EVALUATION OF THE GIRLS' EDUCATION PROJECT 3 IN KATSINA AND SOKOTO STATES, NIGERIA, 2014-2017

BY

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ABSTRACT

Girls' Education Project (GEP) managed by UNICEF and the federal and state governments seeks to improve the quality of primary education for the girl-child and eliminate gender disparity in education in Northern Nigeria. Results from the evaluation of the first (2005-2008) and second (2008-2012) phases of the project revealed low access, retention and learning outcomes, especially in Sokoto compared with Katsina, where it was implemented. Hence, the commencement of GEP3 in 2012. However, since the redesigning of GEP3 in 2014, less attempt has been made to evaluate the project. Therefore, this study was designed to evaluate the effectiveness of the redesigned GEP3 in improving the quality of primary education provision (access, retention and learning outcome) for the girl-child in Katsina and Sokoto states from 2014 to 2017.

The Social Justice Theory and Logical Framework Evaluation Model were adopted, while the *ex-post facto* was used. Katsina (high performing) and Sokoto (low performing) states were purposively selected, while one Local Government Area each was randomly selected from the six senatorial districts in the two states. Schools were stratified into GEP3 and Non-GEP. Random sampling technique was used to select 42 GEP3 and 42 Non-GEP schools. In these schools, intact basic VI classes with a total of 1155 pupils (668 – GEP3 and 487 Non-GEP) and their head teachers were purposively selected. Instruments used were Conditional Cash Transfer (r=0.85); Gender Responsive School Environment (r=0.93) and Package of Interventions (r=0.90) checklists; Basic VI-English Studies (r=0.80); Mathematics (r=0.70) and Basic Science (r=0.89) tests, and Document Analysis Guide for Access and Retention. These were complemented with indepth interview sessions with teachers and traditional leaders. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics and t-test at 0.05 significance level, while qualitative data were thematically analysed.

The improvements (from 32.8% and 32.6% to 34.5% and 34.3%, respectively) in girl-child access to education between 2014/2015 and 2016/2017 academic sessions in both Katsina and Sokoto states occasioned by GEP3 intervention was relatively lower compared to those in Non-GEP schools (30.8% and 35.7% to 35.7% and 35.2%, respectively). The retention rates (98.8% to 98.8%; 96.9% to 97.9%, respectively) during same academic sessions in GEP3 schools in Katsina and Sokoto states were better than those in Non-GEP schools (90.2% to 85.0%; 87.2% to 82.4%). There were significant differences in the learning outcomes of pupils in GEP3 and Non-GEP schools, in English studies (GEP3-$\bar{x}$=11.18, $\bar{x}$=6.85; Non-GEP- $\bar{x}$=10.36, $\bar{x}$=2.92). Mathematics (GEP3-$\bar{x}$= 10.92, $\bar{x}$=6.71; Non-GEP- $\bar{x}$=9.88, $\bar{x}$=3.46) Basic Science (GEP3- $\bar{x}$=13.47, $\bar{x}$=6.88; Non-GEP- $\bar{x}$=9.33, $\bar{x}$=2.57) in Katsina and Sokoto states, respectively. Untimely release of funds, teachers' preference to work in urban centres and the withdrawal of girl-child for marriages, particularly in basic VI were the major constraints facing the GEP3.

The Girls' Education Project 3 enhanced retention and learning outcomes of the girl-child in Katsina and Sokoto states between 2014 and 2017, with more effects in Sokoto State. There is a need to ensure adequate funding, provision of incentives for rural teachers and discouragement of girl-child marriages.

Keywords: Girls' Education Project Phase 3, Girl-child in Northern Nigeria, Primary education in Katsina and Sokoto states

Word count: 492

CERTIFICATION

I certify that this work was carried out by Motunrayo Kafilat Oyaremi in the Institute of Education, International Centre for Educational Evaluation, (ICEE), University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my sustainer and disposer of affairs, Allah, who upheld me while the vision became blurry.

To my late father, whose desire was that the least educational attainment of any of his children will be a masters degree.

To my maternal grandmother who nurtured me and remained my first and best teacher but died while I was rounding up this programme.

To my children, who made the greatest sacrifices and were with me throughout this sojourn.

To all girl-child all over the world, who seek knowledge against all odds.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DFID: Department for International Development

EDOREN: Education Data Research and Evaluation in Nigeria

EFA: Education for All

FAWE: Forum for African Women Educationalists

FGN: Federal Government of Nigeria

FME: Federal Ministry of Education

GCE: Global Campaign for Education

GEP: Girls' Education Project

GESP: Gender Equity Support Program

GPE: Global Partnership for Education

IIEP: International Institute for Educational Planning

JICA: Japanese International Cooperation Aid

LGEAs: Local Government Education Authorities

MDG: Millennium Development Goals

NBS: National Bureau of Statistics

NEEDS: National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy

NMEC: National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education

OOSC: Out of School Children

SUBEB: State Universal Basic Education Board

U.B.E: Universal Basic Education

UIS: UNESCO Institute for Statistics

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNICEF: United Nations Children's Educational Fund

U.P.E: Universal Primary Education

USAID: United States Agency for International Development

WIDE: World Inequity Database on Education

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Background to the Study

Education is the key to achieving sustainable development of any nation. It is an economic, cultural and a social right. The right to education epitomises the indivisibility and interdependence of all human rights. It therefore, becomes crucial to ensure that all girls around the world have the same chances to receive education as boys. The importance was further buttressed in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the 1976 International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child. These treaties specify that gender inequalities in education should be eliminated, wherever they exist. Countries with better gender equality and less gender disparity in primary and secondary education are more likely to have higher economic growth.

Boonprasert (2010) sees education as the process through which people procure satisfactory and suitable information, aptitudes, mentalities, qualities and conduct important to work ideally as a citizen. It is also the belief that no nation can develop without proper formal education of its citizenry, especially since education is considered the bedrock of all facets of development of any nation. Hence, no country can toy with the education of its citizenry, especially that of the girl-child. This is because the education of the girl-child is a key factor in the development of the country, communities and the individuals with regard to their families, employment opportunities, economic empowerment, social accomplishment and the like. According to Obanya (2004), education for women and girls, when considered from the full empowerment perspective, has the following advantages: Self-improvement (the intellectual, psychological, technical, socio-economic and political dimensions of full empowerment through education and possibility of these leading to an improved quality of life), on the quality of family and societal life as well as for future generations; improved state of nutrition, health, child care, family welfare – laying a solid foundation for lifelong learning right from the cradle (Obanya, 2004:71).

On the other hand, a nation that fails to ensure the full empowerment of women and girls through education will very likely be a classic case of "more and worse forms of illiteracy and ignorance, enormous loss of talents and human potentials that could have been developed and harnessed for development, continued socio-economic

and marginalisation of half of the country's population and consciously cursing the next generation" (Obanya, 2004:71).

Nigeria recognises education as a fundamental right of human and has ratified a number of international instruments and participated in the process of adoption of key documents relating to rights of the girl-child including the right to education. For example, Nigeria ratified the International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights 1976, which affirms the right to education (Art. 13) on a basis of non-discrimination (Art. 2 UDHR). It has also ratified the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights which affirms also the right to education as well as the Convention against Discrimination in Education in 1962 which specifically addresses the problem of discrimination in education. To address the specific contexts of children, it has also ratified the UN Convention on the Rights and Welfare of the Child both of which also affirm the right to education for all children on a basis of equality. At the domestic level, it enacted the Child Rights Act in 2003, this Act is aimed at facilitating the realisation and protection of the rights of all children and the Universal Basic Education Act was ratified in 2004, it provides a 9-year free and compulsory basic education to fast-track education interventions at the primary and junior secondary levels, all these steps were taken to create legally enforceable right to education.

According to Obanya (2004) men and boys do require education, as much as women and girls. Obanya (2004) accordingly proposed that women and girls have been the casualties of disregard for a long time and are in desperate need of 'education surgery', to guarantee our survival. The multiplier impact of educating women and girls are tremendous. This condition has prompted imbalances that are genuinely compromising the country's development. Obanya (2004) submitted that development becomes endangered if it is not engendered. Nigeria surely needs to engender its development, taking engendering of education as a starting point in view of the centrality of the human person to all meaningful programmes of development.

However, right to education must go beyond mere provision of education for all and sundry or mere increase in enrolment and completion, the emphasis must be on the quality of education given. According to Levine, Birdsall, Ibrahim and Dayal (2003), if primary enrolment and completion rates are high, but the quality of education is low, then education has not conferred the skills and knowledge that are the source of the hoped-for greater earnings, better health and more engaged

citizenship. USAID (2008) corroborated this by submitting that access, duration and quality are all critical variables in realizing educational benefits. According to World Bank (2014) girls' education goes beyond getting girls into school. It is also about ensuring that girls learn and feel safe while in school; complete all levels of education with the skills to effectively compete in the labour market; learn the socio-emotional and life skills necessary to navigate and adapt to a changing world; make decisions about their own lives; and contribute to their own communities and the world. British Council (2014) also submitted that the quality of education significantly affects girls' enrolment, participation, retention and completion of basic schooling. British Council (2014) further stated that girls and their parents often identify poor infrastructure, including inadequate toilet and classroom facilities, and insufficient teachers and teaching, including absent teachers and poor attitudes, behaviour and pedagogy, as key factors that push them out of school.

The combined effects of all these international and national instruments is that there is a legally affirmed right of the girl-child to education, including access to education on a basis of equality with male children. The Government of Nigeria has also been working in active collaboration with International Development Partners such as UNICEF (United Nations Children's Educational Fund), DFID (Department for International Development), UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization), USAID (United States Agency for International Development), JICA (Japanese International Cooperation Aid), World Bank as well as Civil Society and Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) to achieve the EFA/UBE goals (Obaji, 2005).

However, it appears that efforts by the Nigerian government for as far back as thirty years to tackle gender disparity in education have not had a significant effect on the girl-child access to basic education, retention in school and completion of basic education. This assertion is supported by Maikudi (2013), who stated that Nigeria is signatory to many international conventions aimed at bridging the gender imbalance in education. Despite this the girl-child, especially in Northern Nigeria appears to be lagging conspicuously behind with respect to enrolment as well retention.

Girl-child education at all levels is pertinent for the attainment of national development. Girls' education is good economics. It is the best investment in a country's development. Educating girls enhances growth rate and reduces social disparities (NPC, 2009). An educated female populace may expand a nation's

efficiency and full financial development. Educated girls gain the abilities and capabilities for profitable business, empowering them to be financially beneficial individuals from the general public (UNICEF, 2003). According to Ishaq and Ali (2014), often time the economic activity an educated woman engages in tend to yield successfully and consequently impact on the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the country. Moreover, girls who are educated are bound to become employers; this has a lot of relevance to national economic development as it provides means of livelihood to the other members of the society.

Girls' education is a strategic development investment. This is because girls' education is not just significant as a social indicator or an engine for economic advancement leading to a greater level of health, economic, security, liberty and participation in social and political activity, but can possibly yield higher rate of return than any other investment available in the developing world (World Bank, 2002). Research findings have shown that educating a girl is one of the most cost effective ways to promote development and economic growth in a country. (Grasz, 2017). Also, girls' education leads to progressively even-handed improvement, more grounded families, better administrations, better children wellbeing and successful interest in administration (UNICEF, 2004). Moreover, investment in girls' education improves overall quality of life (Nkosha, Luchembe and Chakufyali, 2013). According to UNICEF (2004) teaching girls is one of the most important investments that any country can make for its own future.

Furthermore, educating girls means educating 50% of the populace of Nigeria. According to Obanya (2004) a projected 50% of the populace of Nigeria is comprised of girls and women. This is corroborated by Egbo (2014), that excluding women from access to education is inimical to social progress since women comprise approximately 50% of the nation's population and so it makes economic sense to contribute substantially to their education. Egbo further stated that by virtue of the multiplicity of roles they play in society individually and collectively, women are the major catalysts for sustainable development. Interest in educating girls and women pays huge profits in monetary development, improved wellbeing, efficiency and personal satisfaction of the girls and women and the country as a whole (Mbolela, 2010). Several researches have shown that an investment in women and girls' education is an investment in the family, community and the nation (Adetunde and Akensina, 2008).

According to Saleh and Kwache (2012) education is commonly seen as a positive force with a wide range of impacts on society and human advancement. This force is increasingly remarkable for the girl-child who is viewed as a child today but who later becomes a woman and also a mother. Educating the girl-child means educating the entire family. What is true of families is also true of communities and ultimately the entire country (UNICEF, 2004). Joda and Olowoselu (2015) charged that girls' education is vital to national growth and societal development in Nigeria. According to the World Bank (2014) researches show girls' education brings a wide scope of advantages for the girls themselves as well as for their children and their communities, as well as the society at large in terms of economic growth. These benefits also transmit across generations, as well as to communities at large. Therefore, there is a multiplier effect of educating the girl-child (Obanya, 2004). Girls' education does not just bring the immediate benefit of empowering girls; however, it is viewed as the best investment in a nation's development (UNICEF, 2007). Girls' education has been viewed as a primary predictor for a number of development indicators including national fertility rates, infant mortality, family income and productivity (Amadi, Role and Makewa, 2013). According to Brent (2005) World Bank economists have recognised women and girls' education as single development intervention with the greatest individual and social returns.

Girls' education could be an indispensable factor in dealing with the root causes of poverty and under-development. As submitted by Jekayinfa (2006) that educating girls is a fundamental factor in dealing with the root causes of poverty and under-development. This is corroborated by Aja-Okorie (2013) who stated that education is the absolute most dominant approach to lifting individuals out of neediness. However, numerous individuals do not have access to education in Nigeria, particularly the girl-child. Educating girls is a significant advance in beating destitution and guaranteeing financial improvement. An educated woman is an empowered woman and more remarkable in terms of employment. Better employment in turn implies more earnings for the family as a whole, as well as improved children's' well-being. All of which contribute to poverty reduction and economic growth. Thus, girls' education directly contributes to sustainable development. It is reported that educating girls and women is the single most important investment that yields maximum returns for development (FAWE, 2001). Jekayinfa (2006) corroborates this by submitting that there is overwhelming evidence

that there is an immediate connection between girl-child education and development. Lawal and Okoro (2009) asserts that girls' education is an important tool for the promotion of social and economic development of a country.

Aja-Okorie (2013) gave economic justification for increase in investment in girls' education; her study reiterated that investing in female education will accelerate Nigeria's economic and social development by enhancing human capital, slowing population growth and alleviating poverty. Girls' education should therefore be considered a very vital tool for developing countries not only for Nigeria but also for developing the West African sub-region. According to Grasz (2017) opening doors to education will help break the poverty circle, reduce gender based violence and diminish HIV and STD rates. It will prepare the next generation of women to make a difference.

Educating girls' helps to make communities and societies healthier, wealthier and safer It can also help the girl-child to understand her body, to reduce child deaths, improve maternal health and tackle the spread of HIV and AIDS (DFID, 2005). Education has a profound effect on girls' and women's ability to claim other rights and achieve status in society, such as economic independence and political representation. According to Grasz (2017) educated girls are less likely to experience sexual violence, be forced to marry against their will; and have unplanned pregnancies. They are more likely to earn an income, have healthy babies and instil in their children the value for education.

However, the price of denying a girl-child education will not be paid only by the girl herself but also by the family, society and nation. Mbolela (2010) charged that educating girls is the most important step governments can take to improve the wellbeing of their citizens and their economies. According to Bellamy (2003), there can be no positive or significant or sustainable transformation in societies and in fact in poverty reductions until girls receive quality basic education that they need to take their rightful place as equal partners in development. The centrality of women's contribution to national development cannot be underestimated. Aja-Okorie (2013) submitted that basic education provides girls and women with an understanding of basic health, nutrition and family planning, giving them choices and power to decide over their own lives and bodies. Sustainable development cannot be achieved without the participation of all groups including girls and women (Egbo, 2014).

It seems that efforts by the Nigerian government for the past thirty years to tackle gender disparity in education have not had significant impact. Every child irrespective of gender in Nigeria is expected to be enrolled in school particularly in the northern part of the country where the literacy rate of girls is very low (NEEDS, 2010). According to Omoniyi and Oloruntegbe (2014) in most parts of northern Nigeria, education is more of a privilege than a right especially for girls. If they are lucky enough to be enrolled, many are withdrawn prematurely because of the culture of early marriage. All states with below average primary school completion rates are in Northern Nigeria (WIDE, 2011). According to NPC (2011) dropping out of school early is a significant issue among girls. NPC (2011) further stated that 12% girls compared to 10% boys will drop out of primary school in the last class (class 6) before completion. Of the girls who drop out, the majority live in rural areas and in the North East or North West regions. In the North West, Sokoto is among the state that is very far from gender parity in Nigeria (below 40%) while Katsina is moving towards gender parity.

Table 1.1: Public Primary School Enrolment by State, Year and Sex, 2013-14

S/N	State	2013		2014	
		Male	Female	Male	Female
1.	Abia	120,546	118,030	100,879	97,600
2	Adamawa	290,686	266,936	303,566	278,762
3	Akwa Ibom	448,762	479,528	448,032	479,062
4	Anambra	419,117	473,992	369,088	386,164
5	*Bauchi	431,772	339,771	390,007	317,866
6	Bayelsa	240,326	243,452	61,647	61,739
7	Benue	341,035	302,156	281,992	252,652
8	Borno	539,787	419,598	566,776	440,579
9	Cross River	115,243	109,670	101,402	95,538
10	Delta	176,765	173,774	187,825	183,049
11	Ebonyi	184,290	186,020	209,921	214,739
12	Edo	161,707	155,777	170,998	451,984
13	Ekiti	64,861	63,294	65,807	66,121
14	Enugu	98,919	95,693	95,378	92,438
15	Gombe	277,840	211,633	267,514	212,232
16	Imo	796,610	719,989	718,141	672,039
17	Jigawa	312,025	228,174	315,683	235,271
18	Kaduna	637,844	543,041	619,366	532,510
19	Kano	1,141,637	1,100,417	1,255,430	1,219,492
20	**Katsina**	**903,277**	**617,419**	**897,337**	**664,383**
21	Kebbi	287,428	167,873	281,061	163,568
22	Kogi	177,420	184,622	180,758	196,896
23	Kwara	100,810	91,728	103,774	94,474
24	Lagos	246,297	256,050	195,999	204,278
25	Nassarawa	170,130	141,271	174,688	145,506
26	*Niger	410,239	298,034	410,239	298,034
27	Ogun	215,251	211,195	284,790	200,234
28	Ondo	634,159	643,671	629,257	630,543
29	Osun	167,944	169,045	180,109	179,783
30	Oyo	473,426	509,240	477,851	516,600
31	Plateau	535,932	500,381	259,236	259,999
32	Rivers	195,037	197,537	128,438	130,845
33	**Sokoto**	**410,979**	**228,093**	**427,348**	**246,612**
34	Taraba	318,137	255,900	285,012	230,973
35	Yobe	486,686	319,257	411,947	284,948
36	*Zamfara	271,273	143,809	264,360	139,996
37	FCT – Abuja	102,988	102,770	104,312	106,449
	Total	12,916,185	11,268,842	12,145,968	10,983,959

Source: National Bureau of Statistics & UBEC, 2016

Note: The two states that are highlighted are the GEP3 states where the study took place while the asterisked states are the other GEP3 states

Further still, a cursory look at Table 1.1 reveals that the enrolment rate of girls in public primary schools in Sokoto and Katsina (2013 and 2014) is improving;

however the rate of improvement in Sokoto is very low compared to Katsina, even though the two states were involved in GEP1, GEP2 and are still among the GEP3 States. The table further reveals that there are more boys than girls in school.

This could be as a result of poverty, gender norms and traditional practices. This assertion is supported by the submission of British Council (2014) that poverty, gender norms and traditional practices, including early marriage, increase the risk of premature school dropout. Nigeria has over 10.5 million out-of-school children, the Federal Government estimates that over 60% of these children live in the Northern part of the country (Egbo, 2014). According to NMEC (National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education) (2012b) "Nigeria is one of the countries in the world with a very large number of out-of-school children. Out of this number, 60% are out of school girls residing in the Northern part of the country". Nigerian girls are still disadvantaged in their access to education. As a result, all do not register for school and those who register do not attend regularly, often dropping out of learning very little (United Nations Girls Initiative, 2005). According to Jekayinfa (2006), the gender gap favouring boys has remained consistently wide in Nigeria over the last ten years. In the Northern part of the country, the number of children out of school is particularly high and the proportion of girls to boys in school ranges from 1 girl to 2 boys and even 1 girl to 3 boys in some states, examples of such states are; Sokoto, Zamfara and Kebbi.

Gender disparity in education could be due to socio-economic and cultural problems such as poverty and ignorance which could account for imbalance in school enrolment and education with boys out-numbering the girls. Even, before they are finally withdrawn from school, the girl-child exposure to hawking at an early age keeps her out of school. She hawks to bring income to see to the family needs that rest on the mother's shoulder (Maikudi, 2013). This is one of the factors that can affect her learning outcomes. Jekayinfa (2006) opined that the most important issue in any country is the number of girls that have access to education and the quality of education they receive as measured by levels of retention and performance. UNICEF (2007) stated that known to be the best investment in development; girls' education has become a major issue in most developing countries. Especially in sub-Saharan Africa a large number of young girls still do not attend school. The global figure for out-of-school children is estimated at 121 million, 65 million being girls. Over 80% of these girls live in sub-Saharan Africa. Also, despite several efforts to increase

enrolment and reduce gender gap, significant increase in access to education still shows declines in the overall proportion of girls' enrolled at different levels of education system. This amongst other reasons led to the commencement of the Girls' Education Project (GEP) as an intervention strategy.

Even with all the benefits accruing to girl-child education, gender inequality in education is extreme. Girls are less likely to access school, to remain in school or to achieve in education (Aja-Okorie, 2013). Despite almost 30 years of the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), and 20 years of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), majority of the out-of-school children are girls (British Council, 2014). Even girls who do enrol in school may have irregular attendance due to other demands on them, and the fact that their education may not be prioritized. Girls are likely to repeat years, to drop out early and to fail key subjects, and in most countries girls are less likely to complete the transition to secondary schooling (Aja-Okorie, 2013).

Girls make up the higher percentage of the in-school population that are at risk of dropping out and becoming part of the out of school population according to several reports and numerous scholars (UNICEF, 2001; UNICEF, 2004; NPC, 2009; UNICEF, 2010; Obanya, 2004; Okpukpara and Chukwone, 2011, British Council, 2014). Various factors had been identified as the reasons for this occurrence. They include quality of education and poor performance (UNICEF, 2003), teacher's hostile attitude towards girls and poor performances (Antwi-Danso and Edet, 2011), inadequate teaching staff both in quality and quantity and lack of infrastructure vital for quality education (Balouga, 2009; Idumange, 2012), poverty, which characterized household of low economic status (Badan, 1997; Amadi, Role and Makewa, 2013; Omoniyi and Oloruntegbe, 2014), child labour, poverty, lack of sponsorship, guest for money, bereavement, truancy, broken home, engagement as house helps and single parenthood (Okeke, Nzewi and Njoku, 2008), as well as teenage pregnancy (Antiwi-Danso and Edet, 2011). Uche (2013) also found that factors contributing to drop out among secondary school girls are poverty, teenage pregnancy, peer influence, quest for money, abandonment by parents (father), lack of interest in school, poor academic performance, death of parents, ill health and difficult terrain.

The British Council report (2014) stated that poverty, gender norms and traditional practices, including early marriage, increase the risk of premature school dropout. Girls' access to basic education, retention and learning outcomes may

therefore be affected by the above-mentioned factors. In order to aid access to basic education for the girl-child, to increase the girl-child retention in school and the quality of the girl-child learning outcomes, some interventions were put in place by Girls' Education Project phase 3. GEP3 is an eight-year project (2012-2020) that seeks to improve access, retention and learning outcomes for girls, to reduce the disparities between girls' and boys' education outcomes in five northern Nigerian states: Katsina, Sokoto, Bauchi, Niger and Zamfara. It is managed by UNICEF in partnership with federal and state governments and funded by DFID.

It is a collaborative project which has become the largest DFID/ UNICEF partnership in the world with £26 million funding from DFID to boost girls' participation in education in Northern Nigeria. The Project's main goal is to eliminate gender disparity in education. To achieve this, the project takes an inter-sectoral approach, combining interventions in education, health, water and sanitation, and income generation. According to Muhammed (2008), GEP aims at eliminating gender disparity in education and further improving the quality of life of girls in Nigeria through a collaborative approach to girl's education. Akunga (2008) submitted that GEP seeks to bring about social and economic changes in poor traditional societies that have historically discriminated against girls and women. GEP has been delivered in three phases: Phase 1 from 2005- 2008; Phase 2 from 2008-2012 and Phase 3 scheduled for 2012-2019. Six states were involved in the GEP Phase 1; Bauchi, Borno, Jigawa, Katsina, Niger and Sokoto. For GEP Phase 2, Borno and Jigawa were dropped and so Bauchi, Katsina, Niger and Sokoto made up the states for GEP2. Presently for GEP3, Zamfara was added; and so we have Bauchi, Katsina, Niger, Sokoto and Zamfara. As at 2005 when GEP started these states (GEP3 States) were among the states that were very far from gender parity (that is, states below 40%) (School Census Data, 2005)**.** See Table 1.2.

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inadequate teaching staff both in quality and quantity and lack of infrastructure vital for quality education (Balouga, 2009; Idumange, 2012), poverty, which characterized household of low economic status (Badan, 1997; Amadi, Role and Makewa, 2013; Omoniyi and Oloruntegbe, 2014), child labour, poverty, lack of sponsorship, guest for money, bereavement, truancy, broken home, engagement as house helps and single parenthood (Okeke, Nzewi and Njoku, 2008), as well as teenage pregnancy (Antiwi-Danso and Edet, 2011). Uche (2013) also found that factors contributing to drop out among secondary school girls are poverty, teenage pregnancy, peer influence, quest for money, abandonment by parents (father), lack of interest in school, poor academic performance, death of parents, ill health and difficult terrain.

The British Council report (2014) stated that poverty, gender norms and traditional practises, including early marriage, increase the risk of premature school dropout. Girls' access to basic education, retention in school and learning outcomes may therefore be affected by the above-mentioned factors.

In the quest to improve girl-child access to basic education, the girl-child retention in school and the quality of the girl-child learning outcomes, some interventions were put in place by Girls' Education Project phase 3 (GEP3). GEP3 is an eight-year project (2012-2020) that seeks to improve access, retention and learning outcomes for girls, to reduce the disparities between girls' and boys' education outcomes in five Northern Nigerian states: Katsina, Sokoto, Bauchi, Niger, and Zamfara. It is managed by UNICEF in association with federal and state governments and financed by DFID.

