overview of the key types of thematic issues that were/are being addressed by ESPIG (co-)funded projects in 11 of the 15 CLE countries.¹⁸⁹ While some ESPIGs supported a comprehensive range of issues (e.g., in The Gambia, Nigeria), others focused more narrowly on selected issues or sub-sectors (e.g., focus on ECE in Guyana). The number of issues addressed is not proportional to ESPIG size¹⁹⁰ or other evident factors, nor does it appear to determine the perceived relevance of ESPIG (co-)funded projects in the eyes of national stakeholders.

¹⁸⁸ In cases where actual international sector funding turned out to be lower than expected (e.g., in Sierra Leone, Pakistan), the respective ESPIGs constituted a higher than initially expected share.

¹⁸⁹ Burkina Faso (summative CLE), Ethiopia and Nepal (prospective CLEs) are not shown as their ESPIGs were/are channeled through pooled funding mechanisms. Mali (prospective CLE) is not shown as no ESPIG-funded project is currently under implementation.

¹⁹⁰ Neither its absolute size nor its relative size in relation to overall (estimated) ESP implementation costs

95. As is illustrated in the table, the most commonly addressed thematic areas are related to EMIS (10 out of 13 ESPIG co-funded projects included related elements), followed by support to enhance the availability of teaching and learning materials (nine out of 13), Early Childhood education (with varying specific foci), teacher management and in-service teacher training (all addressed by eight out of 13 ESPIGs). None of the reviewed ESPIG (co-)funded projects focused on the needs of learners with disabilities, while six projects¹⁹¹ included (sub-)components addressing gender equality related issues ranging from the establishment of 'gender-free schools' in Pakistan to exploring the reasons for school drop out with a special focus on girls (Kaduna and Sokoto).

Table 3.16 *Thematic issues supported through ESPIG (co-)funded projects¹⁹²*

	LEARNING						EQUITY				SYSTEM
COUNTRY	TEACHING AND LEARNING	EARLY CHILDHOOD ¹⁹³	IN-SERVICE TEACHER	PRE-SERVICE TEACHER	EARLY GRADE READING	LEARNING ASSESSMENT	TEACHER MANAGEMENT	INFRASTRUCTURE ¹⁹⁴	SCHOOL GRANTS ¹⁹⁵	OTHER	EMIS
Summative CLE											
Cote d'Ivoire	✓		✓	✓		✓		✓			✓
The Gambia		✓ ¹⁹⁶	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓ ¹⁹⁷	✓
Guyana	✓ ¹⁹⁸	✓ ¹⁹⁹	✓ ²⁰⁰								
Liberia	✓							✓	✓		✓

¹⁹¹ Balochistan, Sindh, DRC, Malawi, Kaduna and Sokoto

¹⁹² The overarching areas of learning, equity and system correspond to GPE's strategic goals. The sub-categories under each heading are not identical with the ones used in GPE's thematic coding framework. This is because individual CLEs summarized key ESPIG-supported contributions based on different thematic areas were phrased in the respective countries' sector plans.

¹⁹³ The specific aspects of early childhood Education/Development addressed in different countries are specified in footnotes.

¹⁹⁴ Classrooms and often also latrines.

¹⁹⁵ To help lower the costs of education to families.

¹⁹⁶ Training of community-based facilitators and related supervisors, teaching/learning materials, development of an ECD monitoring tool, construction of ECD classrooms, conduct of impact evaluation comparing community based and annexed ECD classrooms.

¹⁹⁷ Learn, Education, Activities, and Resources Network (LEARNET) meant to strengthen ICT enabled innovations for school management, generate e-content and improve quality of teaching using technology. (Most planned activities under this component were not implemented and component eventually abandoned.)

¹⁹⁸ Focus on Early Childhood Education/Development

¹⁹⁹ Comprehensive 'Guyana Early Childhood Education Project' with special focus on remote hinterland regions. Project components were capacity building for nursery and grade 1 teachers, provision of ECE Resource Kits, parental/caregiver education, and implementation support, administration and M&E support.

²⁰⁰ Focus on Early Childhood Education/Development

	LEARNING						EQUITY				SYSTEM
COUNTRY	TEACHING AND LEARNING	EARLY CHILDHOOD ¹⁹³	IN-SERVICE TEACHER	PRE-SERVICE TEACHER	EARLY GRADE READING	LEARNING ASSESSMENT	TEACHER MANAGEMENT ¹⁹⁴	INFRASTRUCTURE ¹⁹⁵	SCHOOL GRANTS ¹⁹⁶	OTHER	EMIS
Pakistan (Balochistan)	✓ ²⁰¹	✓ ²⁰²					✓	✓		✓ ²⁰³	✓
Pakistan (Sindh)										✓ ²⁰⁴	✓
Sierra Leone		✓ ²⁰⁵			✓		✓		✓	✓ ²⁰⁶	✓
Prospective CLE											
DRC	✓	✓ ²⁰⁷	✓			✓	✓			✓ ²⁰⁸	
Kenya	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓			✓ ²⁰⁹	✓
Malawi							✓	✓	✓	✓ ²¹⁰	
Nigeria (Sokoto)	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓		✓	✓ ²¹¹	✓
Nigeria (Kaduna)	✓	✓ ²¹²	✓			✓	✓		✓	✓ ²¹³	✓

²⁰¹ Focus on Early Childhood Education/Development

²⁰² Teaching and learning materials

²⁰³ Establishment of 'gender-free' schools

²⁰⁴ Establishment of 'gender-free' schools

²⁰⁵ Comprehensive package of activities including construction of ECE classrooms and latrines; development of an ECE curriculum and minimum standards; development of an Early Childhood Development policy; design and delivery of a competency-based training program for teachers, head-teachers and inspectors in four local councils; and support to teacher training colleges to incorporate new materials into pre-service training.

²⁰⁶ Supporting implementation of the government's Ebola Response Plan

²⁰⁷ Strengthening the Early Childhood Education (ECE) system for Quality Service Provision is one of three sub-components of the ESPIG component 1 on 'Quality of Learning in Primary Education'.

²⁰⁸ Identify and address determinants for school dropout; support to girls' education

²⁰⁹ Early grade mathematics

²¹⁰ Improve promotion rates, repetition and dropout, with a focus on girls.

²¹¹ Increasing access for out of school children, especially girls

²¹² No details available at this point in time.

²¹³ Increasing access for out of school children, especially girls

	LEARNING						EQUITY			SYSTEM	
COUNTRY	TEACHING AND LEARNING	EARLY CHILDHOOD 193	IN-SERVICE TEACHER	PRE-SERVICE TEACHER	EARLY GRADE READING	LEARNING ASSESSMENT	TEACHER MANAGEMENT	INFRASTRUCTURE 194	SCHOOL GRANTS 195	OTHER	EMIS
Zimbabwe	✓	✓ 214	✓			✓		✓		✓ 215	✓

96. Summative CLEs conducted during FY 2018 found that at the time of the evaluations all reviewed ESPIGs had achieved or exceeded their respective objectives and targets, or that they were on track and likely to achieve them by the end of the grant period.²¹⁶

97. Individual CLE reports provide details on the specific types of achievements made by ESPIG (co-) funded projects in the reviewed countries. Outlined below are selected examples that illustrate the significance of GPE-supported interventions in the respective country contexts.²¹⁷

Introducing innovative approaches:²¹⁸

- In Sindh and Balochistan (Pakistan), GPE-supported projects introduced ‘gender neutral’ or ‘gender free’ schools in which boys and girls are not segregated and which, at the time of the evaluation, had enrolled over 28,000 children previously out of school.
- In The Gambia, the GPE co-funded project expanded the approach of providing conditional payments to Koranic schools, which had been piloted under the previous sector plan (with support from FTI funding). It aims to serve a segment of the population who choose neither conventional nor madrassah education. Under the payment scheme, heads of Koranic schools (majalis) receive a monthly subsidy per child on the condition that the children are released on certain days to receive instruction in literacy, numeracy and life skills from identified and trained facilitators.
- In Cote d’Ivoire, the GPE-funded project tested several innovations, such as a community approach for constructing schools and a model for small lower secondary schools.

Facilitating comprehensive progress in Early Childhood Development/Education:

²¹⁴ No details available at this point in time

²¹⁵ Help strengthen legal and regulatory context, institutional leadership and informal education sub-sector, implementing the new curriculum, improving equity/access with focus on children who have never been to school; implementation of the non-formal education policy.

²¹⁶ The only partial exceptions are Sindh and Balochistan provinces in Pakistan, where, at the time of the evaluation, it was too early to assess whether ESPDGs were likely to fully achieve their objectives by the end of implementation. However, at the time, at least some progress had been made against most of the grant’s respective targets. In the Gambia, the project was unable to meet the originally defined targets for a component related to furthering ICT-enabled innovations. However, upon assessment of the significant challenges (e.g. due to lack of infrastructure across the country) this component was dropped during ESPIG implementation.

²¹⁷ Examples focus on summative CLE findings given that ESPIG implementation in prospective CLE countries is still underway or only beginning.

²¹⁸ Approaches that were new and innovative in the context, even if they had been used before in other countries.

- In Guyana, the GPE-funded project was the first initiative to focus exclusively on ECE and to place emphasis on the hinterland where ECE needs were thought to be the greatest. The project also addressed grade 1 classrooms to help student transition from nursery to grade 1 environment.
- In Sierra Leone, the GPE co-funded project carried out a comprehensive package of ECE-related activities including: construction of 50 ECE classrooms and latrines; development of an ECE curriculum and minimum standards; development of an ECD policy; design and delivery of a competency-based training program for teachers, head teachers and inspectors in four local councils; and support to teacher training colleges to incorporate new materials in their instruction.

Strengthening sector management capacity at central and regional levels. A wide range of achievements noted in the reviewed countries related to sector management, including:

- Strengthening functioning and use of EMIS. In The Gambia, the GPE co-funded project helped to effectively link EMIS with school level data, HR data, learning outcomes results, and regional data. In Sindh and Balochistan, projects supported the development and implementation of comprehensive school monitoring systems, which have led to reduced teacher absences in monitored schools. In Sindh, the GPE-funded project supported the establishment of a Human Resources Monitoring and Information System to compile and analyze teacher-related data and relay these data to district education authorities for decision-making.
- Strengthening MoE institutional capacity, e.g., by providing financial and technical support for a sector-wide project coordination unit (Gambia), the position of a Capacity Development Coordinator (Liberia), and a Monitoring Unit (Sierra Leone)
- Communication strategy development for MoEs, e.g., in The Gambia and Sindh (Pakistan)
- Strengthening capabilities of regional education administrators, e.g., in Liberia and Cote d'Ivoire through training for MoE staff and school principals and regional officials on monitoring and evaluation (both countries), procurement, financial management, and maintenance of school infrastructure (Cote d'Ivoire).

98. Monitoring and reporting on the use of ESPIG funds is usually project-focused (i.e., limited to projects/programs co-funded by GPE), with reports providing few, if any, explicit links to how project progress furthers overall ESP implementation. See Box 3.12.

Box 3.12: Project-focused monitoring

In Kenya and Zimbabwe, GPE-supported projects worked closely with donor-funded 'sister' projects (TUSOME in Kenya and the Education Development Fund in Zimbabwe) to allow for synergies and avoid duplication. This included shared (formal and informal) monitoring exercises. In both cases, however, monitoring was project-focused and did not address broader ESP implementation.

99. Summative CLEs had mixed observations regarding the likely sustainability of ESPIG-supported innovations. Findings in The Gambia and Pakistan (Balochistan and Sindh) were positive given that several current or former ESPIG (co-) financed interventions had been included in government budgets, thereby at least laying foundations for their continuation. In Liberia and Sierra Leone, the CLEs noted concerns over the likely sustainability of

achievements such as school grants, given that these were limited in geographic scope and unlikely to be continued, let alone expanded, in light of existing government resource constraints.²¹⁹

Finding 18: GPE support other than through ESPIGs had limited influence on ESP implementation and did not contribute significantly to assessing and addressing gaps in country implementation capacity.

100. CLEs found very limited information on whether and how CSEF grants to civil society organizations contributed to ESP implementation. The only relevant example was in The Gambia, where EFANET (a CSO coalition) used CSEF funds to conduct advocacy for special needs education, thereby furthering an ESP objective for which no other domestic or donor funds had been allocated in the ESP budget.

101. As noted in section 3.2, advocacy and facilitation provided through the Secretariat country lead and the CA had little influence on LEGs effectively addressing questions of development partner alignment with and support for ESP implementation, or on joint sector reviews systematically monitoring overall ESP implementation. The role of the GA was usually focused on ensuring effective and efficient use of ESPIG funds and therefore had no detectable effect on overall sector plan implementation and monitoring,²²⁰ or on donor harmonization.

102. Neither Secretariat QAR processes nor ESPDG application requirements resulted in ESPs²²¹ or education sector analyses that provided adequate assessments of gaps in countries' implementation capacity. Similar to what was noted in the context of sector planning (see finding 5), GPE has not yet defined what constitutes implementation capacity (e.g., in terms of required technical capabilities, resources, incentives) or provided in-depth guidance on how to address related gaps.

Additional factors

103. **The main factor beyond GPE assistance that supported sector plan implementation** was financial and technical support provided by other development partners. The extent to which this support was aligned with ESP objectives varied however, and in most countries donor projects, while more or less closely aligned with and relevant to sector plan objectives, were not systematically monitored (by either the government or the respective DP) under the lens of their contributions to ESP implementation. The prospective CLE for Mali noted concerns that a similar lack of DP alignment may negatively affect ongoing/future sector plan implementation.

²¹⁹ For example, in Sierra Leone, performance-based school grants, which took up the lion's share of REDiSL project resources, covered only four out of 14 districts. While the World Bank approved an additional US\$ 10 million to continue grant payment for a limited duration, at the time of the CLE there was no evident strategy in place to gradually transfer responsibility for these grants to the government, and/or for expanding school grants to cover all 14 districts. Similarly, in Liberia the ESPIG funded project laid the groundwork for a system of school grant payments, but the government did not maintain grant payment beyond a second tranche.

²²⁰ One exception appears to be Zimbabwe where early insights from the prospective CLE indicate that ESPIG implementation is monitored only at the ESP level and not the ESPIG-funded project level. While this may positively affect overall ESP monitoring, it also runs the risk of causing issues around accountability, i.e. if lack of project-level monitoring prevents actors from identifying the sources of possible shortcomings in achieving ESP objectives.

²²¹ and related operational/implementation plans

3.5 Cross cutting observations on the GPE operational model and country-level ToC

Key messages:

- In-country stakeholder perceptions of and experiences with the GPE operational model differ from how this model is thought to work in theory. The notion of GPE as a partnership is not widely 'lived', and only the Secretariat (not the GA or CA) tends to be seen as 'really' representing GPE on the ground.
- GPE's intent to simultaneously influence sector planning, mutual accountability and sector financing makes sense in theory, but is only partly reflected in practice.
- Application of the GPE operational model and related processes sometimes lacks context-specific adaptation or flexibility.
- Contributions to change made through GPE's support to knowledge exchange via Global and Regional Activities (GRA) grants and to advocacy via Civil Society Education Fund (CSEF) grants are difficult to trace.

Strategic questions:

- What operational model, or adjustments to its existing model, would allow GPE to become a stronger, more continuous convening force on the ground? To what extent will GPE's New Funding Model help with addressing current challenges?
- What could facilitate partners at country level (in particular donors) reflecting the notion of 'partnership' more strongly in how they support ESP implementation and monitoring?
- Which GPE processes and quality criteria could be applied with greater flexibility to adapt them to specific contexts? Which need to be the same for all countries?
- How can GPE strengthen complementarity (or make existing complementarities more visible) between the GRA/CSEF and other types of GPE support to countries?

3.5.1 Functioning of the GPE operational model²²²

Finding 19: CLEs found that contributions made by key GPE actors (Secretariat, Grant Agents and Coordinating Agencies) were primarily positive, but also noted areas for improvement regarding the nature and clarity of their respective roles.

104. Table 3.17 summarizes key insights on strengths and weaknesses of the roles played by key actors in the GPE operational model that have emerged from summative and, so far to a lesser extent, prospective CLEs conducted in FY 2018.²²³ CLE findings on local education groups, as one of the key country-level actors in the GPE operating model, have been summarized in section 3.2 and are therefore not repeated here.

²²² The operating model focuses on the roles, responsibilities and relationships between core actors (and rules/norms that structure these relationships), which in turn enable the actions required from different actors in order to achieve the changes envisaged in the country level Theory of Change.

²²³ For a comprehensive review of the roles of key GPE actors, please refer to: Nicola Ruddle, Kelly Casey, Gabi Elte, Anaïs Loizillon (2018): "Examination of key actors' roles in GPE's country-level operational model towards GPE 2020 delivery". Oxford Policy Management, May 2018. CLE findings generally align with and support the key observations outlined in this study.

Table 3.17 *Strengths and weaknesses of roles played by key GPE actors supporting in-country processes*

ACTOR ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES	KEY OBSERVATIONS
<p>Grant Agents (GA)</p> <p>The GA's operational role is to disburse GPE transferred funds to implementing partners, generally the government, and provide fiduciary oversight and technical support as appropriate to the context and in line with the specific purpose of the grant.²²⁴</p>	<p>Strengths</p> <p>CLEs found that Grant Agents across the reviewed countries generally fulfilled their operational role effectively and efficiently. This was reflected in mostly positive stakeholder feedback and satisfaction with the respective GA. Specific positive traits highlighted by different CLEs included:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Several GAs (e.g., Agence Française de Développement in Burkina Faso, World Bank in Liberia and Guyana) provided valued technical assistance to the MoEs relevant for ESP/ESPIG implementation. This included (e.g., in Guyana) providing national partners with access to technical experts and resources (e.g., training materials) to ensure that interventions reflected state-of-the-art thinking. • In Guyana and Sierra Leone, stakeholders lauded the GA (WB) for 'mainstreamed' approach to project management, under which project implementation was coordinated by a Ministry-internal unit funded by the project but implemented by all relevant Ministry Directorates on an activity-by-activity basis. This differed positively from most other DP's practices of using stand-alone projects with their own management structures. • Some GAs demonstrated flexibility and acknowledgment of factors beyond the DCP government's control that negatively affected ESPIG implementation (e.g., in The Gambia). • In Kenya, having the WB as the ESPIG Grant Agent and demonstrating the possibility of applying World Bank rules and processes was widely seen as having contributed to reinstating donor trust in the country after the large-scale corruption scandal in 2010/11. • The GA having its own education sector programs can lead to stakeholders not being able to distinguish GPE-funded from GA-funded activities (especially in case of programs jointly supported by both GPE and GA funds) but can also mean that the GA already has a strong relationship with the government (e.g., in Sierra Leone, The Gambia). <p>Criticism/areas for improvement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Some GAs did not communicate sufficiently or effectively with the DCP government and/or other stakeholders (e.g., in Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Ethiopia). • Risk of the GA being in a conflict of interest when taking the lead in conducting education sector reviews (Kenya). • The fact of the GA (WB) team not having a permanent presence, was widely perceived as limiting its ability to help strengthen MoE capacity (Liberia). • Inflexible GA (WB) procurement processes generated delays in ESP implementation (Cote d'Ivoire), and stakeholders perceived GA (WB) reporting requirements as overly burdensome (Balochistan).

²²⁴ Source: GPE (2017): Terms of Reference for GPE Grant Agents. Available at: <https://www.globalpartnership.org/content/terms-reference-gpe-grant-agents>

ACTOR ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITIES	KEY OBSERVATIONS
<p>Coordinating Agencies (CA)</p> <p>The CA's operational role entails facilitating the implementation of guiding GPE principles, especially those related to ensuring an inclusive, evidence-based policy dialogue, engaging the government and international development partners, as well as civil society, teachers and the private sector. In doing so, the CA plays a key role in ensuring harmonized support for development effectiveness, as well as mutual accountability and transparency across the partnership.²²⁵</p>	<p>Strengths</p> <p>CLEs found consistent evidence of CAs having played valued facilitation roles for sector dialogue especially in the creation and inclusive composition of LEGs. CAs in different countries varied in the extent to which they played a purely facilitating role or also a guiding/agenda setting role. Differences likely stemmed from both contextual factors (e.g., involvement and leadership role played by the respective DCP government) and characteristics of the individual representing the CA on the ground.</p> <p>Criticism/areas for improvement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CLEs indicated variations in the degree to which CAs continued to play a guiding and influential role beyond ESP development.²²⁶ Most CAs played limited, if any, roles in ensuring that sector dialogue post ESP completion addressed issues of mutual accountability such as by raising questions about development partner alignment/harmonization and support for ESP implementation, or issues of sector financing quality. In some countries, this may be due in part to the CA playing only a co-leading role for LEG functioning, with the DCP government taking the lead. • In contexts where sector dialogue mechanisms were relatively weak and where the government did not (yet) play a strong role in facilitating inclusive and participatory dialogue, some stakeholders had expected the CA to play a more proactive and directive role. For example, in DRC, LEG members expressed the desire for the CA to not just forward information, but to help interpret this information in order for the LEG to develop joint positions on key issues.
<p>Secretariat country leads</p> <p>There are no explicit publicly available ToR for country leads. In practice, they provide quality assurance, especially during grant proposal and ESP development stages, as well as ongoing advocacy and needs-based advice throughout the policy cycle.</p>	<p>Strengths</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Across the reviewed countries, CLEs noted evidence of positive country lead contributions through constructive and thorough quality assurance reviews for sector planning and grant application processes. • In some countries (e.g., Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Sierra Leone), the country leads also played a helpful convening and/or mediating role post ESP completion, e.g., continued advocacy for inclusive and participatory sector dialogue. <p>Criticism/areas for improvement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In a few countries, stakeholders noted that country lead visits were too infrequent (albeit variable by individual filling the role), and that in-country counterparts were not always informed of these visits on time. A minority of consulted stakeholders also expressed a desire for more frequent visits or, ideally, a permanent Secretariat country presence.