It is a collaborative project which has become the largest DFID/ UNICEF partnership in the world with £26 million funding from DFID to boost girls' participation in education in Northern Nigeria. The Project's main goal is to eliminate gender disparity in education. To achieve this, the project takes an inter-sectoral approach, combining interventions in education, health, water and sanitation, and income generation. According to Muhammed (2008), GEP aims at eliminating gender disparity in education and further improving the quality of life of girls in Nigeria through a collaborative approach to girl's education. Akunga (2008) submitted that GEP seeks to bring about social and economic changes in poor traditional societies that have historically discriminated against girls and women. GEP has been delivered

in three phases: Phase 1 from 2005- 2008; Phase 2 from 2008-2012 and Phase 3 scheduled for 2012-2019. Six states were involved in the GEP Phase 1; Bauchi, Borno, Jigawa, Katsina, Niger and Sokoto. For GEP Phase 2, Borno and Jigawa were dropped and so Bauchi, Katsina, Niger and Sokoto made up the states for GEP2. Presently for GEP3, Zamfara was added; and so we have Bauchi, Katsina, Niger, Sokoto and Zamfara. As at 2005 when GEP started these states (GEP3 States) were among the states that were very far from gender parity (that is, states below 40%) (School Census Data, 2005). See Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Nigeria – Girls' Primary Education

Achieved gender parity (50% and higher)	Close to gender parity (45 – 49%)	Far from gender parity (40-44%)	Very far from gender parity (below 40%)
Ekiti (52%)	Edo (49%)	Kaduna (44%)	**Bauchi (39%)**
Lagos (51%)	Abia (49%)	Adamawa (44%)	Jigawa (38%)
Akwa Ibom (51%)	Imo (49%)	Gombe (43%)	**Niger (36%)**
Ondo (51%)	Ogun (49%)	Nasarawa (43%)	**Katsina (35%)**
Enugu (51%)	Benue (49%)	Borno (41%)	Kebbi (34%)
Kogi (51%)	FCT (48%)		**Sokoto (29%)**
Anambra (51%)	Kwara (45%)		**Zamfara (28%)**
Ebonyi (50%)			Yobe (25%)
Oyo (50%)			
Bayelsa (50%)			
Cross River (50%)			
Delta (50%)			

National Average: 45%

Source: School Census Data, 2005

Objectives of GEP3

The specific objectives of GEP3 as stated in the GEP Phase 3 Business Case (DFID, 2011) are to:

1. provide a package of interventions to improve access to basic education.
2. provide a package of interventions to improve retention in school.
3. provide a package of interventions to improve quality to ensure that learning outcomes for girls are actually improved.
4. promote catalytic interventions to help break the persistent barriers to girls' education, including conditional cash transfer, advocacy work with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers and female teacher scholarships.

5. provide support to School Based Management Committees, particularly to increase female representation.

6. improve community ability to hold teachers to account.

7. ensure that issues specific to girls' attendance are raised and tackled.

Even where legislation (UBE Act, 2004), stipulates the state's responsibility to free and compulsory basic schooling, it is often realised that many children of school-going age are still found out of school or at risk of dropping out of school, even though access to basic education lies at the heart of development. Lack of educational access, and securely acquired knowledge and skill, is both a part of the definition of poverty, and a means for its diminution. Sustained access to meaningful learning that has value is critical to long term improvements in productivity, the reduction of inter-generational cycles of poverty, demographic transition, preventive health care, the empowerment of women, and reductions in inequality. However, in most societies of the world, most especially African countries, gender gap, particularly in access to education, has been persistent. The prevalent scenario is the existence of a larger percentage of disadvantaged females, despite the economic and social benefits of female education which include: reduced infant and maternal mortality and enhanced family health and welfare (Jekayinfa, 2006; Olaleye, 2008).

Access to education has been defined by Offorma (2009) to include availability, convenience, ability and the opportunity to be educated and according to her, despite concerted efforts to push their cases forward, millions of girls still cannot access education or drop out of school because of their peculiar circumstances. This was corroborated by Alabi, Bahah and Alabi (2014) who asserted that in certain cases get to just methods the privilege to instruction. It is likewise the open door accommodated the young lady kid to be instructed. To these analysts' entrance manages the accessibility, accommodation, and capacity to be taught.

Five dimensions of access were distinguished by Obanya (2003). They are: economic access, physical access, sociological access, psychological access and cultural access. It should be noted, however, that all these dimensions of access apply to challenges faced by both girls and boys. Economic access entails poverty and poor economic conditions, especially at the household level; it creates great problems in generalising access to basic education. Even though basic education is meant to be 'free', education always has some overt/hidden, direct/indirect, and legal/illegal costs

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for individual families. There are also cases in which parents are not able to forgo the contributions made by children's work in the home, in the fields and in petty trading.

On the other hand, physical access means geographical barriers to expanding and generalising access. The problem is usually one of long distances between home and school. In the Nigerian context, this situation can manifest in a variety of forms: lack of places for schools in the immediate neighbourhood of the child and groups that reject the educational facilities in their immediate neighbourhood. In addition, sociological access simply means that even when educational facilities are (physically or geographically) within reach, the potential beneficiary's social conditions could either help or hinder access to education. Examples here include: children who are forced or tempted to leave school prematurely, most usually for 'petty' employment or commercial/family activities, or to contribute to household work.

Furthermore, psychological access, however, means that educational facilities are 'accessible' only when the school is able to respond appropriately to children's learning needs and learning styles. Problems related to psychological access (children being physically in school but not learning sufficiently well) are common features of the educational scene of Nigeria, and the following are illustrative examples: under aged and over aged children, both of whom are likely to have a feeling of 'not fitting in' and children with disabilities and special learning needs.

Finally, cultural issues as barrier to access have arisen mainly from aspects of colonial education, some of which have persisted in spite of the spate of post-independence reforms. For example the language of the school can be different from that of the community, the school may not accommodate different religious beliefs and practices and; the school may not be sensitive to the social and religious practices of various communities in its neighbourhood. All these dimensions of access form the challenges facing the girl-child in her pursuit of basic education and this may affect development in Nigeria. This assertion is supported by Lawal and Okoro (2009) who submitted that girls' limited access to education has affected development in Africa, Nigeria inclusive.

However, access to poor quality is tantamount to no education at all. There is little point in providing the opportunity for a child to enrol in school if the quality of the education is so poor that the child will not become literate or numerate, or will fail to acquire critical life skills. Quality education, which is essential to real learning and human development, is influenced by factors both inside and outside the classroom,

from the availability of teaching can reduce dropout rates and ensure better retention and transition from early childhood learning into primary and secondary education.

Moreover, significant growth in the education sector in the last two decades as a result of increased demand for provision following the UBE Act in 2004 and increased recognition of the role and function of education for Nigeria's social and economic development led to disparities in the provision of education. There are wide discrepancies in access to participation in primary and junior secondary schooling by sex, region and residence, as well as other socio-economic factors (British Council, 2014)

The opposite of access is exclusion and this goes beyond being denied enrolment in school. Obanya (2009) identified four zones of exclusion: exclusion from enrolment (zone one) – denial of access from the very beginning, exclusion from progression (zone two) – inability to progress from one grade to another, due to school, home, societal or personal factors, exclusion from completion (zone three) – dropping out of school before completion of the educational cycle and exclusion from transition to the next level of education (zone four) – completion of the cycle but denial of access to the next one. However, the Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) developed by UNICEF and UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) as part of the Global out of School Children (OOSC) Initiative sees out-of-school children, and children who are at risk of dropping out, in terms of five dimensions of exclusion (5DE). The dimensions 1 to 3 represent the out-of-school population of today and the dimensions 4 and 5 represent a different population, namely the in-school population that is at risk of dropping out and becoming- part of the out-of-school population tomorrow.

However, for the purpose of this work, GEP3 objectives i, ii, iii and iv were evaluated. Thus, this study investigated the extent to which the GEP3 has:

1. provided package of interventions in terms of improving school infrastructure, including classrooms and furniture, supporting enrolment drives, school mapping and organising courtesy calls to improve girl-child access to basic education.

2. provided package of interventions in terms of establishing child friendly school principles as minimum benchmarks for effective schools linked to community empowerment and development, building institutional capacity of stakeholders on gender sensitivity and sexuality, providing safe water in the

target schools and communities as well as toilets for boys and girls, supporting gender sensitive policy formulation and implementation that address girls' education to improve retention of girl-child in school.

3. provided package of interventions in terms collaborating with government and other stakeholders in reviewing existing curricular and teaching materials for gender sensitivity, supplying of textbooks, exercise books, school bags and recreational materials, monitoring and evaluating girls' education programmes to aid improvement in learning outcomes for girls.

4. promoted catalytic interventions in terms of provision of conditional cash transfer for girls between the ages of 6 and 15, deployment of female teachers, promoting the employment of more female teachers to serve as role models and to mentor out-of-school children, monitoring and evaluating girls' education programmes, mobilising and strengthening inspectorate for effective service delivery, advocacy and awareness raising to support girls' education through government, religious leaders, as well as through public relations initiatives that include media, village/street entertainment and local meeting to break the persistent barriers to girls' education in terms of:

a. conditional cash transfer,

b. advocacy work with:

   i. traditional leaders,

   ii. parents

   iii. Islamic teachers

c. female teacher scholarships

Some of the catalytic interventions brought by GEP3 are conditional cash transfer, advocacy works with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers, and female teachers' scholarship. Parents and leaders have been identified as critical influencers of girls' education therefore, parental and community involvement in the girl-child education is essential (British Council, 2014). Parental involvement in girl-child education is of high importance since it is the parent that decides if the child will get an education or not. According to Alabi, Bahah and Alabi (2014), generally, girls as well as women do not have decision making power of their own; it is always somebody else who makes decisions for them. Families and particularly fathers are the most important factors in girls' school attendance (UNICEF, 2010). According to UNICEF (2010) buildings and teachers, however high quality both may be, are of no

value if girls are prevented from attending school by families, or societal attitudes or by cultural norms and expectations which do not encourage the education of all children.

Poverty has also been identified as one of the major barriers to girl-child education (Jekayinfa, 2006; Obanya, 2009). World Bank (2017) also stated that poverty remains the most important factor for determining whether a girl can access education. For example, in Nigeria, only 4 percent of poor young women in the North West zone can read compared with 99 percent of rich young women in the South East. Studies consistently reinforce that girls who face multiple disadvantages – such as low family income, living in remote or underserved locations, disability or belonging to a minority ethno-linguistic group – are farthest behind in terms of access to and completion of education. Moreover, gender, region, residence disparities in primary education data are deeply interwoven with levels of household poverty. In general, as household wealth increases, girls' level of education improves. On average 31% girls from the poorest households across Northern Nigeria complete primary school; this figure doubles 62.5% for girls in middle income households across the same area. This signifies that increase in household finances clearly contributes to raising educational levels for girls (British Council, 2014). Thus, there is need to alleviate economic barriers to girls' enrolment and retention. In order to curb the effect of this on the girl-child enrolment, retention and completion, government and other donor agencies invest in the girl-child education in various ways.

Furthermore, removing or reducing the costs of education for parents and families living in poverty has been shown to have significant effects on girls' enrolment, retention and completion of basic schooling. Costs can be both 'direct' through school fees and levies and 'indirect' through children's need for school materials including books, pencils and uniforms and food. Although, primary education is supposed to be free in many countries, indirect costs may be prohibitive for poor parents. In addition, secondary schooling is often not free of charge. At this level, registration, examination as ongoing direct costs alone may render secondary schooling unaffordable (British Council, 2014).

The report of British Council (2014) stated that a range of social protection interventions to mitigate the costs of education have been tried and tested across disadvantaged, poor communities. Such interventions include: conditional cash grant schemes such as school feeding, stipends, conditional cash transfers; and targeted

subsidies such as scholarships or incentives in-kind. Studies have shown that, if implemented properly; some of these interventions can prove highly affective for increasing attendance and progression rates among disadvantaged groups, including girls. Some schemes for example conditional cash transfer also may help to combat other socio-economic demand-side barriers to girls' education, including domestic work and child labour. Evidence from other countries including Malawi (Baird, McIntosh and Ozler, 2011) shows that providing families with cash transfers remove one of the barriers preventing girls from going to school. According to DFID (2011) giving the money directly to the mother and monitoring its usage, prevents the money from being subverted for other uses.

The Cash Transfer Program (CTP) is a scheme introduced in 2014 to help break the cycle of poverty through human capital development. It has been designed as a social security measure that would enhance inclusiveness in education for less privileged/marginalised children more particularly girls. The CTP mitigates poverty-related issues which are a key hindrance to girls' enrolment, retention in school and completion of basic schooling. The provision of cash transfer is to offset the costs (direct and indirect) of sending girls to school and keeping them there. The primary objective of GEP3-CTP is to increase girls' enrolment and attendance in the selected states while the secondary objectives are to increase girls' transition from primary school to junior secondary school in selected states and also reduce gender inequality in such states. CTP more broadly contributes to GEP's objective to bring social and economic change to poor and traditional societies that have discriminated historically against girls and women. The World Bank (2010) regards the introduction of 'education subsidies through conditional cash transfers' as a strategic option for addressing barriers to girls' education in Nigeria.

Community involvement in the issue of girl-child education cannot be over looked. Policy makers, educators and others involved in education are seeking ways to utilize limited resources efficiently and effectively in order to identify and solve problems in the education sector and to provide quality education for children. Their efforts have contributed to realizing the significance and benefits of community participation in education and have recognized community participation as one of the strategies to improve educational access and quality (The World Bank, 1999). Education takes place not only in schools but also with families, communities and societies. Despite the various degrees of responsibilities taken by each group, none

can be the sole agent to take 100% responsibility for educating children. Communities must support teachers in educating and socializing children; schools cannot operate as separate entities within society. Since each group plays a different role in contributing to children's education, there must be efforts to make a bridge between them in order to maximize the contributions. Education takes place most efficiently and effectively when these different groups of people collaborate (The World Bank, 1999). Accordingly, it is important to establish and continuously attempt to develop partnerships between schools, parents and communities. Obanya (2009) submitted that access and quality, relevance and efficiency all become further enhanced with community involvement.

Learning outcomes describe what students are able to demonstrate in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes upon completion of a programme. Critically looking at the various definitions of learning outcomes, it is clear that: learning outcomes focus on what the learner has achieved rather than the intentions of the teacher. Learning outcomes also focus on what the learner can demonstrate at the end of a learning activity. One of the components of measuring learning outcome is the use of appropriate assessment methods. Assessment methods for measuring learning outcomes are tools and techniques used to determine the extent to which stated learning outcomes are achieved. The variety of assessment of methods include qualitative and quantitative, direct and indirect. Examples of direct assessment methods are comprehensive examinations, performance assessment for graduating students, certification examinations and pre-test – post-test. While for indirect assessment methods we have student graduation/retention rates, exit interview/focus group discussion, curriculum/syllabus analysis and tracking of achievement.

Teacher gender may have an effect on girl-child enrolment and retention in school. One of the most compelling arguments for increasing the number of female teachers in schools relates to the positive impact of doing so has on girls' education. As submitted by Obanya (2004) and UNESCO (2005) greater feminisation of the teaching corps is known to positively influence access and retention of girls' especially at the primary level in sub-Saharan Africa. The presence of female teachers in school has not only been positively linked with increased enrolment and retention of girls in school, there is also evidence of a link between female teachers and higher test scores (Lloyd & Young, 2009). ActionAid (2012) submitted that in schools

where there are larger numbers of women teachers, there is more gender parity in attendance, progression and attainment.

However, it is generally agreed that in Northern Nigeria there is a lack of female teachers particularly in rural areas (UNICEF 2012). Thus, there may be need to train and employ extra female teachers who will be redeployed to rural areas which may also aid the increase in the number of female teachers in the North. There are various means of increasing the number of females in the teaching profession in the North; one of such is giving of scholarship to women. Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS) is one of the strategies of GEP3 that has been operating in five states in Northern Nigeria (Bauchi, Katsina, Niger, Sokoto and Zamfara). The FTTSS was devised to bring about increased and more effective participation of women in providing education to increase the proportion of girls enrolling in rural primary schools. More specifically, the FTTSS aims to increase the number of female teachers in rural areas by awarding scholarship to women from villages to train for the NCE at a State College of Education on the condition that they accept a bond to teach in a rural school for a minimum of two years upon completion of their training. The FTTSS is currently training its awardees exclusively through pre-service or initial educator instruction in the State Colleges of Education (EDOREN, 2014). British Council (2014) asserted that trained teachers, suitable and good quality teaching and learning processes, and a relevant curriculum are critical to ensuring girls' full participation in schooling and improving literacy. .

One of the ways of improving the social and learning environments of schools and classrooms is the adoption of gender responsive pedagogy. According to FAWE (2005) gender responsive pedagogy refers to teaching and learning processes that pay attention to the specific learning needs of girls and boys. Gender responsive pedagogy calls for teachers to take an encompassing gender approach in the processes of lesson planning, teaching, classroom management and performance evaluation. The adoption of gender responsive pedagogy is one of the major means of making a school to be gender responsive. Atthill and Jha (2009) submitted that gender responsive schools are important in all kinds of situations: where girls continue to remain behind boys as well as where boys are relatively underachieving in education; and in countries that are yet to achieve gender parity and those that already have. In a gender responsive school the academic delivery, including teaching methodologies, teaching and

learning materials, classroom interaction and management of academic processes is gender responsive.

The concept extends to the physical environment in the school, including buildings, furniture, and equipment that are also gender responsive (FAWE, 2005). This only means that all schooling processes must be gender responsive. By 'schooling processes' the scholars mean all that happens in a school: how teachers treat the children; the language that is used; the methods of teaching that are practised; how responsibilities are distributed in classrooms and outside classrooms; and how sports and other outside –classroom activities are organised. In summary, the scholars mean all the practices that lead to knowledge and learning of skills and that shape attitudes and beliefs among the learners (Atthill and Jha, 2009). In the event that tutoring procedures and openings inside instruction are not equipped to address unequal sexual orientation relations and set up ideas of gentility and manliness, imbalances will keep on existing. Notwithstanding when the two women and girls and young men have equivalent access to training, there is no certification of correspondence in treatment.

Teachers' mentoring of in-school but at-risk-of-dropping out of school girls is germane to the issue of retention or completion of the education of the girl-child. The mutual understanding and identification between teachers and students that arises from sharing certain demographic characteristics may encourage students to be more engaged, behave more appropriately, make more effort and perform better in school. With regards to gender, students who are taught by teachers of the same gender as themselves perform better than those taught by the opposite gender (Rawal and Kingdom, 2010). According to GESP (2004), although male teachers may encourage the girls in the school, the presence of a female teacher is particularly important for girls, as she can, for example, act as a role model to inspire and encourage girls to continue their studies, discuss personal issues such as sexuality, menstruation or family concerns with girls, and be particularly responsive to the learning styles and needs of girls. Furthermore, female teachers may also be particularly responsive to girls' personal safety and other needs. Importantly too, they may advocate gender equality in general during school decision-making processes. They can connect and also communicate easily with mothers during home visits or community meetings.

The World Bank (2010) emphasised the importance of advocacy as a means of addressing barriers to girls' education. The DFID GEP2 review reported the power of

advocacy as a key factor in improving girls' access to school and recommended that this is given prominence in GEP3. According to the report of a survey by the British Council of Nigeria (2014), two major actors in the decision to enrol and retain girls in primary school were identified as family heads (predominantly fathers) and religious leaders. These are authoritative male figures in the household and in the community. It was also stated in the report that, while fathers and religious leaders are clearly making decisions on behalf of girls regarding their education, these figures are also cited as critical influencers of decision-makers.

This attests to the collaborative method of increasing girls' enrolment and retention in school by GEP3 through the advocacy works being carried out with the traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers. This is because according to the report of the British Council (2014) at the household level, men especially fathers; tend to be more dominant in decision-making while women take responsibility for ensuring the execution of those decisions. Men control households, deciding which children attend school and the level each child can attain. In nuclear or extended households, older males take precedent over younger males. While at the community level, religious leaders and institutions, traditional leaders and Community Based Organisations hold significant sway. It was also stated that in predominantly Muslim communities, Islamic institutions and leaders influence social interactions and decision-making processes. Moreover, the traditional leaders including the Sarki (Emir), District Head and Ward Head influence fathers' decisions through giving advice on education and social issues to families. Community members also gain information and advice visiting the homes of village heads.

According to EDOREN (2014) advocacy for education starts from the grassroots and visitations were made to communities and town criers who help to create awareness in the communities. Sensitisation were made through community meetings, mosque and church gatherings, and town criers, these were aimed primarily at parents and community members. The advocacy seeks to encourage their daughters/wards to enrol in school.

1.2   Statement of the Problem

From literature, many researchers who have worked on the areas of intervention of GEP concentrated on the previous phases of Girls' Education Project (GEP). Much attention has been paid by these researchers to the provision of water,

sanitation and hygiene (WASH) facilities in targeted schools and the impact on enrolment and retention. Evaluations of the previous phases have been carried out by DFID, FGN and UNICEF. However, it seems that there is no in-depth as well as independent study that evaluated the extent of project success of Girls' Education Project Phase 3 (GEP3). Also, empirical data on how the project is progressing will be needed to serve as update for stakeholders of the project. It is on this basis that this study evaluated the extent of the effectiveness of GEP3 in improving the girl-child access to basic education, retention in school and learning outcomes. It also sought to identify the operational problems and success of the project and other factors exogenous to the project that could have a bearing on the project implementation. The evaluation, in addition, ascertained whether the project implementers are on the right track to achieving the intended objectives, while the project is still on-going.

1.3 Research Questions

Based on the study problem and the evaluation objectives, the study addressed the following questions:

1a. To what extent has GEP3 provided conditional cash transfer to parents to help reduce barriers confronting girl-child education?

b. What are the advocacy works carried out by GEP3 with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers to help break the persistent barriers to girls' education in Sokoto and Katsina States?

2. What proportion of female teachers has been trained by GEP3 to aid improvement of girl-child education in Sokoto and Kastina States?

3. Is there any difference in:

   a. girls' access to basic education in both GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto and Katsina States

   b. retention of the girl-child in GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto and Katsina States

   c. learning outcome for girls in both GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto and Katsina States.

4a. What are the constraints militating against the effectiveness of the GEP3 (in terms of implementation and achievement of its objectives) as identified by all stakeholders and project implementers in Sokoto and Katsina States?

4b.   What are the possible solutions or suggestions for effective implementation and achievement of the objectives of the GEP3 in Sokoto and Katsina States?

5.   To what extent are the school environments in Sokoto and Katsina States gender responsive with respect to:

   a.   Infrastructure

   b.   Classroom setup

   c.   Teaching and learning materials

   d.   Interaction

   e.   School Management

1.4   Scope of the Study

The study was an evaluation of the third phase of the Girls' Education Project (GEP3). It examined the extent to which the project lived up to expectations with respect to improving the girl-child access to basic education, retention in school, learning outcomes and reducing girl-child exclusion from basic education as well as promoted catalytic interventions through provision of conditional cash transfer, advocacy work with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers and female scholarships. The intervention effects of the project during the years of interest (2014 – 2017) were evaluated.

Though the project is meant to be carried out for eight years; 2012 – 2020, this study was limited to the activities of the project between 2014 and 2017. This was due to the fact that GEP3 was redesigned in 2014 to enable the project implementers concentrate on the foundational level of education; primary education and activities which did not contribute significantly to the intended results of the project were discontinued, such as nomadic education and interventions in secondary education. Therefore, this evaluation was a process evaluation, as the project is still on-going. This evaluation was also a performance evaluation as the focus of the study was to identify accomplishments, performance issues, and constraints in the implementation of the project. Also, the progress and process of project results were measured and whether and how inputs and outputs were producing outcomes were checked. The study was carried out in Sokoto and Katsina States.

1.5   Significance of the Study

A study of this nature is necessary and indispensable as it will provide basic and essential data on the effectiveness of GEP3 in improving the problem of the girl-child access to basic education, retention in school and learning outcome of girls in Nigeria and especially in the Northern part of the country where the problem of girl-child education is more pronounced. It will provide a feedback mechanism to the Department for International Development (DfID), the government of Nigeria on the rationalization and justification for the huge amount of money being expended on the project. It will also serve as a reference point to the donor agencies on the direction and application of resources and determine whether to continue or to improve on their participation.

The study will provide information for the project managers on whether the project is on track and if not, strengthen, redesign or provide necessary changes. It will provide information on advocacy works that can be carried out by all stakeholders to improve girls' access to basic education, retention in school and learning outcome and also break the barriers to girls' education. It will also provide useful information to educational policy makers in formulating educational policies regarding girl-child education in Northern Nigeria. It is also expected that the study will provide empirical information to the Ministry of Education officials on the status of girl-child education in Northern Nigeria.

It will also provide an opportunity to identify problem areas in the project and the extent to which the project can be said to be successful. Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) at the federal level, the State Universal Basic Education (SUBEB) at the state level and the Local Government Education Authorities (LGEAs) at the local government level and other agencies concerned with the education of the girl-child will all benefit from the study because it will make them know how people perceive the issue of educating the girl-child and also proffer solutions to the various problems that will be identified. Stakeholders in education and related sectors such as government, teachers, parents and employers of labour may have their understanding regarding investment in girls' education deepened if they by any means come in contact with findings of this study and may be so spurred to participate when given the opportunity,

The female pupils at primary school level will be recipients of positive reforms that may arise as a result of findings from this study. GEP3 itself may

overcome the disadvantages of self-evaluation if they accept this study as an independent evaluation of their project and act on findings of the study. Besides, it would provide a feedback to the society on the extent to which the objectives of the project have been achieved. It would add to the existing literature on girl-child education programme. Finally, the result of the study will serve as a major source of data for students, researchers and evaluators who may want to do further work on girl-child education programme.

1.6 Conceptual Definition of Terms:

Basic Education: This refers to the education given to children aged 0-15 years. It encompasses the early child care and development education (0-4) and 10 years of formal schooling. It is compulsory, free, universal and qualitative. It comprises:

 1 year of pre – primary

 6 years of primary

 3 years of junior secondary

Girl-child: A child is a person who has not attained the age 18, according to the UN Convention on Rights of the Child (CRC), the African Charter on the rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) and the Child Rights Act of Nigeria (2003). The girl-child therefore, is a female human being who is under 18.

Girl-child education: This refers to an educational programme which provides ample opportunities for girls to enrol, attend and complete their education without any sense of discrimination.

Integrated Quranic Schools: These are islamiyyah schools that combine Quranic and secular education, including Mathematics, Science, English, Hausa and Life skills into a state-approved curriculum.

Islamic Teachers: These are teachers who teach in Integrated Quranic Centres.

Out-of-School Children: These are children who never attended school or attended school in the past but are not attending in the current school year.

 Universal Basic Education: This concept refers to early childhood care and education, the nine years of formal schooling, adult literacy and non-formal education, skills acquisition programmes and the education of special groups such as nomads, and migrants, girl-child and women, almajiri, street children and disabled group.

1.7 Operational Definition of Terms

Access to education: In this study, this means the opportunity provided for the girl-child to be educated. This was measured through the review of documents on the number of girls that the schools provided the opportunity to be educated at the middle basic level specifically basic 5 prior to entering basic 6 in a particular year.