105. In most countries, CLEs observed well-functioning collaboration (or, at a minimum, absence of mutual interference) among the respective GA, CA and GPE Secretariat country lead. In a few contexts,

²²⁵ Source: GPE (2016). Terms of Reference for Coordinating Agencies. Available at: <https://www.globalpartnership.org/content/terms-reference-coordinating-agencies>

²²⁶ Interestingly though, stakeholders in Pakistan (both Sindh and Balochistan) stated that in their view the role of the CA, through its contribution to facilitating effective sector dialogue, had been more influential for ESP implementation than that of the GA.

however, country-level evaluations noted challenges in this regard. Examples include Pakistan, where the GA had limited visibility at the provincial level, which placed additional responsibilities on the already stretched CA; and Kenya, where the GA was perceived by several stakeholders to overstep its responsibilities and interfere with what should be the CA's role.²²⁷

106. CLE findings further indicate several potential areas for improvement that derive from how these roles are currently defined and realized within the GPE operational model.

- The expected role and value added of the country lead during ESP implementation and monitoring is not well defined and appears to depend largely on the individual filling this role in a particular context.
- The absence of stipends/other forms of remuneration for agencies fulfilling the CA role was sometimes noted to likely limit the extent to which the CA can (or is willing to) fulfill this role given that it is also responsible for its own programs. Related challenges were noted, for example, in Pakistan, where one CA is responsible for two, and in future potentially more, diverse provinces, but also in unitary states such as The Gambia.
- As per its terms of reference, the GA's role is to ensure effective and efficient grant implementation. There is no explicit expectation for the GA to ensure, monitor and report on whether and how grant (ESPIG) implementation supports overall ESP implementation. This contributes to project-based and thus often fragmented ESP implementation (see section 3.4).

Finding 20: Stakeholder perceptions of what GPE is, and actual behaviors of in-country actors often differ from the theory underlying the GPE operational model.

107. In theory, by helping to operationalize the GPE operational model, all of the above-mentioned key actors as well as DCP governments and other LEG members, including development partners, "are" GPE, i.e., they constitute the education partnership at country level. In practice, however, while the notion of GPE as a partnership is known to many individuals, it appears to have little influence on their perception of GPE or on their actions. Related observations include:

- Most government, non-government and donor stakeholders tend to perceive the Secretariat as the only 'true' representative of GPE. In contrast, the CA and GA tend to be seen as development partners in their own right who happen to carry out selected tasks *for* GPE. This explains some stakeholders (e.g., in Pakistan, Nepal and the DRC) criticizing GPE for not having a permanent country presence, which they perceived as sometimes limiting GPE's ability to influence in-country actors.
- As noted in sections 3.3 and 3.4, development partners (donors) in most countries tend to align their activities only broadly with the ESP and appear to take on limited responsibility (in their role as representatives of GPE members) for monitoring and reporting their respective achievements under the lens of ESP implementation or striving for greater harmonization and alignment of their sector financing. While in-country donor representatives are well aware of their agency's membership in GPE, this appears to be largely relevant at the global level and primarily consists of providing funding to GPE, but has little, if any, influence on country-level priorities or modus operandi. Instead, these latter two seem to be increasingly (re-)focused on responding to political pressures requiring governments to justify ODA investments to their constituents.

²²⁷ In Guyana, given the small number of development partners with permanent country presence, the WB fulfilled the roles of both GA and CA. Available evidence provided no strong indication, however, of whether this positively or negatively affected the effectiveness of either of these roles.

Finding 21: In some countries, GPE processes were applied too rigidly, which negatively affected national ownership of ESPs in some contexts and in others may impede effective future functioning of the GPE operational model.

108. In most countries, prospective and summative CLEs found that the application of GPE sector plan quality criteria and ESP/TEP (transitional education plan) quality assurance processes helped to enhance the credibility of resulting sector plans despite being labor intensive for all involved actors. Similarly, most CLEs did not raise concerns over basic elements of the GPE operational model, such as the selection and workload of Grant Agents and Coordinating Agencies. In Liberia and Sierra Leone, consulted stakeholders explicitly commended the GPE Secretariat for having demonstrated flexibility around GPE grant application deadlines and processes.

109. In seven countries, however, CLEs noted that the application of GPE processes and/or the overall GPE operational model was not sufficiently adapted to the specific country circumstances.²²⁸

- In Cote d'Ivoire, the government, backed by the LEG, had initially allocated only 40 percent of the total education budget to basic education. Due to GPE insistence that this allocation should be at least 45 percent, the final ESP noted an allocation of 47 percent so as not to endanger the country's ability to obtain GPE funding. However, in-country stakeholders felt that in this process GPE had not respected its own principles of country leadership and ownership, and that GPE pressure forced the inclusion of a target that stakeholders did not truly believe was achievable at the time.²²⁹ Similarly, in Kenya, government stakeholders expressed that for the most recent ESPIG application they would have preferred to put emphasis on strengthening school infrastructure but that GPE requirements had not allowed this.
- In The Gambia, LEG members criticized that, as per GPE rules, the only consultants eligible to conduct an external ESP review are those who have undergone related GPE training. The LEG preferred a candidate who knew the country and its education sector well but who was not willing to attend the offered GPE training. The LEG had to select a GPE-approved reviewer who, according to interviewed stakeholders, lacked knowledge of The Gambia. This unnecessarily prolonged the process of finalizing the sector plan, and also raised questions about the extent to which it was truly the government that owned and drove the sector plan.
- In Burkina Faso, noted gaps in consultative processes for the 2012-2021 ESP, which resulted in limited ownership of the plan, were at least partly due to the fact that the plan was developed in haste so as to meet GPE ESPIG application deadlines. Similarly, in the DRC, the process of identifying indicators for the variable tranche of the 2017-2021 ESPIG was perceived by in-country stakeholders as having been rushed by the Secretariat (possibly because of ESPIG application timelines) and took place while many development partners were out of the country. This may negatively affect their ownership of and support for monitoring and achieving these indicators over time. It needs to be noted that the timing of ESPIG applications is not determined by the Secretariat, but that countries choose which window of application they use. However, the desire to obtain a new ESPIG sooner than later likely contributes to countries embarking on

²²⁸ Please note that the relatively small sample of 15 countries may result in overstating issues around (perceived) lack of flexibility, which may not be representative of the overall partnership.

²²⁹ In countries that have not yet achieved or made significant progress towards Universal Primary Education (UPE), GPE advocates for the country to ensure sufficient financing for primary education to ensure rapid progress towards that goal. In Cote d'Ivoire, the LEG's proposal of allocating 40 percent to basic education was likely driven primarily by pragmatic considerations of what seemed realistic in the existing political and donor context, and only secondarily by an assessment of what would be required to ensure UPE.

new applications at the earliest possible point in time, which can then lead to the perception of the Secretariat enforcing tight timelines.

- In Pakistan and Nigeria, challenges have derived and/or are expected to derive from the fact that the GPE operational model was not adapted to fit the specific context of federal states. In Pakistan this included concerns over the considerable workload of the Coordinating Agency, which might further increase should other provinces join GPE. Also, having one GPE focal point at federal level, but none at provincial levels may have contributed to the noted lack of provincial actors' awareness of the GPE advocacy goal of 20 percent of domestic budgets being allocated to education. In Nigeria, the Secretariat had advised to create one central LEG with representation from the states. However, this proves to be difficult in practice, both in terms of practical barriers e.g. related to travel, as well as in view of ensuring ownership and establishing acceptable leadership structures. Consequently, attendance of LEG members dropped considerably post ESPIG application and approval.

110. Overall, CLE findings illustrate the ongoing challenge for GPE to, on the one hand, establish and apply transparent and fair criteria that equally apply to all partner countries, while, on the other hand, accommodate context-specific differences.

Finding 22: While there is evidence that the CSEF mechanism complements other types of GPE support, this is less clear for the Global and Regional Activities instrument.

111. GPE's Global and Regional Activities (GRA) instrument is not well known, if at all, among most in-country stakeholders, and available documentation on GRA outputs provides little, if any, indication of their intended or actual uses in the participating countries. While this may be due in part to the nature of GRA-funded activities, which cut across countries and are aiming to generate globally relevant insights, it remains unclear if and how in doing so the GRA facilitates the achievement of country-level objectives as is indicated in the GPE country-level ToC.

112. The Civil Society Education Fund (CSEF) instrument is comparatively better known among in-country stakeholders, in particular, though not limited to, the CSOs that have received funds. While available evidence on CSEF grants provides detailed information on how funded initiatives are envisaged to complement other types of GPE support to sector planning, dialogue, financing or sector plan implementation, they provide limited evidence of results beyond completed activities (e.g. observable effects of CSO advocacy or research on the agenda or sector dialogue or effects on government decision making). Summative CLEs completed to date found considerable evidence that CSEF grants allowed CSOs to adopt a more consistent and prominent presence in sector dialogue mechanisms, but very limited information on results deriving from CSEF-funded research or advocacy activities.

3.5.2 Synergies among different elements in the policy cycle

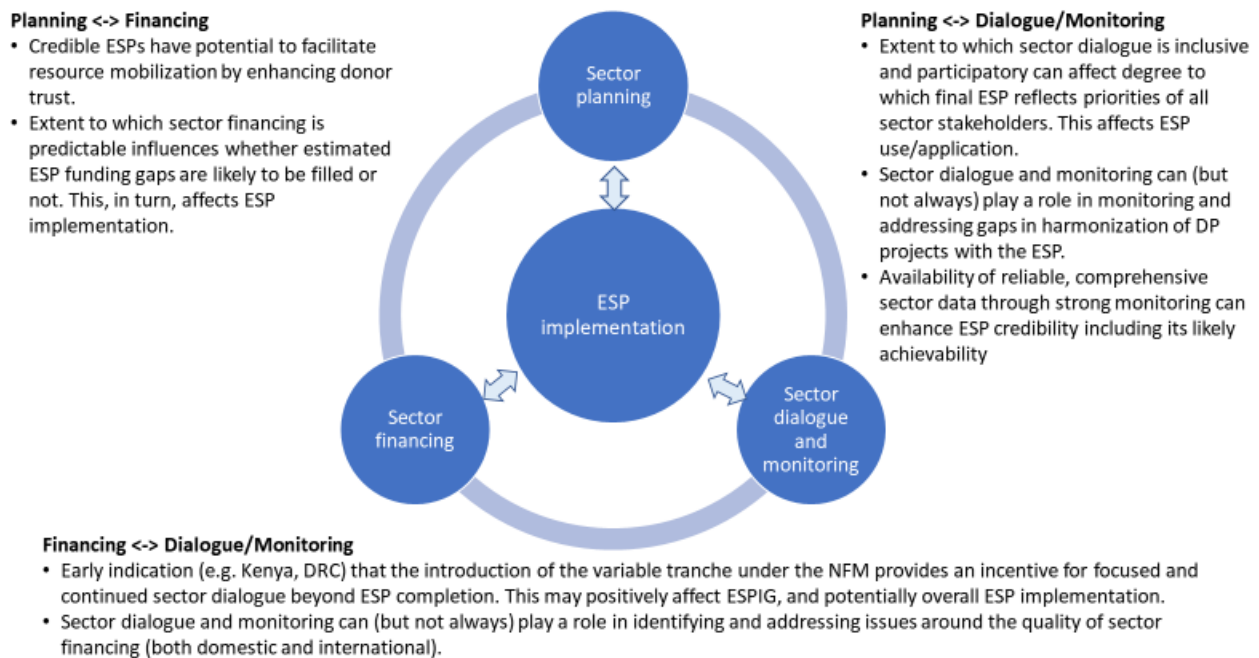
Finding 23: GPE's intent to simultaneously influence the three main elements of the country-level policy cycle is difficult to achieve in practice.

113. As indicated in previous chapters, weaknesses in sector planning, sector dialogue and monitoring, and sector financing likely explain at least some of the noted gaps in sector plan implementation. At the same time, improvements in sector planning, sector dialogue, monitoring or financing may have

contributed to successes in ESP implementation and subsequent system level change. However, such positive links are less visible and, in absence of a counterfactual, more difficult to bolster by evidence.²³⁰

114. Figure 3.2 summarizes some key CLE observations on likely and potential (not yet consistently backed up by evidence) synergies between different elements of the policy cycle.²³¹

Figure 3.2 Synergies between elements of the policy cycle



115. The GPE operational model's intent to simultaneously support and influence all three key levers likely to influence ESP implementation makes sense in view of these (likely) synergies. However, prospective and summative CLEs conducted in FY 2018 illustrate how challenging it is to do so in practice. This is especially the case in sector financing – an element that is crucial for successful ESP development and implementation but driven by multiple contextual factors beyond GPE's (or other education sector stakeholders') direct influence.

²³⁰ In other words, it is not possible to state whether sector plan implementation and resulting system level changes would been worse/fewer had there been no improvements in sector planning, dialogue etc.

²³¹ The focus here is on synergies between the three elements seen in the GPE country-level ToC as affecting sector plan implementation. Individual effects of gaps/weaknesses in sector planning, dialogue/monitoring and financing on sector plan implementation were discussed in section 3.4.

4 Progress towards stronger education systems and links to ESP implementation

Key messages:

- Despite facing various degrees and types of challenges, all seven countries reviewed through summative CLEs put in place improvements during the periods reviewed that strengthened (or have the potential to strengthen once fully implemented) their education systems by removing barriers to education access, education quality and effective and efficient sector management.
- The scope of noted improvements ranges from ‘few and isolated’ in some countries to ‘comprehensive’ in others where individual improvements are (beginning to) build on each other. Overall, limited progress was observed in removing barriers to meeting the access and learning requirements of learners with special needs. At the same time, most countries put in place new and/or improved measures to further gender equality in education access.
- In many cases, sector plan implementation likely contributed to observed system-level improvements. However, this link is clear only in relation to those ESP elements that were implemented with GPE support. In other cases, available evidence leaves open the possibility that innovations put in place might also have occurred without a comprehensive ESP in place.

Strategic questions:

- Does GPE have sufficiently robust feedback mechanisms to not only monitor system-level trends, but to feed related insights into regular reviews of its operational model and theory of change?
- Given that many countries still face substantial challenges in ensuring quality basic education in general, how realistic is it to expect their education systems to meet specific learning needs such as for children with disabilities in the short term?

4.1 Overview

117. In the context of the CLEs, the term ‘education system’ is used to refer to the collection of and interactions between institutions (such as schools, ministry departments), actors (such as teachers, parents, politicians, bureaucrats, civil society organizations), processes, policies and norms (explicit and implicit) that affect the educational status of citizens in the short and long run.²³² The GPE country-level theory of change (see section 1.4) assumes that system level change emerges as a result of effective and efficient sector plan implementation. As such, it is beyond the direct influence of GPE support.²³³

118. Insights presented in this chapter primarily derive from the seven summative CLEs completed in FY 2018 (it is still too early for the prospective CLEs to assess system-level changes that occurred during the periods reviewed). When describing system level change, the CLEs took into account both changes in

²³² Moore, Mark. 2015. Creating Efficient, Effective, and Just Educational Systems through Multi-Sector Strategies of Reform. RISE Working Paper 15/004, Research on Improving Systems of Education, Blavatnik School of Government, Oxford University, Oxford, U.K.

²³³ GPE can indirectly contribute to system level change via its support to sector planning, dialogue, financing and sector plan implementation, but – according to the country level ToC - it cannot directly affect system level change.

relevant system-level performance indicators (such as pupil/teacher ratios), as well as the introduction (or absence) of new/improved measures suited to systematically remove barriers to education access, quality or sector management.²³⁴

119. Table 4.1 provides a high-level summary of summative CLE findings about system level changes during the respective review periods. The following section (4.1) provides a more detailed discussion on the indicators reflected in this table, as well as on additional indicators. Table 4.1 illustrates that, overall, countries have made slightly more progress in removing barriers to equitable education access than in relation to removing obstacles to education quality or strengthening education sector management. However, CLEs found only limited evidence of improvements in relation to enhancing access for learners with special needs – possibly reflecting not only a lack in data but the absence of related measures put in place by countries.

Table 4.1 Overview of key system-level changes (summative CLE)

COUNTRY (REVIEW PERIOD)	ACCESS			QUALITY			SECTOR MANAGEMENT		
	INFRA- STRUCTURE	SPECIAL NEEDS LEARNERS	GENDER EQUALITY ²³⁵	TEACHERS ²³⁶	TLM ²³⁷	BASIC EDUCATION CURRICULUMS	EMIS ²³⁹	LAS ²⁴⁰	MOE CAPACITY
Burkina Faso (2012-2017)	Improve ments	Isolated improve ments	New measures	Partial improve ment ²⁴¹	Partial improve ment	Partial improve ment	No EMIS	LAS exists	Isolated
Cote d'Ivoire (2012-2017)	Improve ments	No data	Indirect measures	Improve ments	Partial improve ment	Improve ments	No EMIS	LAS exists	Isolated
Guyana (2014-early 2018)	Modest improve ments	Improve ments	No data	Improve ments	No data	Partial improve ment	Limitatio ns	No LAS	Isolated
Liberia (2010-2017)	Improve ments	No data	No data	Partial improve ment ²⁴²	Partial improve ment	Partial improve ment	Improve ments	No LAS	Isolated

²³⁴ Interventions were considered relevant for strengthening the overall education system if they were likely to contribute to fostering institutional change, i.e., if they changed, or had the potential to change, 'the rules of the game'. For example, while the conduct of a certain number of teacher training workshops would not be considered as system relevant, the development of a comprehensive in-service training framework would be.

²³⁵ Please note that this section is about new/expanded measures put in place during the respective review periods to further gender equality in education access. The assessment does not depict whether countries have achieved gender parity in enrollment or in relation to other indicators (see chapter 5 on selected gender parity indices).

²³⁶ Combined assessment of improvements made in view of pre-service and in-service training provisions.

²³⁷ Teaching and Learning Materials

²³⁸ Measures put in place to review and, where required, revise existing curriculums.

²³⁹ In place and functioning

²⁴⁰ Learning Assessment System in place and functioning

²⁴¹ Improvements in pre-service, fragmented/isolated improvements in in-service provisions.

²⁴² Pre-service only, no data on new/improved in-service provisions.

COUNTRY (REVIEW PERIOD)	ACCESS			QUALITY			SECTOR MANAGEMENT		
	INFRA- STRUCTURE	SPECIAL NEEDS LEARNERS	GENDER EQUALITY ²³⁵	TEACHERS ²³⁶	TLM ²³⁷	BASIC EDUCATION CURRICULUMS	EMIS ²³⁹	LAS ²⁴⁰	MOE CAPACITY
Pakistan (Balochistan) (2014- early 2018)	Improve ments	No data	New measures	Partial improve ment ²⁴³	Partial improve ment	Partial improve ment	Limita- tions	LAS establish ment in progress	Isolated
Pakistan (Sindh) (2014-early 2018)	Improve ments	No data	New measures	Partial improve ment	Partial improve ment	Partial improve ment	Limita- tions	LAS exists	Isolated
Sierra Leone 2014- early 2018)	Improve ments	Isolated improve ments	New measures	Partial improve ment ²⁴⁴	Partial improve ment	Partial improve ment	Limita- tions	LAS establish ment in progress	Isolated
The Gambia 2014- early 2018)	Improve ments	No data	No data	Improve- ments	Wor- sened	Partial improve ment	Improve- ments	LAS exists	Isolated

4.2 Progress made in strengthening education systems²⁴⁵

4.2.1 Progress made in removing barriers to education access and equity²⁴⁶

Finding 24: In removing barriers to education access, the most consistent progress across countries was made in strengthening school infrastructure. In comparison, there is limited evidence of whether and how much progress countries made in addressing the access needs of learners with special needs.

120. Table 4.2 provides a high-level overview of summative CLE findings, indicating whether, during the respective review period, countries put in place measures suitable for removing barriers to equitable access to education. The table does not reflect whether ESP targets set by the country were or were not achieved, given that related information was not available consistently across the reviewed countries.

²⁴³ In-service only, no data on new/improved pre-service provisions. Same for Sindh province.

²⁴⁴ Pre-service training improvements only in relation to ECD; fragmented improvements in in-service training.

²⁴⁵ Addressing GEQ 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3 in the evaluation matrix. The related contribution claim as outlined in the country-level ToC for this assignment was: *"The implementation of realistic evidence-based sector plans contributes to positive changes at the level of the overall education system."* (Contribution claim E). For time periods assessed in each country, please see table 4.14 above.

²⁴⁶ The sub-sections used to structure this chapter reflect the key dimensions typically used to structure education sector plans.