At risk in-School-Children: In this study, this means the girls in primary schools who are at the risk of dropping out of school for various reasons; poverty, gender norms and traditional practices, including early marriage in Katsina and Sokoto states.

GEP3: In this study, this means the redesigned Girls' Education Project 3.

Input Variables: In this study, this means, the specific actions taken in order to achieve the project purpose and these are conditional cash transfer and gender responsive pedagogy.

Learning Outcomes: In this study, this means, what pupils are able to demonstrate in terms of knowledge. This was measured through the administration of achievement tests on English Studies, Mathematics and Basic Science.

Outcome Variables: In this study, this means, the state of affairs that exists after the project is conducted and these are retention and improved learning outcomes in English Studies, Mathematics and Basic Science.

Output Variable: In this study, this means, immediate effect to be achieved during the project duration and this is access to basic education.

Retention in school: In this study, this means the number of girls who started and remain enrolled at the middle basic level. This was measured through documents review on the number of pupils who started and completed the middle basic level (from basic 4 to 5 and to 6). Basic 4 was the point of entry while basic 6 was the point of completion.

1.8 Abbreviations and Acronyms:

DfID: Department for International Development

EFA: Education for All

FGN: Federal Government of Nigeria

FME: Federal Ministry of Education

GEP: Girls' Education Project

JICA: Japanese International Cooperation Aid

LGEAs: Local Government Education Authorities

MDG: Millennium Development Goals

NMEC: National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education

OOSC: Out of School Children

SUBEB: State Universal Basic Education Board

U.B.E: Universal Basic Education

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNICEF: United Nations Children's Educational Fund

U.P.E: Universal Primary Education

USAID: United States Agency for International Development

UIS: UNESCO Institute for Statistics

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Theoretical Background

This study was anchored on the Theory of Social Justice

Theory of Social Justice

There are many social justice theories. One of such theory- "justice as fairness" is the account provided by John Rawls in his books *A Theory of Justice (1971)* and *Justice as Fairness* (2001) which suggests that social inequality in society is justified if it benefits the disadvantaged. The theory underlies the principal approach to alleviating inequality by targeting the most disadvantaged. The theory is grounded in two basic principles as follows: (1) each person has a right to equal basic liberties and (2) everyone should have fair and equal access to social rewards and these must be to the greatest benefit of the most disadvantaged members of society. The first principle is often referred to as the "equal liberties" principle while the second is commonly referred to as the "equal opportunities" and "difference" principles respectively. Another view of social justice is provided by David Miller in his book *Principles of Social Justice* (2001). Miller argues that because the notion of social justice rejects unfair treatment, when:

We attack some policy or some state of affairs as socially unjust, we are claiming that a person, or more usually a category of persons, enjoys fewer advantages than that person or group of persons ought to enjoy (or bears more of the burdens than they ought to bear), given how other members of the society in question are faring (p.1)

Dworkin Ronald (1978) however sees social justice in terms of equal consideration of the claims of all stakeholders even if the disadvantaged ends up getting more than those who are better-off. In his analysis of individual and group rights in society, he makes a critical distinction between treating people equally and treating them as equals. In the former everyone's needs are considered equally regardless of whether or not they get differential treatment. In other words, equality of treatment leads to social injustice since equal treatment means that differential needs are not being taken into account in the distribution of societal benefits (including educational opportunities).

In simple terms this theory has to do with equity and fairness. According to Egbo (2014), the theory is based on the idea that individual and groups within a given society should have equitable share of the rewards and burdens of that society. This means that each one should have equal access to freedoms, liberties, opportunities and other social rewards (including education) which are available in his or her society regardless of socio-demographic variables.

2.2 Relevance of Rawls' Theory of Social Justice to the Present Study

The adoption of this theory made it possible to account for the huge investment made by UNICEF, Department for International Development (DFID) and the Government of Nigeria in girl-child education in Northern Nigeria through the Girls' Education Project (GEP). This is in line with Rawl's ideas of targeting the most disadvantaged so as to alleviate inequality, that each person has a right to equal basic liberties, that everyone should have fair and equal access to social rewards and these most be to the greatest benefits of the most disadvantaged members of society.

It has been established that over 5.5 million girls are out of school in Nigeria (UNESCO, 2014). That is, of the 10.5 million out-of-school children in Nigeria today, the majority are girls. According to NPC (2009) drop-out rates are higher among girls than boys. Girls have a high risk of dropping out of primary school and overall they are less likely than boys to make the transition to secondary schooling and complete lower secondary education. The 2003 UNESCO monitoring report stated that:

Survival rates to grade five in sub-Saharan Africa are lower than elsewhere. Equally, this is the only region where they are often higher for boys than for girls.

According to NPC (2009) girls' education is good economics. It is the best investment in a country's national development. Educating girls enhances growth rates and reduces social disparities. Also, educating girls is good for development; girls' education encourages economic growth, contributes to stable and secure communities, reduces maternal and child mortality, reduces fertility rates, raises schooling levels for generation and meets human rights standards. Yet girls suffer educational exclusion across Nigeria. As a result of this, in order to boost girls' participation in education in Northern Nigeria, the GEP was inaugurated. The project's main goal is to achieve progress towards MDG3 in Nigeria: to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education. Though, boys will also benefit from GEP 3 through improvement in school infrastructure, teacher quality and school

governance, the project actually targets the girls who are the most disadvantaged in access, retention and completion of basic education in Nigeria. Since girls also have equal right to education and presently are the most disadvantaged members of the society when it comes to access, retention and completion of basic education, GEP was meant to alleviate these educational inequalities. This is to justify the assertion that everyone should have fair and equal access to education. Therefore, GEP is to the greatest benefits of girls who are the most disadvantaged members of the society when it comes to access, retention and completion of basic education.

This theory is considered the most appropriate for this study because girls belong to groups in Nigeria who have limited access to educational opportunities. In allocating educational resources (financial and material), the government should provide additional funding for this group because they are significantly more disadvantaged than other Nigerians. Using the logic of common understandings of social justice, allocating the same amount of public funds to this group as allocated to those who are more privileged, would be tantamount to social injustice. Similarly, giving more resources to disadvantaged groups to enable them overcome their geographic, socio-economic or physical disabilities would amount to promoting and upholding the principles of social justice in the country.

Social justice then, deals with the fair and equitable distribution of advantages (and disadvantages) in society. Creating a just society in Nigeria requires that ameliorative policies and programmes which aim to improve the social and economic condition of traditionally disadvantaged groups should be geared towards investing more rather than less in their education. Since they are at higher risk of dropping out of school due to various reasons, for example, while basic education is, in principle, "free and compulsory education", both the direct and collateral costs of schooling such as fees, books, uniforms are still being shifted to parents who are themselves facing uncertain economic futures as a result of high unemployment rates in the country, some package of interventions need to be put in place. If not, pre-existing gender-based inequalities will most likely increase with the concomitant negative impact on national development

2.3   Conceptual Review

2.3.1   The Concept of Evaluation

Evaluation has become a central tool in the development of contemporary social policy. Its widespread popularity is based on the need to provide evidence on the effectiveness of policies and programmes. Evaluation is the process of determining the merit, worth or value of something. This process has two purposes: to provide information and judgment. There are as many definitions of evaluation as there are as many scholars who have defined the concept. It is not an easy task to define the term "evaluation" because of its complex nature. According to Yoloye's (1972) illustration, discussion groups on evaluation regularly bring to mind the six visually impaired men of Hindustani India who gave their individual portrayals of the elephant after each had investigated an alternate piece of the creature with his hands. To the person who had felt its sharp tusk, it resembled a lance. To another who felt its huge side, it resembled a divider. However, to another who felt its delicate ear, it resembled a leaf. To another who touched the leg, the elephant was like the trunk of a tree. To the one who felt the tail, it was like a big snake. According to him, the elephant was in fact all what they describe and a lot more. So it is with evaluation. He, thus, suggested that for a researcher to overcome this problem, he or she should operationally define evaluation in relation to the nature of research being conducted and also give recognition to the truth that there is significantly more to assessment past what is along these lines characterized.

It is essential at this juncture to note that evaluation has been defined by various authors from different perspectives but having the same meaning and objectives of clarifying the concept of evaluation for its proper usage. Alkin (1970) considers assessment to be a procedure of discovering the choice region of concern, choosing suitable data, and gathering and investigating data so as to report synopsis information helpful to chiefs in choosing among the option. Joshua (2005) portrays it as the methodical procedure of making a decision about the value, attractive quality, viability or sufficiency of something as indicated by unmistakable criteria. Likewise, assessment is a procedure that basically looks at a program. It includes gathering and breaking down data about a program's exercises, attributes, and results. Its motivation is to make a judgment about a program, to improve its viability, or potentially to illuminate programming choices (Patton, 1988). Meanings of assessment fluctuate generally, and in perceiving the varieties in and complexities of the field of

assessment, you can build up "situational responsiveness" (Patton, 1988). This includes having adequate adaptability to comprehend which definitions and models of assessment are proper and important in a specific setting. For instance, as opposed to Patton's general hypothetical definition, he likewise characterizes assessment all the more for all intents and purposes as "an evaluation, objective as could reasonably be expected, of how the task is going, how well members are getting along, and what impact it is having on proposed recipients".

2.3.2   Types of Evaluation

According to Odinko (2014), Scriven in 1967 came up with concepts that distinguished when to conduct an evaluation study into two categories: formative and summative.

Formative Evaluation

Formative evaluation was propounded by Micheal Scriven in 1972 according to Odinko (2014). He sees any evaluation that intends to foster development and within an ongoing activity (or persons, product, programme etc) as formative. This is a type of evaluation that is undertaken during the course of a programme or instruction with the main objective of identifying problem areas.

It is a type of evaluation that begins from the outset and during the implementation of the project design. This means that such evaluation activity should be conducted when the programme is on-going and should take place from time to time. Formative evaluation elicits information about the direction the programme is heading. As such, it helps the programme developer to attain the objectives of such programme. Developmental assessment happens ahead of the pack up to the venture, just as amid the task so as to improve the undertaking plan as it is being actualized (ceaseless improvement).

Summative Evaluation

Summative evaluation occurs at the end of a programme cycle and provides an overall description of programme effectiveness. Therefore, summative evaluation will enable an evaluator to make decisions regarding specific services and the future direction of the program that cannot be made at the middle of a programme cycle. Summative evaluation gives value judgment on the worth of the outcomes of a

programme or at the end of a unit of instruction. In order words, it judges the overall effectiveness of a programme or the adequacy of the teaching- learning process. Summative evaluation is used to assess whether the results of the object being evaluated (or person, product, programme, etc.,) met the stated goals at the end of the programme or project. Summative evaluation is linked to the evaluation driver of accountability. It is outcome-focused more than process focused. In conclusion, all the types of evaluation had been summarised into two. According to Scriven (1967), these are formative and summative evaluation. There are many different types of evaluations depending on the object being evaluated and the purpose of the evaluation. Perhaps the most important basic distinction in evaluation types is that between formative and summative evaluation. Formative evaluations strengthen or improve the object being evaluated - they help to form it by examining the delivery of the program or technology, the quality of its implementation, and the assessment of the organizational context, personnel, procedures, inputs, and so on. Summative evaluations, in contrast, examine the effects or outcomes of some object - they summarize it by describing what happens subsequent to delivery of the program; assessing whether the object can be said to have caused the outcome; determining the overall impact of the causal factor beyond only the immediate target outcomes; and, estimating the relative costs associated with the object.

2.3.3   Models of Evaluation

Models are framework on which a researcher bases his or her research structure. It is a miniature representation of how he wants to carry out the research study. Models can be adapted (used as it is) or adopted (modified to suit the present work) or a new one developed or constructed entirely by the researcher (Odinko, 2014). According to Odinko (2014) evaluation models include: Discrepancy evaluation, Diagnostic model, Stakes Countenance Model (Antecedence, Transaction and Output) which is also referred to as ATO model, Stufflebeam's 1971 Model (Content, Input, Process and Product) also referred to as CIPP model, Goal-Free model, Kirpatrick's Four Level Evaluation Model, among others. Adegbile (2009) submitted that many of the so-called models are not really models. They are approaches to evaluation. He cited Borich (1974) who stated that models have three identifiable characteristics; precision, specificity and verifiability. So according to

Borich (1974), models must be efficient, internally logical and capable of helping the evaluator to anticipate all the information needed for decision-making.

Performance Evaluation

According to the USAID Evaluation Policy (2011) "Performance evaluations focus on descriptive and normative questions, such as: what a particular project or program has achieved (either at an intermediate point in execution or at conclusion of an implementation period); how it is being implemented; how it is perceived and valued; whether expected results are occurring; and other questions that are pertinent to program design, management and operational decision making. Performance evaluations often incorporate before-after comparisons. Performance evaluations are designed to identify accomplishments, performance issues, and constraints in the implementation of the project. They identify results and lessons learned in project implementation. As a result of performance evaluation programming, decisions are made on what activities to continue, modify, or enhance.

Performance Evaluation questions may include the following:

i. What has the project or program achieved (either at an intermediate point in execution or at the conclusion of an implementation period)?

ii. How is the project or program being implemented?

iii. How is the project or program perceived and valued?

iv. Are expected results of the program or project occurring?

v. To what extent is the project progressing towards the achievements of its objectives and goals?

Performance evaluation focuses on measuring the progress and process of project results and whether and how inputs and outputs are producing outcomes and impacts. Performance evaluations should be designed to generate highest quality and most credible evidence that corresponds to the questions being asked.

Discrepancy Evaluation Model by Malcom Provus (1971) in Odinko (2014)

Anderson, Ball and Murphy (1976) defined discrepancy evaluation as a search for differences between two or more elements, or variables of an education or training programme, that according to logical, rational or statistical criteria, should be in agreement or correspondence. According to Odinko (2014) the likely areas which a

researcher may focus on while conducting evaluation research of this nature include ascertaining the:

i.   discrepancy between program plans or intentions and actual program operations

ii. discrepancy between predicted and obtained program outcomes

iii. discrepancy between the students status or employees and designed standards of competency (square peg in round hole)

iv. goal discrepancies

Odinko (2014) identified the roles of the evaluator when using this Model and also the summary of stages to follow while using the Model;

The evaluator's role is mainly to:

i.   identify the variables that are causing the differences and thus disturbing the system balance and

ii. reconcile any differences that are found and also ensure that the information gathered is utilised as

iii. feedback to help the system become better.

Summary of Stages to follow while using this Model

Step 1. S = Setting of the standard;

Step 2. P = Performance objectives (actual or expected outcomes);

Step 3. C = Comparison between expected and actual outcomes;

Step 4. D = Determining the discrepancies or differences existing between the expected and the actual outcomes;

Step 5. D = Decision taking based on the findings. Such decisions could lead to either; Terminate the programme or improve or create an alternative programmes

Diagnostic Evaluation Model

According to Asuru (1999) the aim of diagnostic evaluation is to find out causes of students' learning difficulties. It uses well-designed diagnostic tests, which take cognisance of most common sources of errors that learners encounter. It normally begins from simple to difficult test items. Diagnostic evaluation seeks to find out areas of problems, identify the causes of the problem and make remediation. Onasanya (2005) describes this model as the kind of evaluation procedure which is used to determine a learner's strengths and weaknesses in order to improve performance. It is much more comprehensive and detailed involving the use of

specially prepared diagnostic tests as well as various observational techniques. The primary aim of diagnostic and remedial evaluation is to determine the causes of learning problems and plan strategies for remediation in order to optimise learning problems and plan strategies for remediation in order to optimise learning achievement. Odinko (2014) stated that this is the type of evaluation used for providing corrective prescriptions and remediation for students with learning difficulties. It is also used to ascertain a student's level of strength and weaknesses in a given subject area or course of instruction and later formulate appropriate remedial measures.

Stake's Countenance Model (ATO) (1967) in Adegbile (2009)

According to Adegbile (2009), the countenance model was created by Robert Stake in 1967. The model is based on the idea that 'judgement' and 'description' are very important to the evaluation of educational programmes. This, however, influenced Stake to distinguish among the three elements that constitute evaluation statements. The three elements are antecedents, transactions and outcomes. This explains why the model is often referred to as ATO model. According to him, the *Antecedent* pertains to relevant conditions prior to the instruction of the programme. *Transactions* refer to the succession of engagements that make up the process, while *Outcomes* include immediate and long range learning outcomes, affective and cognitive learning outcomes, individual and societal outcomes. In other words, the outcome or output, which is the third event to be evaluated, involves the effects of introducing the programme on various categories of people. Odinko (2014) also described *Antecedents* as the conditions existing prior to instructions that may relate to outcome. *Transaction* constitutes the successive engagement or dynamic encounters constituting the process of instructions while *Outcomes* constitute the effects of instructional experiences both intended and unintended of the programme. Outcomes are dependent on transactions and antecedents conditions.

The CIPP Evaluation Model by Stufflebeam (1971)

CIPP model was originated by Daniel Stufflebeam in 1971. CIPP is an acronym representing the four types of evaluation identified by this model namely, context evaluation, input evaluation, process evaluation and product evaluation.

According to Stufflebeam, the CIPP is expected to answer the following four questions:

1. What objectives should be accomplished?
2. What procedures should be followed in order to accomplish the objectives?
3. Are the procedures working properly?
4. Are the objectives being achieved?

Context Evaluation (What needs to be done and in what context)?

This is the most basic kind of evaluation with the purpose of providing a rationale for the objectives. Context evaluation includes examining and describing the context of the program you are evaluating, conducting a needs and assessment, determining the objectives of the program, and determining whether the proposed objectives will be sufficiently responsive to the identified needs. It helps in making programme planning decisions. It leads to identification of general goals and specific objectives that should be the focus of an educational programme.

Input Evaluation: (What human and material resources are put in place?).

Adegbile (2009) stated that the main purpose of input evaluation is to determine how to use the resources in order to meet the goals established for the programme. According to Odinko (2014) input evaluation provides information on the nature of human and material resources available and how such resources are to be utilised to achieve the desired objectives.

Process Evaluation: (How should it be done?).

According to Odinko (2014) the aim of process evaluation is to ascertain how the resources are being utilised and identify any defect in the procedural design particularly if the programme is not being implemented as planned. Adegbile (2009) posited that the process type of evaluation is otherwise known as 'ongoing'. It provides information on an on-going programme. That is to say how the programme is being carried out, how it is being run. Process evaluation according to Adegbile (2009) provides periodic feedback to programme managers in order to keep the programme going.

Product Evaluation: (To what extent has the objectives being achieved?)

Product evaluation measures and interprets attainments at the end of a programme (Adegbile, 2009). Odinko (2014) added that the information gathered is used to make comparison between expectations and actual outcomes. The product evaluation helps to decide whether to continue, terminate or modify a programme.

Goal-Free Evaluation Model by Micheal Scriven (1972) in Adegbile (2009)

Goal-free evaluation looks at emergence and unintended outcomes of a project/programme, by looking at the actual effects without pre-empting what these may be. Thus, it separates goals or objectives of a program from side effects and does not use intended outcomes as a guide. Scriven (1972) believes that using goals already set may lead to bias.

Goal-Based Evaluation

Goal-based evaluations have objectively-set targets usually determined by people responsible for the funding or implementation of the project. Goal-evaluation does not question whether the selected goals are valid, or appropriate measures of effectiveness are being assessed.

Kirkpatrick's Four Level Evaluation Model in Odinko (2014)

Donald Kirkpatrick created the four level model for training course evaluation, which served as the subject of his PhD dissertation in 1954.

The four steps of evaluation consist of:

Level 1: Reaction

Measures what participants thought and feel about the training.

Level 2: Learning

Measures the resulting increase in knowledge and/or skills and change in attitudes

Level 3: Behaviour

Measures transfer of knowledge, skills, and/or attitudes from classroom to the job

Level 4: Results

Measures the final results that occurred because of attendance and participation in a training programme.

Reaction Evaluation

Reaction evaluation provides information on how delegates, learners or participants felt and their personal reactions to the training or learning experience.

Learning Evaluation

Learning evaluation should focus on measuring the impact of the training programme on the participants. The essence is to ascertain information on how much knowledge or intellectual capability the trainees have gained. To collect such information, the evaluator should collect baseline data before the programme begins and after the learning experiences.

Behaviour Evaluation

Behaviour evaluation searches for the extent to which the trainees applied the learning and changed their behaviour. Such information can be collected immediately and several months after the training, depending on the nature of the study.

Results of Evaluation

Evaluation at this level measures the effect of the training programme on the business or environment resulting from the improved performance of the trainee.

2.3.4   The Evaluation Model: Logical Framework Approach

The Logical Framework Approach (LFA) was developed by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) (Practical Concepts Incorporated, 1979) and has been adopted for use by other major donors including DfID and EC (Jensen, 2013). The Logical Framework Approach (LFA) is the main tool used for project design during the identification and formulation phases of the project cycle (Wood, 2001). Using LFA during identification helps to ensure that the project ideas are relevant, while during formulation it helps to ensure feasibility and sustainability (Agbeja, 2006). LFA is about applying clear, logical thought when seeking to tackle the complex and ever-changing challenges of poverty and need. In other words, it is about sensible planning. DFID realises this approach by way of the Development Cycle, which begins with identification of the challenge and progresses through to evaluation and lesson learning to inform and improve future interventions. This approach divides a project into four components:

1. The **Goals** (wider problem the project will help to resolve)

2. The **Purpose** of the project (the immediate impact on the project area or target group i.e. the change or benefit to be achieved by the project)

3. The **Outputs** (these are the specifically deliverable results expected from the project to attain the purpose)

4. The **Inputs** (these are the tasks to be done to produce the outputs)

A Logical Framework is a simple 4 x 4 matrix. The logframe consist of a table, or matrix, which has four columns and (in its most basic form) four rows. It divides its information into four columns: a narrative summary of project goals (the project goal of GEP3 is to accelerate girls access to primary school and aid transition to Junior Secondary School), purpose (the purpose/outcome of GEP3 is to aid girls retention in school and improve learning outcomes), outputs (the output/result is to have an increase in the number of girls in primary), and inputs (the inputs/activities of GEP3 are conditional cash transfer, female teachers scholarship and advocacy works with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers); objectively verifiable indicators of whether each of the above has been achieved, produced, or obtained; the means of objectively verifying the indicator; and assumptions on which the verification is based.

The vertical logic identifies what the project intends to do, clarifies the causal relationships and specifies the important assumptions and uncertainties beyond the project manager's control. The horizontal logic relates to the measurement of the effects of the effects of, and resources used by the project through the specification of key indicators of measurement, and the means will by which the measurement will be verified.

The logframe is specifically designed to facilitate monitoring and evaluation in that all the intended outcomes (called "end of project status"), as well as the sequence of events through which they should be achieved are clearly defined. Thus, if an outcome is not achieved, it is possible to determine whether this was because the required inputs were not provided or whether important assumptions were not satisfied.

Levels of Objectives

The objectives chosen for incorporation in the undertaking are transposed into the principal section of the logframe, and set out the intercession rationale of the task. During this stage, it is important to ensure that the levels of objectives are accurate.

Vertical Arrangement (Column)

1. **Overall objective/Goal**

    The objective of the program ought to clarify why the program is essential to society as far as the more extended term advantages to recipients and the more extensive advantages to other groups. It should also show that the programme fits into the regional/ government/organizations concerned.

2. **Project purpose**

    The purpose should address the central issue, and be defined in terms of the benefits to be derived from the project beneficiaries or target group due to the use of the services provided by the programme.

3. **Results**

    The outcomes depict the services to be delivered to the intended beneficiaries or target group, and it should be possible for project management to be held acvcountable for the delivery. The outcomes should address the main causes of the problems the target group faces. To guarantee relevance of results, the problem analysis should therefore have identified a beneficiary demand for project services

4. **Activities**

    The activities show how the project's goods and services will be delivered. One of the keys to using the logframe effectively is to comprehend what the definitions mean in operational terms, and specifically the connection among results and project purpose.

Horizontal Arrangement (Row)

1. **Objectively Verifiable Indicators (OVIs)**

    Objectively Verifiable Indicators depict the undertaking's destinations in operationally quantifiable terms, and gives the goals in operationally quantifiable terms, and give the premise to performance measurement. The particulars of OVIs act as a check on the viability of objectives and form the basis of the project monitoring

system. When the indicator has been recognized, it should then be created to incorporate brief subtleties of quantity, quality and time (QQT), and location. Objectively verifiable indicator implies that various people utilizing the indicator would get similar estimations. This is more effectively accomplished for quantitative measures than for those that expect to quantify subjective change. It is regularly valuable to incorporate more than one indicator if the single indicator does not give a full image of the change anticipated. In the meantime, the device of including such a large number of indicators ought to be kept away from, as this will add to the work and the expense of gathering, recording and breaking down the information. OVIs should be determined in more prominent detail amid execution when extra data is accessible and to consider successful checking.

2. **Sources of Verification (SOV's)**

At the point when indicators are defined, the sources of information and methods for gathering ought to be indicated. This will test whether the indicator can be realistically estimated to the detriment of a reasonable amount of time, cash and exertion. The SOVs ought to indicate:

i. The arrangement wherein the information ought to be made accessible (e.g. progress reports, project accounts, official statistics, etc.).

ii. Who ought to give the information?

iii. How normally it ought to be given. (for example week by week, month to month, quarterly, every year, and so forth).

3. **Sources/Means and Costs**

'Means' are the human, material and budgetary assets required to attempt the planned activities and manage the project. In other to give an exact estimate of the methods and costs required for a project, planned activities and the management support activities must be indicated in adequate detail. An area for specific consideration is the expense of gathering data on OVIs.

4. **Assumptions**

It will have turned out to be obvious amid the analysis phase that the project alone cannot accomplish all targets recognized. When a technique has been chosen, goals excluded in the intervention logic and other external factors remain. These will influence the project's intervention logic and other external components remain. These will influence the project's implementation and long haul sustainability yet lie

beyond its ability to do anything about. These conditions must be met if the project is to succeed, and are incorporated as assumptions in the fourth section of the logframe.

The logframe becomes an integral factor at the initial stage in the project cycle – and can be utilized as a device in investigating alternatives for a feedback through to giving information to be utilized in an ex-post evaluation of impact.

To apply the Logical Framework Approach, the researcher should:

i.   Undertake an intensive examination of the setting in which the project will work;

ii.   Ensure that the experience and sentiments of all partners are considered;

iii.   Encourage a fit methodology with accomplices and different contributors; and

iv.   Acknowledge, distinguish and review risks and assumptions, and create powerful alleviating activities.

All the while, the logframe will push the specialist to:

i.   Achieve partner accord;

ii.   Organise his/her reasoning;

iii.   Summarise and connect the key viewpoints and foreseen impact of the project;

iv.   Communicate information briefly and unambiguously; and

v.   Identify quantifiable performance indicators and the methods for checking progress;

Whenever utilized appropriately, it moreover:

i.   Bring together in one spot an announcement of every single key part of the undertaking in a precise, succinct and intelligible way; and

ii.   Provide a system for observing and assessment where arranged and genuine outcomes can compared.

This model will make it conceivable to adequately assess the segments of the project which are the focal points of the investigation. The utilization of this model will likewise make uniting and showing all the key segments of the project be in a reasonable, compact, sound and efficient way and furthermore guarantee that there is no perplexity between the different parts of the undertaking, so activities are not mistaken for results and results are not mistaken for objectives. Also, it will give a steady setting to estimating accomplishments against indicators. This tool will enable the researcher to succinctly portray the consequences of the project design process, as it abridges in a standard arrangement:

i.   What the project will accomplish

ii.   What activities will be carried out

iii.   What means/resources/inputs (human, specialized, infrastructural, and so on.) are required

iv.   What potential issues could influence the accomplishment of the project

v.   How the advancement and ultimate accomplishment of the task will be estimated and confirmed

This approach permits the fundamental components of the undertaking to be succinctly outlined and carries structure and rationale to the connection between project purpose and proposed inputs, arranged exercises, and anticipated outcomes. The narrative summary has 4 fundamental segments; goal, project purpose, outputs/results and inputs/activities. These parts will be utilized by the researcher to produce information for the work. The goal, project purpose, outputs/results and inputs/activities of GEP3 were determined and worked with. The goal portrays the formative advantages which the individual target gatherings can hope to pick up from the program or the project. The project purpose of a program or an undertaking in any case, portrays the adjustments in conduct, structures or limit of the objective gatherings which legitimately result from the usage of the deliverable yields or results the program or project will be relied upon to yield. The outputs/results depict the merchandise and enterprises, the immediate expectations which are contributed from the side of a project or program while the sources of information/exercises allude to the assignments conveyed by the project/program so as to accomplish and get the outputs/results. The other significant pieces of the network are the Objectively Verifiable Indicators, Means of Verification and the Assumptions. These different components of the grid will likewise be utilized to produce data for the work. For every cell of the account synopsis, indicators should be created. These Objectively Verifiable Indicators or OVI should meet the accompanying criteria:

1.   Measurable: An indicator must most likely be estimated in either quantitative or subjective terms.

2.   Feasible: An indicator ought to be practical regarding funds, equipment, skills and time.

3.   Relevant and Accurate: An indicator ought to reflect what we are attempting to gauge in an exact manner.

4.   Sensitive: An indicator ought to be equipped for getting changes over the timeframe that we are keen on.

5.   Timely: An indicator ought to have the option to give information in a timely manner.

When the indicators have been created remembering these criteria, the source of the information and means of verification (MOV) would be built up for every indicator. The last part that completes the matrix is the assumptions, the aims of specifying assumptions are:

1.   To evaluate the potential risks to the project idea directly from the underlying phases of task arranging

2.   To help the observing of risks amid the execution of the project (assumptions can be determined by indicators and are an object of checking the frame condition of a project/program and the adjustments in the frame conditions).

3.   To give a firm premise to essential modifications inside the task at whatever point it ought to be required.

4.   To survey the potential risks to the project idea directly from the initial phases of project planning

5.   To help the observing of dangers amid the execution of the undertaking (presumptions can be determined by pointers and are an object of checking the casing states of a task/program and the adjustments in the edge conditions).

6.   To give a firm premise to important modifications within the project at whatever point it ought to be required.

Logframes and the Development Cycle

In the Development Cycle, the logframe starts to show up at the Identification stage, is settled amid the Design and Appraisal stage and, when endorsed, should stay in dynamic use all through the Implementation (monitoring) stage. A good quality logframe is likewise a basic device for ex-post evaluation.

Robust data

The logframe empowers the specialist to introduce the important quantitative and qualitative information in a project in a brief and open way. To ensure the data – specifically, benchmark information - is powerful, the scientist may need to commission new examination. In any case, before the scientist commission new examination he/she should check whether adequately powerful information and investigations are accessible from existing sources.

What is significant is that the information and examination are current, reliable and as exact as can be sensibly accomplished, disaggregated by sex where suitable.

The Results Chain

The logframe is a declaration of the "Results Chain" – the outcomes the researcher anticipates that the undertaking should accomplish. The Results Chain must be founded on proof about what has worked previously. So this is a genuine chance to assess every one of the exercises scholarly, assessment and research proof accessible that supports the plan of the task. The proof will likewise empower the analyst to distinguish reasonable targets: what amount of progress does proof propose may be accomplished over the task time frame?

Without the correct information, it is difficult to quantify whether there has been any change because of the researchers' activities. To this end, it is fundamental to show coherent, robust measures of success the logframe.

It is also important to have milestones which act as an early-warning system, indicating at specific, relevant junctures how the project is progressing along the predicted trajectory.

2.3.5 Girl-child Education in Nigeria

The National Policy on Education (2014) stipulates free basic education for every Nigerian child. National Gender Policy (2006) and its Strategic Implementation Framework emphasize the central role of female education as a key determinant for achieving broader development objectives. Nigeria recognises education as a fundamental human right and is a signatory to the major conventions for the protection of the rights of children (girls and boys) and women. In 2004, the country enacted the Universal Basic Education (UBE) law to fast track the attainment of Education for All (EFA) goals. The enabling legislation – The Compulsory, Free Universal Basic Education Act - provides for nine years continuous education (comprising six years of primary and three years of junior secondary), which is known as 'basic education'. This is meant to be accessed by all Nigerian children, boys and girls inclusive. The girl-child education is highly upheld not only in Nigeria but in all parts of the world. This is because statistically the bulk of the world illiterates are women and this is also applicable to Northern Nigeria, where 65% of the children in school are boys, while majority of the girls are out of school (Ishaq & Ali, 2014).

Historically, the first girls' secondary school in Nigeria, C.M.S Girls' Grammar School, Lagos was established in 1869.The establishment of a girls' school did not however change the status quo as girls remained grossly under-represented in schools throughout colonial rule (Osinulu, 1994). The government also founded all-girls College, both the bureaucratic and after that provincial governments presented every one of women and girls' schools, for example, Queen's College, Lagos (Federal), Queen's School, Ede (Western Region), and Queen's College, Enugu (Eastern Region). The Federal Government likewise presented the Federal Government Colleges (Unity Schools) during the 1970s. Of the 104 Unity Schools, 38 were every one of women and girls' schools while just two were every one of young men's universities, the remaining were blended schools. The missionary bodies also founded some all-girls schools; these missionaries presented all-women and girls' optional schools, for example, – Queen Amina College, Zaria (Catholic), Baptist Girls College, Agbor, among others.

However, most of them were fee-paying although many regional governments offered scholarships to bright students – both males and females. Financial support was also given to girls' education; some regions had special scholarships to promote girls' education. For example, in the former Northern Region, scholarships were given to girls for their Higher School Certificate/GCE Advanced Level studies as well as for their university education. However, only few girls qualified for these scholarships. Moreover, the primary purpose of girls' education was essentially to teach them morals and the requisite skills for successful homemaking. By the time Nigeria gained independence in 1960, women constituted only a very small percentage of the educated population (Egbo, 2000).

According to Egbo (2014), women's access to educational opportunities received significant boost from the government's post-colonial policy of educational expansion because education was seen as a necessary precursor for accelerated economic development. Women's access to educational opportunities also received some attention in special gender-based initiatives and national development plans such as: the Better Life Programme for Rural Women (BLP), the Family Support Programme, the NEEDS programme and Vision 20:2020 development framework. Several Federal Government initiatives have been implemented in Nigeria over the years to bridge the gender gap in education. One of these initiatives was a National Council on Education (NCE), at a meeting held in Kaduna earlier that year (Osinulu,

1994). The blueprint made important recommendations vis-a-vis facilitating girls' and women's access to educational opportunities including those with 'special needs' (e.g., rural women, nomadic women who drop out of school for various reasons), at all levels of the formal and non-formal education network.

After this workshop, a spate of activities took place within the Federal Ministry of Education. One of the most significant was the creation of Women's Education Units at both national and state levels. The units were charged with promoting public awareness of the need to educate women, facilitating opportunities for both formal and non-formal education for women and generally promoting women participation in socio-economic development. Another noteworthy outcome of the 1986 women empowerment initiative was a renewed focus on increasing the number of women in the fields of science, technology and mathematics (STM) which culminated in the launching of the Nigerian Association of Women in Science, Technology and Mathematics (NAWSTEMS). The association was then given the mandate of promoting STM among women in Nigeria.

2.3.6 Gender-responsive Basic Education for the Girl-child

The basic beginning stage for contemplating gender responsive education programming is the fact that education is a fundamental human right for everyone. All girls and boys, men and women have the right to quality education with reasonable access and without discrimination. Gender equality in education addresses the different needs of girls and boys and ensures their enrolment, participation and achievement in the learning environment. It involves restructuring the culture, policies and practices in education interventions to meet the different needs and capacities of all male and female learners (Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies, 2010).

Gender-responsive education:

i. addresses gender-based barriers so that all girls and boys, women and men can learn

ii. respects differences based on gender and acknowledges gender, together with age, ethnicity, language, disability, and religion are all part of a learner's identity

iii. enables education structures, systems and methodologies to be sensitive to all girls and boys, women and men

iv.   ensures gender parity in education is part of a wider strategy to advance gender equality in society

v.   continuously evolves to close gaps on gender disparity and

vi.   eradicates gender-based discrimination.

Gender-responsive basic education is essential if we are to achieve quality basic education for all. Yet, there are many barriers and challenges to making gender equality in and through education a reality. The gender inequalities pervading society are carried into the school environment (FAWE, 2005). Thus, this may affect the provision and content of education. This assertion was supported by Aja-Okorie (2013) that, inequality in society inevitably has an impact on the provision and content of education.

According to Global Campaign for Education (2012), school is but one gendered institution among many and the attitudes and practices that girls encounter therein often serve to reproduce, rather than undo, those in society at large. This is evidenced in school processes such as teaching, teacher-student interaction, school management and the plan and design of the physical infrastructure. Teaching and learning materials, for example, may contain gender stereotypes. Teachers may not be aware of the gender specific needs of both girls and boys. School management systems may not sufficiently address gender constraints such as sexual harassment and many schools do not have adequate or separate toilets for girls and boys. As a result, the schools do not provide a gender responsive environment for effective teaching and learning to take place. All these may affect the girl-child learning outcomes. This assertion was supported by Obanya's (2004) submission with what he referred to as systematic and systemic gender bias, which means that prevailing educational and school practices (the physical facilities, teaching-learning materials and methods, curriculum offerings, etc.) tend to discriminate against girls. According to Plan (2013), some key factors which can form considerable barriers to girls' learning are; lack of female teachers, teachers attitudes, curricula and assessment, traditional teaching methods.

A gender responsive school is one in which the academic, social and physical environment and its surrounding community take into account the specific needs of both girls and boys (FAWE, 2005). In addition, in a gender responsive school the academic delivery, including teaching methodologies, teaching and learning materials, classroom interaction and management of academic processes, is gender

responsive. The students, both girls and boys, are empowered to practice gender equality and to protect the democratic and human rights of both genders. The concept extends right to the physical environment in the school- including buildings, furniture and equipment that are also gender friendly.

In other to provide gender responsive basic education for the girl-child, a holistic approach involving various interventions is required. The holistic intervention package can include the following elements:

i. Undergoing gender sensitization of parents, community leaders and members, teachers, girls and boys in order to raise their awareness and understanding of the need to support girls' education.

ii. Training teachers in the skills for making teaching and learning processes responsive to the specific needs of girls and boys.

iii. Empowering girls with skills for self-confidence, assertiveness, speaking out, decision making and negotiation in order for them to overcome gender-based constraints to their education.

iv. Empowering boys with skills to de-link from gender oppressive attitudes and practices such as macho-ism, bullying and sexual affronts and to develop the self-confidence needed to accept gender equality positively.

v. Training the school community in the skills necessary to improve their reproductive health and protect themselves against sexually transmitted diseases, particularly HIV/AIDS.

vi. Training the school community to manage to manage sexual maturation issues of both girls and boys with particular emphasis on menstruation management.

vii. Training the teachers and students in guidance and counselling skills.

viii. Establishing guidance and counselling desks in order to provide services for the social and psychological development of girls and boys.

ix. Providing scholarships and support to needy girls and boys to ensure they do not drop out of school.

x. Providing gender responsive infrastructure including:

    a. Boarding facilities in case of long distances from school.

    b. Separate and adequate toilets for girls and boys.

    c. Adequate and clean water and sanitation, especially to enhance menstruation management and the overall health of the school community.

xi. Carrying out activities to promote the participation of girls in science, mathematics and technology (SMT) subjects.

xii. Establishing a gender responsive school management team, including the school board, parent-teacher association, heads of departments and prefects, in order to raise their awareness on the need to support girls' education.

xiii. Involving the community and other stakeholders in monitoring and taking action to ensure improved enrolment, attendance and performance of girls.

xiv. Establishing a database to track student performance and welfare as well as the levels of gender responsiveness of all aspects of the school.

This holistic intervention package specifically addresses the gender responsiveness of all aspects of the school. (FAWE, 2005).

All these interventions may have positive effect on the learning outcomes of the girl-child. This implies equity in process (conditions), which was described by Inyang (2000) as education that is fair and just but does not necessarily treat everyone the same. It emphasizes the promulgation of policies and programmes that would adequately check the disadvantages and deprivations which children bring along to school. This may eventually lead to equity in outcome which implies that all students are provided with educational experience that ensures the achievement of uniform goals (Inyang, 2000). The adoption of various interventions that make a school gender responsive may not only lead to equity in outcome but could as well lead to gender equity in education. Gender equity refers to the extent to which women and girls have the opportunity to enter into an educational system and to remain in it (Obanya, 1992). It is only the delivery of quality education that can lead to quality learning outcomes. Quality education has been defined as an education which is relevant and one that uses democratic processes to empower students (Plan 2012a).

In order to work towards girls having equal access to and full participation in gender responsive basic education, there are some key principles that are very essential:

Gender dynamics impacts on education: Gender dynamics can affect the capacity of students to access and completely partake in quality training. Hindrances to learning will frequently be diverse for male and female students, who face different risks and have different needs. Sometimes the gender dynamics are clearly visible, but at other times they might be less obvious, or even hidden. Using a gender lens to analyse girls' access to and full participation in basic education is critical. Gender analysis is particularly important when there is gender disparity in education. A

gender analysis helps to understand how gender roles have changed or are changing, so one can address the specific needs and concerns of female and male learners, teachers and other education personnel through the provision of quality, protective and relevant education.

Gender-responsive education is protective: The protection needs of learners are different and should be carefully analyzed with a view to the different risks faced by male and female learners, including potential risks within the education system. Gender mainstreaming is not a time-consuming 'optional extra.' It makes programming more effective, helps us better target assistance and protection efforts, and provides foundations for sustainable recovery.

Disaggregated data is non-negotiable: Disaggregated data is statistical information that is separated into its component parts. For example, school attendance data can be analysed by sex, age group and geographic area. Disaggregation of data, particularly by sex, age, and other categories that impact on inclusion, such as disability, is vitally important and should be a non-negotiable component of any assessment, monitoring or evaluation that is undertaken as part of emergency preparedness, response and recovery. Information gaps related to sex and age can restrict or hamper critical decision-making during humanitarian response and render programmes ineffective or even harmful to the affected populations we are trying to support. Without this quantitative information, it is hard to get an accurate picture of the gender issues in a particular context. Of course analysis of gender dynamics involves more than basic population statistics: this information must be used to support more in-depth interpretation and analysis of deeper social issues.

Male and female learners' involvement in working towards gender equality: The active participation of male and female children and young people is critical to ensure gender issues are addressed within the education sector. Children and young people often know more than adults about the gender dimension that exclude their peers from education, the different risks they face in and out of school, and the negative consequences of crises on their peers and communities. Children and young people can play a powerful role in promoting gender equality in schools and society. If we are committed to achieving education for all, we must not view gender as a separate or additional piece of work in education programming. We must instead use a 'gender lens' when planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating all of our work. A gender lens is like putting on a pair of spectacles. Through one lens of the spectacles

we see the participation, needs and realities of girls and women. We see boys' and men's participation, needs and realities through the other. To get the full picture in any situation we must look through both eyes. The IASC Gender Handbook provides a useful 'gender lens' framework that can help us integrate gender issues into programmes.

ADAPT and ACT collectively to ensure gender equality

Analyse gender differences

Design services to meet the needs of all

Access for women, girls, boys and men is provided equally

Participate equally to ensure gender balance

Train women and men equally and

Address GBV (Gender Based Violence) in education and humanitarian emergency efforts

Collect, analyse and report sex- and age-disaggregated data

Collectively coordinate actions with all partners

Target actions based on a gender analysis

2.3.7   An overview of Northern Nigeria

Northern Nigeria is predominantly occupied by Hausa, Fulani, Gwari, Borim, Kanuri, Tiv, Jukun and many other tribal groups. The Hausa and Fulani cultural similarities however allowed for significant integration between the two groups, who in modern times are often demarcated as "Hausa-Fulani" rather than as individual groups and many Fulani in the region do not distinguish themselves from the Hausa. The climatic conditions in the northern part of Nigeria exhibit only two different seasons, namely, a short wet season and a prolonged dry season. Temperatures during the day remain constantly high while humidity is relatively low throughout the year, with little or no cloud cover. Most of the cities and towns in Northern Nigeria are predominantly occupied by the Hausa-Fulani people dated back to the Stone Age. Amongst these main cities is Kano City, known as the groundnuts Pyramids and Indigo city. Others are Biram, Zaria, Katsina, Abuja, Bauchi, Birni Kebbi, Damaturu, Dutse, Gombe, Gusau, Jalingo, Jebba, Jos, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Lafia, Maiduguri, Markudi, Sokoto, Suleja, Yola and Zaria. Modern Northern Nigeria is made up of the following 19 states: Adamawa, Bauchi, Benue, Borno, Gombe, Jigawa, Kaduna, Kano, Katsina, Kebbi, Kogi, Kwara, Nasarawa, Niger, Plateau, Sokoto, Taraba, Yobe

and Zamfara. The major languages spoken by the people in this region are Hausa, Fulani, Kanuri, Igala, Igbira, Nupe, Gwari, Birom, Margi, Jukun and Katab. Majority of the people from this region are Muslims.

2.3.8 Girls' Education in Northern Nigeria

Nigeria is the eighth most populated nation and has 10% of the out of younger students on the planet (DFID, 2011). According to the UNESCO 2013/2014 report (p. 54), the country tops the list of countries with highest number of out of school children with 10, 542, 000 children out of school. The report (UNESCO 2013/2014, p. 54) also presented a table on the ten countries with relative increase in out of school children. Nigeria is number four in this list of countries in which the out-of-school-children situation worsened between 2006 and 2011. Obanya concluded in his review of the UNESCO 2013/2014 report labelled 'Nigeria in the global EFA league table: A review of UNESCO 2013/2014', that as there has been no evidence of any EFA acceleration strategy in the country, it is very likely that the situation must have worsened still since 2011.

Furthermore, more than half of the population of the out-of-school children in Nigeria are girls. According to the UNESCO 2013/2014 report (p. 185), the number of women and girls out of school expanded from 4.1 million of every 1999 to 5.5 million out of 2010. The greatest difficulties lie in the north. As indicated by UNICEF (2007), in Nigeria, women and girls' entrance to fundamental instruction, particularly in Northern states, has stayed low. As low as 20 percent of girls in the North West and North East of the country are educated and have attended school. The region has the most minimal girl-child enrolment in Nigeria – in 2008 the net enrolment rate for women and girls into secondary school was 22% (Guardian, 2014). As indicated by British Council, Nigeria (2014) girls in Northern states are among the most disadvantaged in the education system. Omoniyi and Oloruntegbe (2014) submitted that in most parts of Northern Nigeria, education is more of a privilege particularly than a right for girls. In the event that they are fortunate to be enrolled, many are withdrawn prematurely because of the culture of early marriage. This and other socio-economic and cultural problems such as poverty and ignorance account for imbalance in school enrolment and education with boys generally outnumbering girls.

Female attendance ratios for primary schools in the North East are 38% compared with 80% in the South West (Nigeria Education Data Survey, 2010). Ishaq

and Ali (2014) submitted that considering that Nigeria is the most populated country in Africa; it shares same experience in the high number of women illiterates particularly in the northern part of the country where many socio-economic and cultural practices militate against women development. Nigeria significantly influences the achievement of the MDGs in sub-Saharan Africa. Hence, the situation of women and girls in Nigeria has a key role to play in determining the progress of the whole region. Girls' school participation remains a challenge across Nigeria and obstacles are particularly severe in northern states.

Historical development of the girl-child education in Nigeria has been that the female child had all through been relegated to the background in the area of enrolment, attendance, completion and transition to higher school, especially in the northern part of Nigeria (Mangvwat and Abama, 1999). According to Aja-Okorie (2013) evidence shows that more than two thirds of 15-19 year old girls in Northern Nigeria are unable to read a sentence. In addition to issues of school access, family and school resources and attitudes towards education, school attendance in northern Nigeria is impeded by increasingly brazen extremism of Boko Haram and its targeting of girls' education. Though, girls in northern Nigeria faced challenges long before the insurgency. For instance, girls' education has always been under threat (Guardian, 2014). Risks associated with school-going are compounded for girls and young women in a context where female educational attainment is persistently low. Indeed, in many northern states more than 50% of young women aged 15-24 have no experience with formal education (EPDC extraction of MICS 2011 dataset). The report was published by Africa Health, Human and Social Development Information Service (Afri-Dev.Info) in partnership with African Coalition on Maternal Newborn and Child Health and Pan African Campaign against Forced Marriage of under Age Children. The result shows links between poor educational attainment for girls, forced marriage of under age children and under age child bearing. The 10 states with the highest number of girls not in secondary are found in the North West, North East and North Central Geo-political zones of Nigeria, the report states. The five states from the North West are Kebbi, Sokoto, Jigawa, Zamfara and Katsina while those from the North East are Bauchi, Yobe, Borno and Gombe. Niger state is the only North central state in the category.

Nigeria can be said to be a fragile state and the northern part seems to be more affected. States can be said to be fragile for a range of reasons, including conflict, lack

of resources and people, high levels of corruption and political instability. What sets these countries apart is their failure to deliver on the core functions of government, including keeping people safe, managing the economy and delivering basic services. Violence and disease, as well as illiteracy and economic weakness, are most intensively concentrated in these areas (DFID, 2005). Of the 104 million children not in primary school globally, an estimated 37 million of them live in fragile states. Many of these children are girls (Branchflower, Hennell, Pongracz and Smart, 2004). Girls are particularly vulnerable to abuse and unequal access to schooling in fragile states. The tradition, customs, socio cultural values, ethics, motherhood instincts are some of the factors influencing gender bias in the education sector.

Cultural and social beliefs, attitudes and practices prevent girls from benefitting from educational opportunities to the same extent as boys. The achievement of girls' right to education can address some of the societies deeply rooted inequalities, which condemn millions of girls to a life without quality education and therefore, also all too often to a life of missed opportunities. Education is seen in some societies as a fear of change and now with globalization; the fear becomes greater-fear to lose the cultural identity, fear of moving towards the unknown or the unwanted (Aja-Okorie, 2013). This tradition can also be noticed among northerners. Other various barriers threaten girls' education in northern Nigeria. These include the traditional view that the role of women is to be subjugated to men; and a reluctance to allow girls to be educated, beyond learning Qur'an. Some parents wish to keep their daughters away from society in the family home and see the priority to marry their daughters off early. While in contrast, the poorest parents send their daughters out to sell merchandise in the streets rather than send them to school. These barriers are compounded by lack of confidence in the low quality of education provision (DFID, 2011).

Fig. 2.1: Map of Nigeria

2.3.9 Strategies to improve girl-child education in Northern Nigeria

Northern states have much ground to cover to enrol all girls in primary school and keep girls in school until they complete junior secondary school (British Council of Nigeria, 2014). Numerous projects have been developed and delivered in the last decade to address the obstacles to girl-child education and urgent need for action on girls' education in Northern Nigeria. Federal, States and local government authorities have been engaged with all of the programmes described below in order to generate ownership, leadership and sustainability around girls' education. Civil society organisations and the media have also been informal partners in some programmes to deliver public information campaigns to tackle gender stereotypes and harmful traditional practices.

A selection of major programmes is presented here to highlight various strategies, interventions and successes in girls' education. It is clear from many successful activities that good local policies and collaborative and sustained interventions can have a positive impact on girls' lives.

2.3.9.1 Strategy for the Acceleration of Girls' Education in Nigeria

UNICEF (2003) supported the Federal Ministry of Education to develop the Strategy for Acceleration of Girls' Education in Nigeria (SAGEN). SAGEN was designed to respond to the number of out of school girls in Nigeria and was a plan of action to enable all girls to access quality basic education by 2005. SAGEN was also designed to complement and enhance work already being done towards EFA in Nigeria. The initiative evolved into 'SAGEN Plus' in 2004 with support from international development partners and with refinements that link girls' education to women's health.

2.3.9.2 Girls' Education Project

Girls' Education Project's interventions have taken a holistic view of education, working simultaneously within schools and school functions, such as establishing school-based management committees and reviewing teaching materials and in the wider including awareness-raising and promoting synergies between girls' education and poverty alleviation. Non-formal learning centres have been supported alongside the GEP schools to provide income generation skills to out-of-school girls and women.

At national level, GEP promotes best practice and seeks to mainstream improvements into the national education system, policy and strategy development, and planning, monitoring and evaluation. Technical assistance has been specifically delivered to (i) improve States planning and data management systems; (ii) establish School Based Management Committees (SBMCs) with SUBEBs; (iii) improve the quality of teaching and learning in collaboration with State Colleges of Education (Akunga, 2010).

GEP has evolved over time to deliver and promote the most effective interventions, learning from what works such as female teacher training and advocacy with traditional leaders. The fact that communication on girls' education is led by religious and traditional leaders is believed to have enhanced the influence and reach of GEP. In addition, the Female Teacher Training Scholarship programme introduced in 2008 through GEP 2, UNICEF and state and local governments extended efforts to increase girls' completion rates through closing gaps between the demand and supply of women teachers in rural areas.

2.3.9.3 Enhancing Girls' Basic Education in Northern Nigeria

In 2003 ActionAid Nigeria initiated a project called Enhancing Girls' Basic Education in Northern Nigeria (EGBENN). The project aimed to promote basic eduation rights and enhance good governance at all levels of education. EGBENN was supported by Oxfam Novib and operated in nine LGAs across three North West states: Zamfara, Sokoto and Kebbi. The LGAs were specifically targeted due to major gender disparities in access to primary and junior secondary schools.

EGBENN aimed to contribute to the attainment of MDGs 2 and 3: achieving universal primary education and the eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary schools. It was designed to build on the Commonwealth Education Fund intiative which sought to strengthen civil society and communities to demand education and promote innovative ways of opening up access to education for girls.

EGBENN also promoted School-based Management Committees and Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) and supported civil society organisations and community leaders to track education budgets, link schools and the wider community and engage with local and state governments to advocate for girls' education. In its first three years EGBENN increased girls' enrolment in its schools from 25% to 43%.