Table 4.2 *Progress in removing barriers to equitable education access²⁴⁷*

MEASURES PUT IN PLACE TO...	BURKINA FASO	SIERRA LEONE	COTE D'IVOIRE	LIBERIA	GAMBIA	GUYANA	PAKISTAN (B.)	PAKISTAN (S.)
1. Improve school infrastructure	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
2. ...address the access needs of learners with cognitive and/or physical disabilities	✓	✓	No data	No data	No data	✓	No data	No data
3. ... further gender equality in access to education ²⁴⁸	✓	✓	✓	No data	No data	No data	✓	✓
4. ... meet education needs of out of school children	✓	No data	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
5. ...lower the cost of education to families	No data	✓	✓	No data	✓	No data	No data	No data
6. ...improve access to early childhood education	No data	✓	No data	No data	✓	✓	✓	No data

121. The available data indicate that:

- 1) **Consistent progress was made across countries in strengthening school infrastructure.** Related measures included the construction of new schools (e.g., in Cote d'Ivoire and Balochistan with special focus on previously underserved areas) and improving existing school buildings, in particular in providing adequate and gender-segregated WASH facilities/latrines (e.g., in Liberia and Burkina Faso).
- 2) **Countries made limited, if any, progress in systematically addressing the needs of learners with special needs.** While all reviewed ESPs indicated commitments to ensuring equitable access to education, only three of the seven summative CLE countries subsequently put in place specific measures to remove related barriers. For four countries, related data are unavailable, which may reflect the relatively low priority assigned to this issue in the context. Guyana appears to have made the most comprehensive efforts, including the first-time appointment of regional education officers specialized in special needs education, newly constructed schools that are reported to meet accessibility standards, and the construction and (partial) equipping of a center for the diagnosis and stimulation of young persons with disabilities.²⁴⁹ During the 2014-2018

²⁴⁷ The degree of progress made in certain parts of the education system is relative to the respective national context. Therefore, instead of comparing the degree of progress made in different countries by rating some as 'considerable' and some only 'moderate', the evaluation team decided to not apply the color coding used in earlier parts of the report, but, instead, to indicate only whether progress was made (white fields with checkmark). Grey fields indicate insufficient data; red fields indicate a decline/worsening of the indicator during the review period.

²⁴⁸ See Appendix VI for details on specific measures put in place during the review period. Please note that the table focuses on whether new, additional measures to remove barriers to gender equality were introduced during the review period, not whether gender parity has been achieved (this is discussed in chapter 5).

²⁴⁹ However, the country does not yet possess a solid network of specialized schools or targeted teacher training to meet the needs of learners with special needs.

period, Sierra Leone developed an inclusive education policy, but this has not yet been implemented.

- 3) **Countries varied in the extent to which they introduced (new) measures to strengthen gender equality in education.** In Pakistan, the provincial governments of both Balochistan and Sindh established 'gender neutral' schools open to both boys and girls as steps towards abolishing gender segregation overall. Burkina Faso introduced a comprehensive national education strategy for girls, including grants for girls attending grade 1 and awareness-raising campaigns on the importance of girls' education. No comprehensive monitoring data were available, however, on the effects of this policy to date. Please note that in some countries that did not introduce specific new measures to further gender equality during the review period, gender parity in basic education enrollment and completion rates had already been achieved (e.g., in The Gambia). Also, several of the measures put in place to lower cost of education to families (item #5 below), while not explicitly focused on gender equality, have the potential to positively affect girls' access to education.
- 4) **Most countries introduced or expanded existing measures to (try and) bring out of school children into the education system.** Related measures ranged from targeted school construction in areas with lower-than average enrollment rates (Burkina Faso), establishing alternative learning pathway centers in selected regions (Sindh and Balochistan),²⁵⁰ introduction of bridging classes in some regions to integrate pupils from unrecognized Islamic schools into the formal system (Cote d'Ivoire), providing students in remote areas with means of transport to reach school (Guyana, The Gambia), and expanding a conditional payment scheme to Koranic schools to allow learners enrolled in these schools to also acquire basic reading and writing skills in addition to the traditional Koranic rote learning (The Gambia).
- 5) **Measures to lower cost of education to families** included abolition of school fees and levies combined with school grants (e.g., in The Gambia), reducing the distance to schools and/or removing the need for children to board elsewhere through school construction in underserved areas (e.g., Burkina Faso, Sindh and Balochistan), as well as school feeding programs (e.g., in Sierra Leone, Cote d'Ivoire). Nevertheless, as further discussed in chapter 5, the cost of education to families remains a major challenge in most countries.
- 6) **Measures to improve access to early childhood education** included adding to the available Early Childhood Education infrastructure (classrooms and furniture), such as in Sierra Leone and The Gambia, as well as parental/caregiver education to provide information on the benefits of ECE (in Guyana), and introducing the notion of community-based ECE classrooms as a cost-effective option especially for rural/remote areas (The Gambia).

122. Many of these measures constitute promising and innovative ways of addressing existing barriers to education access and equity, and, as shown in Table 4.1, most countries simultaneously addressed several of these barriers. To date, however, related efforts have often been rolled out at relatively small (pilot) scale and will require substantial further investment to likely have system-wide effects. In addition, some of the key barriers to equitable education access are rooted in socio-economic factors (e.g., poverty, religious beliefs) that can be addressed only partially through education-specific efforts.

²⁵⁰ Both in Sindh and Balochistan.

4.2.2 Progress made in removing barriers to quality education

Finding 25: Across countries, more progress has been made in providing adequate numbers of qualified teachers than in strengthening the availability of teaching and learning materials or applying updated, relevant curricula.

123. Table 4.3 summarizes insights from the seven summative CLEs on whether countries introduced or improved existing measures likely to enhance the quality of education and on how related key indicators (such as pupil/teacher ratios) changed during the periods reviewed. Again, given existing data limitations, the table does not systematically reflect whether ESP targets set by the country were or were not achieved. Please see Appendix VI for details on some of the specific changes observed in each country.

Table 4.3 Progress in removing barriers to quality education during review periods²⁵¹

IMPROVEMENTS IN...	BURKINA FASO	SIERRA LEONE	COTE D'IVOIRE	LIBERIA	GAMBIA	GUYANA	PAKISTAN (B.)	PAKISTAN (S.)
1. Pre-service teacher training institutions/ policy/guidelines	Improved	Improved (ECD only)	Improved	Improved	Improved	Improved	No data	No data
2. In-service teacher training institutions/ policy/guidelines	Fragmented improvement	Fragmented improvement	Improved	No data	Improved	Improved	Improved	Improved
3. Recruitment of (trained) teachers	Improved	Worsened	Improved	Improved	Modestly improved	No data	Improved	Improved
4. Availability of teaching and learning materials	Partially improved	Partially improved	Partially improved	Partially improved	Worsened	No data	Partially improved	Partially improved
5. Basic education curricula (review or revisions to ensure relevance)	Partially improved	Partially improved	Improved	Partially improved	Partially improved	Partially improved	Partially improved	Partially improved
6. More equitable deployment of teachers	No data	No data	Improved	No data	Improved	No data	No data	No data

124. Key observations on the seven indicators summarized in the table are outlined below.

- 1) **Measures to enhance pre-service teacher training were put in place in six countries.** They included construction of more teacher training colleges (e.g., in Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Guyana), revisions to existing teacher training programs to incorporate changes in (parts of) the curriculum and to familiarize teachers with more learner-centered approaches to instruction (e.g., in Burkina Faso, The Gambia and Sierra Leone). Despite these positive measures, concerns remain across countries regarding the extent to which pre-service training provides graduates with adequate knowledge and skills, and regarding the utilization of graduates in the education system. In Burkina Faso, for example, many graduates failed to secure an actual teaching position. In The Gambia, given resource shortages, schools often cannot use teachers at the level and/or in the subjects that they were trained to teach.
- 2) **In-service teacher training was strengthened in six of the seven countries,** to varying degrees. In Pakistan, Sindh and Balochistan provinces developed new, comprehensive in-service training

²⁵¹ The indicators in Table 4.2 reflect key measures for education quality outlined in the assignment's evaluation matrix, which was informed by key indicators in the GPE 2020 results framework.

programs that spell out expected requirements for teachers to refresh their knowledge and skills. In The Gambia, improvements to the (demand-driven) in-service training program included increasing reliance on multiple workshops and related monitoring rather than use of one-off events. In several cases, however (e.g., in Burkina Faso and Sierra Leone), efforts to improve in-service training were fragmented, limited in scope, and their longer-term continuation outside of targeted donor support is questionable.

- 3) At least five countries/provinces put in place or continued existing efforts to improve pupil (trained) teacher ratios.** In several cases, e.g. in Sindh, this included ensuring that newly recruited teachers possess formal qualifications and/or that existing teachers obtain or upgrade their qualifications (see Box 4.1).²⁵² In the Gambia, the government (with GPE/WB support) introduced stipends for teacher trainees, with additional incentives for those studying to teach mathematics, in order to fill related capacity gaps in the system. Those receiving the stipends commit themselves to teaching for at least two years following their graduation. In several visited countries (e.g. Burkina Faso, Sierra Leone, the Gambia) stakeholders noted that possessing a formal teaching degree does not guarantee that the individual knows how to teach (well). Challenges were also noted in relation to effective teacher utilization, i.e., formally qualified teachers do not always teach the grades for which they were trained.

Box 4.1: Changes in pupil/(trained) teacher ratios (PTR/PTTR)

During the respective review periods, PTRs improved in four countries/provinces (Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, Balochistan) but worsened in two (Sierra Leone and Sindh). No data was available on PTRs in Guyana.

Pupil/trained teacher ratios (PTTR) broadly changed in parallel to pupil/teacher ratios, i.e. they improved in Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia and worsened in Sierra Leone. No data on PTTR were available for Balochistan, Sindh and Guyana.

Worsening ratios in Sierra Leone may reflect effects of the Ebola crisis on the teaching workforce paired with demographic growth, while in Sindh they may be a function of provincial government efforts letting go of unqualified teachers and not yet having filled resulting vacancies with qualified personnel.

- 4) While some progress has been made in improving the availability of teaching and learning materials, ensuring adequate, equitable and consistent access to such materials remains a challenge across countries.** In several countries (e.g., Burkina Faso, Liberia, The Gambia), progress made in improving the availability of textbooks was less than had been envisaged in the respective sector plans. Likely reasons for shortfalls included insufficient financial resources (purchasing learning and teaching materials is usually dependent on availability of external funding), as well as limitations in logistical capabilities required to ensure that purchased learning materials are distributed to regions and schools (e.g., Burkina Faso).
- 5) All seven countries took steps to improve basic education curricula, but progress to date has varied.** For example, in Burkina Faso, Liberia, Sierra Leone and The Gambia, new or revised curricula were developed and, to different degrees, tested for selected grades but not yet for the full basic education cycle. In Sindh and Balochistan (Pakistan), institutional changes were put in place to facilitate future reforms (adoption of a curriculum implementation framework, creation of the Sindh Curriculum council), but at the time of the evaluation these had not yet translated

²⁵² Worsening PTRs/PTTRs in Sierra Leone, on the other hand, likely primarily derive from the country's difficult economic situation paired with the 2014 Ebola virus epidemic.

into changes to existing curricula. Cote d'Ivoire implemented comprehensive revisions of curricula for both primary and secondary education. While stakeholder consultations across countries indicated high interest in reforming curricula, the CLEs also noted varying views within jurisdictions as to what such reforms should strive to achieve. Differing and sometimes competing priorities in this regard included the aim to ensure employability of school graduates, the intent to overcome reflections of colonial traditions and values in national curricula, as well as better tailoring learning content to the specific needs of different socio-cultural groups and/or learners with special needs.

- 6) Focused efforts to ensure more equitable deployment of teachers were noted in only two countries.** In The Gambia, the government successfully expanded an existing system of hardship allowances to incentivize qualified teachers to accept postings in remote and rural areas. Inequitable teacher allocation remains a challenge in almost all other reviewed countries. In Cote d'Ivoire, a new computerized system was put in place that tracks the deployment of teachers and is linked to regional education departments. The system is hoped to allow decentralizing teacher recruitment and deployment in future to create a stronger link with local needs. In other countries, e.g., in Burkina Faso, effective teacher deployment still poses a challenge.

125. Overall, data indicate that, on the one hand, progress has been made across several countries towards ensuring quality education by providing sufficient numbers of (qualified) teachers. On the other hand, most teachers still face challenging working environments in terms of having adequate tools (teaching and learning materials, relevant curricula and related teaching guides) to help them provide good quality education. This likely reflects that in order to provide teachers with such tools, countries are largely dependent on external capital investments, which are not always predictable or sustained over the required periods of time. Generally, changes in education quality are likely to take longer than improvements in education access given that they relate to changes in human behavior and related social norms. Also, agreeing on what good quality education constitutes in a particular context is a more complex and potentially contentious issue than ensuring physical access, given that related needs, priorities and demands are highly diverse not only across, but also within jurisdictions.²⁵³

4.2.3 Progress made in strengthening education sector management

Finding 26: All summative CLEs noted at least some improvements in (parts of) sector management. Nevertheless, across countries, there are some concerns about MoE capacity for sector plan implementation.

126. Table 4.4 summarizes relevant insights deriving from the seven summative CLEs.

²⁵³ For a related discussion of the question of what constitutes a 'good teacher', see, for example Lee Nordstrum's blog entry available at <https://www.globalpartnership.org/blog/improve-quality-education-reconsider-true-definition-good-teacher>

Table 4.4 *Progress in strengthening sector management*²⁵⁴

ISSUE	BURKIN A FASO	SIERRA LEONE	COTE D'IVOIR E	LIBERIA	GAMBIA	GUYANA	PAKISTA N (B.)	PAKISTA N (S.)
1. Is a quality learning assessment system (LAS) in place? ²⁵⁵	Yes	Not yet but some progress	Yes	No	Yes	No	Not yet but some progress	Yes
2. Is a functioning EMIS in place?	No	Yes, but limitations	No	Yes	Yes	Yes, but limitations	Yes, but limitations	Yes, but limitations
3. Improvements during review period in MoE capacity to collect and manage sector data?	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
4. Improvements in other aspects of MoE institutional capacity? ²⁵⁶	No data	Yes, isolated	Yes, isolated	Yes, isolated	Yes, isolated	No data	No data	Yes, isolated
5. Changes in empowering education actors at regional/ local/school levels?	Yes	No progress	Yes	Yes	No data	No data	Yes	Yes

127. Key observations on the five indicators summarized in the table are outlined below.

- 1) Four of the reviewed jurisdictions have learning assessment systems in place and two took steps towards establishing a national/provincial LAS.** Burkina Faso and The Gambia conduct regular national learning assessments at the primary level that produce comparable results and permit identifying trends over time. Similarly, since 2013 Sindh province has regularly applied a standardized achievement test for grades V and VIII that is eliciting data on learning outcome trends over time. Both Burkina Faso and Cote d'Ivoire take part in the Programme d'Analyse des Systèmes Educatifs de la CONFEMEN (PASEC), an international LAS administered to 13 Francophone countries in West Africa. See also Box 4.2. In Sierra Leone and Balochistan, some steps have been taken during the respective review periods to establish LAS. In Balochistan, a provincial Assessment and Examination Commission (BAEC) was created to administer standardized tests for grade five and eight students, but it has not yet conducted its first round of tests. In Sierra Leone, the government developed a National Learning Assessment Policy Framework document and an accompanying operation manual. To date, sporadic early grade and primary level learning assessments have been carried out with donor support, but their sustainability is questionable and resulting data do not allow comparison of results over time. In Guyana and Liberia, on the other hand, the evaluation found no evidence of quality LAS being in place or under development.

²⁵⁴ Sector management encompasses a wide range of issues, some of which varied by country. The issues summarized in the table are a combination of key indicators in the GPE 2020 Results Framework (e.g., existence of EMIS and LAS) and issues that had been identified as requiring improvement in most of the summative CLEs.

²⁵⁵ See Appendix VI for details on existing LAS.

²⁵⁶ This very broad category reflects the fact that the types of observable improvements to MoE capacity varied considerably across countries.

2) At least two of the seven countries reviewed do not yet have functioning EMIS in place.²⁵⁷ This is despite the fact that in both countries the intent to strengthen information systems had been noted in either the ESPIG agreement (Burkina Faso) or sector plan for the review period (Cote d'Ivoire).²⁵⁸ In Sierra Leone, Liberia and Pakistan, EMIS exist but produce incomplete and/or partly unreliable data. For

example, in Sierra Leone, different existing instruments that are in place to collect sector data (the 'situation room'²⁵⁹ and the annual school census) do not operate under a coherent framework and thus do not 'talk to each other'. Completed CLEs found only limited information on likely reasons for persistent EMIS-related challenges. However, three key factors applicable in several contexts appear to be: (i) the physical challenge of regularly collecting reliable data especially in remote regions and/or areas without electricity and internet access (e.g., in Guyana, Sierra Leone); (ii) the challenge of ensuring adequate numbers of and technical capabilities of staff at various organizational levels to ensure consistent data collection and data entry (e.g., in Pakistan); (iii) difficulties for the responsible MoE unit to obtain sufficient funds for sector monitoring activities from the respective Ministry of Finance (e.g., in Liberia). In comparison, the Gambia has a relatively well functioning EMIS in place. The MoE conducts an annual school census every November and an EMIS report is produced in May of the following year. Statistical yearbooks and other sector data are publicly available on the ministry's website.

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3) Despite noted gaps in EMIS, some improvements in the Ministry of Education's ability to collect and/or analyze sector data were noted in all seven countries. Improvements included the creation of real-time school monitoring systems (Sindh and Balochistan), the regular conduct of annual statistical reports (Cote d'Ivoire) and strengthening relevant MoE staff members' knowledge and skills for M&E through targeted training (Liberia). Staff turnover is one of the main factors continuously threatening the sustainability of achievements: trained staff often move from the MoE to other, more senior government positions, or they are recruited by higher-paying donors or international non-governmental organizations.

Box 4.2: Good practice example – Using learning outcome data to inform sector planning

In The Gambia, a dedicated assessment unit in the Ministry of Basic Education was established to improve the extent to which education actors at national, regional and school levels use learning assessment data to improve teaching and learning. The unit works in close collaboration with the teacher training college, regional education directorates, the ministry's in-service unit, and with teachers.

Also, individual school development plans, which are required by lower and upper basic schools to access school improvement grants from the government, need to refer to recent learning assessment results and indicate how any weaknesses or gaps will be addressed by teachers and school administrators.

²⁵⁷ Burkina Faso and Cote d'Ivoire. Available information on Guyana was inconclusive, but it appears the country does not have a comprehensive EMIS in place. In Sindh and Balochistan, new management information systems have been developed with GPE support but still need to be fully rolled out. In Sierra Leone, data generated by the existing EMIS is incomplete and not always reliable.

²⁵⁸ In both cases, the CLEs were unable to elicit information on the exact causes for lack of progress towards envisaged improvements.

²⁵⁹

- 4) Other changes in institutional capacities of MoEs²⁶⁰ were often sporadic and not visibly derived from overarching and longer-term strategies for organizational strengthening.** This may partially reflect the fact that, as noted in section 3.1, sector plans varied in the extent to which they thoroughly assessed existing MoE capacity gaps (in terms of required structures, resources and technical capabilities required for effective ESP implementation) and formulated

strategies to address them. In some countries (e.g., Sierra Leone), specific institutional capacity changes envisaged for the review period had not been, or only partially, implemented. Noted improvements made during the periods reviewed included:

- The development and/or approval of new (sub-) sector policies and strategies (e.g. introduction of a school grants policy in Liberia, non-formal Basic Education and Alternate Learning Pathways policy in Sindh; draft inclusive education policy, TVET policy and ECD policy in Sierra Leone)
- Improvements to specific MoE processes e.g., related to procurement (Cote d'Ivoire), human resource management (Sindh), communication including complaints management (Sindh), and more effective and efficient payment of teacher salaries and school improvement grants (The Gambia)
- The creation of new organizational units within the MoE to put more focused attention on selected priorities, such as donor coordination (Sierra Leone) or the availability and use of learning assessment data (The Gambia)
- Training for MoE staff at central and/or regional levels on issues such as procurement, monitoring and evaluation (Liberia, Cote d'Ivoire)
- A functional review and subsequent comprehensive restructuring of the MoE's central office, leading to considerable staff reductions (Liberia).

- 5) In several countries, progress was made in strengthening the ownership of education reforms as well as related capabilities of stakeholders at regional, local/community levels.** For example, in both Sindh and Balochistan, every district developed its own district education plan to facilitate implementation of the respective provincial ESP; related processes included stakeholder consultations at the district level. In Liberia and The Gambia, community participation in and local ownership of changes promoted under their sector plans were furthered through the use of school improvement plans. In both countries, these plans are developed with input from educators and parents and require final endorsement from the respective parent teacher association. In Burkina Faso, the government transferred all centralized financial resources allocated to the management of the school feeding program to the Communes, with school feeding programs now managed by parents as members of school management committees, which received training to fulfill their new responsibilities.

²⁶⁰ The evaluation team understands the notion of institutional capacity to encompass organizational structures, processes, policies, frameworks, as well as individual and collective capabilities of leadership and staff.

4.3 Findings on likely links to sector plan implementation

Finding 27: In most countries, there is insufficient evidence to assess the extent to which sector plan implementation has driven system-level improvements, or whether changes would have occurred regardless of the ESP.