Its second phase strengthened the capacities of SBMCs, CSOs and government institutions. Important additional component of Phase 2 was additional, targeted interventions on HIV/AIDS and gender-based violence to address identified risks and vulnerabilities among girls within and beyond schools.

2.3.9.4 Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria

In 2008 ActionAid took learning from EGBENN to develop the Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria (TEGIN) project. TEGIN ran from 2008-2012 in partnership with the Nigerian NGO Community Action for Popular Participation (CAPP). The undertaking was delievered in 72 primary and junior secondary schools across eight states in Northern Nigeria: FCT, Niger, Bauchi, Gombe, Nasarawa, Plateau, and Katsina.

Like EGBENN, the TEGIN project delivered interventions to improve girls' education that looked within and beyond schools. TEGIN's overall aim was to enable girls to enrol and stay in school by addressing key challenges and obstacles that hinder their participation and increase their vulnerability to gender-based violence and HIV/AIDS (ActionAid, 2012). It intended to achieve this goal through five key

objectives and related interventions which like other programmes, including establishing and supporting school-based management committees and improving teacher training.

TEGIN worked closely with girls themselves, their families, religious and traditional leaders and policy makers to address the full range of educational influences from micro to macro levels. Girls' clubs in schools provided safe spaces for girls to learn and gain support from their peers and female teachers about issues affecting them and their schooling; in-service female teacher training provides teachers with enhanced classroom teaching methods and gender sensitivity; SBMCs are supported to create school development plans to identify school priorities and acquire government funding.

2.3.9.5 Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria

The Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria (ESSPIN) is a partnership between the Nigerian Government and DFID UK delivered by a Cambridge Education-led consortium in principal partnership with the British Council. The programme ran from 2008 to 2014 (extended to 2016). Its main aim is to strengthen governance and systems to improve the quality of basic education in six states across Nigeria: Lagos, Kwara, Enugu, Kano, Kaduna and Jigawa.

ESSPIN is an education sector and governance intervention programme. The progamme works at federal, state, local government, school and community levels through multiple international and national partners (British Council, Nigeria, 2014).

2.3.10   Evolution of the Girls Education Project in Nigeria

In Nigeria, there is a national gender disparity in basic education enrolment. In addition, there are regional variations in gender disparity in education with girls and women from Northern Nigeria and rural communities generally at a disadvantage. (Obaji, 2005). The UNGEI was propelled in Dakar in 2000 by the then UN Secretary General Kofi Anan. It was tamed in Nigeria as the Nigerian Girls' Education Initiative and was formally introduced in May 2005 in spite of the fact that it was gone before by two activities with a similar target of advancing women and girls' training in Nigeria – the African Girls' Education Initiative (2001-2003) and the Strategy for the Acceleration of Girls' Education in Nigeria (2003). From that point forward, NGEI has been formally propelled in certain states and operational in some others.

Subsequently, expanding on existing Child Friendly School Initiative which is upheld by UNICEF, Nigeria built up the Strategy for the Acceleration of Girls' Education, which developed into SAGEN+ and now being strengthened by the Girls' Education Project (GEP). This is a generous joint endeavour by the Federal Government of Nigeria, DFID and UNICEF to support women and girls' education in Northern Nigeria and fast-track the advancement towards the MDGs, particularly regarding gender equity.

The Girls' Education Project (GEP) advanced from a noteworthy partnership between UNICEF, the UK's Department for International Development (DFID), and the Government of Nigeria. It has turned into the biggest DFID/UNICEF organization in the world with the point of boosting women and girls' education in Northern Nigeria, where it is being executed. The fundamental objective is to accomplish huge advancement in Nigeria towards Millennium Development Goal 3: "to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education not later than 2015". The task is to accomplish this through improving the quality of life girls in Nigeria by a collaborative approach to deal with girls' education (UNICEF, 2007). The girls' education initiatives adopt an inter-sectoral strategy, incorporating intercessions in the areas of health, water and sanitation, and income-generation activities to support girls in school. The point is not just to accelerate advancement towards Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) 2 and 3, but also to affect the other six MDGs, particularly the health goals.

The Girls' Education Project (GEP) has its beginning in a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) signed in December 2004 between the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the United Kingdom Department for International Development (DFID). In the MoU, the two partners committed to jointly deliver GEP with DFID giving monetary help worth twenty five million United States Dollars (US$25M) over a three-year time frame and UNICEF undertaking to facilitate and oversee execution in association with the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN). This tripartite association for the GEP was to be operationalized inside the structure of an officially existing FME-UNICEF Strategy for Accelerating Girls' Education in Nigeria (SAGEN). In other to aid the nation's drives to accelerate increased opportunities for girls' education in particular and improve the status of basic education generally, different worldwide advancement accomplices (IDPs) have since committed both resources in the form of funds and technical assistance, along these

lines making what is alluded to as the SAGEN Plus. The 'in addition to' connotes the universal advancement accomplices' duty to the United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) inside which the African Girls' Education Initiative (AGEI) was situated for reasons for advancing girls' education. Every one of these activities had been created in in step with the 1990 International Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), the 1976 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), Education for All (EFA) objectives and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), especially the education targets 2 and 3 on accomplishing Universal Primary Education (UPE) and gender parity and empowerment of women respectively, as well as target 6 on combating HIV/AIDS and other endemic diseases by 2015.

The MoU (UNICEF, 2004) took cognisance of the fact that, in spite of the vivacious endeavours to quicken the achievement of EFA objectives, an expected 7 million of Nigeria's children of school age were out of school. Out of these, 4.3 million (62%) were girls (UNICEF, 2004). This reflected a NER of 74% for boys and 56% for girls and a gender gap of 18 per cent. In addition, Nigeria's maternal and child mortality rates ranked the highest in the world, a circumstance that raised fiscal concerns to the FGN. Based on the entrenched proof of the social and economic advantages accumulated through girls' education in reducing maternal and child mortality, improving sanitation and decreasing transferable diseases – including HIV/AIDS, the FGN, through the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) and State Ministries of Education (SMoE), made a legislative and delivery framework with the aim of addressing issues of girls' education in particular and the empowerment of Nigeria women, in general. As a result of these foundational activities, the Universal Basic Education (UBE) law to fast-track fundamental training and EFA mediations was enacted in 2004 and operated under the Commission for UBEC. Likewise, the National Economic Empowerment Strategy (NEEDS) and State Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (SEEDS) were additionally established with focus on issues of low school participation and gender disparities in education within the contexts of national development. Due to these issues, the following areas of focus were identified:

i.   Negative effect of nutritional deficiencies and poor health on physical and   intellectual advancement

ii.   Inadequate arrangements for early childcare and education

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iii.   High cost of education making a hindrance for children from poor families

iv.   Low access and poor quality of primary education

v.   Limited scope of grown-up and non-formal educational provisions

vi.   Gender and land geographical inequalities in educational access and quality

GEP attempted to help FGN activities that aim at accomplishing UBE as stipulated in the six EFA objectives and the MDGs with the point of accomplishing huge advancement in Nigeria towards all the EFA objectives and the MDG target 2 and 3 that seek, respectively, "to achieve UPE for both girls and boys and eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education and in all levels of education not later than 2015". A related objective is to accomplish advance towards different focuses of the MDGs, especially target 6 on health, which seeks "to combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases by halting and reversing the spread of HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases". The reason for this endeavour was to accomplish "improved quality of life of girls' in Nigeria through a collaborative, inter-sectoral approach to girls' education". In this specific circumstance, the GEP was intended for execution in six (6) states, to be specific, Niger, Sokoto, Katsina, Bauchi, Borno, and Jigawa, covering 720 Primary Schools in 36 LGAs of these six states (six LGAs per state). DfID was to give monetary help while UNICEF/FME, SMoEs/SUBEBs and LGEAs/CSOs at Federal, State, LGA and local communities were distinguished as joint implementers of the GEP. All through the project cycle, UNICEF has kept on surveying the GEP advancement towards accomplishing its expressed objective, reason and yields as characterized in its project design. The essential objective and reason have stayed steady while the outputs conceived amid the beginning stage have been amended and subsequently reduced from seven (7) to five (5) with the aim of making them more comprehensive, focused, manageable and realistic.

Primary goal: To improve quality of life of girls and women in Nigeria by ensuring increased access, retention and learning outcomes for girls in GEP states, thus enabling them to achieve their rights to quality education.

Purpose: To improve access to education, retention and quality participation in education system and enhance educational outcomes for girls and women in Nigeria.

GEP outputs: To achieve the stated primary goal and purpose, the GEP was designed to deliver these outputs:

1. Increased access to education
2. Improved learning outcomes
3. Increased and more effective participation of women
4. Effective governance
5. Enhanced knowledge management

The mission around which GEP was structured obviously resounds contemporary conviction that to meet the key advancement privileges of girls, education should, in the entirety of its structures, be portrayed by:

    i. Availability (opportunity inside physical reach by those requiring education).

    ii. Accessibility (non-prejudicial, physical accessibility and economic accessibility).

    iii. Acceptability (in structure and sustainability, including curricula and teaching methods, significance, culturally appropriate and of good quality), and

    iv. Adaptability (adaptable in manners that it can adjust to the needs of students, evolving society, and the community).

    i. The accompanying key undertaking exercises were executed as methods for accomplishing the project objective: Training and capacity building directed at improving quality of education and enhancing girls education at State, LGEA, community and school levels

    ii. Improving school infrastructure, including classrooms and furniture

    iii. Supplying school textbooks, exercise books, school bags, and recreational materials

    iv. Providing safe water   in the target schools and communities as well as separate toilets for girls and boys

    v. Improving nutrition in schools, including de-worming and control of locally endemic diseases

    vi. Promoting gender sensitivity through policy formulation and planning, as well as monitoring and evaluating progress at state and LGA levels

vii.   Strengthening data management systems at all levels including the community in order to plan cost-effectively, monitor accurately and enhance transparency and accountability of project activities

viii.   Supporting gender-sensitive policy formulation and implementation that addresses girls' education and deployment of female teachers

ix.   Empowering communities by establishing and training the school-based management committees (SBMCs) in school development planning and stimulating them through small grants

x.   Supporting non-formal education (NFE) centres, especially those that encourage women to enrol

xi.   Supplying income-generating materials/equipment to NFE centres to support women entrepreneurship

xii.   Advocacy and awareness raising to support girls education through government, religious leaders, traditional elders, as well as through public relations initiatives, that include media, village/street entertainment, and local meeting Other interventions undertaken include: (1) establishing child friendly school principles as minimum benchmarks for effective schools linked to community empowerment and development; (2) building institutional capacity for promoting girls' education and the capacity of stakeholders on gender sensitivity and sexuality; (3) collaborating with government and other stakeholders in reviewing existing curricula and teaching materials for gender sensitivity; (4) promoting the employment of more female teachers to serve as role models and to mentor out-of-school girls; and (5) monitoring and evaluating girls' education programmes and mobilising and strengthening inspectorate for effective service delivery. These are some of the interventions of the first two phases of GEP.   However, DFID Nigeria started a third phase - GEP3 - to accelerate progress. Learning from GEP2 also showed that getting girls into school is not sufficient. Specific action is needed to keep them in school and improve the quality of the education they receive. GEP3 was therefore meant to provide a package of interventions to improve access, retention, and quality to ensure that learning outcomes for girls are actually improved.

The third phase (GEP3) came with what it referred to as catalytic interventions which are meant to improve access, retention and quality learning outcomes for girls.

Others are: to break persisting barriers to girls' education, including conditional cash transfers, advocacy work with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers and female teacher scholarships, provision of support to School Based Management Committees, particularly to increase female representation, to improve community ability to hold teachers to account and ensure that issues specific to girls' attendance are raised and tackled. The project is expected to get 800, 000 extra girls into primary and 200, 000 extra girls into junior secondary. It is assumed that this implies each year of this 8-year project will get 100, 000 girls into primary and 25, 000 girls into junior secondary. So from the first year of the project 100, 000 extra girls enter primary and stay there for 6 years, while 25, 000 extra girls enter secondary and stay there for 3 years. This is repeated every year through the final (8th) year of the project (GEP 3 Annual Review, 2013). Two phases of the project has been supported since 2004. This support helped to get 423,000 girls into primary schools and 225, 000 girls' transit to Junior Secondary Schools. The project was initially implemented in six northern states of Nigeria (Borno, Jigawa, Bauchi, Katsina, Sokoto and Niger), with the worst disparities between boys' and girls' enrolment in primary school.

The target is that by the end of GEP3 in 2020, the project will have succeeded in getting and keeping one million additional girls in school. There will be an extra 800,000 girls in primary school and 200, 000 extra girls will be in Junior Secondary School. This will include girls in the formal and Islamic School systems. Other results expected by 2020 include:

10,000 head teachers trained in school effectiveness, efficiency and curriculum management;

10,500 more female teachers present in rural schools where currently the absence of female teachers deters girls' attendance;

72,000 families benefited from cash transfers, to encourage them to send their daughters to school rather than out to work;

5,000 Islamic Schools (approximately 575, 000 boys and girls) being taught a broaden curriculum including Mathematics, Science, English, Hausa and Life Skills.

GEP3 is centred on girls yet numerous young men will likewise profit by the upgrades to class foundation, educator quality and school administration. GEP2 learning recommends that an expected 750,000 young men will in this way profit by

GEP3's ventures. The absolute expense of the venture is evaluated as £107.3 million; it will cost around £107.30 per girl at first. This speaks to the expense of getting them into school, holding them there and expanding the nature of educating and learning (DFID, 2011).

2.3.10.1 Redesigned GEP3

After the second yearly survey of GEP3, DFID and UNICEF concurred that the project would enter a time of back off in usage. Amid this period, just exercises basic to the upgrade procedure and identified with women and girls proceeded with access to tutoring toward the start of the school year were executed while exercises not seen as been fundamental were put on hold to permit an exhaustive updating of the project. This was to empower UNICEF to focus and address configuration issues which had been distinguished by a few surveys and the GEP3 supervisory crew. Exercises which did not contribute altogether to the expected aftereffects of the task were ended, for example, nomadic education and intercessions in secondary school education. This was to improve instructive change for girls through focus on the foundation of education; primary education. The normal consequence of this stage was a redesigned GEP3 including an updated operational arrangement which incorporated a hypothesis of progress, consistent system, spending plan, Value for Money (VFM) technique, staffing structure, checking and assessment plan, usage methodology, and a concurred procedure paper for every intercession.

UNICEF embraced the updating of GEP3 which started in April 2014 with a free survey of GEP3's plan. A re-examined hypothesis of progress was created and the updated structure concentrated on less, progressively streamlined and strong intercessions on girls' education. In light of the new draft hypothesis of progress, UNICEF led a participatory procedure encouraged by an outer advisor with UNICEF staff, administrative and state governments and different partners in Abuja and in the five target states. Between 29 September and 3 October 2014, consultative workshops were held with state training partners in the five states of GEP3 to guarantee the project is lined up with state needs. In Zamfara, two one-day gatherings were held with state delegates from Katsina, Niger, Sokoto and Zamfara. Two states partook in one gathering. In Bauchi, another meeting was held with partners. All states concurred with the proposed needs for GEP3 pushing ahead and affirmed that they were in accordance with their state needs. The main thing with which they differ was

the choice taken not to concede new admissions into the GEP3 Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS); however they comprehended the issues around an incentive for cash. In light of the suggestions from the autonomous survey of GEP3 structure by UNICEF and DFID yearly audits, meetings with partners, and the recognizable proof of what intercessions worked, an overhauled operational arrangement for the Girls Education Project Phase 3 (GEP3) was drafted which introduced the new plan of GEP3, as another Theory of Change, sensible system, and seven procedure papers on undertaking mediations – better empowering the task to accomplish instructive change for girls.

GEP3 supports interventions in three output areas

Output 1: Increased enrolment and retention of girls in basic education;

Output 2: Improved teaching and learning support for girls in basic education

Output 3: Improved governance to strengthen girls' education.

The undertaking has different advantages; a portion of these advantages are:

Economic Benefits of the Project

The project's economic benefits most be comprehended regarding what advantages emerge from having one million additional girls in school. These advantages are both private (for example specific to the young lady accepting the instruction) and social (for example gathering to society everywhere) (DFID, 2011).

1. **Private Benefits of the Project**
    i. **Direct Private Market Return**: The most immediate and quantifiable profit by expanding girls' education is the expanded salary educated girls will procure after school. Abridging a wide scope of concentrates on outcomes of education, Psacharopoulos and Patrinos (2004) submitted that in sub-Saharan Africa the market outcomes to an additional time of education are 25.4% at essential dimension and 18.4% at auxiliary dimension. All around, girls' profits to essential instruction are lower than boys' (13%, 20%), however higher at optional dimension (18%, 14%).
    ii. **Indirect Private Returns**: Benefits which raise the welfare of women and girls past expanded pay include: pleasure in instruction in itself, more prominent profitability in exercises past formal business,

improved wellbeing through more prominent comprehension of medical problems, better utilization of money related resources (sparing and devouring all the more proficiently); work fulfilment past compensation; and numerous different models. Adapting these profits is troublesome. Psacharopoulos and Patrinos (2004) figure them to be 80% of the immediate market comes back to training.

2. **Social Advantages of the project (externalities):** There are likewise generous social advantages from women and girls' instruction, which are assessed to be more noteworthy than the externalities related with young men's training. At the point when these are considered the proof firmly bolsters the contention that general benefits of women and girls' instruction are more noteworthy than those for boys (Schultz, 2002).

    i. **Intergenerational**: Greater maternal training diminishes child mortality, improves child wellbeing and expands children learning outcomes (Schultz, 2002). A World Bank study assessed that each extra year of formal training completed by a mother results in up to an extra half year of instruction for her children (Filmer, 2000). Schultz (1993) suggests that an extra year of girls' education decreases the likelihood of child mortality by 5-10% (Schultz, 1993).

    ii. **Improved Wellbeing**: Benefits from greater health accrue not only to the educated individual but also to society as a whole, principally through reduced transmission of infections and reduced public health care costs for the sick. For example, female education decreases the probability of HIV infection (e.g. World Bank study found that Uganda females with secondary education are three times less likely to be HIV positive than those without education (De Walque, 2004). This in turn reduces the probability of other women becoming HIV positive. These positive health benefits should not be underestimated given the high economic and human costs of AIDS.

    iii. **Democratic Dividend**: Increased girls' education will in general reduce the fertility rate. On the off chance that a drop in the fertility rate pursues a period when death rates were low and fertility rates were still high, it will prompt the alleged "time of increased birth rates" age,

with a noteworthy abatement in the economy's reliance (proportion of monetarily latent to dynamic populace). This statistic move can give a noteworthy lift to financial development over the long haul (Bloom, 2002).

iv. **Monetary**: Increased livelihoods earned by an increasingly educated people prompts potential more prominent duty incomes for government. This impact is more grounded for girls than boys in light of the fact that their decision of whether to enter formal work or not is all the more emphatically controlled by their dimension of training (Shultz 2002).

v. **Political and Institutional**: Evidence suggests that more noteworthy instruction levels add to more prominent democratization, more grounded regard for human rights and more prominent political stability (Appiah and McMahon, 2002). Education likewise advances female political investment. For instance, instructed girls are multiple times bound to take an interest in political gatherings than girls with little training (Basu and King, 2001). This has a natural esteem, however may likewise have a financial advantage. As girls in basic leadership positions will in general put more in human capital than men (Duflo, 2000), expanded female political support may involve a development advantage given the indispensable significance of putting resources into human capital for development.

vi. **Conflict and Fragility**: Countries with low female labour force participation, high fertility rates and low extents of female politicians (which were all added to by poor female education) are bound to utilize military power to settle strives (Caprioli, 2000).

vii. **Condition and Environmental Change**: Arguments and proof are emerging that increased education can benefit the environment. Appiah and McMahon (2002) demonstrate that expanded education diminishes deforestation and water contamination by decreasing the fertility rate, populace weight and poverty.

2.3.11 Barriers to Achieving Retention and Access to Girl-child Education

Access to education is not a privilege that society grants to children; it is a duty society fulfils to all children (UNICEF, 2009). Although it is affirmatively stated in the world summit in Copenhagen in the year 1995 that, "we will guarantee full and equivalent access to instruction for women and girls and girls, perceiving that putting resources into girls' education is the key component in accomplishing social correspondence, higher profitability, and social returns as far as wellbeing, lower child mortality and the decreased requirement for high fertility" but the fact remains that there are so many barriers to girls having access to education and achieving retention (Mangvwat and Abama, 1999). Unfortunately, despite this commitment to girls' education, there seem to be constraints militating against girl's educational pursuit in Nigeria and northern region in particular (Ishaq and Ali, 2014). Several factors act in concert or separately to keep children out of school. These barriers can be grouped into economic barriers, socio-cultural barriers, and supply side barriers. The British council Nigeria (2014) stated that impediments to girls' education can be constructed as 'supply' and 'demand' barriers. The framework produced by UNICEF and UIS shows two categories of demand-side barriers: the socio-cultural practices and experience of children and the economic circumstances and priorities of households.

Supply Side Barriers

Supply side barriers allude to issues and imbalances within the education system and institutions, which push children away from school (British Council Nigeria, 2014). Different supply-side barriers are identified with quality schools, for example school structures, teaching and learning resources, trained teachers and management, suitable pedagogy and school safety:

i.   Continuing intense interest for training is not generally met with adequate quality or amount of schools.

ii.   Supply and quality of classrooms, for example water, toilets, books, pencils, pens, furniture and basis equipment are insufficient, inferior or non-existent.

iii.   Many children have no provision of basic education at all. This ranges from the absence of schools altogether, to those that are beyond a safe walking distance from homes, as well as the incompatibility of livelihood rhythms (for example harvesting time) with school timetables.

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i. The quality of teaching and learning needs major attention as learner-friendly pedagogies are rarely in evidence. The capacity of teachers and schools to deal with significant numbers of over-age children is limited. Skills development is sorely needed to train teachers to deal with children at different stages of cognitive and physical development in a multi-grade class. The low supply of qualified teachers remains a challenge. In addition to difficulties in attracting qualified people into teaching, teacher education is of variable quality. Professional development and local educational support for teachers are limited and levels of teacher attrition are high.

ii. The deployment of teachers, female teachers in particular, is especially limited in the more rural locations.

iii. Teacher attitudes, discipline and absenteeism are all significant problems: being in school is sometimes not a pleasant, positive or productive experience for children.

iv. Inadequate implementation of pre-primary articulation policy to public primary schools

v. Gender bias in content and teaching and learning processes

vi. Safety/security of the children

vii. Incessant and prolonged teachers' strike actions and low teacher Commitment

viii. Learner unfriendly school environment; (most pronounced is inadequate school infrastructure)

ix. Lack of provision for the education of special needs learners in basic education

iv. Weak or non-existent social protection of vulnerable children

Mangvwat and Abama (1999) identified a number of factors militating against girls' enrolment to include the following:

i. Child labour

ii. Economic hardship/financial constraint

iii. Early marriages for girls

iv. Historical and community factors

v. High opportunity cost

vi. Societal perception of female roles

vii. School distance

viii. Lack of community support

Another factor that has been identified is cultural bias (UNICEF 2005). This stated factor was enormous in the north. The organization pointed out that most guardians don't send their kids particularly women and girls to formal school yet want to send them to Qur'anic schools.

Garba (2003) found out that some other factors why girls are not sent to school are: at the home front, fear, ignorance and belief that education can make girls rebellious and difficult to handle and high rate of parent's illiteracy deny them economic growth making sponsorship of girls' education a less preference to that of boys in the Northern region. Garba (2003) further pointed out that enjoying the benefits of hawking, which is usually done by girls as a simple way of getting money to fund marriages and other domestic financial challenges constitute factors affecting girl-child educational opportunities in Nigeria. The study also identified lack of political will, political instability, lack of gender polity strategy, weak planning, poor implementation of the programme, inadequate monitoring and evaluation of the programme, cost implementation of the curriculum and opportunity cost of attending school by these girls and their families.

Demand Side Barriers

Demand side barriers relate to difficulties experienced by guardians and communities in sending their children to school, which work to pull away children from education (British Council Nigeria, 2014).

In general, the discoveries (OOSC, 2013) recommend numerous boundaries to the interest for training, which incorporate the accompanying:

i. Hidden (indirect) and opportunity costs, even in 'charge free' training, tutoring is unreasonably expensive for some poor families.

ii. Socio-cultural demand side barriers are hard to follow or sum up as they are developed from social practices inside explicit social settings. Conventional social chains of importance regularly present specific hindrances to the demand for girls' education.

iii. Corporal punishment and gender violence in schools diminish the demand for schooling, especially among girls.

iv. Social and cultural hierarchies militate against guardians requesting schools that are safe, well managed and with good quality teaching.

v.   Many vulnerable children are unable to access education. Despite differences across the region, they include: girls, children with handicaps, children affected by HIV, migrants, nomadic people and racial, ethnic and linguistic minorities.

Children from communities affected by natural disasters or conflict, such as internally displaced persons (IDPS) and refugees, continue to be denied sustained access to quality education. Obanya (2009, p. 49) presented a table that summarises the factors that limit the participation in education in the African setting. Table 2.1 shows the range of issues to be addressed in promoting gender equity in education.

Table 2.1:   Supply-Side and Demand- Side Obstacles to Girls' and Women's Education

DEMAND	SUPPLY
Socio-Economic Factors	**Political/Institutional Factors**
Poverty	Budget constraints
High Costs (fees, uniforms, transportation, levies)	Insufficient public support for the poor
High opportunity costs/low rates of returns	Political instability
Girls needed for household/agricultural/petty trading tasks	Inconsistency in educational policies
Residence in remote, sparsely populated areas	Poor quality of educational policies
Limited employment opportunities for school leavers	Ill-adaptation of educational systems to local learning needs
Lower employment opportunities and remuneration for women	Lack of clear strategies for women and girls' education
Cultural Factors	**Factors Linked to the School**
Parents' low level of education	Limited school/classroom space
Low priority for girls' education	High school fees
'Western' education perceived as incompatible with traditional/cultural beliefs and practices	Low proportion of female teachers
Early marriages and pregnancies	Teachers not sensitized on gender issues
Skeptical attitudes towards the benefits and outcomes from educating girls.	Gender stereotypes in curricula and textbooks
	School curricula and school organization in conflict with traditional culture
	Sexual harassment and insecurity
	School calendar not compatible with farming circle
	Lack of school canteens or school feeding facilities

Source: Obanya, 2009.

USAID (2008) suggested that, to close gender gaps in enrolment, retention and completion, governments and donor agencies must more effectively address the systemic barriers to girls' educational success as an essential strategy.

While, in the report of British Council Nigeria (2014), it was stated that in the context of Northern Nigeria, three dominant categories of supply and demand side barriers prevent or shorten girls' schooling: (i) educational barriers (ii) socio-economic barriers (iii) socio-cultural/traditional barriers.

i.   Educational Barriers

Educational barriers are the variables that add to the number of out of school children (OOSC) which have to do with what obtains in the educational institutions. For instance, the accessibility of schools can be a significant hindrance to girls' enrolment and retention in school. Unavailability of adequate infrastructures is another educational barrier that influences girls' enrolment and retention in school. For girls who go to school, many experience dull, ineffectively ventilated homerooms with grimy floors, broken seats and lacking work areas. Improper and unsuitable classes put girls at a specific drawback. Numerous schools do not have separate lavatories for boys and girls and lack of water and sanitation facilities. Evidence from intercessions, for example, Girls' Education Project recommended that women and girls participation rates can ascend by as much as 30% when water and sanitation issues are addressed (British Council, 2012). In addition, bullying, corporal punishment and discrimination in and around schools have serious negative impacts on girls' education.

ii.   Socio-economic Barriers

Socio-economic barriers are the factors contributing to the number of OOSC which have to do with financial needs of the children and their families. These necessities are established in the financial status of individuals. Despite the UBE policy for free basic education, evidence suggests that there are significant costs deterring parents and pushing children out of school. There are a wide range of formal and informal charges and levies at primary and junior secondary schools across Northern Nigeria. The sum and reason for duties varies by school. These incorporate cash or in-kind charges for registrations, examinations, supporting the PTA, supplementing teacher salaries, infrastructure rehabilitation, and sports or club

equipments (British Council Nigeria, 2014). This has far reaching implications on the demand for education of children in the family:

    i.   Poverty and economic issues

    ii.   Residence or Location

    iii.   Child Labour

    iv.   Pursuit for material riches by young people

    v.   Limited employment opportunities for school leavers

iii. Socio-cultural/Traditional Barriers

The socio-cultural barriers are components influencing the eagerness and capacity of families/family units, in view of their impression of the significance of education, to enrol their children in school, and sustain their support until the children successfully complete their education. Numerous different socio-cultural components impact the value that parents attach to their daughters' education. Some of these barriers include:

    i.   Gender norms and stereotypes

    ii.   Age; a child being too young to attend school

    iii.   Early marriage and teenage pregnancy

    iv.   Western education perceived as incompatible with Islamic Education

    v.   Large family size

    vi.   Son preference in access to education

    vii.   Lower status accorded to the girl-child in the family

    viii.   Peer pressure

    ix.   Children with exceptional needs including orphan and vulnerable children

    x   Physical abuse and abduction of girls'

    xi   Parents agitation about their daughters safety

    xii   Violence against girls and women

    xiii   Social exclusion

    xiv   Cultural and religious biases.

Bottlenecks

Political, administration and money related deficiencies are the key bottlenecks that obstruct sustained school access for all children. Politics is a basic factor in the supply of and interest for instruction in any nation. What the political pioneers of a nation see as key educational challenges determine main policy directions. Thus, government priority in the area of education is critical to what educational practitioners do. The capacity of government to actualize educational policies relies upon political will and the ability to mobilise resources and deploy them judiciously. In the Nigerian context these issues do influence school participation and thus the size of the OOSC phenomenon is affected, as observed in.:

   i.   Low level of political will;

   ii. Politicization of basic education;

   iii. Weak school level administration; and

   iv. Poor financing of education in Nigeria.

Table 2.2 was presented in the report of British Council Nigeria (2014). The obstructions within and beyond schools, to girls' participation in a full cycle of basic education in Northern Nigeria were identified by the report

Table 2.2: Barriers to girls' education in Northern Nigeria

Educational	Accessibility
	Infrastructure
	Safety and security
	Teaching and learning
Socio-economic	School fees and costs
	Poverty
	Child work
	Employment
Traditional/ Socio-cultural	Gender norms and stereotypes
	Early marriage
	Early pregnancy
	Religion

Source: British Council Nigeria, 2014

Table 2.2 was presented in the report of British Council Nigeria (2014). The obstructions inside and past schools, to women and girls' cooperation in a full cycle of essential training in Northern Nigeria were identified by the report

USAID (2008) suggested that, to close gender gaps in enrolment, retention and completion, governments and donor agencies must more effectively address the systemic barriers to girls' educational success as an essential strategy.

2.4   Empirical Review

2.4.1   Girls at Risk of Dropping out from Basic Education

Some children enrol in school but do not remain until graduation. In spite of the conspicuous advantages of education to national advancement, research findings indicate that girls' dropout rate from school was higher than that of boys. Obanya (2004) submitted that there is a higher dropout rate among girls as children progress through school, with the result that the gender gap widens considerably in the higher grades, getting really bad at the tertiary level. UNICEF report (2004) shows that girls' grade school finish rate was a long ways behind that of young men, at 76% contrasted with 85% for young men. This gender gap implied that millions more girls than boys are dropping out of school every year. As indicated by UNICEF (2010), girls have more limited access to education than boys, are less likely to complete their primary education and much less likely to complete their secondary education. Onyukwu (2011) stated that of the girls who are enrolled into primary schools in Nigeria, less than 45% of them make it to secondary school. This submission was supported by the report of British Council (2014) that girls have a high risk of dropping out of primary school and overall they are less likely than boys to make the transition to secondary education.

As indicated by the British Council, Nigeria report (2014) numerous girls fail to transit to junior secondary school for a range of educational, economic and socio-cultural reasons. An over-age enrolment in school, the beginning of pubescence or increased costs of secondary education may all put an early end to girls' education. UNICEF (2003) showed worrisome report from sub-Saharan Africa where the quantity of girls out of school ascended from 20 million in 1990 to 24 million in 2002. The report also indicated that 83% of all girls out of school on the planet live in sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, East Asia and the Pacific. Quality of education and poor performance can lead to dropout among girls. Antwi- Danso and Edet (2011) reported that teacher's hostile attitude towards girls and poor performances are some academic factors that contribute to girls' school dropout. Inadequate teaching staff both in quality and quantity and lack of infrastructure vital for quality education is among the factors leading to high level of school dropout in Bayelsa state (Balouga, 2009; Idumange, 2012).

According to Amadi, Role and Makewa (2013), other studies have revealed that poverty, which described family unit of low financial status, was the most

common reason for pupils, particularly girl, to be out of school. Children from better off households were more likely to remain in school while those who were poorer were more likely to drop out once they had enrolled. Household income was often correlated with when children started school and how often they attended, whether they temporarily withdrew and when and if they dropped out. For children from poorer background, the pressure on them to withdraw from school increased as they got older. In many instances, it was girls from poor households who were withdrawn earlier than boys.

A dropout is any student, who for one reason or the other leave school prematurely before graduation, without transferring to another school (Uche, 2013). Majority of the children who drop out of school in Nigeria happen to be girls and this is due to different reasons. According to FAWE (1996) similar information for Latin America, Asia and the Middle East show that both the gross primary and the secondary enrolment rations were significantly lower in sub-Saharan African region than in developing regions. It clarifies further that upwards of 36 million girls in sub-Saharan Africa are missing from school, and those who gain access to education are frequently ineffectively served. While a similar number of boys and girls enrol in first grade, by fourth grade, 50% of the female students have dropped out. In other words, enrolment decreases, the higher one ascends the educational hierarchy.

According to Okeke, Nzewi and Njoku (2008), girls end up out of school for various reasons which include: child labour, destitution, absence of sponsorship, quest for money, bereavement, truancy, broken home, engagement as house helps and single parenthood. Nkinyangi (1980) reported that girls tended to be victims of dropout as opposed to boys in families with low socio-economic status. For instance, in a situation where parents cannot pay fees for both boys and girls, the latter is obviously a sacrifice. Boys are allowed to proceed while girls dropout. Badan (1997) showed that there was noteworthy connection between poverty, involvement of girl's in house work or farming, religious education of girls, early marriages for girls, absence of children's enthusiasm, with drop out of girls at the primary school level. Girls' education is additionally influenced by their having to contribute to household chores. They are sometimes taken away from school to help in the home, nurse babies, clean the house and fetch firewood and water, cook food and milk cows (Juma, 1994). UNICEF report (2003) validated the finding that girls are regularly the

first to be removed from school to provide care for sick family members or to take responsibility for siblings when death or illness strikes.

The results of the study of Okpukpara and Chukwuone (2011) reiterated that the likelihood of dropping out among girls is 23% contrasted with 12% for boys, in urban areas and that dropout for girls is more noticeable in rural areas than for boys with 16% rate for girls and 5% for boys. Alabi, Bahah and Alabi (2014) corroborated this submission by stating that in rural areas, social and cultural patterns combined with relatively poor quality of schooling place girls, their education and development in a disadvantaged and vulnerable position. Girls bear the heaviest burden for household responsibilities, including care of sick parents and siblings, and are the first ones to drop out of school. Moreover, where households encounter limited access to portable water, fuel and electricity and strict norms about women's domestic roles, girls conduct these domestic tasks, which affect their attendance and ability to concentrate in school and complete homework, thus resulting in underachievement and eventual dropout (OOSCI study, Ghana, 2012). Juma (1994) additionally distinguished social practices, for example, itinerant pastoralism as a factor which impacts girls' yearnings in school. In this practice, families move far from settlement areas where schools are situated looking for water and field for their livestocks. At the point when this development happens parents are compelled to withdraw their children from schools. Noor (2003) discovered that girls are more influenced than boys since girls cannot be entrusted with anyone and have to accompany their parents wherever they go. Also, in the face of hardship, it is almost certain for girls to drop out of school than for boys (Okpukpara and Chukwone, 2011). According to Hallman and Grant (2006), early school leaving and adolescent pregnancy are unequivocally connected with low economic status.

As indicated by UNICEF (2001), poverty keeps numerous families from selecting a few or the majority of their children in school or forces them to withdraw the children prematurely because of the cost of education. In addition, when it turns into a matter of decision, the girl-child is the one not enrolled or withdrawn to make way for the boy-child. This is because in Africa as a whole greater priority is given to the male child as a future bread winner and head of the family in the society. Obanya (2010) reiterated that poverty and poor economics militate against girls schooling because even though education is purportedly free, there are always hidden, indirect, illegal costs. Omoniyi and Oloruntegbe (2014) also identified poverty as one of the

problems affecting the girl-child education generally. Alika and Egbochukwu (2010) also reported that the socio-economic status of girls has significant impact on their ability to complete school. However, Kukreti and Sexena (2007) identified desire for money, peer influence and parental irresponsibility as factors of dropout syndrome among girls. The study by Inokoba and Maliki (2011) also corroborated this submission by listing quest for money and ignorance at the root of school dropout and other vices.

Teenage pregnancy is also a major contributor to the scourge of school dropout. According to Antiwi-Danso and Edet (2011), majority of girls admitted dropping out of school as a result of pregnancy and some became pregnant in primary six. There was a high correlation between pregnancy and school drop out of girls in the study of Maliki (2011). Hallman and Grant (2006) submitted that early school leaving and adolescent pregnancy are strongly associated with low economic status. Uche (2013) also discovered that factors contributing to dropout among secondary school girls are poverty, teenage pregnancy, peer influence, quest for money, abandonment by parents (father), absence of enthusiasm for school, poor academic performance, demise of parents, ill health and difficult terrain. The result of the study showed identified poverty as the main reason behind girls dropping out of secondary school; 89% of the respondents identified poverty as the major factor. Poverty indeed breeds ignorance and illiteracy which make such individuals vulnerable to sexual predators and peer pressure, to seek crumps from men, hence teenage pregnancy and dropout. In the study of Maliki (2011), 76% of the respondents indicated that low socio-economic status contributed immensely to teenage girls dropping out of school, mostly as a result of pregnancy. Uche (2013) concluded that since poverty has been shown to be the root of their drop out from schools, if schools are truly free, qualitative and engaging, these girls would be motivated to rise above other challenges and move towards actualization and development of their full potentials.

Lloyd and Mensch (2009), however, revealed that as opposed to pregnancy making girls drop out, lack of socio-economic opportunities for girls and the demands placed on them, combined with the gender inequalities of the education system, may result in unsatisfactory school experiences, poor academic performance and endorsement of early motherhood. Ishaq and Ali (2014) submitted that female enrolment into school was generally low at primary level and was most noticeably terrible at secondary and tertiary levels. The higher the level of schooling girls go; the

narrower their chance of schooling (Ishaq and Ali, 2014). Obanya (2004) looked at the issues from two angles: access issues and beyond access issues. Access in this context, would allude to:

i. Getting enrolled in school- fewer girls than boys actually enrol.

ii. Regular attendance in school- a larger proportion of girls are likely to absent themselves from school, especially in rural areas.

iii. Steady progress through all stages of schooling- girls also run a greater risk of not completing primary schooling, i.e. dropping out before the sixth year.

iv. Completion of the prescribed number of years of schooling- girls also run a greater risk of not completing primary schooling, i.e. dropping out before the sixth year.

v. Successful learning achievement- in the present circumstances, girls (especially in rural areas and girls from poor socio-economic backgrounds) tend not to achieve any meaningful learning, even when they have managed to stay on in school.

Obanya (2004) further stated that the term "beyond access" is a way of affirming that the poor score of girls on access issues is not biologically determined. The following environmental factors determine it:

i. Household and families – high incidence of poverty, societal inclination for the male-child, overburdening of the girl-child with household chores and labour, worry for the security of the girl-child on account of long distances between home and school.

ii. Cultural beliefs and practices-early marriages is an example

iii. The school and its condition often not gender-friendly (that is, not conducive to the needs of girls), poor gender awareness on the part of teachers.

iv. The educational programs, instructional materials and teaching-learning activities- often reflecting the high level of gender insensitivity in the wider society.

v. The low status of girls in the wider society - the environment not providing appropriate role models of the successful, educated woman. Obanya (2004) concluded that the gender gap between male and female that has its roots in primary schools become even more manifest in secondary education as:

i. A smaller proportion of girls are able to transit from primary to secondary school.

ii. Female drop-outs become much more as a result of such adolescent girls' environmental hazards as early marriages, unwanted pregnancies, gender insensitive educational environments, curricular and teaching methods as well as lack of encouragement from the wider society come more strongly to the fore.

iii. Curricular exclusion practices which tend to draw girls away from mathematics, science and technology become more intense.

2.4.2 Gender-Responsive Budgeting and the Girl-child Economic Access to Basic Education

A budget is a statement of government's revenues and expenditures for the year or generally portrayed as a budgetary arrangement typifying a gauge of proposed uses for a given period and the proposed methods for financing them (Aina and Olayode, 2009). Accordingly, spending plans at a national or local level are a way to accomplishing expressed government objectives. These targets are typically expressed in government approaches and in this manner spending plan turns into the methods by which government arrangements are executed. The national budget process in Nigeria tends to be 'gender blind' and/or acclaimed to be gender neutral, that is, not giving specific thoughts to the impacts of government budgets on men, women, boys and girls as separate social categories with distinctive gender roles and gender needs. In many cases, gender issues (especially issues dealing with the needs and roles of women and girls in society) are neglected and under-funded (Aina and Olayode, 2009). To redress this situation especially as regards the problem of gender disparity in education, there is need for Nigeria to engage in gender-responsive budgeting. There is need to engender our budgets, that is; incorporate gender perspective into the budget process so as to make budgets more gender responsive and/or ensuring that budgeting process captures the needs and interests of all and sundry – men, women, boys, girls, the poor and other vulnerable groups. On the off chance that spending limits neglect to react to the necessities and requests of poor people, women and girls and girls, assets won't be enough coordinated for the accomplishment of uniformity and sexual orientation explicit projects, just as advancing open doors for women and girls and girls in the economy.

The manner in which education is funded might be viewed as gender-neutral; however it might affect boys and girls. It is gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) that

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will uncover this. Gender-responsive budgeting means that the gender equality effects of budget policy are to be evaluated and that a gender equality perspective is to be integrated at all levels of the budgetary process. It also means a redistribution of revenue and expenditure to promote gender equality. This includes, for example, the use of sex disaggregated statistics, thorough analyses from a gender equality perspective and reforms and other measures that lead to increased gender equality and which make a tangible difference in people's daily lives in the short or long term (Government of Sweden, 2015). The idea behind GRB is that budgets are non-neutral policy instruments. In contrast to how they are generally perceived, budgets may have different impacts on women and men, boys and girls, the poor and the rich. As regards education, GRB is one of the tools used by policy-makers to tackle the gender gap that exists between boys and girls (European Parliamentary Research Service, 2015). There can be assortment of answers for the difficulties and issues confronting society. GRB makes gender equality a functioning part in tackling issues, so we can pick the strategy that adds to equity among women and men, girls and boys (Government of Sweden, 2015). This view is supported by Elson (2003) that policy-makers have a number of tools to tackle inequality of access to rights and resource between men and women, including gender mainstreaming. Okwuanaso and Erhijakpor (2012) also opined that although gender inequality can be addressed using various frame-works, gender budgeting have been recognized in recent times by researchers and policy makers as an alternative tool kit.

Gender-responsive budgeting is one tool for implementing gender mainstreaming when distributing financial resources. GRB brings together two issues that are not commonly associated with one another: gender equality and public financial management. GRB argues that gender equality principles should be incorporated into all stages of the budget process. GRB initiatives seek to improve the results of budgets in general, and gender equality and women's empowerment in particular. They focus on key economic and social matters that are often overlooked or obscured in conventional budget and policy analysis and decision making (Bosnic, 2015). The aim of GRB is to promote equality between men and women (European Parliamentary Research Service, 2015). According to Atthill and Jha (2009) in funding education, some countries use a GRB approach. This aims to promote gender equality in education through decisions on educational funding. It covers such activities as:

i. Analysing how far current expenditure meets different priorities of boys and girls and how far they benefit.

ii. Evaluating the policies underlying budget allocations to identify their likely impact- will they reduce, increase or leave unchanged gender inequalities?

iii. Breaking down expenditure into gender-relevant categories

The South Australian GRB framework, distinguishes between three categories of expenditure as follows:

Gender-targeted expenditure: These are expenditures directed specifically at improving gender equality. In terms of education, examples would be special scholarships for girls, school stipends paid for girls, quotas or affirmative actions.

Staff-related employment-equality expenditures: These are expenditures that promote employment equity among public servants. In education, they might include expenditures on training for women teachers to help them to progress further in their careers. An analysis of levels of pay of men and women teachers, e.g., differences between primary and secondary and different subjects such as science and maths, might reveal unforeseen gender impacts.

General mainstream expenditures analysed for their gender impact, e.g., expenditure on post-compulsory education, sectors that commonly have a high proportion of male students and the provision of early childhood education, because it particularly benefits women and older girls by reducing their burden of child care. General increases in educational spending, particularly when targeted at primary or secondary rather than tertiary education, will usually favour girls (Oxfam, 2007).

According to Bosnic (2015) while a number of different approaches can be used when working on GRB initiatives, the main steps include:

i. Analysis of whether budget programmes are gender responsive (GRB analysis). Such analysis can provide significant feedback to government and non-government actors on whether programme is meeting the needs of different groups of women and men and different social groups. GRB analysis is an important public financial management tool that helps determine how and to what extent state policy affects different groups of men and women, as service users and taxpayers. GRB analysis does not examine the situation of men and women: it also uses other social categories, such as age, socio-economic background, location, educational level and others, if relevant data

is available. It therefore provides important insights to inform decisions on financial issues and the effective use of public resources.

ii. Making changes to programmes and budgets, based on the results of GRB analysis, to make them more gender responsive.

Integrating GRB systematically into planning and budgeting processes-examples include introducing gender-related strategic objectives into policies and budgets, establishing requirements for gender analysis of budget programmes, including gender equality. This step involves institutionalising GRB to ensure that the different needs of social groups, men and women, boys and girls are consciously taken into account in budget process.

2.4.3 Gender Responsive School and Quality Learning Outcomes of the Girl-child

The gender inequalities pervading society are carried into the school environment (FAWE, 2005). Thus, this may affect the provision and content of education. This assertion was supported by Aja-Okorie (2013) that inequality in society inevitably has an impact on the provision and content of education. According to Global Campaign for Education (2012), school is but one gendered institution among many and the attitudes and practices that girls encounter therein often serve to reproduce, rather than undo, those in society at large. This is evidenced in school processes such as teaching, teacher-student interaction, school management, and the plan and design of the physical infrastructure. Teaching and learning materials, for example, may contain gender stereotypes. Teachers may not be aware of the gender specific needs of both girls and boys. School management systems may not sufficiently address gender constraints such as sexual harassment and many schools do not have adequate or separate toilets for girls and boys. As a result, the schools do not provide a gender responsive environment for effective teaching and learning to take place. All these may affect the girl-child's learning outcomes. This assertion was supported by Obanya's (2004) submission with what he referred to as systematic and systemic gender bias, which means that prevailing educational and school practices (the physical facilities, teaching-learning materials and methods, curriculum offerings, etc.) tend to discriminate against girls. According to Plan (2013), some key factors which can form considerable barriers to girls' learning are; lack of female teachers, teachers attitudes, curricula and assessment and traditional teaching methods.

A gender responsive school is one in which the academic, social and physical environment and its surrounding community take into account the specific needs of both girls and boys (FAWE, 2005). In addition to this, in a gender responsive school the academic delivery, including teaching methodologies, teaching and learning materials, classroom interaction and management of academic processes, is gender responsive. UNESCO (2014) suggested that teachers must be supported by appropriate curriculum systems that recognise gender issues and learning needs of girls. Marginalised groups, including girls and nomadic children, may be disenfranchised by curriculum that fails to promote inclusion or reinforce negative stereotypes. If women are not represented in the curriculum or are only presented in subservient or discriminatory roles, this can perpetuate negative attitudes and behaviour in the classrooms, schools and the wider community. According to the British Council, Nigeria report (2014) while high cost, poor quality schooling can push girls out of school, gender norms that define girls primarily by their functions as wives and mothers, combined with post-puberty fears of early pregnancy, may simultaneously pull girls into an early marriage. According to FAWE (2005), the students, both girls and boys, are empowered to practice gender equality and to protect the democratic and human rights of both genders. The concept extends right to the physical environment in the school- including buildings, furniture and equipment that are also gender friendly.

Making a school gender responsive may have positive effect on the learning outcomes of the girl-child. This implies equity in process (conditions), which was described by Inyang (2000) as education that is fair and just but does not necessarily treat everyone the same. It emphasizes the promulgation of policies and programmes that would adequately check the disadvantages and deprivations which children bring along to school. This may eventually lead to equity in outcome which implies that all students are provided with educational experience that ensures the achievement of uniform goals (Inyang, 2000). The adoption of various interventions that make a school gender responsive may not only lead to equity in outcome but could as well lead to gender equity in education. Gender equity refers to the extent to which women and girls have the opportunity to enter into an educational system and to remain in it (Obanya, 2009). It is only the delivery of quality education that can lead to quality learning outcomes. Quality education has been defined as an education which is relevant and one that uses democratic processes to empower students (Plan 2012a).

2.4.4   Girl-child Access to, Retention and Completion of Basic Education

The most important issue in any country is the number of girls that have access to education and quality of education they receive as measured by levels of retention and performance (Jekayinfa, 2006). Despite several efforts to increase enrolment and reduce gender gap, significant increase in access to education still shows decline in the overall proportion of girls' enrolled at different levels of education system. According to Obanya (2004), in the formal school system fewer girls get enrolled in school. The gender gap has narrowed across the continent of Africa. Some countries including Nigeria, Zambia, Uganda, Tanzania and many others, though have made significant progress in reducing gender gap, still have low enrolment for girls at all levels of education. Overall, in sub-Sahara Africa, more than two-thirds of eligible children are out of school, a majority of who are girls (FAWE, 2001).

Globally, girls represent the majority of children out of school and face some of the biggest challenges in getting an education (Nkosha, Luchembe and Chakufyali, 2013). It is believed in Africa and of course in some parts of Nigeria that most parents give preferential treatment to boys especially in matters concerning education. This is corroborated by Obanya (2004) that most families would readily 'offer' the boy-child for schooling, not the girl-child ('family barriers to girls' education'). It is really sad that up till now in some societies, girls are still made to live in their shadows, denied education and other rights, and socially exploited so much that their rights to attain womanhood before going into child bearing are being aborted and abused. In situations, where they are allowed to attend school, a good number of them are later withdrawn for one reason or another before completing school. This invariably affects their enrolment and completion (Saleh and Kwache, 2012). British Council (2014) report states that girls are less likely to attend primary school than boys on average.

In Nigeria, in every income bracket, there are more female children than male children who are not attending school (Aja-Okorie, 2013). Generally, girls in the poorest 20% of household have the lowest chance of getting an education (Jensen, 2010). Furthermore, the gender disparity is exacerbated by the powerful economic and social rationale for investing in the education of sons rather than daughters, as daughters are perceived to be less valuable once educated, and less likely to abide by

the will of the father, brother or husband. The plight of girls is compounded by this negative attitude of parents toward girl-child education (Oniye, 2010).

Access to qualitative and functional educational opportunity for girls is perhaps the most effective means to combat poverty, reduce misunderstanding, political and religious intolerance as well as lack of respect for others which had been the major causes of revolts and intermittent civil wars in the West Africa sub-region (Jekayinfa, 2006). The inception of the universal basic education (UBE) since 2004, with the main goal of education for all by the year 2015, is in recognition of the country's need to educate as well as develop its citizenry and the Nigerian nation. However, for a long time now, it has been noted that the education sector has not been able to retain many of them in school for many years. Gender inequality in education is extreme. Girls are less likely to access school, to remain in school or to achieve in education. Despite almost 30 years of the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), and 20 years of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), today girls make up 56% of the 77 million children not in school and women make up two thirds of the adults who are illiterates. Even girls who do enrol in school may have irregular attendance due to other demands on them and the fact that their education may not be prioritized. Girls are more likely to repeat classes, to drop out early and to fail key subjects and in most countries, girls are less likely to complete the transition to secondary schooling (Aja-Okorie, 2013).

Some factors responsible for imbalances in girls' access to education are: wage discrimination, quality of education offered to girls, type of school, religion and ethnicity (Mwansa, 2004). According to Ram (1982) studies in West Africa indicated that parents, unless wealthy, preferred to educate their sons on the assumption that education "pays off" in life time wages more handsomely for males than for females. The Forum for African Women Educationalists in Zambia observed that the girl-child is discriminated against from the earliest stages of life, through childhood into adulthood. In terms of education, they include unequal access, poor performance, early drop-out and low enrolment in higher education (FAWE, 1996). Offorma (2009) corroborated this observation and stated that there are some challenges in terms of access, equity, achievement in school subjects and retention/dropout, especially among girls. Aja-Okorie (2013) observed that men still dominate women in every country in the world, Nigeria inclusive; resulting in widespread discrimination against women and girls. The impact of unequal power relations and discrimination is often

felt most severely when material poverty exists, as this increases vulnerability. Inequality in the Nigerian society inevitably has an impact on the provision and the content of education, as well as on the ability of girls to enter and remain in school.