128. As described in section 3.4, across countries, available data on specifics of sector plan implementation are often limited and do not consistently permit assessing to what extent and with what specific results ESP elements have been completed during the periods reviewed. Where CLEs state the likely existence of links between ESP implementation and system-level change, this is largely based on (i) the absence of alternative explanations for noted changes beyond ESP implementation, and (ii) system-level changes that were put in place during the review period due to interventions of a particular project that explicitly aimed to facilitate ESP implementation, in particular GPE ESPIG-supported initiatives.

129. Overall, the summative CLEs found that such assumed links were most likely in The Gambia and Pakistan (Sindh and Balochistan) given that all or most of the noted system-level improvements during the respective review periods could be linked to specific initiatives put in place by the respective Ministry of Education, with support from development partners (including GPE), as part of ESP implementation.

- In The Gambia, initiatives such as teacher hardship allowances, school improvement grants to facilitate the abolition of school fees, more systematic in-service training for teachers, and the provision of donkey carts to facilitate school commute in rural areas had been explicitly introduced under the 2006-2015 ESP and were continued, expanded and further improved under the 2014-2022 ESP.
- In Sindh and Balochistan, the respective provincial education sector plans were approved shortly after education was devolved from the federal government to the provincial ones. At the time, capacity at the provincial level was very limited, in part because devolution was not accompanied with a strategy to transfer technical expertise from the central government to the provincial ones. At the time, neither province had capacity to, for example, prepare curricula or assess students' learning outcomes, and neither province had benchmarks on the quality of learning materials, teacher training, ECE and non-formal education. The sector plans established the basis on which the provinces could fulfill their responsibilities in education.

130. In other contexts, likely links between ESP implementation and system-level change were less strongly supported by available evidence for the following reasons: (i) there was only limited data on the extent of ESP implementation (Burkina Faso), including due to fragmented and interrupted ESP implementation (Sierra Leone); and (ii) there was evidence that the ESP played no, or only a very limited, role in driving the activities of key sector actors during the review period, including development partners and their projects (e.g., in Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia, and Guyana). As such, results deriving from (some of) these projects might have occurred regardless of whether the sector plan was in place and was implemented or not.

5 Progress towards stronger learning outcomes and equity²⁶¹

Key messages:

- Missing, incomplete and sometimes unreliable data make it difficult to identify and compare impact-level trends across countries.
- This, combined with the relatively short time period covered by CLEs and the fact that impact-level data only become available with a time lag of several years, prevents drawing evidence-based conclusions on the plausibility of the GPE country-level theory of change in relation to the assumed link between ESP implementation, resulting system level change and subsequent impact-level improvements.

5.1 Observed changes in learning outcomes and equity

Data limitations

Finding 28: Missing, incomplete and sometimes unreliable data make it difficult to identify and compare patterns of progress made in learning outcomes and equity both within and across reviewed countries.

131. Compiling information on trends in learning outcomes and equity during the respective review periods covered by the summative evaluations proved challenging due to data limitations in most of the reviewed countries. Data limitations encountered by the evaluation teams included absence of data on certain indicators, incomplete time series data, inaccurate data, non-comparable data due to different methodologies used by different studies and, in one case, lack of access to possibly existing data. See also Box 5.1. An additional challenge lies in the fact that impact level data typically only become available with a time lag of at least two years, meaning that in most cases the evaluations had access to data for only part of the respective review period, and that these data likely reflected the results of improvements that had

Box 5.1: Unrecognized (private) education provision and implications for impact-level data

Across the reviewed countries, considerable parts of education are provided through private entities, including faith-based and community providers.²⁶² Those private schools that are government recognized are usually included in annual school censuses and thus reflected in official data. This is not always the case, however, for schools that are not government recognized. For example, in Burkina Faso, an estimated 48-64 percent of all existing schools in the country are unrecognized French-Arab and Islamic (private) schools, which are not represented in official data. This means that it is unclear what proportion of the school aged population is captured in existing data on trends in enrollment, learning outcomes, equity and gender equality.

²⁶¹ Addressing GEQ 3.1 and 3.2 in the evaluation matrix. The related contribution claim as outlined in the country-level ToC for this assignment was: “Education system-level improvements result in *improved learning outcomes* and in *improved equity, gender equality, and inclusion* in education”. (Contribution claim F).

²⁶² See Appendix III for country-specific information.

taken place before this period. As such, these data did not permit drawing conclusions or even formulating hypotheses related to likely linkages between ESP implementation and resulting system-level improvements on the one hand and impact-level trends on the other hand. This is further discussed in section 5.2.²⁶³

Learning outcomes

Finding 29: The limited data available on basic education learning outcomes indicate modest improvements during (part of) the respective review period in two and mixed results in one country.

132. Table 5.1 provides a high-level overview of trends (and absence of data) in relation to learning outcomes. Further details are provided in Appendix VII. Please note that in the four countries for which data were available, this is only the case for the period before and into the early part of the respective core review period. In Cote d'Ivoire, data was available for only for one point in time, preventing an assessment of trends. While Balochistan and Sierra Leone have made progress in establishing (elements of) national LAS (see section 4.2.3), these have not yet produced data on learning outcomes.

Table 5.1 Trends in learning outcomes before and during (parts of the) review periods (summative CLE)

CHANGES IN..	BURKINA FASO (REVIEW PERIOD 2012-2017)	SIERRA LEONE (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	COTE D'IVOIRE (REVIEW PERIOD 2012-2017)	LIBERIA (REVIEW PERIOD 2010-2017)	GUYANA (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	THE GAMBIA (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	PAKISTAN (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	
							S.	B.
Learning outcomes (basic education)	Basic education outcomes (as per national LAS) worsened 2006-2014, i.e. up until early review period. However, in the 2014 regional PASEC assessments, Burkina Faso scored above average scores for comparable countries in West Africa	No data	No recent data on national learning assessment system results available. In the 2014 regional PASEC assessment Côte d'Ivoire scored below average for PASEC countries except for 6th grade competencies in French.	No data	No data	EGRA results 2007-2016 (before and into review period) improved but remain low. 2016 national Assessment Test results for grades 3 and 5 showed improvement compared to 2010.	Standardized Achievement Test results 2013-2016 shows modest improvements before and up to early part of review period.	No data

²⁶³ See also limitations to the evaluation addressed in section 1.2.

CHANGES IN..	BURKINA FASO (REVIEW PERIOD 2012-2017)	SIERRA LEONE (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	COTE D'IVOIRE (REVIEW PERIOD 2012-2017)	LIBERIA (REVIEW PERIOD 2010-2017)	GUYANA (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	THE GAMBIA (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	PAKISTAN (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	
							S.	B.
	No data available past 2014. ²⁶⁴							

Equitable access to basic education

Finding 30: In relation to ensuring equitable access to basic education, country level evaluations noted evidence of improvements across countries, but also of persistent inequities based on learners' gender, income level and geographic location.

133. Table 5.2 provides an overview of trends (and absence of data) as regards basic education enrollment, completion, out of school rates, and related gender parity indices. Given that the time periods for which data were available differed not only by country but also by indicator, the table notes in each case which specific years are being referred to. Often, data were available only for before or part of the core review period covered by the respective CLE.

Table 5.2 Trends in equitable access to basic education during (parts of the) review periods (summative CLE)

CHANGES IN..	BURKINA FASO (REVIEW PERIOD 2012-2017)	SIERRA LEONE (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	COTE D'IVOIRE (REVIEW PERIOD 2012-2017)	LIBERIA (REVIEW PERIOD 2010-2017)	GUYANA (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	THE GAMBIA (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	PAKISTAN (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	
							S.	B.
Pre-primary Gross Enrollment Rate (GER)	Worsened (2013-2016)	Improved (2011-2016)	Improved (2011-2016)	Improved up until middle of review period (1981-2015) ²⁶⁵	No data	Improved (2008-2016)	No provincial data	No provincial data
Primary Enrollment (GER & NER)	Both GER and NER improved (2012-2107)	GER worsened but NER improved ²⁶⁶ (2012-2017)	Both GER and NER improved (2012-2017)	Both GER and NER slightly worsened (2014-2016)	No data	Both GER and NER (2012-2017)	No provincial data	No provincial data

²⁶⁴ The 2014 assessment was the first international assessment launched by PASEC, including ten countries (Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Chad, Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Niger, Senegal and Togo). It is planned to conduct regular international assessments in future. PASEC assesses language and mathematics competencies of students at early and late primary levels.

²⁶⁵ But most recent pre-primary enrollment rates of 120% reflect challenge of over-age enrollment at all levels.

²⁶⁶ The GER increased from 113.37 to 120.89 in 2017, however, the country's goal had been to lower over-age enrollment and thus achieve a GER closer to 100%.

CHANGES IN..	BURKINA FASO (REVIEW PERIOD 2012-2017)	SIERRA LEONE (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	COTE D'IVOIRE (REVIEW PERIOD 2012-2017)	LIBERIA (REVIEW PERIOD 2010-2017)	GUYANA (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	THE GAMBIA (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	PAKISTAN (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	
							S.	B.
Gender parity of primary net enrollment	Improved (2012-2017)	Stable 2012-2016 (parity achieved)	Stagnating (2013-2017)	Limited data ²⁶⁷	No data	Stable 2012-2017 (parity achieved)	No provincial data	No provincial data
Lower Secondary Enrollment (GER & NER) ²⁶⁸	GER & NER improved (2012-2017)	GER stagnating NER improved (2012-2017)	GER & NER improved (2013-2107)	GER & NER worsened (2014-2016)	No data	GER slightly worsened, NER stagnating (2012/13-2017)	No provincial data	No provincial data
Basic ed. completion rates	Improved (2012-2016)	Modestly improved (2011-2016)	Improved (2011-2016)	Improved before review period (2007-2013); no later data available	No data	Mixed ²⁶⁹ (2011-2016)	Worsened (2012-2016) ²⁷⁰	Improved (2012-2016) ²⁷¹
Out-of-school rates	Improved (2012-2016)	Worsened (2011-2015) ²⁷²	Improved (2009-2016)	Worsened up until review period (2011-2015)	No data	Improved but still high before/into review period (2010-2015)	Worsened (2012-2017)	No data
Gender parity in Out-of-school rates	Partly improved	Worsened (2012-2016) ²⁷⁴	Worsened (2013-2017) ²⁷⁵	Stably equal for male/female up until review	No data	Marginally improved	No data ²⁷⁷	No data

²⁶⁷ Data only available for 2014-2015 showing slight worsening (from 0.95 in 2013 to 0.93 in 2014).

²⁶⁸ Gender parity index data for lower secondary education were not available across countries. Appendix VII provides information on overall secondary (lower and upper secondary) GPIs for the reviewed countries.

²⁶⁹ Improvement in lower basic education (grades 1-6), but deterioration and recent stagnation at upper basic education level (grades 7-9)

²⁷⁰ No data on completion rates available, assessment is based on survival rates from grade I to V as proxy for completion rates.

²⁷¹ Based on survival rates up to grade V as proxy for completion rate

²⁷² Potentially due to the Ebola crisis. No data available past 2015.

²⁷⁴ In 2016, boys were twice as likely as girls to be out of school. In 2012, female students had been slightly more likely to be out of school than boys.

²⁷⁵ Gender parity of primary out-of-school rates worsened considerably from 2013-2017 with girls twice as likely as boys to be out of school. This indicates that measures to lower OOS rates benefited boys more than girls.

²⁷⁷ Data only available up to 2016/17 and from source considered unreliable by several national stakeholders. Same for Balochistan. Available data indicate worsening of GPI of out of school rates in both provinces.

CHANGES IN..	BURKINA FASO (REVIEW PERIOD 2012-2017)	SIERRA LEONE (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	COTE D'IVOIRE (REVIEW PERIOD 2012-2017)	LIBERIA (REVIEW PERIOD 2010-2017)	GUYANA (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	THE GAMBIA (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	PAKISTAN (REVIEW PERIOD 2014-EARLY 2018)	
							S.	B.
	(2012-2017) ²⁷³			period (2011-2015)		(2012-2017) ²⁷⁶		

134. Improvements noted during the periods before and up until (part of) the respective review periods include positive changes in gender parity indices (GPI) of primary enrollment, GPE of out of school rates and, in some countries, improvements in primary completion rates (e.g. Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire and Balochistan) and enrollment rates in previously underserved areas (e.g. Cote d'Ivoire, the Gambia).

135. At the same time, CLEs noted that significant inequalities remained during the same periods, including the following.

- **Differences in access to education and completion rates.** Children in rural and remote areas and those from poor families are more likely not to attend school than those in urban areas and from wealthier backgrounds (Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire, Guyana, The Gambia). Girls and children from poor households are less likely than boys and children from more affluent households to complete primary education (Liberia, Sierra Leone). Pre-primary and post primary education are mostly accessed by children from wealthier families (The Gambia).
- **Differences in learning outcomes.** In learning assessments, children in urban areas tended to score higher than those in rural ones (e.g., Cote d'Ivoire) and learners attending private schools scored higher than those in public ones (e.g., Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire). The learning outcomes of girls and boys respectively differed in some contexts favoring boys over girls (e.g., in the DRC and in Pakistan), while in yet other contexts (e.g., in Nepal) available data do not indicate notable gender-based differences.²⁷⁸

136. While several of the reviewed countries have taken measures to lower the cost of education to families (see chapter 4), hidden costs remain (e.g., for school uniforms, stationary, transport and lunches) and continue to bar some children from access to education such as in Liberia, Sierra Leone and The Gambia. While education is nominally free in all of these countries (with exception of Cote d'Ivoire²⁷⁹), this is not the case in practice. This poses a considerable challenge to achieving the goal of universal primary education.

²⁷³ At primary level, girls remain more likely than boys to be out of school. At lower secondary level, gender parity of out of school rates improved from 2012-2017.

²⁷⁶ Since 2012, boys have been consistently more likely than girls to be not in school, but the gap reduced during the period up to 2017.

²⁷⁸ In some cases, differences vary by subject. For example, in Cote d'Ivoire, in a recent PASEC assessment boys scored higher than girls in mathematics but both genders had similar competency levels in French.

²⁷⁹ The education system in Côte d'Ivoire is modelled on the French system and was reformed in 2015 with the introduction of universal (but not free) basic education for children aged 3 to 16.

5.2 Findings on likely links to system-level change

Finding 31: There is insufficient data across the reviewed countries to make evidence-based claims on links between system-level changes that occurred during the review periods and impact-level trends.

137. The country-level theory of change assumes that system-level improvements brought about by ESP implementation contribute to positive changes in learning outcomes and equity. However, all seven summative CLEs found that in almost all cases, it was not yet possible to confirm plausible links between impact-level trends and specific system-level improvements during the periods reviewed for at least three reasons.

- 1) **Time-lag** between system-level change and improvements in learning outcomes and/or equity. This is especially the case for measures aiming to enhance education quality (e.g., reforms of pre- and in-service teacher training, curriculum revisions) which may need years to translate into measurable changes in learning outcomes. The periods covered by the summative (and prospective) CLEs are too short to follow system-level improvements over extended periods. In addition, impact-level data typically only become available with a delay of two or three years, making it difficult to clearly link them to improvements that took place at a specific point in the past.
- 2) In some cases, the relatively **limited scope of system-level improvements made during the review period** (e.g., pilot initiatives that covered a limited number of schools or regions) means that related changes are not likely to be reflected in country-wide impact level trends.
- 3) **Limitations in the quality of data, especially of historic sector data**, meaning that available information may not fully reflect actual trends.

138. Nevertheless, several summative CLEs acknowledge that some system-level improvements made during the review period **may have contributed** (at least partially) to impact-level changes. As outlined in Table 5.2, **all of these changes relate to improvements in equitable education access**, especially through the construction of new schools in previously underserved areas.

Table 5.3 Possible links between impact-level trends and system-level improvements during review period (summative CLEs)

COUNTRY	OBSERVED IMPACT-LEVEL TREND	PLAUSIBLE (AT LEAST PARTIAL) LINK TO SYSTEM-LEVEL CHANGE DURING REVIEW PERIOD
Burkina Faso	Modest improvement in pre-primary enrollment	Possible link to government push to strengthen pre-primary education (including with GPE support)
Cote d'Ivoire	Strong improvement in primary and lower-secondary enrollment and reductions of out-of-school rates	Possible link to improvements to existing school infrastructure and construction of new schools ²⁸⁰

²⁸⁰ In addition to the general stability brought to the country after a decade of fighting and political conflict, i.e., a change in the overall context that is unrelated to system-level change likely brought about by ESP implementation.

COUNTRY	OBSERVED IMPACT-LEVEL TREND	PLAUSIBLE (AT LEAST PARTIAL) LINK TO SYSTEM-LEVEL CHANGE DURING REVIEW PERIOD
Liberia	Significant improvement in enrollment rates at all levels	Possible link to increase in number of school buildings and government placing greater emphasis on ECD services ²⁸¹
	Moderate improvement in gender parity of enrollment at primary and junior secondary levels	Possible link to various initiatives aimed at supporting girls' education, including reduced distance to schools, teachers' code of conduct, UNICEF program on gender-equitable education, scholarship programs, alternative education programs addressing young mothers, construction of additional WASH facilities
The Gambia	Slight increases in GER at ECD and LBE levels	Possible link to removal of barriers to ECD and LBE access during the review period (construction of more schools and thus reduced distances to school; abolishing school levies, in some areas school feeding).

²⁸¹ However, there is also a likely link to the increase in the number of non-state (private) schools and thus unrelated to changes likely brought about by ESP implementation.

6 Conclusions and suggestions for consideration by GPE

139. CLEs conducted in FY 2018 highlight strengths and positive effects of GPE support to countries, while also raising several questions about the extent to which the GPE operational model and the GPE country-level theory of change function in practice.

140. The following conclusions and related suggestions for consideration by GPE build on: the overarching findings outlined in section 2, the key messages and strategic questions outlined in chapters 3 and 4, as well as the various specific findings presented throughout the report. The conclusions are not prioritized. While their order broadly follows the internal logic of the GPE country-level ToC, several conclusions cut across individual elements of the ToC (e.g., they are relevant both in relation to sector plan preparation and plan implementation). Where conclusions result in several suggestions, the respective first suggestion is the one the evaluation team considers the most pressing issue for GPE to address. While the conclusions and suggestions are relevant for all partnership members, the suggestions below are addressed to the Board and the Secretariat only as the primary intended users of this report.

Conclusion 1: GPE has been much more successful in improving education sector planning processes than in influencing sector plan implementation and monitoring. CLEs conducted in FY 2018 indicate that GPE has had considerable influence on countries establishing participatory and inclusive consultation processes for education sector planning and, to a lesser degree, on sector dialogue and monitoring. GPE support has been less effective in: (i) influencing whether and how in-country stakeholders actually use these plans and mechanisms to guide and monitor their activities; (ii) defining and/or helping develop capacities to effectively implement ESPs; and (iii) enhancing the quantity and quality of sector financing.

Related suggestions:

1.1 The Secretariat, in consultation with the Board, may want to consider elevating the priority of the ESP quality criterion of being ‘achievable’ (i.e., making it mandatory for an ESP to meet the achievability criterion in order to be considered ‘credible’). This may require some reflection on whether all countries can realistically be expected to develop ESPs that are both comprehensive and achievable at the same time. In that vein, the Secretariat, possibly in consultation with DCP governments and current Coordinating Agencies, should also explore how GPE can further support countries in better prioritizing ESP objectives. Similarly, the Secretariat may want to explore whether more support can be provided to assist country governments in developing shorter term action plans to guide sector plan implementation and related monitoring.

1.2 GPE guidelines and quality assurance processes should pay more attention to what types of capacities are needed to ensure effective ESP implementation (including monitoring of implementation), and what ways there are to analyze and strengthen such capacities. More broadly, the Secretariat may want to clarify expectations regarding the notion of national ‘capacity’ in relation to the in-country processes GPE aims to help strengthen (sector planning, dialogue, monitoring, financing), as well as expectations regarding the roles and responsibilities of key GPE actors (Secretariat, GA, CA) in providing capacity development support, and on the types of expected results of such support.

Conclusion 2: Neither development partners’ nor GPE Grant Agents’ actions consistently exemplify the notion of mutual accountability for sector progress through ESP implementation. At the country level, while development partners endorse sector plans, most of them continue to work (or have reverted to working) through stand-alone projects that are only broadly related to ESP priorities and that usually are

not monitored in terms of ESP objectives and targets. Similarly, GPE Grant Agents tend to focus on the implementation and monitoring of ESPIG (co-)funded projects only, without systematically linking related tasks to overall ESP implementation.

Related suggestions:

2.1 The Board could discuss whether and how GPE could provide additional country-level incentives for (or link existing incentives to) using joint sector reviews as meaningful tools to monitor and improve sector plan implementation.

2.2 The Board should discuss and make practical suggestions for how GPE can hold individual (donor) members at the country level more accountable for the quality of their education sector financing and for aligning implementation and monitoring of their own initiatives with the overarching objectives and targets of ESPs. Any steps in this direction would need to include frank discussions with and among donor countries regarding the extent to which their country-level representatives are/can be enabled and incentivized to do so. Related measures could include individual annual reports from GPE donor members to the Board on how they have handled their bilateral support to countries in terms of alignment with the respective ESP. If appropriate and desired, the Board could compile related data into annual cross-country assessments of donor compliance with their commitments.

2.3 The Board may want to consider whether to suggest that sector plans should include specific proposals for how development partners need to adapt their financial and technical support to best support ESP/TEP implementation. Where desired by the respective DCP government, such explicit parameters could address expectations on whether new donor contributions provided in support of the sector plan should be channeled through pooled funding mechanisms. In this context, the Board should also discuss whether GPE can do more to push for/support the establishment and use of pooled funding mechanisms in contexts where these do not yet exist.

2.4 At the country level, the Secretariat may want to advise ministries of education and LEGs (including the CA) to develop and monitor clear expectations of what endorsing an ESP should mean in terms of development partners' aligning and monitoring their own work with the plan. For example, LEG meetings as well as joint sector reviews could regularly include reviews not only of domestic but also amounts and quality of international sector financing for ESP implementation. LEGs could further consider introducing in-country donor peer reviews of how well different development partners align their work with the respective sector plan.

2.5 The Secretariat could review the GPE operational model, in particular the terms of reference for GAs to consider whether these actors' accountability vis-à-vis DCP governments can be strengthened.

Conclusion 3: GPE's contributions to sector plan implementation are evident mostly in those thematic areas directly addressed through ESPIG funding. This is important because the country-level ToC had assumed stronger linkages between sector plan implementation on the one hand, and GPE contributions to sector planning, sector dialogue and monitoring, and sector financing on the other hand.

Related suggestions:

3.1 The Secretariat should explore how the GPE operational model could be strengthened to help ensure that sector dialogue and monitoring (through JSRs) inform overall ESP implementation. This should include reflection on whether monitoring and reporting on ESPIG (co-) funded projects should be expected to indicate how the project contributes to achieving ESP objectives.

3.2 The Secretariat should closely follow whether monitoring of indicators related to the variable tranche leads to stronger involvement of relevant actors in overall ESP monitoring, or whether related efforts are limited to GPE-funded elements and, if so, with what effects.

Conclusion 4: There is room for increasing the flexibility of GPE approaches to avoid the negative effects of a ‘one size fits all’ model. In six countries, CLEs noted negative unintended effects deriving from: the rigid application of GPE funding requirements and processes for sector plan preparation, limited adaptation of the GPE operational model to the specific context of federal states, and/or the need to meet fixed GPE ESPIG application timelines.

Related suggestions:

4.1 The Secretariat should continue its efforts aimed at ensuring that the GPE operational model and the application of GPE quality assurance processes are sufficiently adaptable to different country contexts. While some requirements (such as ESPIG application timelines) may have to be the same across countries to ensure fairness, objectivity and transparency of processes, others may lend themselves to more flexible application especially in terms of fostering country ownership. These could include, for example, letting LEGs decide whether to accept GPE guidance on which experts are best qualified to conduct external ESP appraisals, and – in federal states – selecting several Coordinating Agencies and appointing provincial/state-level GPE focal points in addition to one single national focal point. Where applying common standards and/or processes is deemed essential, the Secretariat may want to explore whether it can do more to communicate the reasons and benefits of this decision to country stakeholders.

4.2 The Secretariat should review whether ESP-related quality standards could be adjusted to allow greater flexibility in terms of *when* different countries are likely to achieve progress in different areas. This links back to the question raised above on whether all ESPs can realistically be both comprehensive and achievable at the same time.²⁸² Of course, related considerations would need to carefully weigh potential benefits against related risks, such as the possibility of countries simply postponing issues such as ensuring quality education for learners with special needs indefinitely. However, making GPE support and quality criteria more flexible would not need to mean making sector planning less ambitious, but rather to provide more guidance to countries on how to distinguish short-term versus medium and longer-term objectives, how to reflect related considerations in ESPs and sector budgets, and how to monitor progress over time.

141. The conclusions and suggestions outlined above reflect information and insights available at this stage of the CLE assignment which, in view of the evaluation team, warrant GPE attention. The noted issues will be further explored in prospective CLEs as they continue and in upcoming summative CLEs during FY 2019 and FY 2020. The final synthesis report (envisaged to be completed by March 2020) will formulate formal recommendations to GPE.

²⁸² Conclusion 1/suggestion 1.

Appendix I Evaluation Matrix

The evaluation matrix below guided summative and prospective CLEs during FY 2018, as well as (global level questions) compilation of this synthesis report. CLEs conducted during FY 2019 and 2020 will follow a slightly updated version of this matrix.

COUNTRY-LEVEL QUESTIONS AND SUB-QUESTIONS – TO BE ANSWERED THROUGH EACH COUNTRY-LEVEL EVALUATION	GLOBAL LEVEL QUESTIONS – TO BE ANSWERED THROUGH SYNTHESIS OF COUNTRY-LEVEL EVALUATIONS
<p>Key question I: Has GPE support to [country] contributed to achieving country-level objectives related to sector planning, sector plan implementation, sector dialogue and monitoring, and more/better financing for education?²⁸³ If so, then how?</p> <p>CEQ 1: Has GPE contributed to education sector planning and sector plan implementation in [country] during the period under review?²⁸⁴ How?</p> <p>CEQ 1.1 What have been strengths and weaknesses of education sector planning during the period under review?</p> <p>CEQ 1.2 What have been strengths and weaknesses of sector plan implementation during the period under review?</p> <p>CEQ 1.3 Has GPE contributed to the observed characteristics of sector planning? How?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Through the GPE ESPDG grant (funding, funding requirements) b) Through other support (technical assistance, advocacy, standards, quality assurance procedures, guidelines, capacity building, facilitation, CSEF and ASA grants, and cross-national sharing of evidence/good practice advocacy and facilitation)²⁸⁵ <p>CEQ 1.4 Has GPE contributed to the observed characteristics of sector plan implementation? How?</p>	
	<p>GEQ 1.1: How relevant, effective and efficient have been GPE contributions to Sector Plan preparation and implementation in the reviewed countries? What additional influences can explain observed changes?</p> <p>GEQ 1.2: How relevant, effective and efficient have been GPE contributions to furthering mutual accountability through inclusive policy dialogue and sector monitoring in the reviewed</p>

²⁸³ OECD DAC evaluation criteria of relevance, effectiveness and efficiency.

²⁸⁴ **The core period under review varies for summative and prospective evaluations.** Prospective evaluations will primarily focus on the period early 2018 to early 2020 and will relate observations of change back to the baseline established at this point. The summative evaluations will focus on the period covered by the most recent ESPIG implemented in the respective country. However, for selected indicators (and subject to data availability) the summative evaluations will look back up to 5 years prior to the country becoming a GPE member to conduct a trend analysis of relevant data.

²⁸⁵ Technical assistance and facilitation provided primarily through the GPE Secretariat, the Grant Agent and Coordinating Agency. Advocacy can include inputs from Secretariat, Grant Agent, Coordinating Agency, LEG, and GPE at global level (e.g., Board meetings, agreed -upon standards).

COUNTRY-LEVEL QUESTIONS AND SUB-QUESTIONS – TO BE ANSWERED THROUGH EACH COUNTRY-LEVEL EVALUATION	GLOBAL LEVEL QUESTIONS – TO BE ANSWERED THROUGH SYNTHESIS OF COUNTRY-LEVEL EVALUATIONS
<p>CEQ 1.5 Has GPE contributed to leveraging additional education sector financing and improving the quality of financing?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Leveraging of additional finance from the government b) Leveraging of additional finance from other partners through the GPE multiplier funding mechanisms (where applicable) c) Leveraging of additional finance from other partners through means other than the multiplier funding mechanism? d) Improvements in the quality of education finance (e.g., short, medium and long-term predictability, alignment with government systems)? 	<p>countries? What additional influences can explain observed changes?</p> <p>GEQ 1.3: What key (internal and external)²⁸⁶ factors have positively or negatively influenced the relevance, effectiveness and/or efficiency of GPE contributions to country-level objectives?</p>
<p>CEQ 2 Has GPE contributed to strengthening mutual accountability for the education sector during the period under review? How?</p> <p>CEQ 2.1 Has sector dialogue changed during the period under review?</p> <p>CEQ 2.2 Has sector monitoring changed?</p> <p>CEQ 2.3 How has GPE contributed to observed changes in sector dialogue and monitoring:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Through GPE grants and funding requirements? b) Through other support²⁸⁷? 	
<p>CEQ 3 Has GPE support had unintended/unplanned effects? What factors other than GPE support have contributed to observed changes in sector planning, sector plan implementation, sector financing and monitoring?</p> <p>CEQ 3.1 What factors other than GPE support are likely to have contributed to the observed changes (or lack thereof) in sector plan development, sector financing and plan implementation, and in sector dialogue and monitoring?</p> <p>CEQ 3.2 During the period under review, have there been unintended, positive or negative, consequences of GPE financial and non-financial support?</p>	

²⁸⁶ 'Internal factors' refer to characteristics of GPE financial and non-financial support provided in the reviewed countries, whereas 'external' factors are influences deriving from characteristics of the respective country contexts (political, economic, socio-cultural etc.).

²⁸⁷ Technical assistance, advocacy, standards, quality assurance, guidelines, capacity building, facilitation, and cross-national sharing of evidence/good practice.

COUNTRY-LEVEL QUESTIONS AND SUB-QUESTIONS – TO BE ANSWERED THROUGH EACH COUNTRY-LEVEL EVALUATION	GLOBAL LEVEL QUESTIONS – TO BE ANSWERED THROUGH SYNTHESIS OF COUNTRY-LEVEL EVALUATIONS
Key question II: Has the achievement of country-level objectives²⁸⁸ contributed to making the overall education system in the reviewed country/countries more effective and efficient?	
CEQ 4 During the period under review, how has the education system changed in relation to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Quality of teaching/instruction? b) Evidence-based, transparent decision making? c) Country-specific areas of system strengthening for furthering equity and/or learning, and for ensuring effective and efficient use of resources? 	GEQ 2.1: What types of changes have occurred in the education systems in the reviewed countries? GEQ 2.2: What evidence exists to link system-level changes to changes in sector planning, sector plan implementation, sector dialogue and monitoring? What additional influences can explain observed changes? GEQ 2.3: What key (external) factors have positively or negatively influenced the extent to which system-level change has been obtained or can be verified?
CEQ 5 How have changes in sector planning, plan implementation, and mutual accountability contributed to observed changes at education system level?	
Key question III: Have changes at education system level contributed to progress towards impact?	
CEQ 6: During the period under review, what changes have occurred in relation to (a) learning outcomes (basic education), (b) equity, gender equality and inclusion in education?	GEQ 3.1. During the period under review, what changes have occurred in relation to (a) learning outcomes (basic education), (b) equity, gender equality and inclusion in education? GEQ 3.2: Is there evidence to link changes in learning outcomes, equity, gender equality and inclusion to system-level changes? What other/alternative influences can explain changes in learning outcomes, equity etc.?
CEQ 7 Is there evidence to link changes in learning outcomes, equity, gender equality and inclusion to system-level changes identified under CEQ 4? What other factors can explain changes in learning outcomes, equity etc.?	

²⁸⁸ GPE country-level objectives related to sector planning, plan implementation, and mutual accountability through sector dialogue and monitoring

Appendix II Country-level Theory of Change

142. The generic country-level theory of change implies several **contribution claims**, which have been/will be tested in each summative and prospective CLE respectively as well as across the portfolio of CLEs. These contribution claims have not been explicitly stated by GPE but are **logically implied** by the partnership's own overall theory of change and, in consequence, the generic country-level theory of change outlined in section 1.4. Table ii.1 below shows these contribution claims, as well as the logical linkages between elements in the country-level ToC, and related underlying (mostly implicit) assumptions.

Table ii.1 Contribution claims and key underlying assumptions

#	EXPLANATORY MECHANISM	CRITICAL UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS ²⁸⁹	(IMPLICIT) CONTRIBUTION CLAIM
1 – GPE contributions to sector planning			
1.1, 1.2, 1.3 and 1.4	BECAUSE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) GPE provides Education Sector Plan Development Grants and guidance, quality assurance, capacity development and technical guidance (2) GPE promotes (at global and country levels) evidence-based and adaptive planning (3) GPE promotes and facilitates cross-national sharing of evidence and good practice 	<p>Country level stakeholders have the capabilities (knowledge and skills), opportunities (resources, conducive external environment), and motivation (political will, incentives) to jointly and collaboratively improve sector analysis and planning.²⁹⁰</p> <p>GPE has sufficient leverage within the country for GPE financial and non-financial support to influence sector planning, including LEG existence and functioning.</p> <p>EMIS and learning assessment and reporting systems (LAS) produce relevant and reliable data.</p>	<p>Contribution claim A: GPE (financial and non-financial) support and influence contribute to the <i>development</i> of government owned, credible and evidence-based sector plans focused on equity, efficiency and learning.</p>

²⁸⁹ Critical assumptions are events and conditions necessary for the respective logical link (mechanism) to work.

²⁹⁰ Mayne (2017) suggests analyzing changes in individual or organizational 'capacity', as the foundation of behavioral and practice change, by exploring the three interrelated dimensions of capabilities, motivation, and opportunity. See: Mayne, John. *The COM-B Theory of Change Model*. Working paper. February 2017.

#	EXPLANATORY MECHANISM	CRITICAL UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS ²⁸⁹	(IMPLICIT) CONTRIBUTION CLAIM
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (4) GPE fosters clear roles, responsibilities and accountabilities among stakeholders in policy dialogue and their collaboration in a coordinated, harmonized way to solve sector issues • (5) Data on systems, equity, and learning generated through quality EMIS and LAS are fed back and used to inform sector planning • DCP government produces and owns credible and evidence-based sector plans focused on equity, efficiency, and learning 		
2 - GPE contributions to sector plan implementation, sector monitoring, and dialogue			
2.1	BECAUSE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (1) GPE provides CSEF and ASA grants • (2) GPE supports and promotes evidence-based and inclusive national sector monitoring and adaptive planning at global and country levels • (3) GPE promotes and facilitates cross-national sharing of evidence and good practice • (4) GPE fosters clear roles, responsibilities and accountabilities among stakeholders in policy dialogue and their collaboration in a coordinated, harmonized way to solve sector issues • There is mutual accountability for sector progress through inclusive sector policy dialogue and monitoring 	<p>GPE has sufficient leverage at global and country levels to positively influence LEG existence and functioning.</p> <p>Country-level stakeholders have the capabilities (knowledge and skills), opportunities (including resources), and motivation (including political will and incentives) to work together to solve education sector issues.</p>	<p>Contribution claim B: GPE (financial and non-financial) support for inclusive sector planning and joint monitoring contribute to <i>mutual accountability</i> for education sector progress.</p>

#	EXPLANATORY MECHANISM	CRITICAL UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS ²⁸⁹	(IMPLICIT) CONTRIBUTION CLAIM
2.2	BECAUSE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) GPE advocates for and establishes mechanisms for increased, harmonized, and better aligned international financing for education, and (2) GPE funding requirements include the promotion of improvements in domestic financing for education promotes There is more and better financing for education mobilized in the country. 	<p>GPE has sufficient leverage to influence the amount of and the quality of domestic and international education sector financing.</p> <p>External (contextual) factors permit national and international actors to increase/improve the quality of education sector financing.</p>	Contribution claim C: GPE advocacy and funding requirements contribute to more and better financing for education in the country.
2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 2.6 2.7 and 2.8	BECAUSE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) GPE provides funding through PDGs and ESPIGS (2) GPE provides quality assurance, processes, guidelines, capacity building and technical guidance for ESPIG development and implementation (3) there is mutual accountability for education sector progress (4) the country has developed a credible and evidence-based sector plan (5) more and better domestic and international financing for education is available (6) GPE promotes and facilitates cross-national sharing of evidence and good practice (7) Data on systems, equity, and learning generated through quality EMIS and LAS are fed back and used to inform sector plan implementation 	<p>Relevant country-level actors have the technical capabilities, motivation (political will, incentives) and opportunity (funding, conducive environment) to implement all elements of the sector plan.</p> <p>Available domestic and international funding is sufficient in quantity and adequate in quality to implement all elements of the sector plan.</p> <p>Country-level development partners have the motivation and opportunity (e.g. directive from respective donor government) to align their own activities with the priorities of the sector plan and to work through the LEG as a consultative and advisory forum.</p> <p>Country-level stakeholders take part in regular, evidence-based joint sector reviews and apply recommendations deriving from these reviews to enhance equitable and evidence-based sector plan implementation.</p> <p>The sector plan includes provisions for strengthening EMIS and LAS to produce timely, relevant and reliable data.</p>	Contribution claim D: GPE (financial and non-financial) support and influence contribute to the effective and efficient <i>implementation</i> of sector plans.

#	EXPLANATORY MECHANISM	CRITICAL UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS ²⁸⁹	(IMPLICIT) CONTRIBUTION CLAIM
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The country implements and monitors credible, evidence-based sector plans based on equity, efficiency and learning 		
3. From country-level objectives to system-level change (intermediary outcome)			
3.1	<p>BECAUSE</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (1) countries implement and monitor realistic, evidence-based education sector plans based on equity, efficiency and learning • The education system becomes more effective and efficient towards delivering equitable quality educational services for all 	<p>Education sector plan implementation leads to improvements of previous shortcomings in the education system including related to each of, as well as to the interaction between elements such as:</p> <p>Sector management:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effective and efficient use of available resources • Effective sector management at national, sub-national and local/school levels • Evidence-based, transparent decision making – e.g., regularly conducted quality learning assessments, regularly collected data on EMIS, transparency and reporting of data, integrated and effective data systems to facilitate use <p>Learning:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appropriate and available education inputs – e.g., curricula, textbooks and other teaching/learning materials, school infrastructure, lesson plans/teacher training tools, numbers and allocations of trained teachers, teachers trained in using existing curricula and related materials, incentives for teachers, teacher supervision • Quality of teaching/instruction – e.g., instructional time, language of instruction, appropriate pedagogy (teaching at right level), teacher-learner relationship, effective school management 	<p>Contribution claim E: The implementation of realistic evidence-based sector plans contributes to positive changes at the level of the overall <i>education system</i>.</p>

#	EXPLANATORY MECHANISM	CRITICAL UNDERLYING ASSUMPTIONS ²⁸⁹	(IMPLICIT) CONTRIBUTION CLAIM
		Equity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Removal of barriers to school participation for all learners • Inclusive learning environment 	
3.2	BECAUSE <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • (1) sector plan implementation includes provisions for strengthened EMIS and LAS • (2) because GPE promotes and facilitates sharing of evidence and mutual accountability for education sector progress • Country produces and shares disaggregated data on equity, efficiency, and learning 	There is sufficient national capacity (technical capabilities, political will, resources) or relevant technical assistance to analyze and report on available data and maintain EMIS and LAS. There are clearly delineated roles and responsibilities to produce data, report against data, and use data to monitor implementation.	
4. From system-level change (intermediate outcomes) to impact			
4	BECAUSE of improvements at the level of the overall education system, there are improved learning outcomes and improved equity, equality, and inclusion in education.	Changes in the education system positively affect learning outcomes and equity. Country-produced data on equity, efficiency and learning allow measuring/tracking these changes.	Contribution claim F: Education system-level improvements result in <i>improved learning outcomes</i> and in <i>improved equity, gender equality, and inclusion</i> in education.

Appendix III Context

Tables iii.1 and iii.2 below provide a brief overview of key characteristics of the seven and eight countries reviewed through summative and prospective CLE respectively.

Table iii.1 *Countries addressed through summative CLE*

CONTEXTUAL CHARACTERISTIC	BURKINA FASO	COTE D'IVOIRE	GUYANA	LIBERIA	PAKISTAN		SIERRA LEONE	THE GAMBIA
					SINDH	BAL. ²⁹¹		
Date country joined GPE (FTI)	2002	2010	2002	2007	2012		2007	2003
Income level	Low	Lower Middle	Upper Middle	Low	Lower Middle		Low	Low
Fragile or Conflict Affected Country?	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes		Yes	Yes
Ministry responsible for Basic Education/	Ministry of National Education and Literacy (MENA)	Ministry of National Education and Technical Vocational Education and Training (MENETFP)	Ministry of Education	Ministry of Education (MOE)	Ministry of Federal Education and Professional Training (MFEPT)		Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST)	Ministry of Basic Education (MoBSE)
Other ministries with responsibilities for (parts of) the education sector	Ministry of Higher Education, Scientific Research and Innovation (MESRSI); Ministry of	Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MESRS)	n.a.	n.a.	Sindh Education and Literacy Department (SELD)	Balochistan Secondary Education Department (BSED)	n.a.	Ministry of Higher Education, Research, Science and Technology (MoHERST)

²⁹¹ Balochistan

CONTEXTUAL CHARACTERISTIC	BURKINA FASO	COTE D'IVOIRE	GUYANA	LIBERIA	PAKISTAN		SIERRA LEONE	THE GAMBIA
					SINDH	BAL. ²⁹¹		
	Youth and Employment (MJFIP)							
School aged population by education level²⁹²	Pre-primary: 1,841,518 Primary: 3,246,883 Secondary: 3,049,276	Pre-primary: 2,169,469 Primary: 3,817,478 Secondary: 3,819,184	Pre-primary: 43,809 Primary: 88,582 Secondary: 81,673	Pre-primary: 412,444 Primary: 753,782 Secondary: 645,347	Pakistan overall: Pre-primary: 9,793,071 Primary: 22,608,282 Secondary: 27,549,822		Pre-primary: 668,039 Primary: 1,230,035 Secondary: 1,204,537	Pre-primary: 265,910 Primary: 339,625 Secondary: 279,405
Out of school rate for children of primary age (most recent available data)	23 percent (2017)	10.99% (2017)	No data	63.25% (2016)	Pakistan overall: estimated 23.55% (2017)		0.82% (2016)	21.37% (2017)
Role of private education service providers²⁹³	2008/09 - 2013/14: share of students in private schools increased from 45.7% to 51% at pre-school level and from 14.2% to 17.3% at primary level but decreased	2008/09 - 2013/14: share of students in private schools decreased at pre-primary level (35.5%/30%) but increased	In 2014/15 there were, 967 schools: 42 percent (407) nursery, 46 percent (444) primary, 12 percent (116)	In 2015, share of students in non-public schools ²⁹⁷ was 47.8% at pre-primary, 48.5% at primary	Students attending private schools and madrassas are considered out-of-school and are not reflected in government statistics. The estimated proportion of children enrolled in non-state institutions (i.e., private schools and madrassas) in Sindh is 9% (5 in private schools and 4% in		In 2016, - more than half (4,553 or 51.1 percent) of existing schools were owned by missions/religious bodies, and	In 2016/2017 there were 994 Lower Basic schools (of which 540 public, ²⁹⁹ 454 private, including 301 Madrassas) and 339 Upper Basic schools (195 public, and 204

²⁹² As per UIS data November 2018.