The roadmap for the Nigerian education sector was flagged off in 2009, the targets include, among others, access and equity, standards and quality assurance (Obanya, 2010).These were steps in the right direction as gains were made in form of marginal increase in enrolment (Uche, 2013). Researches on access to school and progression to upper classes around most African countries consistently confirm that girls considerably outnumbered boys in Early childhood Education and lower primary with reverse being noticed in transition to upper primary and secondary school levels where boys overtake the girls (Mwaniki and Orodho, 2014; Orodho, 2014). This is due to the fact that girls at this level are reaching the puberty stage and so are withdrawn from school to get married. This definitely affects access and retention. According to British Nigeria (2014) parents' fear of pregnancy outside of marriage intensifies when girls reach puberty, sometimes inducing early marriage. Thus, marriage is seen as a protective mechanism, shielding girls' honour from potential shame of an early, unwanted pregnancy. This view is supported by the report from the study of Ombongi (2008), in which he found out that early marriages influenced participation in education. Girls in standard 4 or between 12 and 14 years were withdrawn from school to be married off to wealthy man in the community in exchange for dowry. The study goes on to say that girls who remained in school were under constant pressure from their peers and community members including their own parents to drop out of school. In northern Nigeria, girls are married much younger than in other parts of the country, often shortly after puberty. According to the Population Council of Nigeria, 67.4% of girls are married by the age of 15 in the north, compared to 10.8% in the south (Guardian, 2014). Research studies have focused on the causes of female underrepresentation not only in access and performance in education but also in wage employment (Njeru and Orodho, 2003).

Alika and Egbochukwu (2010) observed that the Nigerian girl-child has not had a fair chance to qualitative education as a result of socio- economic, school related and other societal factors. Studies on access and retention in primary and lower secondary education in Ghana show that although the FCUBE made an overall enrolments increase, children from poor households continue to be underrepresented in enrolments (Rolleston, 2009). Rolleston (2009) made it explicit that not only

indirect costs hinder access of the poor but also opportunity costs substantially affect the chances of the poor children to enrol in and complete basic education. A study of access patterns in Malawi also concludes that access to education in the country continues to reflect household wealth (Chimombo, 2009). Thus, despite direct fees being abolished, these studies clarify that the abolition of fees has not been enough to ensure access to education for the poor. Okeke, Nzewi and Njoku (2008) and Alabi and Alabi (2012) identified child labour, poverty and lack of sponsorship, quest for wealth, bereavement, truancy, broken home, engagement of children as house helps, as factors or the clog in the wheel of children's access to education.

According to World Bank (2003), more than 350 million people, over half of Africa's population, live below the poverty line of one dollar a day. This implies that poverty, too, excludes children, including the girl-child from school. Offorma (2009) asserted that most of the factors that militate against the girl-child access to education are socio-cultural. Nadia (2010) also identified cultural and social barriers for girls to access education in Pakistan; high illiteracy among parents who do not realize the importance of education for girls, poverty leads parents to prefer boys for schooling than girls, women have low status in some tribal societies. They are regarded as less intelligent; responsible for house work and serving the men-folk of the family. Early marriage is very common, therefore, girls are prepared for housekeeping rather than for school education. These barriers are deeply rooted in centuries-old-customs.

Furthermore, in the World Bank (2003) report, it was stated that most countries in Africa were ranked among the poorest in the world and thus faced with: poverty, disease, and HIV/AIDS epidemics, overcrowding in cities, tribal warfare, and despotic governments have contributed to the degeneration of the beautiful African land into a human rights catastrophe. At the centre of the devastating situation is the girl-child. The girl-children appear to be the most vulnerable and most undervalued members of the world society (Offorma, 2009). The report of UNICEF (2004) indicated that about 7.3 million children do not go to school, of which 62% are girls. Sometimes even when the educational possibilities are present the girl-child may not be able to access them. In Kenya for example, girl-child education is elusive. Mwangi (2004) submitted that a combination of poverty, disease and backward cultural practices continued to deny the girl-child her right to education. Even with the introduction of free primary education, access to education is still remaining a wide dream to many Kenyan children. Despite the introduction of free primary education

in the country which accounted for an increase in enrolment, a sizeable number of children, especially girls, still find themselves out of school due to a number of reasons. These reasons include: demands for their labour in the homes such as assisting in looking after their young siblings, child marriage, doing house chores, death of their mother and looking after the sick member of the family (Aderinto, 2000, Togunde and Carter, 2008).

It is true that many governments make provision for the education of their citizens, but the provisions most of the time do not take cognizance of the peculiarities of the girl-child. In that case the girl-child may not have access to education, which is a fundamental human right. Nigeria is among 15 countries in sub-Saharan Africa reported to have more than one million girls out of school, this only point to the fact that there is no equity of access. According to Inyang (2000) equity of access or equitable access refers to equal opportunity that an individual has to enter school and an opportunity to learn regardless of sex, race, ethnic or social class origin. Developing countries that fail to ensure equitable access to basic education pay a high price for doing so (USAID, 2005). Equity in access has to do with creating access to education. This can be achieved through increase in girls' education.

As suggested by UNICEF (2010), in order to increase girls' participation in education, it is vital to gain an insight into why they never attend school or drop out before completing their basic education. In the study, a small scale survey of 80 Iraqi girls was carried out. According to the researchers while the sample may not be a large or statistically valid sample, the girls' responses provided a clear insight into many of the reasons why girls do not go to school. As would be expected, parents, particularly fathers, play a major role in whether the girls can attend school or not. The girls refer to a range of reasons why families do not support girls attending school. These include concerns about safety, family poverty, a reluctance to allow adolescent girls to continue to attend school, the distance from home to school, and the need to help at home. The journey to and from school presents problems caused by fast traffic, dogs or boys. Girls are frequently de-motivated by the behaviour of teachers who beat them, distress them and are unwilling to explain subject matter that a student does not understand. Their answers make frequent references to being beaten or insulted by teachers and to teachers being unwilling to give explanations in lessons or support students in their learning. The girls describe their schools as being unwelcoming and unpleasant with too few facilities and resources. Schools are

described as dirty, poorly maintained and uncomfortable, with dirty lavatories and no drinking water available. Safety is an issue, particularly in areas of major instability and insecurity. The concerns about safety relate to both military conflict and civil crime such as abduction and rape. Being female exacerbates an already difficult situation. In most developing countries girls are less likely than boys to enrol in school, stay in school or have their educational needs met through non-formal means. The best development instrument is not being fully utilized (USAID, 2008). In order to access educational provision for the girl-child, the 4A Framework may be utilized. The 4A framework is shown below:

Availability: Is education generally available?

Accessibility: Are there geographic or economic obstacles to accessing education?

Acceptability: What is the content of education?

Adaptability: To what extent is education adapted to the needs of different categories of people?

The *availability* aspect of the right to education is based on the premise that human, material and budgetary resources should be sufficient and adequate to ensure Education for All. It requires the existence of staffed and equipped schools- pre-primary, primary and post-primary and is premised on the notion that there should be freedom of choice regarding schooling with standards that meet the minimum set by the state.

Accessibility is based on the premise that education systems should not discriminate on any grounds and that proactive measures should be taken to overcome both physical and economic barriers to accessing school.

The *acceptability* dimension of the right to education focuses on ensuring that the content of education focuses on ensuring that the content of education and teaching methods are relevant, culturally appropriate, of good quality and uphold the human rights of all those involved.

The *adaptability* aspect of the right to education applies to the ability of the education system to respond to the needs and abilities of the students, adapt to different contexts and meet the best interest of the child.

2.4.5   Female Teachers, the Girl-child's Enrolment and Retention.

The recruitment of female teachers is an issue that has become increasingly important to Ministries of Education, NGOs and other agencies supporting educational development. This is particularly so because of the impact female teachers can have on girls' enrolment (Kirk, 2006). The need for increasing girls' enrolment is an important reason for giving greater policy and programming attention to female teachers. According to UNESCO (2014), countries with a wide gender disparity in enrolment often lack female teachers. The proportion of female teachers in Nigeria has stayed the same at primary level since 1999, though it has increased at secondary level by 10%. Therefore, there may be the need to increase the number of female teachers and they can also serve as role models to the female pupils.

Discussions during a 2012 e-forum on gender equality in education hosted by the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and which involved academics, educators, researchers and development practitioners from around the world, provided anecdotal evidence that the presence of female teachers in a school helps to create a more 'girl-friendly' and supportive learning environment in which girls' needs and perspectives are more likely to be addressed and given value. Some participants in the discussion highlighted the symbolic importance of a school in which the gender balance of the staff reflected the gender balance of the student population and provided an environment in which girls felt as much a part as boys (IIEP, 2012).

From gender equality perspective, empowering women as teachers is critical to ensuring that the experience of being a teacher is a positive one for them, and that their work has a sustained impact on gender relations in the community and in the society, at large. There is evidence to show a correlation between the number of female teachers and enrolment, especially in sub- Saharan Africa. In countries where there are more or less equal numbers of male and female primary teachers, there is close to gender parity in student intake. In contrast, countries where women constitute only 20% of teachers, there are far more boys than girls entering school (UNESCO, 2003, p. 60). However, the relationship between female teachers and girls' enrolment is more than a simple cause and effect, as there are many factors that prevent girls from attending school some of which also impact on the number of female teachers. Increasing the number of female teachers has to be accompanied by a number of strategies to promote girls' education, such as ensuring that the timing of the school

day fits with girls' domestic workloads, and ensuring a high quality education in a safe and secure environment. According to Kirk (2006) there are different reasons for the generally positive relationships between girls' enrolment and women teachers.

The presence of women in schools can also impact positively on girls' retention in school and on their achievement. Studies have shown a positive impact from female teachers on girls' achievement. According to Oxfam (1999) one of the most significant determinants of education quality for girls is the presence of a female teacher. A female role model can support and encourage girls to successfully complete their studies and maybe even continue studying to become teachers, themselves. She can also be there to listen to any problem and provide guidance when necessary. In schools where girls are in the minority, especially, the presence of one or more female teachers may also ensure protection for girls from unwanted attention from boys or male teachers, and even from sexual abuse and exploitation. At the school policy level, female teachers may act as advocates for girls, representing their perspectives and needs, and promoting more girl-friendly learning. For example, female teachers may be able to advocate for better toilet and washing facilities. These are of particular importance to adolescent girls who are menstruating, and those whose active participation in school during their monthly periods may depend on access to clean toilets separate from those used by boys and a water supply. Female teachers provide new and different role models for girls especially those in rural and conservative communities. They point to possibilities for women to be active outside the home and to be agents in community development. They play key roles in educating and socializing children beyond gender stereotypes and so are crucial agents of change.

However, even with these positive relationships between girls' enrolment and female teachers, there are low numbers of female teachers in schools. There are various different reasons to explain this; there may simply be no educated women to become teachers and there are other barriers and discouragements. If there are few girls attending school and completing their education, then there will be few young women adequately qualified to become teachers. This is especially the case in rural communities and amongst indigenous and minority populations. Where pools of women with appropriate qualifications to become teachers do exist, there are other barriers and discouragements.

These include the belief that it is men who should teach and run schools, as well as women's family and household workloads/commitments, more lucrative employment and other income-generating possibilities elsewhere, and inaccessible (often residential) training programmes. Husbands and family members may also not feel comfortable with women teaching in schools that are dominated by men. If women are recruited and assigned to positions in rural areas, they often face multiple obstacles when working away from their home, family and/or husband. Travelling long distances alone is often not culturally acceptable and unsafe for women and travel by public transport is both difficult and costly. Women may be teased and harassed by men *en route* or in the villages where they teach (Warwick and Reimer, 1995).

Mirembe and Davies (2001) submitted that, whilst recognizing the positive roles that women can play, research from Uganda states that we cannot make assumptions that women are necessarily always supportive of girls in schools or will make the school environment more girl-friendly. Female teachers are not necessarily very aware of gender equality concepts and are often subject to the same gender assumptions, discrimination and even sexual harassment and abuse that girl's face in schools. This may make it difficult for them to acknowledge and act on gender inequalities affecting female students and other female teachers. Female teachers may have their own personal concerns and priorities, and so may not have the time or inclination to provide any additional time or energy to give to female students. Another important issue is that women are marginalized to low status positions within schools, usually teaching the lower grade classes and subjects considered 'soft'. This means that men still dominate higher status positions, teaching the lower grade classes and subjects with a higher prestige, such as mathematics and science. These low status positions mean that female teachers' voices may be either excluded from policy and decision-making processes, or they may not be taken seriously. It may be impossible for women to influence school policy and, therefore, meet the expectations that they can make a positive difference for girls. This is especially so where there are only one or two women on a large male staff. The role model potential of female teachers is compromised if they are seen by girls as always subordinate to men and are only assigned to low status roles within the school. Moreover, the assignment of women to roles that are seen to relate to their nurturing and caring abilities and their natural affinities for young children, rather than to their intellectual and pedagogical

capabilities, may serve to reinforce gender stereotypes. Ironically, pastoral responsibility for girls, a task which is often given to senior female teachers in schools, may be precisely the sort of responsibility that is assigned to women based on stereotypical assumptions and not given the value it deserves within the school.

The realization of the positive impact of female teachers on girl-child education probably led to various strategies to increase the number of women in the teaching profession; some of which are provision of scholarships and incentives to women to attend pre-service teacher training, use of quota targets for women such as a percentage of the teaching force, development of more flexible teacher training programmes which do not require long periods of absence from home and/or programmes which allow women to take young children and even babysitters with them, hiring of committed local women without the necessary formal qualifications and supporting them with intensive teacher training and specialized supervision in order to help them quickly develop both their subject content and pedagogical knowledge.

Moreover, the use of creative deployment strategies to ensure that well-qualified women teachers are attracted to rural schools, working with local women's organizations to encourage them to support potential female teachers and development of creative recruitment campaigns in the local media which specifically target women and promote the active role that woman can play in education is a very good idea (Kirk, 2006)

2.4.6   Conceptual Framework for the Study

A conceptual framework is an abstract and stylized ordering of research ideas to guide research design, guided by the principles of clear research premising and assumptions, clarity and precision, navigational change of the main concepts or variables and their presumed relationship with each other. It is a researcher's way of explaining the relationships that exist among concepts, ideas and variables in a study and how appropriate they are in the model to be investigated. The conceptual framework for this study is adapted from Logical Framework Approach. The approach divides a project into four components; the general goals to be achieved, the purpose of the project, the outputs to be produced to achieve this purpose and the inputs to be used to achieve these outputs. The logical sequence of these activities is

stated in the following ways if outputs are produced at the right time and in the right quantities, then outcome will be obtained and if outcome is obtained, then impacts will be achieved.

When applied to the evaluation of the Girls' Education Project 3, the input variables are the conditional cash transfer, advocacy works, female teachers' scholarship and gender responsive pedagogy, the output variable is indicated by access while the outcome variables are retention and learning outcomes. The concepts and variables in the study are identified and how these concepts are connected is shown in form of a diagram. Figure 2.1 shows the conceptual framework for this study.
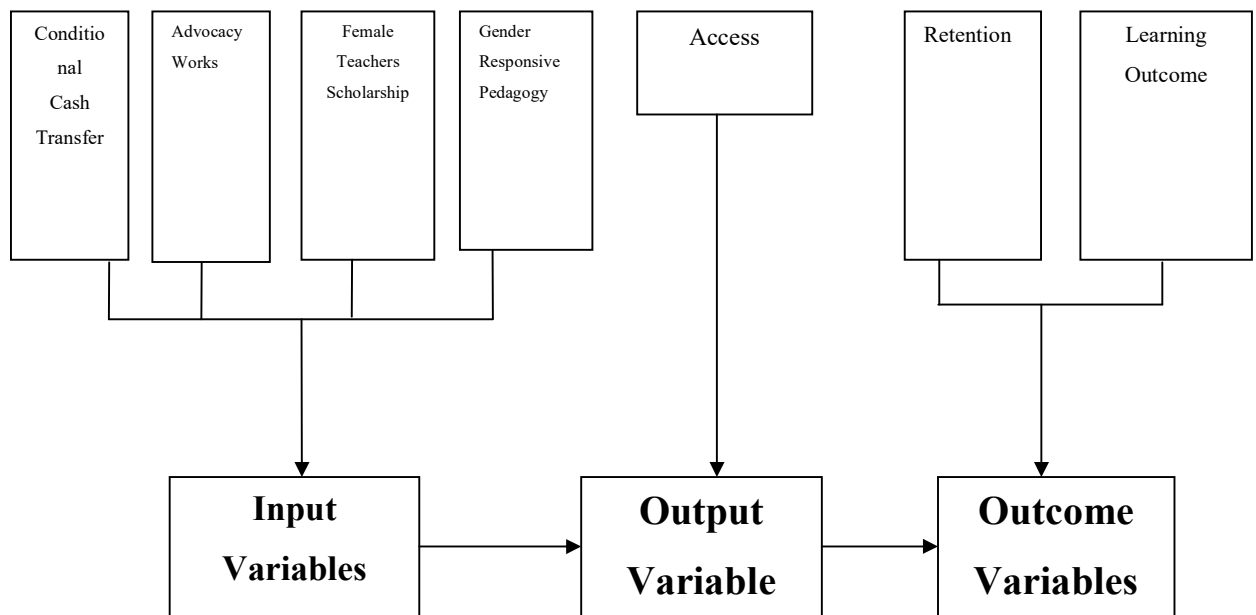
Fig.2.2: Conceptual Framework for the Study

2.4.7   Appraisal of Literature

Access to basic education for the girl-child is one of the major ways through which a nation can develop. Thus, numerous scholars and several reports affirmed that increase in investment in girl-child education is a worthwhile effort. Benefits accruing from the girl-child access to, retention and completion of basic education have been said to be generational. It was discovered that the problems that will arise from denying her this basic right will not only be felt by the girl-child but by the society as a whole. From all literature reviewed various barriers to the girl-child

access to, retention in and completion of basic education were identified. These barriers are categorised into; demand side barriers and supply side barriers.

It was also discovered that even with all the benefits that educating the girl-child brings to her, her family, her society, the nation and even the world as a whole she is at a higher risk of dropping out of school compared to her male counterpart. Poverty was identified by many scholars as the major reason why girls drop out of school. Teenage pregnancy was also identified by various researchers as another major contributor to the scourge of school dropout among girls. Though these scholars submitted that teenage girls drop out of school mostly because of pregnancy, however, lack of socio economic opportunities for girls and women and the demands placed on them, coupled with the gender inequalities of the education system, may result in unsatisfactory school experiences, poor academic performance and endorsement of early motherhood.

The critical roles that the parents and the community have to play in the education of the girl-child were also affirmed by the various literature reviewed. However, it was discovered that parents' involvement is rather limited in many cases, as teachers usually do not reach out to parents beyond annual and semi-annual teacher-parent meetings. The impact of the female teacher on girl-child education was also found to be enormous, while recognizing the positive roles that women can play, it was also discovered that we cannot make assumptions that women are necessarily always supportive of girls in schools or will make the school environment more girl-friendly. From various literatures reviewed, it was discovered that gender discrimination is pervasive in the northern part of Nigeria and this problem transcends the society and affects the girl-child access to, retention in and completion of basic education. While reviewing various literatures the researcher found out that the adoption of gender responsive pedagogy by teachers and gender responsive school management system may aid girls' enrolment, retention, better learning outcomes and completion of basic education.

Studies have been carried out on the previous phases of GEP, and internal reviews of GEP3 have been carried out also. However, as revealed by the review, as at the time of this study, there was no known external evaluation of GEP3. In view of the unavailability of empirical data with respect to the extent of the achievement of the objectives of GEP3 carried out by an external evaluator, this study will evaluate the GEP3 in order to bring into focus the extent to which the project is achieving its

objectives and the effectiveness of the project on the girl-child access, retention and completion of basic education in Sokoto and Katsina states.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research design, evaluation model, target population, study area, sampling technique and sample, instrumentation, procedure for data collection and method of data analysis.

3.1   Research Design

The study adopted the explanatory concurrent mixed methods design (QUAN+qual). Concurrent design allows for quantitative and qualitative data to be collected at the same time where findings from the two approaches are integrated in presenting the final result (Falaye, 2018). The proportion of quantitative to qualitative is 66% to 34%.

3.2   Evaluation Model

The study used the Logical Framework Approach to evaluate the Girls' Education Project 3. A Logical Framework Approach is a project design methodology that provides a systematic structure for identifying, planning and managing projects. The approach enables the main elements of a project to be concisely summarised and brings structure and logic to the relationship between project purpose and intended inputs, planned activities, and expected results. Its distinctive feature is that it requires an explicit statement of the changes that a project is supposed to produce, along with each step that leads toward achieving them.

Table 3.1: Logical Framework on 'Evaluation of the Girls' Education Project 3 in Katsina and Sokoto States, Nigeria, 2014-2017

Project Name	Objectively Verifiable Indicators	Means of Verification	Assumptions and Risks
Goal To evaluate the extent to which GEP3 improved girl-child access, retention and learning outcome at the basic education.	• Increase in the number of girls accessing primary education • Retention rates of girls in primary schools • Increase in the number of girls completing primary education. • Increase in the number of female teachers been trained. • Advocacy actions taken with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers • Girls receiving cash transfer. • Parents in focus communities who priorities girls education. • Increase in the number of women employed as teachers.	Use of school record system for verifying the following student flow rates to check: • Entry, Growth, Promotion, Retention, Completion, • Records of training of teachers • Report from Primary and secondary source of data from the GEP planning research and statistics department • Evaluation reports • Research findings • Publications • Questionnaires	• Willingness of all stakeholders in GEP3 to take part in the evaluation • No hindrance to implementation of activities • Ability to have access to: ➢ school records. ➢ government and GEP records. ➢ records at the State's Colleges of Education on FTTSS. • Unimpeded access to training records of FTTSS beneficiaries.
Purpose To find out the extent to which the packages of intervention provided by GEP3: • Improved girls' access to basic education • Improved girls retention in school	• Increase in enrolment of girls in schools. • Increase in retention of girls in schools. • Increase in completion of basic education by girls. • Improvement in the quality of	• Primary and secondary source of data • Interviews • Evaluation reports	• The political and security situation remains stable allowing the researcher to fully implement the objectives of the study. • Community and Local support • Funds were released and used appropriately.

• Aided improvement in learning outcome for girls
 	
    • Broke the persistent barriers to girls' education
 	
    • Ascertain the constraints hindering effective implementation of GEP3
 	
    • Proffer possible solutions to the constraints identified
	education the girl-child receives		• Investment climate in the North offers more employment opportunities for women.

Outputs
 	
Output 1: Extent of project success established and compared as a way forward for girl-child education in Nigeria
 	
Output 2: Operational problems identified
 	
Output 3: Other factors exogenous to the project that are having bearing on the project implementation determined
 	
Output 4: Dissemination of information on lessons learnt from GEP3
 	
Activities
 	
Activity 1: Assessment of the extent to which GEP3 package of interventions:
 	
    • Improved girls' access to basic education
 	
    • Improved girls retention in school
	• Project success tracked
	
	• Well established operational problems
	
	• Articulation of other factors affecting project implementation
	
	• Solutions proffered to the identified operational problems
	
	• Review of literature
	
	• Administration of structured questionnaire
	
	• Publication of articles
		• Primary and secondary source of data from the GEP planning, research, & statistics department
		
		• Interviews
		
		• Questionnaire
		
		• Evaluation reports
		
		• Annual reviews
		
		• Progress reports
		
		• Findings in Scientific journals
			• Influencing work with parents, school authorities, religious/community leaders and girls lead to increased access to girl-child education
			
			• Seminars, Trainings and workshops are organised for teachers to aid their development of technical capacities.
			
			• Head teachers/teachers create gender responsive schools/classrooms.
			
			• Unimpeded access to literature, internet, textbooks
			
			• Availability of funds and logistics
			
			• Willingness to accept findings

• Aided improvement in learning outcome for girls • Broke the persistent barriers to girls' education • Ascertain the constraints hindering effective implementation of GEP3 • Proffer possible solutions to the constraints identified **Activity 2**: Disseminations of findings			• Acceptability of articles

Adapted from GEP3 logical framework

3.3. Variables in the study

The variables in the study were grouped as outcome, output and input variables.

Outcome Variables: They are the short, wider or long term objectives which the project is intending to contribute.

Output Variables: They are the immediate effects to be achieved during the project duration. It is the state of affairs which exists after a programme is conducted.

Input Variables: They are the deliverables to be produced in order to achieve the Project Purpose. Inputs are also the specific actions taken in response to an identified need or issue.

Outcome Variables:
1. Retention in school
2. Learning Outcomes in English Studies, Mathematics and Basic Science

Output Variable:
1. Access to Basic Education

Input Variables:
1. Catalytic Interventions;
    a. Conditional Cash Transfer
    b. Advocacy works with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers.
    c. Female teachers scholarship
2. Gender Responsive Pedagogy

3.4 Population

The population for this study comprised of primary six girl children in-school but at risk of dropping out of primary school in all the GEP3 States. The population also comprised girls in the Islamic School systems within the same age range and all other stake holders like their parents, head teachers, teachers in GEP3 supported schools, non-GEP and Islamic schools, and traditional leaders in all the GEP3 States. The choice of this class for the in-school but at risk of dropping out girl-child was based on the fact that this is the class where girls who have been betrothed and those not betrothed can be married out. Some of the other

participants (parents and leaders) were selected because they have been regarded as critical influencers of decision makers on girl-child education. Teachers and head teachers were selected because they are the implementers of the pedagogy that aids the girl-child access, retention, improved learning outcomes, completion and possible transition to the next level of education.

3.5 Sampling Technique and Sample

Multi-stage sampling procedure was used in this study.

Stage one: Sample selection of the states

Purposive sampling was used to select two states from the five states where GEP3 is presently going on. These states participated in the two previous phases of GEP. One state where there is considerable improvement in girl-child enrolment in comparison with another state where girl-child enrolment is still very low. The selection of these states was to enable the researcher to be able to identify the major factor(s) that has led to this difference.

Stage two: Sample selection of senatorial districts and local government areas

All the three senatorial districts in each of the two states were totally enumerated for the study while one local government area each was randomly selected from each of these senatorial districts.

Stage three: Sample selection of schools and classes

Simple random sampling was used to select seven GEP3 supported schools from each of the selected local government areas. Also, an equivalent number of Non-GEP schools were randomly selected from the same LGA to provide comparison group. In each of the selected schools all the basic 6 female pupils were engaged for the study. From each of the local government areas, one Integrated Quranic Schools (IQS) and one teacher (Islamic teacher) was selected for the study. Also, female pupils from the equivalent classes of primary six in the IQS were used for the study. All head teachers in each of these schools were engaged for the study.

In all, the sample comprised: 2 states, 3 senatorial districts from each of the states, 6 LGAs, 90 schools, 90 head teachers, 1,155 pupils (668 from GEP3 schools and 487 from Non-GEP schools), 6 Islamic teachers and 6 traditional leaders.