²⁹³ The type of data available on different countries varied, sometimes illustrating the percentage of learners enrolled in private schools, while in other cases providing information only on the percentage of schools that are privately owned/non-public.

²⁹⁷ Combining private, mission and community schools.

²⁹⁹ Of these public schools, 502 are government schools, while 38 are granted-aided, i.e., they are managed by private (usually faith-based) education providers but receive government funding for teacher salaries.

CONTEXTUAL CHARACTERISTIC	BURKINA FASO	COTE D'IVOIRE	GUYANA	LIBERIA	PAKISTAN		SIERRA LEONE	THE GAMBIA
					SINDH	BAL. ²⁹¹		
	from 40.6% to 36.8% at lower-secondary. ²⁹⁴	at primary level (8.9%/13%). In 2013/14 it was 55% at lower secondary level ²⁹⁵	secondary. In addition, 16 registered and 79 unregistered private schools. ²⁹⁶	and 58.7% at lower secondary level.	madrassas) and in Balochistan is 12% (11% in private schools and 1% in madrassas)		1,882 (21.1 percent) were community-owned, while only 1,252 (14.1%) were government-owned. 1,168 or 13.1% were private. ²⁹⁸	private, out of which 142 are Madrassas).
Size and duration of ESPIG during core review period in US\$ million	78.2 (2013-2017)	41.4 (2013-2017)	1.7 (2015-2018)	40 (2010-2016)	66 (2015-2018)	34 (2014-2018)	17.9 (2014-2017)	6.9 (2014-2018)
ESPIG during core review period approved under New Funding Model?	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Size of last ESPIG before core review	102 (2009-2012)	n.a.	32.9 (2004-2012)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	11.7 (2008-2012)	27.9 (2009-2013)

²⁹⁴ An estimate put the proportion of unrecognized French-Arab and Islamic schools at 48 and 64 percent of existing schools respectively. Unrecognized schools are not represented in official data.

²⁹⁵ No data available on 2008/2009.

²⁹⁶ The number of private schools varies as they tend to start and shut down frequently.

²⁹⁸ Only 40 percent (3,615) of the existing schools captured in the latest school census are government-approved, while 4,777 (54 percent) are unapproved. Unapproved schools combine a mix of mission run/faith-based, and community schools. While they are reflected in the annual school census and thus feed into national education statistics, they do not receive most of the inputs provided by the MoE including payment of teachers and basic materials.

CONTEXTUAL CHARACTERISTIC	BURKINA FASO	COTE D'IVOIRE	GUYANA	LIBERIA	PAKISTAN		SIERRA LEONE	THE GAMBIA
					SINDH	BAL. ²⁹¹		
period, if applicable. In US\$ million.								
Relevant contextual changes/developments affecting the period under review	Military coup in 2014	Civil war from 2002-2007, renewed fighting following the 2010 elections, which was ended by a military intervention in 2011.	Discovery of off-shore petroleum led to increase of GDP per capita and disparity between coastal and 'hinterland' regions.	Ebola crisis (2014-2015)	Devolution: decision-making authority in education shifted from federal to provincial governments (2010)		Civil war (1991 to 2002); Ebola crisis (2014)	Regional Ebola-related crisis (external) and political unrest in 2016
Core review period covered by CLE	2012-2017	2012-2017	2014-early 2018	2010-2017	2014-early 2018		2014-early 2018	2014-early 2018

Table iii.2 Countries addressed through prospective CLE

CONTEXTUAL CHARACTERISTIC	DRC	ETHIOPIA	KENYA	MALAWI	MALI	NEPAL	NIGERIA	ZIMBABWE
Date country joined GPE (FTI)	2012	2004	2005	2009	2006	2009	2012	2013
Income level	Low	Lower-middle	Lower-middle	Low	Low	Low	Lower-middle	Low
Fragile or Conflict Affected Country?	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Ministry responsible for Basic Education	Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education and New Citizenship (MEPS-INC)	Ministry of Education	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education	Ministry of Education	Ministry of Education	Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE)
Other ministries with responsibilities for (parts of) the education sector	Ministry of Technical and Professional Education (METP) Ministry of Higher Education (MESU) Ministry of Social Affairs, Human Rights and National Solidarity (MASAHSN).			Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (MESRS); and the Ministry of Employment and Professional Training (MEFP) responsible for technical education				Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology Development (MoHTESD)

CONTEXTUAL CHARACTERISTIC	DRC	ETHIOPIA	KENYA	MALAWI	MALI	NEPAL	NIGERIA	ZIMBABWE
School aged population by education level³⁰⁰	Pre-primary: 8,095,128 Primary: 13,680,353 Secondary: 10,779,097	Pre-primary: 8,526,664 Primary: 16,111,462 Secondary: 14,940,912	Pre-primary: 4,187,779 Primary: 7,999,897 Secondary: 6,980,469	Pre-primary: 1,724,809 Primary: 3,168,362 Secondary: 2,618,825	Pre-primary: 2,497,863 Primary: 3,170,022 Secondary: 2,453,576	Pre-primary: 1,132,667 Primary: 3,083,235 Secondary: 4,685,683	Pre-primary: 5,779,085 Primary: 31,037,469 Secondary: 25,346,640	Pre-primary: 984,659 Primary: 3,028,319 Secondary: 2,146,723
Out of school rate for children of primary age (most recent available UIS data)	No data	13.98% (2015)	16.88% (2012)	No data	32.74 (2017)	5.16% (2017)	No data	14.77 (2013)
Role of private education service providers	Public schools are divided into state schools and confessional schools run by faith-based organizations. About seven out of ten primary schools are confessional schools. Fewer than two out of ten schools are state schools.	No data in CLE report	No data in CLE report	No data in CLE report	14.7 percent of primary school children are enrolled in private schools and 60 percent of general secondary students.	No data in CLE report	No data in CLE report	No data in CLE report

³⁰⁰ As per UIS data November 2018.

CONTEXTUAL CHARACTERISTIC	DRC	ETHIOPIA	KENYA	MALAWI	MALI	NEPAL	NIGERIA	ZIMBABWE
	The remainder of the (non-public) schools are private schools. In pre-primary education, private schools accounted for 52 percent of children enrolled in 2012.							
Size and duration of ESPIG during core review period (US\$ million)	100 (2017-2021)	99.5 (2017-2019)	88.4 (2015-2019)	44.9 (2016-2020)	41.7 (2013-2017)	59.3 (2016-2019)	100 (2015-2019)	20.58 ³⁰¹ (2017-2019) + 18.82 (2018-2021) ³⁰²
Duration of sector plan(s) supported by that ESPIG	2016-2025	2016-2020	2013–2018 New sector plan upcoming in 2018	2008/09-2017/18, new ESP expected in 2019	n.a.	School Sector Development Plan (SSDP) for 2016-2017	Varying by province ³⁰³	2016-2020

³⁰¹ Fixed tranche.

³⁰² US \$ 8.82m from ESPIG variable tranche and US \$ 10m from Multiplier grant.

³⁰³ Jigawa: ESP 2013-2022, Kaduna 2006-2015, Kano 2009-2018, Katsina 2011-2020, Sokoto 2011-2020

CONTEXTUAL CHARACTERISTIC	DRC	ETHIOPIA	KENYA	MALAWI	MALI	NEPAL	NIGERIA	ZIMBABWE
ESPIG during core review period approved under New Funding Model?	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes (for new ESPIG)	Yes	Yes	Yes
Size and duration of last ESPIG <i>before</i> core review period, if applicable. In US\$ million.	100 (2013-2017)	100 (2014-2018)	121 (2005-2008)	90 (2010-2015)	6.5 (2007-2010)	117.7 (2010-2014)	n.a.	23.6 (2014-2016)
Key contextual changes/developments affecting the review period	Recent upsurge of violence in the country (2017-2018)	Frequent El-Nino draughts. State of emergency following months of violent anti-government protests (2016)	Passage of a new constitution in 2010 led to devolution and new political and economic governance systems.	'Cashgate' corruption scandal (2013) and subsequent withdrawal of donors	2012 Tuareg uprising in Northern Mali	Seven provinces replaced previous 14 administrative zones. (2015). Related adjustments to government structures are expected.	Decline of oil price through the last quarter of 2014 resulted in decline in projected oil revenues. Boko Haram attacks since 2009- northern and north eastern regions of the country.	Serious economic shock in 2008 - increases in estimates of extreme poverty; Political upheaval in 2017.
Review period covered by prospective CLE	2017-2019	2017-2019	2017-2019	2017-2019	2017-2019	2017-2019	2017-2019	2017-2019

Appendix IV GPE sector plan quality ratings ³⁰⁴

GPE QUALITY CRITERION	BURKINA FASO (ESP 2012-2017)	SIERRA LEONE (ESP 2014-2018)	COTE D'IVOIRE (ESP 2012-2014)	LIBERIA (ESP 2010-2020)	GUYANA (ESP 2014-2018)	THE GAMBIA (ESSP 2014-2022)	BALUCHISTAN (ESP 2013-2018)	SINDH (ESP 2013/14 -2017/18)	ETHIOPIA (ESP 2016-2020)	NEPAL (ESP 2016-2023)	ZIMBABWE (ESP 2011-2015)	KENYA (ESP 2013-2018)	MALAWI (ESP 2013/14-2017/18)	DRC (ESP 2016-2025)	NIGERIA- JIGAWA (ESP 2013-22)	NIGERIA-KADUNA (ESP 2006-2015)	NIGERIA- KANO (ESP 2009-2018)	NIGERIA- KATSINA (ESP 2011-2020)	NIGERIA-SOKOTO (ESP 2011-2020)
Overall vision																			
Strategic																			
Holistic																			
Evidence-based																			
Achievable																			
Sensitive to context																			
Attentive to disparities																			

³⁰⁴ Ratings as per Secretariat assessments in GPE RF database. Ratings are shown for ESP in place during core period under review in the respective CLE, i.e., period covered by the most recent implemented ESPIG. Mali not included as, to date, country does not have a full ESP. The 2015-2016 TEP for Mali was rated to meet only one out of five criteria for TEP (evidence based), and as not meeting the remaining four or being sensitive to context and paying attention to disparities, strategic, targeted, and operational.

Appendix V Education sector financing - selected country data

Tables v.1 and v.2 below provide some details on the broad trends depicted on education sector financing in the seven summative CLE countries that were described in section 3.3.

Table v.1 *Sector financing – selected country data (summative CLE)*³⁰⁵

COUNTRIES	TOTAL DOMESTIC EDUCATION EXPENDITURE	EDUCATION SHARE OF TOTAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	% OF DOMESTIC EDUCATION FINANCING ALLOCATED TO BASIC EDUCATION ³⁰⁶	AMOUNT OF INTER-NATIONAL FINANCING FOR EDUCATION	EDUCATION ODA AS SHARE OF OVERALL ODA	ODA TO BASIC EDUCATION DURING SAME PERIOD (US \$ MILLION AND AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EDUCATION ODA)
Burkina Faso	86 % increase from 141 billion CFA in 2009 to 263 billion CFA in 2015.	Increased from 16.17% in 2010 to 18.03% in 2015.	Increased from 56.5 to 63.8 % between 2012-2015	Decreased by 44 % from US\$120.8 million in 2009 to US\$67.5 million in 2016 (OECD-CRS data, gross disbursements, all donors, constant 2016 US\$)	Decrease (from 12.3 percent in 2009 to 6.2 percent in 2016)	<p>Decrease (net and on average) from US \$39 million in 2010 to US\$ 23 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 32 million).</p> <p>Decrease as percentage of total education ODA (from 47 percent in 2010 to 34 percent in 2016)</p>
Sierra Leone	8% decrease in absolute terms (from US\$142 million in 2014 to US\$132 in 2016),	Decrease from 14.93% in 2008 to 12.47% in 2016.	Decreased from 66.7% in 2012 to 38.9% in 2016 (in that, particularly strong decrease	Increased overall. Education ODA fell drastically in the 2014-2016 period (Ebola) but	Strong fluctuations during review period (from 4.7 percent in 2012 to 0.9	Increase (net and on average) from US\$ 5 million in 2010 to US\$ 10 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 8 million)

³⁰⁵ For data sources, please see CLE report for the respective country.

³⁰⁶ GPE recommends that 45 percent of education spending should be dedicated to basic education if the country has not yet reached universal primary education.

COUNTRIES	TOTAL DOMESTIC EDUCATION EXPENDITURE	EDUCATION SHARE OF TOTAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	% OF DOMESTIC EDUCATION FINANCING ALLOCATED TO BASIC EDUCATION ³⁰⁶	AMOUNT OF INTER-NATIONAL FINANCING FOR EDUCATION	EDUCATION ODA AS SHARE OF OVERALL ODA	ODA TO BASIC EDUCATION DURING SAME PERIOD (US \$ MILLION <u>AND</u> AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EDUCATION ODA)
	no data post 2016 available.		for lower secondary from 17.2% to 3.2%)	subsequently recovered and exceeded pre-crisis levels after 2016 (domestic data and projections)	percent in 2015, back to 4.6 percent in 2016	Increase as percentage of total education ODA from 28 percent in 2010 to 30 percent in 2016
Cote d'Ivoire	85% increase between 2011 to 2015, from 503 million FCFA to 931 billion (but from low post-crisis levels)	Increase. From average 21.7 % during 2011-2015 to 23.6 % s in 2015.	Primary education allocations decreased from 41.5 % in 2010 to 37.8 % in 2015, while lower secondary allocations increased from 14.1 % to 16.9 %. (Total allocation to basic education 54.7 %).	Increased from US\$33 million in 2011 to US\$44 million in 2016 (nominal, see footnote for real increase). ³⁰⁷	Increase (from 1.2 percent in 2009 to 4.5 percent in 2016)	<p>Net decrease from US\$ 15 million in 2010 to US\$ 9 million in 2016 but increase on average (2010-2016 average was US\$ 7 million).</p> <p>Decrease as percentage of total education ODA from 29 percent in 2010 to 21 percent in 2016.</p>
Liberia	64% increase from US\$ 51,1 in 2010/11 to US\$83.8m in 2016/17	increased from 13.0 % in 2010/11 to 15.0 % in 2016/17, although funding dropped to as low as 10.6 %	Has remained steady at about 40 % since 2012	Increased. The trend in overall education ODA is not explicitly discussed in the report, which only notes aggregate	Increase (from 4.6 percent in 2009 to 8.6 percent in 2016)	Increase (net and on average) from US\$ 27 million in 2010 to US\$ 41 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 21 million).

³⁰⁷ Figures not adjusted for inflation. When inflation-adjusted (constant 2016 prices), education ODA grew from US\$ 27.8 million in 2011 to US\$ 44 million in 2016, an increase of 58 percent. (OECD-CRS data, gross disbursements, all donors, constant 2016 US\$)

COUNTRIES	TOTAL DOMESTIC EDUCATION EXPENDITURE	EDUCATION SHARE OF TOTAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	% OF DOMESTIC EDUCATION FINANCING ALLOCATED TO BASIC EDUCATION ³⁰⁶	AMOUNT OF INTER-NATIONAL FINANCING FOR EDUCATION	EDUCATION ODA AS SHARE OF OVERALL ODA	ODA TO BASIC EDUCATION DURING SAME PERIOD (US \$ MILLION <u>AND</u> AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EDUCATION ODA)
		in 2014/15 during the EVD crisis		donor spending for 2013-2016. Based on OECD-CRS data, education ODA increased by 204 percent from US\$ 23 million in 2009 to US\$ 71 million in 2016 (gross disbursements, all donors, constant 2016 US\$).		Slight decrease as percentage of total education ODA from 59 percent in 2010 to 58 percent in 2016.
Guyana	16.5 % increase from G\$37,156 million in 2014 to G\$43,280 million in 2016	Stable at around 20% (2014-2016)	<i>No data past 2013</i>	Increase year-on-year from US\$ 1.654 million in 2010 to US\$ 7.378 million in 2016 (288 percent) ³⁰⁸ (OECD-CRS data, gross disbursements, all donors, constant 2016 US\$)	Increase (from 1.1 percent in 2010 to 8.4 percent in 2016)	<p>Slight increase (net and on average) from US\$ 1 million in 2010 to US\$ 1.4 m in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 1.2m)</p> <p>Strong decrease as percentage of total education ODA from 61 percent in 2010 to 17 percent in 2016</p>

³⁰⁸ Following decline from 2007 to 2009.

COUNTRIES	TOTAL DOMESTIC EDUCATION EXPENDITURE	EDUCATION SHARE OF TOTAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	% OF DOMESTIC EDUCATION FINANCING ALLOCATED TO BASIC EDUCATION ³⁰⁶	AMOUNT OF INTER-NATIONAL FINANCING FOR EDUCATION	EDUCATION ODA AS SHARE OF OVERALL ODA	ODA TO BASIC EDUCATION DURING SAME PERIOD (US \$ MILLION <u>AND</u> AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EDUCATION ODA)
The Gambia	7% increase in real terms (14 percent in nominal terms) per year for the period 2010-2015. Largest share of this growth accrued to MoBSE ³⁰⁹ , whose nominal expenditure roughly doubled over the period, from 0.6 billion GMD in 2010 to 1.2 billion GMD in 2015 (US\$25m at 2018 rates).	Data on budgeted allocations suggest that education expenditures have fluctuated close to the target 20 percent mark between 2010 and 2018. Data on actual expenditures (UIS and GPE data) suggests spending fluctuated between 10 and 15 percent, on a downward trend before and during the review period.	Primary education's share of the total education budget has remained stable in 2010-2015 at around 75% of total domestic education spending, with the remainder evenly split between secondary and higher education.	Increase , with fluctuations. Despite drop in 2015, overall average in 2014-2016 period (latest available) higher than average for the 2010-2016 period. (OECD-CRS data, gross disbursements, all donors, constant 2016 US\$; as well as domestic projections)	Increase (from 4.3 percent in 2009 to 7.9 percent in 2016)	<p>Decrease (both net and on average) from US\$ 2 million in 2010 to US\$ 1.4 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 1.8 million)</p> <p>Decrease as percentage of total education ODA from 32 percent in 2010 to 16 percent in 2016</p>
Pakistan (Balochistan)	91.4% increase from 2011-2016 (42.1% when adjusted for inflation)	Declined from 18.85% in 2014/15 to 16.8% in 2016/17	Has remained stable at 82.8% on average between 2011 and 2016	30 percent increase in education ODA to Pakistan overall, from US\$482.6	Fluctuated, but increased overall from 13.3 percent in 2010 to 17.4 percent in 2016	Increase (net and on average) from US\$ 115 million in 2010 to US\$ 181 million in 2016 (2010-2016 average was US\$ 148m) for

³⁰⁹ Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education.

COUNTRIES	TOTAL DOMESTIC EDUCATION EXPENDITURE	EDUCATION SHARE OF TOTAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES	% OF DOMESTIC EDUCATION FINANCING ALLOCATED TO BASIC EDUCATION ³⁰⁶	AMOUNT OF INTER-NATIONAL FINANCING FOR EDUCATION	EDUCATION ODA AS SHARE OF OVERALL ODA	ODA TO BASIC EDUCATION DURING SAME PERIOD (US \$ MILLION <u>AND</u> AS PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EDUCATION ODA)
Pakistan (Sindh)	203.3 % increase from 2011-2016 (125.1% when adjusted for inflation)	Remained stable at 20.1% during review period	Increased significantly in 2012 (from 35% to 80%) and has since remained stable at 71.3% on average.	million in 2010 ³¹⁰ to US\$627.4 million in 2016. ³¹¹	(for Pakistan overall)	Pakistan overall- no provincial data available. Increase as percentage of total education ODA from 25 percent in 2010 to 28 percent in 2016

Table v.2 *ESPIG as share of total ODA to education during review period³¹²*

COUNTRIES	ESPIG DATES	TOTAL VALUE OF ESPIG IN US\$ WHEN AWARDED	TOTAL VALUE OF ESPIG IN US\$ 2016 DOLLARS	# OF YEARS COVERED BY THE ESPIG	ESPIG VALUE PER YEAR (IN US\$ 2016)	# OF YEARS FOR WHICH ESPIG AND ODA DATA OVERLAP ³¹³	ESPIG VALUE FOR THOSE OVERLAP YEARS (IN US\$ 2016)	VALUE OF EDU ODA FOR THOSE OVERLAP YEARS	VALUE OF EDU ODA + ESPIG FOR THOSE YEARS	SHARE OF ESPIG TO TOTAL EDU ODA
Burkina Faso	2013-2017	78.2	81.41	5	16.28	4	65.13	251.20	316.33	21%
Cote d'Ivoire	2012-2017	41.4	43.86	6	7.31	5	36.55	193.94	230.49	16%
The Gambia	2014-2018	6.90	7.05	5	1.41	3	4.23	20.51	24.74	17%
Liberia	2010-2016	40	44.09	7	6.30	7	44.09	304.11	348.20	13%
Sierra Leone	2014-2017	17.9	18.29	4	4.57	3	13.72	60.97	74.68	18%
Guyana	2015-2018	1.7	1.72	4	0.43	2	0.86	14.21	15.07	6%

³¹⁰ OECD-CRS data, gross disbursements, all donors, current 2010 US\$; equal to US\$468 million in constant 2016 US\$.

³¹¹ Domestic data. However, it closely resembles OECD-CRS data (gross disbursements, all donors, constant 2016 US\$) for 2016: US\$642 million.

³¹² Source: OECD Creditor Reporting System (CRS).

³¹³ CRS data not yet available for 2017-2018.

Table v.3 below summarizes selected information on sector financing as deriving from prospective CLEs conducted during FY 2018.

Table v.3 *Sector financing – selected country data (prospective CLE)*

COUNTRIES	TOTAL DOMESTIC EDUCATION EXPENDITURE ³¹⁴	EDUCATION SHARE OF TOTAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES ³¹⁵	% OF EDUCATION FINANCING ALLOCATED TO PRIMARY EDUCATION ³¹⁶	AMOUNT OF INTERNATIONAL FINANCING (TOTAL ODA TO COUNTRY) ³¹⁷	EDUCATION ODA AS SHARE OF OVERALL ODA ³¹⁸
DRC	Increase from 668 million in 2013 to 822 million in 2016	14.81% (2016)	61.59 (2013)	No data	Stable (low) – 3.2% in 2008; 3.18 in 2016
Ethiopia	Increase from 2,337 million in 2012 to 2,634 million in 2015 (no data for 2016 available)	27.10 % (2015)	27.45 (2015) ³¹⁹	Increased since 2006, estimated at \$4bn in 2016, or 5.6% of gross national income (GNI)	Decreased – from 5.45% in 2008 to 3.04% in 2016
Kenya	Increase from 2,902 million in 2012 to 3,483 million in 2016	17.34 % (2016)	36.34 (2015)	Net ODA and official aid have been decreasing since 2013 and in 2016 US\$251 million of the US\$2.19 billion ODA received by Kenya was committed to education	Increased – from 4.44% in 2008 to 8.35% in 2016
Malawi	Increase from 294 million on 2013 to 295 million in 2016	17.16 % (2016)	43.92 (2016)	Recently declining. Following 2013 ‘cashgate’ scandal, significant resources withdrawn, with all projects now off-budget.	Increased – from 2.55% in 2008 to 4.62% in 2016

³¹⁴ In constant US\$. Source: UIS

³¹⁵ Source: UIS

³¹⁶ Source: UIS

³¹⁷ Source: OECD CRS

³¹⁸ Source: OECD CRS

³¹⁹ The first annual prospective CLE report noted concerns over the fact that in 2014/15, nearly half of all education expenditures were for higher education.

COUNTRIES	TOTAL DOMESTIC EDUCATION EXPENDITURE ³¹⁴	EDUCATION SHARE OF TOTAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES ³¹⁵	% OF EDUCATION FINANCING ALLOCATED TO PRIMARY EDUCATION ³¹⁶	AMOUNT OF INTERNATIONAL FINANCING (TOTAL ODA TO COUNTRY) ³¹⁷	EDUCATION ODA AS SHARE OF OVERALL ODA ³¹⁸
Mali	Increase from 392 million in 2012 to 497 million in 2016	18.16 % (2015)	45.13 (2015)	Large increase since 2000 but with fluctuations since 2010. Total net receipts (in USD million) from 1,136.5 in 2014 to 1,324.6 in 2016.	Stable – 4.95% in 2008, 4.86% in 2016
Nepal	Increase from 650 million in 2012 to 917 million in 20176	19.13 (2016)	53.77 (2015)	Increased from US\$ 883.8 in 2014 to US\$ 1,065.9 million in 2016. In FY 2015/16, education sector received US\$ 111.55 million (10.39 percent of ODA).	Increased – from 6.16% in 2008 to 22.65% in 2016
Nigeria	No UIS data – prospective CLE indicates increase since 2006	No data	No UIS data	Sharp fall in 2007 – dropped from US\$ 12 billion to around US\$ 2 billion	Increased – from 3.29% in 2008 to 7.8\$ in 2016
Zimbabwe	Increase from 1,085 million in 2012 to 1,207 million in 2014 (no later UIS data available)	30 % (2014)	47.77 (2014)	Increase 2000-2014, but decrease in recent years , from 772.1 million in 2014 to 475.7 in 2016.	Increased – from 0.82% in 2008 to 3.03% in 2016

Appendix VI Selected country data on system level changes

Table vi.1 provides some details deriving from summative CLE on specific, positive or negative, changes during the respective review periods that constitute, or have the potential to influence, system-level change.

Table vi.1 *Summative CLE: Selected data on system-level improvements*

COUNTRIES	IMPROVED SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE	PUPIL/TEACHER RATIOS	PUPIL/QUALIFIED TEACHER RATIOS	AVAILABILITY OF TEACHING AND LEARNING MATERIALS	MEASURES TO ENHANCE GENDER EQUALITY	QUALITY LEARNING ASSESSMENT SYSTEM IN PLACE?
Burkina Faso	Overall # of primary school classrooms increased by 25 percent from 2013-2016 (12,229 to 59,938). However, only 2,643 of new classrooms in public schools, others private.	Improved (primary education) from 52.7/1 in 2011 to 41.6/1 in 2016	Improved (primary) from 54/1 in 2014 to 49.3/1 in 2016	Small improvement. From 2014 to 2016, only 2.17 million out of 4.89 million planned schoolbooks were purchased and delivered, and from 2013-2016, 235,000 textbooks for teachers were purchased but not delivered.	Introduction of 2011-2020 national education strategy for girls; providing grants for girls attending grade 1; awareness campaigns on the importance of girl education and constructing functional latrines. No monitoring data available on strategy implementation.	Yes- bi-annual national learning assessments at the primary school level that meet GPE quality standards. Also, Burkina Faso takes part in the PASEC (Programme d'Analyse des Systèmes Educatifs de la CONFEMEN) an international LAS administered to 13 Francophone countries in West Africa.
Cote d'Ivoire	2012-2015: # of pre-primary classrooms increased by 3.5 percent, primary classrooms by 7.7 percent resulting in 696,000 more children attending primary school (increase of 23	Improved from 48.8/1 in 2011 to 41.7/1 in 2012 (but is still higher than it was in 2007 indicating that progress represented a return to stability after the	Improved from 50/1 in 2013 to 42.05/1 in 2017	Around 8.2 million primary school children received school kits and 6.1 million textbooks were distributed to primary schools from 2012-2016. No data on student/textbook ratios available.	Construction of small lower secondary school hoped to encourage more girls to stay in school. Overall, ESP included few gender-specific measures and no data	Yes. PASEC assessments conducted in 1996 and 2009 are comparable, but 2014 assessment used different methodology. Since 2012, three national learning assessments at primary level (in reading skills for CP1; and in reading and

COUNTRIES	IMPROVED SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE	PUPIL/TEACHER RATIOS	PUPIL/QUALIFIED TEACHER RATIOS	AVAILABILITY OF TEACHING AND LEARNING MATERIALS	MEASURES TO ENHANCE GENDER EQUALITY	QUALITY LEARNING ASSESSMENT SYSTEM IN PLACE?
	percent). Also, introduction of smaller lower secondary schools that are closer to homes.	2010-11 election crisis)			on whether these were implemented.	mathematics skills for CE1). However, at the time of the evaluation the sustainability of this system was not clear, and no trend data was available for (parts of) the review period.
Guyana	No significant changes in the total # of primary and secondary schools. Primary schools increased from 433 to 434, and secondary schools from 114 to 116, between 2014/2015 and 2016/2017. But new and better nursery school facilities built.	No data	Primary level pupil/ trained teacher ratios improved slightly between 2011 and 2014, but no recent data is available.	No data	No data	No. GPE Results Framework baseline data (2016) rated Guyana's LAS as 'nascent' and this does not appear to have changed during the review period. The CLE found that in 2016 MoE developed a repository of learning assessment data on a platform called "Analytics." It includes Grades 2 and 4 assessments, National Grade Six Examination and Caribbean Examinations Council results and allows tracking improvements in performance for a specific cohort from one grade assessment to another. However, the CLE found no relevant learning outcome data

COUNTRIES	IMPROVED SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE	PUPIL/TEACHER RATIOS	PUPIL/QUALIFIED TEACHER RATIOS	AVAILABILITY OF TEACHING AND LEARNING MATERIALS	MEASURES TO ENHANCE GENDER EQUALITY	QUALITY LEARNING ASSESSMENT SYSTEM IN PLACE?
						for (parts of) the review period.
Liberia	# of primary schools increased by 15 percent (2,122 to 2,494) but below ESP target of 2,721 by 2015	Improved significantly from 49:1 in 2007/08 to 27.6/1 in 2015. PTRs at all levels have surpassed targets set in the 2010-2020 ESP	Improved (primary level) from 59/1 in 2007/08 to 43.5/1 in 2015	Partly improved from 3/1 ratio to 2/1 for language, while retaining and 3/1 ratio for math. Progress fell short of ESP target of 1:1 ratio.	No data	No. GPE Results Framework baseline data (2016) rated Liberia as having a 'nascent' LAS. During the review period, a small scale EGRA has been conducted with donor support, but no trend data is available. There is no evidence of either national or international large-scale learning assessments being carried out.
Pakistan (Balochistan)	Improved. Since 2013, 1,612 primary schools built, 506 ECE centers established	Improved from 33/1 in 2011 to 23/1 in 2016 for primary, from 18/1 to 16/1 for middle elementary, and from 21/1 to 18/1 in lower secondary.	No data	Multiple textbooks were translated into Sindhi and Urdu. No data on pupil/textbook ratios.	Provincial government formally abolished gender segregation in all primary schools and established gender-neutral schools.	Under development. Balochistan Assessment and Examination Commission (BAEC) created in 2017 to administer standardized tests for grade five and eight students, but it has not yet conducted its first round of tests. efforts were made to develop staff capacity through tailor-made training offered to coders, markers, and item developers, and a consistent benchmark for

COUNTRIES	IMPROVED SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE	PUPIL/TEACHER RATIOS	PUPIL/QUALIFIED TEACHER RATIOS	AVAILABILITY OF TEACHING AND LEARNING MATERIALS	MEASURES TO ENHANCE GENDER EQUALITY	QUALITY LEARNING ASSESSMENT SYSTEM IN PLACE?
						testing learning outcomes
Pakistan (Sindh)	Since 2013, 300 lower secondary schools built and 1,076 out of 4,123 schools previously identified as non-functional (ghost schools) reopened	Declined from 32/1 in 2011 to 39/1 in 2016 for primary, from 19/1 to 38/1 for middle elementary, and 29/1 to 48/1 for lower secondary.	No data	Multiple textbooks were translated into Sindhi and Urdu. No data on pupil/textbook ratios.	Creation of a Gender Unit in SELD, which helps remove gender bias' from curricula/TLMs. 300,000 grade 6-10 girls received stipends and free textbooks between 2013 and 2017 as a part of a program to increase student retention.	Yes. Sindh introduced a Standardized Achievement Test (SAT) for grades V and VIII in 2013, which has since been carried out annually. During the review period, efforts to develop staff capacity through tailor-made training offered to coders, markers, and item developers, and a consistent benchmark for testing learning outcomes.
Sierra Leone	Preschool: from 774 facilities in 2012 to 1,100 in 2016. Increase in overall # of schools (government approved and unapproved). However, by 2016 only 45 percent of schools met minimum physical structure standards (ESP target = 85 percent)	Declined (primary level) from 33/1 in 2012 to 38/1 in 2016	Declined from 60:1 in 2012 to 62.71 in 2016	During 2014-2018 period, a variety of new materials were made available to teachers and learners in all schools. Except for materials for early childhood education, however, MEST has not yet put measures in place to ensure consistent quality of materials developed by different partners, including their alignment with new	Re-enrollment of 14,500 girls (young mothers) into school post-Ebola.	Under development. GPE Results Framework baseline data (2016) rated Sierra Leone has having a 'nascent' LAS. Since then, modest improvements have taken place including drafting of a new national learning assessment policy framework. Donor funded EGRA/EGMA assessments carried out in 2014-2016 but uncertain future. One-time assessment of

COUNTRIES	IMPROVED SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE	PUPIL/TEACHER RATIOS	PUPIL/QUALIFIED TEACHER RATIOS	AVAILABILITY OF TEACHING AND LEARNING MATERIALS	MEASURES TO ENHANCE GENDER EQUALITY	QUALITY LEARNING ASSESSMENT SYSTEM IN PLACE?
				curricula and/or with each other. No information available on pupil to textbook ratios or on related MEST targets.		English/Math in Junior and Senior Secondary School carried out with donor support. Uncertain sustainability of new national learning assessment for primary grades 4 and 5 in English, Mathematics and Science ³²⁰
The Gambia	205 new Lower Basic education and 93 Upper basic schools constructed, increase of 26% for LBE and 30% for UBE. # of ECD centers increased from 892 in 2013 to 1,154 in 2017, exceeding ESMTF 2014-2017 target of 40 new ones.	Improved from 51/1 in 2010 to 36/1 in 2016 at LBE, and from 55/1 to 22/1 at UBE level. For lower basic education stagnating since 2016.	Improved from 72/1 for LBE and 62/1 for UBE in 2010 to 41/1 for LBE and 24/1 for UBE in 2017.	Worsened. ESSP 2014-2022 envisaged to achieve 1:1 pupil to textbook ratios at both LBS and UBS levels. In 2016, there was an English text book for every 3.2 students and a mathematics textbook for every 2.5 students at LBS level.	ESP had foreseen continuation of scholarships for female UBS and senior secondary school (SSS) students, but no data on whether this took place during 2014-2017 period.	Yes – National Assessment Test or NAT for grades 3, 5 and 8 instituted in all schools. Since 2007, EGRA and EGMA every two years for grades 1-3.

Table vi.2 provides similar information deriving from prospective CLEs that is relevant for understanding the situation at, and shortly after, CLE baseline in 2017.

³²⁰ developed under GPE co-funded project

Table vi.2 *Prospective CLE: Selected data on system-relevant issues*

COUNTRIES	IMPROVED SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE	PUPIL/TEACHER RATIOS	PUPIL/QUALIFIED TEACHER RATIOS	AVAILABILITY OF TEACHING AND LEARNING MATERIALS
Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC)	Progress was made under the PIE in terms of construction of educational infrastructure at primary level, but decision making on school construction shows inefficiencies.	There is a high and increasing number of education managers, compared to teachers, with an increased financial burden on the sector but without commensurate improvements in educational management.	A relatively good pupil-to-teacher ratio conceals issues of efficiency. There has been little progress in increasing the number of female teachers, who are under-represented at all levels.	A school book policy is in place, but selection of books is a current concern.
Ethiopia	No data	Pupil-teacher ratios remain high, with inequalities across regions. Pupil-teacher ratio of 55:1 in 2011; falling to 43:1 in lower-secondary.	For grades 5–8, over 90 percent of teachers are qualified; compared to just over 40 percent for the earlier grades.	The current ESPIG has disbursed or committed about \$446.6m. About \$75m remains to be disbursed mainly for textbooks, teacher training, additional school grant, and capacity building.
Kenya	No data	The national average PTR at primary level was 44:1 in 2007 and 42:1 in 2016	There have been improvements in the PTR at both the primary and the secondary levels over the time period examined.	the 1:1 textbook ratio stipulated by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology has not yet been achieved, according to delivery indicators
Malawi	Number of classrooms has been increasing, albeit at a slower rate than enrollment, up until 2015. Only 300 of targeted 1500 classrooms were constructed (and no community grants were issued to enable communities to construct planned 30 classrooms per annum). MoEST has set pupil:toilet ratios of 60:1 for boys and 50:1 for girls. However, to date the targets have yet to be attained	Pupil-teacher ratio, primary in Malawi was 69.51 as of 2015. Its highest value over the past 16 years was 80.68 in 2009, while its lowest value was 63.22 in 1999.	The pupil-qualified-teacher ratio remains high (1:78) and there are difficulties in attracting teachers (particularly women) to rural areas.	Insufficient teaching and learning materials, and no replenishing of textbooks

COUNTRIES	IMPROVED SCHOOL INFRASTRUCTURE	PUPIL/TEACHER RATIOS	PUPIL/QUALIFIED TEACHER RATIOS	AVAILABILITY OF TEACHING AND LEARNING MATERIALS
Mali	School infrastructure is poor and slowly decreasing (in terms of running water, electricity, working latrines etc.	PTR ratios, expressed nationally, are high, but in line with international norms.	No data	Poor.
Nepal	No data	The pupil-teacher ratio in primary schools has halved since 2008, but despite administrative changes to discourage the registration of 'ghost' schools, teachers and pupils, there were still 1,483 schools in 2017 with no government-funded teacher.	No data	Curriculum development and materials upgrading in various key subjects being undertaken.
Nigeria	No data	The Average Primary Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR) for the 5 NIPEP States increased from 55:1 in 2015 to 59:1 in 2016	The average Pupil to Qualified Teacher Ratio (PQTR) increased from 93:1 in 2015 to 98:1 in 2016.	Early years teaching and learning materials delivered as part of the current ESPIG
Zimbabwe	No data	PTRs have been improving from 39:1 in 2002 to 36:1 in 2013.	Pupil-qualified teacher and pupil-trained teacher ratios remain high, with the former at 49:1 and the latter at 42:1 in 2013.	Current implementation includes phasing in the new curriculum, which will require completion of the syllabuses, professional development for the teachers to build skills in competency-based and learner-centered learning; preparing and making available new learning materials and introducing continuous assessment.

Appendix VII Selected country data on impact level trends

Tables vii.1 and vii.2 summarize selected impact-level information from summative CLEs.

Table vii.1 *Data on learning outcomes– Summative CLEs*

COUNTRIES	LEARNING OUTCOMES
Burkina Faso	<p>Small deterioration in learning outcomes for basic education from 2006-2014 as evidenced by a consistent decline in test scores in national learning assessments conducted in this period. For instance, average scores (out of 100) for 5th grade competency levels declined from 45.3 to 35.4 in French and from 43.8 to 38 in mathematics; 2nd grade competency levels declined from 50.4 to 41.1 in French and from 43.9 to 38.8 in mathematics.</p> <p>In the 2014 PASEC assessments, Burkina Faso scored above average scores for comparable countries in West Africa. The percentage of students in 6th grade in Burkina Faso with adequate competencies in French and mathematics were 14.4 and 17.8 percentage points higher than the PASEC average.</p>
Sierra Leone	<p>No data available on existence or use/results of national or international large-scale learning assessments.</p> <p>Since 2013/14, pass rates for national examinations at all levels (primary, JSS, SSS) have steadily risen. These improvements are from very low levels though, and related evidence is incomplete. The 2018-2020 ESP notes that, based on data available at the time of its development in 2017, Sierra Leone was 'off track' to meeting its objectives related to improving literacy and numeracy skills at primary levels from about 76% to 80%.</p>
Cote d'Ivoire	<p>Substantial deterioration in learning outcomes for basic education over two decades prior to review period up to 2009. In the 2014 PASEC assessment Côte d'Ivoire scored far below average for PASEC countries except for 6th grade competencies in French. Data from national learning assessments was not available for the evaluation period.</p>
Liberia	<p>Some data on EGRA available, however, given varying methodologies used, available EGRA data do not allow for trend analysis. Recent levels of student literacy in early grades are low, however. Mean scores of grade three students in connected text oral fluency (using the EGRA tool) were consistently below 25 correct words per minute.³²¹ Nearly 35 percent of grade 2 students and 17 percent of grade 3 students received a 'zero score' in oral reading fluency. Forty percent of grade 3 students received zero scores in reading comprehension. No other data available on use of or results of national or international large-scale learning assessments.</p>
Guyana	<p>No evidence that large scale national or international learning assessments being carried out.</p>

³²¹ This falls well below the 45 to 65 correct words per minute benchmark for oral reading fluency.

COUNTRIES	LEARNING OUTCOMES
	Data from the national Grade Six assessment, which measures the percentage of grade six students that scored 50 percent or higher across four test subjects, show a positive trend from 2009 to 2017. (However, given its nature as a high stakes exam, results are not necessarily a valid indicator of learning outcomes).
The Gambia	<p>EGRA test results show that between 2007 and 2016, average reading fluency more than doubled, but remains low. (In 2007, 1st grade students on average were able to correctly read 13 letters and less than one word per minute, while in 2016 they were able to read 33 letters and 5 words per minute.) Results for reading comprehension have either stagnated (grade 1) or deteriorated (grades 2 and 3). National Assessment Test (NAT) for grade 5 show improvements in NAT results for all subjects. For grade 3 NAT results, in all three subjects that students are tested in, over half of the students scored above the minimum requirement in 2016 compared to about 24 percent in 2010.</p> <p>High stakes exams (not necessarily a measure of learning): GABECE pass rates (end of grade 9) in individual subjects improved between 2008 and 2016, especially in English and mathematics. Pass rates in 2016 in all four core subjects were still relatively low at 21.4 percent, but significant improvement from 8.1 percent in 2008.</p>
Pakistan (Balochistan)	<p>The Balochistan Assessment and Examination Commission (BAEC) has not yet produced data on learning outcomes.</p> <p>Data on learning outcomes provided by ASER is available only between 2014 and 2016, which does not cover the full period under review. During 2014-2016, learning outcomes in both Balochistan and Sindh (see below) decreased.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Percentage of children aged 5-16 able to read at least a sentence in Urdu/Sindhi: decreased from 34% (male)/23% (female) in 2014 to 32% (male) and 16% (female) in 2016. Percentage of children aged 5-16 able to read at least a few words in English decreased from 33% (male)/22% (female) in 2014 to 30% (male) and 15% (female) in 2016. Percentage of surveyed children aged 5-16 able to do at least subtraction in Arithmetic decreased from 29% (male)/19% (female) in 2014 to 32% (male) and 15% (female) in 2016.
Pakistan (Sindh)	<p>Data on results of the Standardized Achievement Test (SAT), which was introduced in 2013, shows modest improvements in student learning outcomes for the period up to 2016.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Grades V: Language average from 32% in 2012 to 32.8 in 2014/15; Mathematics average from 15% in 2012/13 to 18.22% in 2014/15. Grade VIII: Language average from 37.01% to 36.93%; Mathematics average from 13.73% to 21.95% during same time period. <p>ASER learning outcome data (2014-2016) on the other hand show an overall negative trend:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Percentage of children aged 5-16 able to read at least a sentence in Urdu/Sindhi: decreased from 36% (male)/29% (female) in 2014 to 34% (male) and 25% (female) in 2016. Percentage of children aged 5-16 able to read at least a few words in English decreased from 31% (male)/25% (female) in 2014 to 26% (male) and 19% (female) in 2016. Percentage of children aged 5-16 able to do at least subtraction in Arithmetic decreased from 32% (male)/25% (female) in 2014 to 32% (male) and 24% (female) in 2016.

Table vii.2 Selected impact data – Summative CLEs

COUNTRIES	GROSS/NET ENROLLMENT RATES BASIC EDUCATION (%)	GENDER PARITY OF NET ENROLLMENT RATES ³²²	PRIMARY COMPLETION RATES	LOWER SECONDARY COMPLETION RATES	OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	GENDER PARITY OF OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	PRE-PRIMARY GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE
Burkina Faso	<p>Primary GER: Steady <u>increase</u> from 84.09 in 2012 to 93.65 in 2017</p> <p>Primary NER: steady <u>increase</u> from 65.68 in 2012 to 76.42 in 2017</p> <p>Lower Secondary GER: Steady <u>increase</u> from 35.77 in 2012 to 52.27 in 2017</p> <p>Lower Secondary NER: Steady <u>increase</u> from 19.52 in 2012 to 26.84 in 2017</p>	<p>Primary GPI: <u>Improved</u> from 0.95 in 2012 to 0.98 in 2017 (gender parity almost achieved).</p> <p>Secondary GPI: <u>Improved</u> from 0.83 in 2012 to 1.01 in 2017</p>	Primary completion rates improved by 5 percentage points between 2012 and 2013 but <u>stagnated</u> at 62 percent from 2013-2016. Nevertheless, substantial improvement compared to 2005, when only 32 percent of children completed primary school.	Improved- 30 percent of children completing lower secondary in 2016 compared to 20 percent in 2012.	Primary school out-of-school rates improved substantially (from 34 to 24 percent) from 2012-2016. Lower secondary out-of-school rates dropped from 50 percent in 2012 to 42 percent in 2015, before increasing to 48 percent in 2016. Available data do not provide any explanation for this recent increase	2012-2017: At the lower secondary level, gender parity of out-of-school rates improved. In 2015, male and female students were equally likely to not attend lower secondary school, with a small disparity in favor of girls in 2016. At primary level, female learners remain slightly more likely to be out of school than boys, with a marginal deterioration in gender parity between 2012-2016	Decline – from 3.5% in 2013 to 3% in 2016

³²² UIS data on GPI of enrollment rates are not available for lower secondary alone, but only for secondary education overall, i.e. lower and upper secondary combined.

COUNTRIES	GROSS/NET ENROLLMENT RATES BASIC EDUCATION (%)	GENDER PARITY OF NET ENROLLMENT RATES ³²²	PRIMARY COMPLETION RATES	LOWER SECONDARY COMPLETION RATES	OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	GENDER PARITY OF OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	PRE-PRIMARY GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE
Cote d'Ivoire	<p>Primary GER: Steady <u>increase</u> from 83% in 2012 to 98.81% in 2017</p> <p>Primary NER: <u>Increase</u> from 67.98 in 2013 to 85.96 in 2017</p> <p>Lower Secondary GER: steady <u>increase</u> from 44.62% in 2013 to 62.89% in 2017</p> <p>Lower Secondary NER: Steady <u>increase</u> from 24.48 in 2013 to 39 in 2017</p>	<p>Primary GPI: Stagnating with mild fluctuation (0.93 in 2013, 0.88 in 2014, back to 0.92 in 2017)</p> <p>Secondary GPI: <u>Improved</u> from 0.7 in 2014 to 0.75 in 2017</p>	Primary completion rates <u>improved strongly</u> from 53.8 percent in 2011 to 65.9 percent in 2016 (an increase of 12 percent from 536,128 to 584,439 children.	From 2014-2016, lower secondary completion rates <u>improved</u> from 32.1 percent to 39.5 percent, more than reversing the decline from 2008-2011.	Primary out-of-school rates <u>improved</u> considerably: although data is lacking for most years, the rate dropped from 44 percent in 2009 to 12.3 percent in 2016.	<u>Worsened</u> – girls more likely to be OOS than boys. UIS: 287,651 females and 131,946 males not in school in 2017 compared to 589,122 females and 495,729 males in 2013.	<u>Increased</u> from 3.9 percent in 2011 to 7.6 percent in 2016.
Liberia	<p>Primary GER: <u>Slight decrease</u> from 95.86% in 2014 to 93.83% in 2016</p> <p>Primary NER: <u>Low, and slight decrease</u> from 37.77 in 2014 to 36.75 in 2016</p> <p>Lower secondary GER: <u>Slight decrease</u> from</p>	<p>Primary GPI: Data only available for 2014-2015 showing <u>slight worsening</u> (from 0.95 in 2013 to 0.93 in 2014)</p> <p>Secondary GPI: <u>Improved</u> from 0.83 in 2014 to 0.88 in 2015. No data available for later periods.</p>	Primary education (Grade 6) completion rate of children aged 15-24 increased from 44 percent in 2007 to 55 percent in 2013.	No data (Using survival rates as proxy: Of the population of children who enroll in basic education (822,006 learners in 2015), only 69 percent reach Grade 6 and 59 percent survive to grade 9	Worsened from 59 percent in 2011 to 62.3 percent in 2015.	Boys and girls equally likely to be not in school (since at least 2011). UIS - 2015: 226,722 females and 226,568 males compared to 194,028 females and 193,585 males in 2011.	Over the past thirty-five years, and during the review period, enrollment in ECE, basic and secondary education in Liberia has increased nearly five-fold (from about 39% in 1981 to almost 120% in 2015 (the

COUNTRIES	GROSS/NET ENROLLMENT RATES BASIC EDUCATION (%)	GENDER PARITY OF NET ENROLLMENT RATES ³²²	PRIMARY COMPLETION RATES	LOWER SECONDARY COMPLETION RATES	OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	GENDER PARITY OF OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	PRE-PRIMARY GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE
	45.07% in 2014 to 43.23 in 2016 Lower secondary NER: Decrease from 8.05 in 2014 to 2.14 in 2016						most recent rates reflecting the overall problem of over age enrollment)
Guyana	No data	No data	According to Guyana Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey Round 5 (MICS5) data for 2014, PRC in 2014 was 109.1 percent and transition rate to secondary school 98 percent. No data available for period since 2014.	No data	No recent data. Primary OOS rate dropped from double digits to just over 1 percent in 2013/14.	No data beyond 2012. In 2012, boys more likely than girls to be out of school (2725 male compared to 1578 female; UIS)	No data
The Gambia	Primary GER: steady increase from 83.49% in 2012 to 97.12% in 2017 Primary NER: Increase from 69.48 in 2012 to 77.60 in 2017 Lower secondary GER: slight decrease from	Primary GPI: Stable - 1.06 in 2012 and 1.10 in 2017 (slight disparity in favor of girls) Secondary GPI: No data	Lower Basic Education (grades 1-6) completion rates have slightly improved from 71% in 2011 to 75% in 2016.	Upper Basic Education (grades 7-9) completion rates have slightly deteriorated from above 60% in 2013/14 to around 60 percent in 2016 and since stagnated at that level.	Out-of-school rates have decreased modestly since 2010 but remain high. The 2010 Country Status Report noted that 31.6 percent of 7-15-year-old children were not in school. The situation was	Boys have had and continue to have higher dropout rates than girls and constitute a higher proportion of out-of-school children. UIS: 29,313 female and 43,271 male in 2017, compared to	Both UIS and ESA 2017 data show increases in ECD enrollment. According to ESA 2017 data, the total number of enrolled children increased from 43,000 in 2008 to 76,000 in 2013, and to 100,000 in 2016. The ECD

COUNTRIES	GROSS/NET ENROLLMENT RATES BASIC EDUCATION (%)	GENDER PARITY OF NET ENROLLMENT RATES ³²²	PRIMARY COMPLETION RATES	LOWER SECONDARY COMPLETION RATES	OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	GENDER PARITY OF OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	PRE-PRIMARY GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE
	65.31% in 2012 to 64.30% in 2017 Lower secondary NER: Stagnating – 37.98 in 2013, 37.69 in 2017				similar in 2015, when 30.3 percent of LBE school aged children (100,000 out of an estimated 330,749) and 29.8 percent of UBE school aged children were out of school.	36,694 female and 44,401 male in 2012	GER rose from 36.5 percent in 2013 to 45.8 percent in 2016.
Pakistan (Balochistan)	No provincial data available.	No provincial data available.	No completion rate data. Using survival rates as proxy: decreased from 49% in 2012 to 41% in 2016.	No data	No trend data available. The rate of out-of-school children was 70 percent (78 percent female) in 2017. Children enrolled in private and religious schools are considered out-of-school, which limits reliability of available data.	No provincial data available.	No data
Pakistan (Sindh)	No provincial data available.	No provincial data available.	No completion rate data. Using survival rates as proxy: increase from 51 percent	No provincial data available	While the SESP established a target of reducing the proportion of out-of-school children from 40	No provincial data available.	No provincial data available

COUNTRIES	GROSS/NET ENROLLMENT RATES BASIC EDUCATION (%)	GENDER PARITY OF NET ENROLLMENT RATES ³²²	PRIMARY COMPLETION RATES	LOWER SECONDARY COMPLETION RATES	OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	GENDER PARITY OF OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	PRE-PRIMARY GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE
Sierra Leone	<p>Primary GER: Minor changes between 2012-2014 (from 113.37 to 114.84 in 2014; then <u>recent increase</u> to 120.89 in 2017.</p> <p>Primary NER: <u>Increase</u> from 91.96 in 2012 to 98.32 in 2016</p> <p>Lower Secondary GER: <u>Stagnating</u>, with mild downward fluctuation. 57.27% in 2012, 57,24% in 2017.</p>	<p>Primary GPI: <u>stable</u> – 0.99 in 2012, 1.01 in 2016</p> <p>Secondary GPI: <u>Improved</u> from 0.86 in 2013 to 0.97 in 2017</p>	<p>in 2012 to 60 percent in 2016.</p> <p>As per ESP 2018-2020, Proxy Completion Rate (PCR) for primary education increased to 75.4 percent in 2016 from 73 percent in 2011, but below the ESP 2014-2018 targets for 2016 of 94 percent.³²³</p>	No data	<p>percent in 2012 to 30 percent in 2015, NEMIS data show that the proportion increased during the period under review, reaching 52 percent (58 percent female) in 2017.</p> <p><u>Worsened:</u> Percentage of 6-11-year-old children OOS increased from 23 percent in 2011 to 27 percent in 2015. Increase may have been temporarily due to Ebola crisis, but no data past 2015 available.</p>	<p>Boys more likely to be out of school than girls, <u>with gap worsening</u>. (UIS: 3,332 female and 6,787 male students OOS in 2016, compared to 8,195 female/6,715 male in 2012.</p>	<p><u>Increased</u> from 8.4 percent in 2011 to 11 percent in 2016</p>

³²³ UIS data show worsening trend between 2011 and 2015; GPE Results Framework data show improvements, but at lower levels than 2018-20 ESP.

COUNTRIES	GROSS/NET ENROLLMENT RATES BASIC EDUCATION (%)	GENDER PARITY OF NET ENROLLMENT RATES ³²²	PRIMARY COMPLETION RATES	LOWER SECONDARY COMPLETION RATES	OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	GENDER PARITY OF OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	PRE-PRIMARY GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE
	Lower Secondary NER: Steady increase from 29.62 in 2012 to 36.33 in 2017						

Table vii.3 summarizes similar (preliminary) information deriving from **prospective CLEs**.

Table vii.3 *Selected impact data – Prospective CLEs*

COUNTRIES	GROSS AND NET ENROLLMENT RATES BASIC EDUCATION	GENDER PARITY OF ENROLLMENT RATES	PRIMARY COMPLETION RATES	PRIMARY OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	GENDER PARITY OF OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	PRE-PRIMARY GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE
Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC)	Primary GER: <u>Increase</u> from 105.56% in 2012 to 108.04% in 2015 Primary NER: No data Lower secondary GER: <u>slight increase</u> from 53.93% in 2012 to 59.73% in 2015 Lower Secondary NER: No data	Primary GPI: No data Secondary GPI: No data	Increase from 44.5% in 2010 to 69% in 2013	No data	No data	3.3% in 2010 to 4.17% in 2014.
Ethiopia	Primary GER: <u>Increase</u> from 94.55% in 2012 to 101.94% in 2015. Primary NER: <u>Increase</u> from 78.73 in 2012 to 85.44 in 2015 Lower secondary GER: <u>Decline</u> from 46.42% in 2012 to 43.55% in 2017 Lower Secondary NER:	Primary GPI: Slight worsening in favor of boys – from 0.95 in 2012 to 0.93 in 2015 Secondary GPI: 0.99 in 2014, 0.97 in 2015. No data for period since.	Remaining steady at around 88.2% from 2010 to 2015.	Slight increase , from 10.9% in 2012 to 13.7% in 2013.	Rate of OOSC of primary school age, adjusted gender parity index at 8.5 in 2012 to .9 in 2013	Slight increase from 41.4% in 2012 to 42.4% in 2013.
Kenya	Primary GER: <u>Declined</u> from 111.96% in 2012 to 105.31% in 2016 Primary NER: No data since 2012 (when it was at 81.83)	Primary GPI: No data since 2012 when GPI was 1.04 Secondary GPI: No data	Increase from 59.2% in 2009 to 84. 1% in 2014	Slight decrease from 16% in 2009 to 13.8% in 2012.	Rate of OOSC of primary school age, adjusted gender parity index at .93 in 2009 to .77 in 2012.	Increase from 51.9% in 2009 to 60.9% in 2012.

COUNTRIES	GROSS AND NET ENROLLMENT RATES BASIC EDUCATION	GENDER PARITY OF ENROLLMENT RATES	PRIMARY COMPLETION RATES	PRIMARY OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	GENDER PARITY OF OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	PRE-PRIMARY GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE
	Lower secondary GER: <u>Increase</u> from 88.42% in 2012 94.78% in 2016 Lower Secondary NER: No data					
Malawi	Primary GER: Fluctuation: <u>Increase</u> from 136.29% in 2012 to 142.23% in 2014, since then decrease to 139.95% in 2017 Primary NER: No data Lower secondary GER: <u>Increase</u> from 40.98% in 2012 to 46.43% in 2017 Lower Secondary NER: Fluctuating, with <u>overall decline</u> – 29.56 in 2012, up to 31.71 in 2013, to 28.6 in 2016	Primary GPI: No data Secondary GPI: <u>Improved</u> from 0.93 in 2012 to 0.96 in 2016	Increase from 49.6% in 2008 to 54.3% in 2010.	No recent data. Low at 2.4% in 2006 and 1.9% in 2009.	Rate of OOSC of primary school age, adjusted gender parity index at 0.02 in 2006 and 0.43 in 2007	No data.
Mali	Primary GER: <u>Stagnating</u> (with mild downwards fluctuation) - 80.8% in 2012, 75.59% in 2015, back to 80.08% in 2017 Primary NER: <u>Fluctuating with overall decrease</u> but recent upward trend (from 62.76 in 2012 down to	Primary GPI: Stable with <u>minor improvement</u> : 0.87 in 2012, 0.89 in 2017 Secondary GPI: <u>Slightly improved</u> from 0.78 in 2013 to 0.80 in 2017	Increase from 30.3% in 2009 to 42% in 2013.	Large and increasing numbers of OOSC. 32% in 2010 increasing to 39% in 2015.	Rate of OOSC of primary school age, adjusted gender parity index at 1.8% in 2010 and 1.2% in 2015.	Low at 3.2% in 2010 and slightly increasing to 4% in 2015.

COUNTRIES	GROSS AND NET ENROLLMENT RATES BASIC EDUCATION	GENDER PARITY OF ENROLLMENT RATES	PRIMARY COMPLETION RATES	PRIMARY OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	GENDER PARITY OF OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	PRE-PRIMARY GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE
	<p>55.58 in 2015, back to 61.21 in 2017</p> <p>Lower secondary GER: <u>Decrease</u> from 55.49% in 2012 to 52.94% in 2017</p> <p>Lower Secondary NER: <u>Decrease</u> from 34.54 in 2012 to 28.09 in 2017</p>					
Nepal	<p>Primary GER: <u>Decreasing</u> from 142.27% in 2012 to 134.12% in 2017</p> <p>Primary NER: <u>Decreasing</u> from 99.39 in 2012 to 94.70 in 2017</p> <p>Lower secondary GER: Increase from 87.48% in 2012 to 93.47% in 2017</p> <p>Lower Secondary NER: <u>Increase</u> from 45.88 in 2012 to 54.08 in 2017</p>	<p>Primary GPI: <u>Stable</u> 0.99 in 2014, 0.97 in 2017</p> <p>Secondary GPI: <u>Stable</u> - 1.03 in 2012, 1.07 in 2017</p>	No recent data but increased from 61.7% in 2007 to 73.7% in 2011	Small and decreasing from 5.3% in 2014 to 2.9% in 2016.	Rate of OOSC of primary school age, adjusted gender parity index remains at 1.22 in 2014 through to 2016.	High at 83.2 in 2012 to 84.2% in 2016.
Nigeria	<p>Primary GER: <u>Decreasing</u> from 92.04% in 2012 to 84.7% in 2016</p> <p>Primary NER: No data</p> <p>Lower secondary GER: <u>Decline</u>, with slight</p>	<p>Primary GPI: No data</p> <p>Secondary GPI: No data</p>	Decreasing from 71.6 to 68.4% between 2010 and 2013.	No recent data. However, data from 2006 to 2010 show increase from 31.5% to 34.3%.	Rate of OOSC of primary school age, adjusted gender parity index remains at around 1.2	No data.

COUNTRIES	GROSS AND NET ENROLLMENT RATES BASIC EDUCATION	GENDER PARITY OF ENROLLMENT RATES	PRIMARY COMPLETION RATES	PRIMARY OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	GENDER PARITY OF OUT OF SCHOOL RATES	PRE-PRIMARY GROSS ENROLLMENT RATE
	upwards fluctuation. 46% in 2012, 52.51% in 2013, down to 45% in 2016 Lower Secondary NER: No data				between 2006 and 2010.	
Zimbabwe	Primary GER: Decreasing from 101.24% in 2012 to 98.69% in 2013. No UIS data available for later periods. Primary NER: Decrease from 87.67 in 2012 to 84.79 in 2013. No data available for later periods Lower secondary GER: increase from 66.21% in 2012 to 67.10% in 2013. No UIS data available past 2013 Lower Secondary NER: Data only available for 2013 when NER was at 36.61	Primary GPI: Stable at 1.02 in 2012-2013. No data for period since. Secondary GPI: 1.00 in 2012, 1.01 in 2013. No data for period since.	Remains steady at 88.2% from 2010 to 2015.	Increased from 10.9 in 2012 to 13.7 n 2013.	Rate of OOSC of primary school age, adjusted gender parity index at .85 in 2012 and .9 in 2013.	At around 41-42% in 2012 and 2013.