Table 3.2: Sampling Framework According to Senatorial Districts

Senatorial Districts	Sampled LGA	No. of selected GEP3 supported schools selected	No of Integrated Quranic Schools selected	No of Non-GEP schools selected	No of female pupils from both GEP3 supported schools/ Non-GEP schools
Sokoto Central	Binji	7	1	7	Intact basic 6 class (girls)
Sokoto West	Bodinga	7	1	7	Intact basic 6 class (girls)
Sokoto East	Wurno	7	1	7	Intact basic 6 class (girls)
Katsina Central	Rimi	7	1	7	Intact basic 6 class (girls)
Katsina North	Kankia	7	1	7	Intact basic 6 class (girls)
Katsina South	Kankara	7	1	7	Intact basic 6 class (girls)
6	**6**	**42**	**6**	**42**	

Table 3.3: Sampling Framework

States	No of LGA's	No of Primary Schools to be selected	No of female pupils	No of head teachers	No of leaders	No of Integrated Quranic Schools	No of Islamic teachers	No of female pupils in Islamic Tsangaya Quranic Schools/ their parents
Katsina	One LGA was selected from each of the three senatorial districts/ equivalent number of non-GEP LGAs	Seven GEP3 supported schools from each of the LGAs/ equivalent number of non-GEP schools from each of the LGAs	All basic six female pupils from each of the selected schools	All head teachers of the selected schools	One traditional leader from each LGA	One integrated Quranic school from each LGA	One Islamic teacher from the selected IQS	All female pupils in equivalent class of basic six in the IQS
Sokoto	One LGA selected from each of the senatorial districts/ equivalent number of non-GEP LGAs	Seven GEP3 supported schools from each of the LGAs/ equivalent number of non-GEP schools from each of the LGAs	All basic six female pupils from each of the selected schools	All head teachers of the selected schools	One traditional leader from each LGA	One integrated Quranic school from each LGA	One Islamic teacher from the selected IQS	All female pupils in equivalent class of basic six in the IQS

3.6   Pilot Study

A pilot study was carried out in Niger state in ten schools similar to the targeted sampled schools which did not form part of the main sample; six primary schools and four Integrated Quranic Schools. Niger state was chosen because it was part of the previous phases of GEP just like Sokoto and Katsina states and the security situation of the state was more conducive compared to Bauchi where we had insurgencies. Moreover, the study would not have taken place in Zamfara state because the state was not part of the previous phases of GEP. There are six GEP3 Local Government Areas in Niger state; two LGAs were selected from each of the three Senatorial Districts in the state to make up the GEP3 LGAs. The GEP3 LGAs are Agaie, Gbako, Munya, Mariga, Mashegu and Rafi. Agaei Local Government Area was selected for the pilot study.

The selected schools were used to test run the study by administering the achievement tests on the students and other instruments on other participants. This helped the researcher to determine the feasibility of the study protocol, identify potential problem areas and deficiencies in the research instruments prior to the implementation during the main study. Also, it was carried out to ensure that instruments are comprehensible and appropriate; questions are well defined, clearly understood and presented in consistent manner and whether the tools are appropriate for the target population. The achievement tests were trial tested on 100 students to ensure valid psychometric properties of the instrument which informed the researcher of the items to drop. Kuder Richardson 20 (KR20) was used for the validation of the achievement tests (English: 0.80, Basic Science: 0.89, Mathematics: 0.70). 60 questions were eventually selected from the initial 90 questions; 20 questions for each of the three subjects.

During the pilot study some of the instruments were adjusted due to what the researcher realised. It became imperative to make adjustment on some of the instruments. The researcher had to merge the parents' questionnaire, leaders' questionnaire and the Islamic teacher's questionnaire. These instruments were merged and integrated into the leaders, parents and Islamic teachers interview guide (LPITIG). The Advocacy Questionnaire was integrated into other instruments like LPITIG and GEPSIG in other to get a more detailed response. The researcher also realised that the most appropriate people to answer questions on CCT are the head

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teachers and not parents due to the kind of information sought by the instrument. Thus, the CCTQ was administered to head teachers and not parents.

Issues that were observed among participants in the pilot testing of the instruments included:

1. Participants' capacity to understand the guidelines.

2. Understanding of poll things, the terms utilized, the succession of the inquiries and the progression of explanations.

3. The organization, including the textual style and the spread out.

4. Length of the poll, that is, time taken to finish the survey.

5. Other remarks by the members.

All remarks were mulled over and blunders were changed before proceeding on the main study.

3.7 Instrumentation

The study made use of six (6) instruments that were validated by the researcher. These instruments are:

1. Documents Analysis Guide for Access and Retention (DAGAR)
2. Conditional Cash Transfer Questionnaire (CCTQ)
3. Leaders, Parents and Islamic Teachers Interview Guide (LPITIG)
4. Gender Responsive School Environment Checklist (GRSEC)
5. Girls' Education Project 3 Staff Interview Guide (GEPSIG)
6. Academic Achievement Tests for Basic 6 (AATB6)

3.7.1 Documents Analysis Guide for Access and Retention (DAGAR)

This instrument was developed by the present researcher. It seeks to elicit information on admission and completion of the female pupils before the year of study (2010 – 2014) to the year of study (2014- 2017) from a group of document reviewers that was made up of research assistants, teachers and head teachers in GEP3 supported schools and Non-GEP schools. To establish the validity and reliability of the instrument, it was given to head teachers, teachers and my supervisor for face and content validity.

3.7.2 Conditional Cash Transfer Questionnaire (CCTQ)

This instrument was developed by the present researcher to measure the extent of the effect of provision of CCT on girl-child education. It is made up of two sections. Section A has three items of demographic information which are gender, educational qualification and state. Section B has 10 items with four category response format of Very Great Extent, Great Extent, Moderate Extent and No Extent with 4, 3, 2, 1 point scales on which the respondent were asked to choose from and depict their opinion. The section seeks to elicit information on the extent to which the catalytic interventions provided by GEP3 has helped to break the persistent barriers to girls' education. The items were generated from various documents of GEP. The instrument comprised of 10 items. This instrument was administered to head teachers in GEP3 schools. The construct and content validity of the instrument was done by the researcher's supervisor and other experts in the field of questionnaire and scale construction. Cronbach Alpha was used to determine the reliability of the instrument. It yielded the coefficient of 0.85 index.

3.7.3 Leaders, Parents and Islamic Teachers Interview Guide (LPITIG)

This instrument comprises pool of questions that was administered to the leaders, parents and Islamic teachers. The Interview was used to generate qualitative information on their perception of GEP3, collaboration with GEP3 among other issues relating to girl-child education. This instrument was developed to guide the discussion process during the interview sessions. The validity of the interview guide was determined using face and content validity. Actually, experts in the field of educational evaluation assisted the researcher for its content validity.

3.7.4 Gender Responsive School Environment Checklist (GRSEC)

This instrument was developed by the present researcher. The instrument is divided into five sub-sections; A, B, C, D and E. Section A has 9 items, Section B has 8 items, Section C has 5 items, Section D has 23 items while Section E has 10 items making a total of 55 items. It seeks to elicit information on the extent of gender responsiveness of the GEP3 supported schools and Non-GEP schools. The items were generated from the Forum for African Women Educationalists (2005) teacher's handbook on gender responsive pedagogy. It was administered in GEP3 supported schools and Non-GEP schools. Expert peer review of the instrument was solicited.

The instrument was revised based on expert feedback and afterwards the checklist was prepared for field testing. The instrument was further revised based on field test results. During pilot testing two observers made use of the checklist to check the responsiveness of the school environment. Their results were analysed for inter rater reliability using Scott pie which gave 0.93.

3.7.5 Girls' Education Project Phase 3 Staff Interview Guide

This instrument comprises pool of questions that were administered to the GEP3 staff. The interview was used to generate qualitative information on various issues regarding the implementation of GEP3, achievements so far, among other issues relating to girl-child education. This instrument was developed to guide the discussion process during the interview session with the GEP3 staff. The validity of this instrument was determined using face and content validity with the assistance of experts in evaluation.

3.7.6 Academic Achievement Test for Basic Six (AATB6)

This instrument was developed by the researcher after a careful study of the curriculum guidelines recommended by NERDC for the core subjects whose learning outcomes were investigated in the study. AATB6 consisted of 90 multiple choice items before pilot study. The instrument was constructed by the researcher using the table of specification covering the knowledge, comprehension and application domains, with each items having four options. Only one of these options is correct while the other three are   distractors. The options were labelled A, B, C and D. The items were drawn from 5 topics in Mathematics, 3 in English Studies, and 3 in Basic Science and Technology. The spread of items is as shown in the test blueprints in the tables below. Figures in columns under the categories represent numbers for questions in the instrument. The instrument was subjected to face and content validity. The reliability of the instrument was determined using Kuder Richardson 20 (KR20) formula. The number of items used was determined after the psychometric properties have been established.

The items difficulty indices were between 0.3 and 0.7 with discriminating indices between 0.4 and 0.6 Finally 60 items were selected from the pool of items trial tested. The table of specification shows the final selected items of multiple-choice

test. The reliability coefficient index was 0.80 for English, 0.70 for Mathematics and 0.89 for Basic Science. The breakdown of the items is shown in Table 3.4, 3.5 and 3.6.

Table 3.4: Test Blueprint for Basic Six English Studies Achievement Test

Content	Categories and Number of Items				
	Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Total	Percentage
Grammar	5	5	-	10	50
Comprehension	-	5	-	5	25
Phonics	-	-	5	5	25
Total	5	10	5	2 0	100
Percentage	25	50	25	100	

Table 3.5: Test Blueprint for Basic Six Basic Science Achievement Test

Content	Categories and Number of Items				
	Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Total	Percentage
Reproduction in Plants	5	3	-	8	40
Rocks	4	2	-	6	30
Acids and Bases	6	-	-	6	30
Total	15	5	-	20	100
Percentage	75	25	-	100	

Table 3.6: Test Blueprint for Basic Six Mathematics Achievement Test

Content	Categories and Number of Items				
	Knowledge	Comprehension	Application	Total	Percentage
Volume and Capacity	-	-	2	2	10
Data Presentation	-	2	3	5	25
Circle	2	-	3	5	25
Two dimensional and three dimensional shapes	5	-	-	5	25
Central tendency	-	-	3	3	15
Total	7	2	11	20	100
Percentage	35	10	55	100	

3.8   Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

To establish the content validity of the instruments, the instruments were given to experts for review. Thereafter, the instruments were trial tested on a different population with similar characteristics while the internal consistencies were established using Cronbach alpha for CCTQ, Scott pie for both GRSEC and PIC and Kuder Richardson 20 (KR20) for AATB6.

3.9   Data Collection Procedure

A letter of introduction was taken from the International Centre of Educational Evaluation (ICEE), Institute of Education, University of Ibadan, to aid acceptance by individuals and institutions where data was collected. The letter of introduction was presented at the headquarters, states, local government offices of the project implementers and selected schools. Permission to carry out the study was granted after the letter of introduction was presented at the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) from the Chairmen of the board and GEP3 Focal Persons for the states. This aided support and cooperation of participants in the study.

Thereafter, five graduate research assistants from each of the states where the study was carried out were recruited and trained for one week on the rudiments of instrument administration and data collection with emphasis on how to use the instruments for the study. These research assistants were from the communities where the study was carried out and also possess the ability to speak the language of the people of these communities. This was to cater for the challenge of language barrier that occurred during administration of instruments.

3.10   Method of data analysis

Descriptive statistics of percentage, frequency, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse research questions 1a, 1b, 2 and 5, research question 1c was analysed using T-test while research questions 3, 4a and 4b were analysed qualitatively using thematic approach.

Table 3.7: Project Evaluation Grid and Analysis Procedure

GEP3 Objectives	Evaluation Objectives	Research Questions	Instrument(s)	Data Sources	Data Analysis
1	1	1 i, ii	Conditional Cash Transfer Questionnaire (CCTQ)	Head teachers in GEP3 supported schools	Descriptive statistics
			Leaders, Parents, Islamic Teachers Interview Guide (LPITIG)	Traditional Leaders, parents and Islamic teachers and SBMC, GEP 3 officials in the communities where GEP3 supported schools are situated.	Thematic Approach
			Girls' Education Project 3 Staff Interview Guide (GEPSIC)		
2	2	2	Girls' Education Project 3 Staff Interview Guide (GEPSIC)	GEP3 State Focal Person	Thematic Approach
3	3	3a and 3b	Document Analysis Guide for Access and Retention (DAGAR)	Teachers and Head teachers in GEP3 supported schools and Non-GEP schools	Descriptive statistics
3	3	3c	Academic Achievement Test for Basic 6 (AATB6)	Administered in GEP3 supported and Non-GEP schools Basic 6 Pupils (Girls)	T-test
		4a and 4b	Leaders, Parents, Islamic Teachers Interview Guide (LPITIG)	School Based Management Committee members	Thematic Approach
			Girls' Education Project 3 Staff Interview Guide (GEPSIC)	GEP3 State Focal Person	
		5	Gender Responsive School Environment Checklist (GRSEC)	Administered in GEP3 supported and Non-GEP schools	Descriptive statistics

3.11 Methodological Challenges

Challenges are inevitable in an evaluation study because as important as methodological and technical expertise are to good evaluation, that importance is often overshadowed by the interpersonal, ethical, and political influences that shape the evaluator's work. Many a good evaluation, unimpeachable in all technical details, has failed because of interpersonal insensibility, ethical compromises, or political naivete. Moreover, human, ethical, and political factors pervade every aspect of an

evaluation study. This was however taken care of by guaranteeing the project staff of opportunities to correct factual errors without compromising the evaluation itself.

Another envisaged challenge was the likelihood of resistance to evaluation on the part of the project staff; this was taking care of by guaranteeing the project staff of a common goal; performance improvement and the fact that the evaluation was going to be a participatory evaluation. Other challenges that the researcher faced were language barriers and security issues; local speakers of the language of the research areas were employed as research assistants while the security landscape of the states was ascertained before embarking on the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter presents the results and discussions derived from analysis of the data obtained from the respondents who participated in this study. The sequence of presentation and discussion is in accordance with the order of the research questions raised in chapter one.

Research Question 1 (a): To what extent has GEP3 provided conditional cash transfer to parents to help reduce barriers confronting girl-child education?

Table 4.1: Extent to which Conditional Cash Transfer Provided as Intervention Reduced the Barriers to Girl-child Education Sokoto State

S/N	Items To what extent has:	Sokoto State					
		VGE Freq (%)	GE Freq (%)	ME Freq (%)	NE Freq (%)	Mean	SD
1.	CCT helped to reduce the barriers to girl-child education?	20 (95.2)	1 (4.8)	_	_	3.9524	.21822
2.	the provision of CCT aided the training of girls from this community?	13 (61.9)	8 (38.1)	_	_	3.6190	.49761
3.	the direct payment of students' stipend to their mother's or guardians improved transparency of the disbursement process?	10 (47.6)	11 (52.4)	_	_	3.4762	.51177
4.	the direct payment of student's stipend to their mother's or guardians improved accountability of the disbursement process?	19 (90.5)	2 (9.5)	_	_	3.9048	.30079
5.	CCT aided girl-child enrolment in this school?	21 (100)	_	_	_	4.0000	.0000
6.	CCT aided girl-child retention in this school?	20 (95.2)	1 (4.8)	_	_	3.9524	.21822
7.	CCT aided girl child completion of primary education in this school?	12 (57.1)	9 (42.9)	_	_	3.5714	.50709
8.	the state government been financially committed to keeping CCT working?	18 (85.7)	3 (14.3)	_	_	3.8571	.35857
9.	CCT aided the breaking down of poverty as a persistent barrier to girl's education in this community?	10 (47.6)	11 (52.4)	_	_	3.4762	.51177
10.	CCT aided improvement in girl's attendance at school?	19 (90.5)	2 (9.5)	_	_	3.9048 Grand mean: 37.7143 Weighted mean: 3.7714	.30079

*VGE: Very Great Extent

*GE: Great Extent
*ME: Moderate Extent
*NE: No Extent

Table 4.1 shows that conditional cash transfer as an intervention for the GEP3 schools is being provided only in Sokoto state while Katsina state is not enjoying the largesse of conditional cash transfer as intervention for the GEP3. The study actually found that CCT is only provided in two out of the five GEP3 states; Sokoto and Niger states.

The table further reveals that all the head teachers (100%) responded that conditional cash transfer provided as intervention for the GEP3 aids girl-child enrolment in schools to a very great extent (item 5). Also, majority of the head teachers indicated that CCT has helped to reduce the barriers to girl-child education and aided girl-child retention in schools (95.2%) while 4.8% indicated that CCT has helped to reduce the barriers to girl-child education and aided girl-child retention in schools to a great extent (items 1 and 6). More than 90% of the head teachers indicated that the direct payment of the students' stipend to their mother's or guardians has improved accountability of the disbursement process to a very great extent (item 4) and that CCT has aided improvement in girls attendance at school (item 10). Meanwhile, 9.5% indicated that the direct payment of the students' stipend to their mother's or guardians has improved accountability of the disbursement process and that CCT has aided improvement in girls' attendance at school to a great extent. 85.7% of the head teachers claimed that the state government has been financially committed to keeping CCT working while 14.3% indicated that the state government has been financially committed to keeping CCT working to a great extent. However, 61.9% indicated that provision of CCT aided the training of girls from the community to a very great extent. 38.1% indicated that provision of CCT aided the training of girls from the community to a great extent. As regards CCT aiding girl-child completion of primary education, 57.1% indicated that they were to a very great extent aiding girl-child completion of primary education, 42.9% indicated that is to great extent aiding girl-child completion of primary education. As regards, if the direct payment of students' stipend to their mother's or guardians improved transparency of the disbursement process, 47.6% indicated that it has to a very great extent improved transparency of the disbursement process, 52.4% indicated that it has to a great extent improved transparency of the disbursement process. Also, 47.6% indicated that CCT aided the breaking down of poverty as a barrier to girls education

in the community to a very great extent while 52.4% indicated that CCT aided the breaking down of poverty as a barrier to girls education in the community to a great extent.

Discussions

The study found that to a very great extent the provision of Conditional Cash Transfer to parents has helped to reduce barriers confronting girl-child education in Sokoto state where it is presently taking place as part of the catalytic interventions of GEP3. Though, CCT is not part of the catalytic interventions provided by GEP3 in Katsina state, the state however, provides scholarship for pupils. The provision of CCT aided girl-child enrolment and retention in school and also reduced the barriers to girl-child education in Sokoto state. This finding is in consonance with the finding of Glewwe (2002) which stated that demand-side intervention which reduce the cost of school, tend to have the clearest gender –differentiated results on enrolment. This finding confirms the findings of Filmer and Shady (2011) submission that the proof connecting cash transfers with school enrolment for girls is strong – sometimes enrolment increases for as large as 20 to 30 percentage.

The finding of this study also agrees with the report of King and Winthrop (2015) that conditional cash transfer programs (CCTs) that offsets a family's opportunity cost of sending girls and boys to school have been shown to increase enrolment. This also corroborates UNESCO (2015a) review of 146 social protection interventions aimed at improving education outcomes; about 66% have had some elements of cash transfers. These projects are premised on the notion that cash assistance to families underwrite real or opportunity costs that influence whether families send their girls to school and keep them in school (Arnold, Conway and Greenslade, 2011; GPE,2014).

The finding of this study confirms the finding of Sperling and Winthrop (2016) that ultimately, well designed programs offsetting the indirect and opportunity costs of for girls' education – by providing either cash other resources, such as uniforms or bicycles-have been shown across many countries to be an effective intervention for getting girls into both primary and secondary schools. However, various studies (Kim 2014; Akresh, de Walque, and Kazianga, 2013; Baird et al.2013, 2015; Filmer and Shady 2009; Muralidharan and Prakash 2013, Schurmann 2009, Slavin, 2010) suggested that to ensure girls' success in school, well designed cash

transfer programs must be paired with interventions focused on improving girls' learning outcomes and school quality.

The study also found that the direct payment of student's stipend to their mother's or guardians improved accountability of the disbursement process and this aided improvement in girls' attendance at school. This finding corroborates the finding of Gitter and Barham (2008) that found that who receives transfer for the family, not just the size of transfer, also makes a difference in CCT programs. They further gave the report of a study on CCT program in Nicaragua which showed that impacts of CCTs are higher when the woman holds more power in the house-hold. Though this study found that CCT has reduced the barriers to girl-child education, especially has it has to do with the cost of sending girls to school, however, to ensure girls' success in school, well-designed cash transfer programs must be paired with interventions focused on improving girls' learning outcomes and school quality (Kim, 2014).

This study also found that GEP3-CTP is a conditional cash transfer program, meaning that enrolment and attendance are some of the conditions for transfer receipt. In other words, primary recipients remain eligible for the transfer immediately the girl-child enrol in school and attend regularly. Furthermore, sensitization campaigns aimed at changing the perception on girls' education aimed at increasing the willingness of parents to enroll their girls in school were regularly carried out. GEP3-CTP targeted all girls between the age of 6 and 15 that live in a catchment area that is targeted by the programme. Within the targeted catchment areas, all the girls in the eligible age category are thus eligible for a benefit. Therefore, in order to qualify for GEP3-CTP, households have to meet two eligibility criteria:

  i. Households need to permanently live in the targeted catchment area during mobilization and sensitization activities.

  ii. Households need to have at least one girl in the eligible age category at the time of registration and enrolment. The eligible age category is 6 to 15 years. Therefore, if a girl falls within this age range at the beginning of the school year, the girl is eligible for the benefit.

Research Question 1 (b) What are the advocacy works carried out by GEP3 with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers to help break the persistent barriers to girls' education in Sokoto and Katsina states?

In-depth interviews (IDIs) were conducted in order to answer research question one on six traditional leaders, parents, GEP3 workers and teachers in Sokoto and Katsina states. In-depth interviews (IDIs) are unstructured open-ended discovery-oriented method that permits the researcher to carry out greater depth of discussion on issues by asking respondents questions and documenting their responses coupled with intense probing for deeper information and understanding of responses. The study reveals the following as the advocacy works carried out by GEP3 with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers to help break the persistent barriers to girls' education in Sokoto and Katsina states.

Advocacy Work by GEP3 with Traditional Leaders

The interactions with traditional leaders reveal that sensitization, community mobilization, enrolment drive campaign, courtesy calls, house to house campaigns, SBMC (School Based Management Committee) and influencers meetings are some of the advocacy works that GEP3 carried out with traditional leaders in order to get their backing and aid the promotion of girl-child education in their communities. According to one of the traditional leaders *"some of the advocacy works carried out by GEP3 with traditional leaders ... are sensitization, community mobilization, enrolment drive campaign and house to house campaigns/ house hold visit"*. Another traditional leader affirmed that "*GEP3 is carrying out many advocacy works especially with the leaders ... through women groups, community mobilization, courtesy calls, SBMC meetings, sensitization and influencers meetings.*

Early marriage is one of the major factors that affect girls' education in Northern   Nigeria. Girls are married off early in life and this hinders their access to basic education, retention in school and completion of basic education. Therefore, GEP3 enlightens and sensitizes the members of the communities on the dangers of marrying off their girls early.

> *"GEP3 officials work with traditional and religious leaders to enlighten and sensitize the community members on the danger of early marriage"*
>
> A traditional leader

In summary it could be deduced that the traditional leaders in conjunction with GEP3 officials are promoting girl-child education through the aforementioned means. Among the various advocacy works carried out by GEP3 officials with traditional leaders, community mobilization and sensitization appear to be more evident.

Advocacy Work by GEP3 with the Parents

Discussion with the parents revealed that influencers meetings, SBMC meetings, house to house campaigns, house hold visits and enrolment drives are some of the advocacy works carried out by GEP3 with parents in order to get their encouragement and support of girls' access to basic education, retention in school and completion of basic education. A mother has this to say "*our husbands attend influencers meetings and transfer information about the benefit of girl-child education to us*"

The importance of girls' education and the implication of girls not having the required education are some of the major topics for discussion at SBMC meetings. According to a father, the advocacy meeting was "*to draw the attention of the people to the importance of girls' education and the implication of girls not having the required education, GEP3 officials regularly attend SBMC meetings to enlighten us*"

Poverty is a major barrier to girls' education in Northern Nigeria. Also, as a result of this socio-economic factor there is a preference for educating the boy-child whenever there is a reason to choose between the boy-child and the girl-child who to enrol in school and who not to. In order to break this persistent barrier to girls' access to basic education, GEP3 is providing conditional cash transfer as a catalytic intervention. A mother confirmed that "*to aid girls' access to basic education, retention in school and completion of basic education, GEP3 is supporting us through the provision of cash transfers*"

One can conclude from the above responses that GEP3 is carrying out advocacy work with parents through attendance of influencers meetings, SBMC meetings, provision of conditional cash transfer, house to house campaigns, house hold visits and enrolment drives. This is to encourage them to send their daughters to school and make them stay till completion of their basic education.

Advocacy Works by GEP3 with the Teachers

Interactions with the teachers revealed that teachers bring in role models to talk to the girls in school, head teachers make the female teachers serve as role models to the pupils, create mothers associations and SBMCs in schools, recognize and celebrate the International day of the girl-child on the 11th of October every year. Teachers do these as advocacy works with GEP3 to promote girl-child education in their communities. A female teacher indicated that they promote girls education by *"bringing one or two women that hold special posts within the community to give role model talks"*

Though mothers are not major influencers of girls' education in Northern Nigeria, however they also have major roles to play in their daughters bid to access education and completion. Therefore, teachers establish mothers association in order to bring mothers together and educate them on multiplier effect of educating the girl-child. According to a female teacher *"we are creating mothers association to sensitize mothers on girls' education"*

Generally, there is a need to sensitize parents on the need to enrol their daughters in school as the education of the girl-child in most parts of Northern Nigeria is seen as a privilege and not as a right. Therefore, GEP3 officials work with teachers on sensitization of parents during enrolment drives on the need to enrol their daughters in school. Confirming this activity, a male teacher had this to say *"we are sensitizing parents on the need to enrol their daughters in school"*

It can be concluded that the GEP3 officials and the teachers are working together as advocates of girl-child education. The teachers are serving as role models to the girls and they are also presenting respectable women from the communities to the girls as role models and to give talks in schools. The teachers also sensitize the parents on the need to enrol their girls in school.

In summary, the GEP3 is carrying out various advocacy works with traditional leaders, parents, and Islamic teachers. They are all working together with the GEP3 officials to promote education of every girl-child in Katsina and Sokoto states.

A GEP3 official explained that the School Based Management Committees have a very important role to play in the advocacy works been carried out by GEP3. According to the official the SBMC is made up of the following people who play different roles in the committee;

1.   The Traditional Leader – Chairman

2. The Head Teacher – Secretary

3. The Religious Leader / Islamic Teacher- Member

4. The Women Leader – Member

5. Assistant Women Leader- Member

6. Youth Leader – Member

7. Old Student Association Representatives – Members

8. Present Head boy - Member

9. Present Head girl – Member

10. Vigilante Group – 1 Male

The SBMC must have a minimum of twenty people as members. The responsibilities of the SBMC in each school were given as:

i.   Sensitizing and mobilising the communities during the meetings scheduled by the mobilisation officer both prior to enrolment of pupils and after.

ii. Identifying on-going mobilisation and sensitization needs and communicating these to the mobilisation officer.

iii. Conducting continuous sensitisation activities as organised under different components of GEP3.

Another respondent identified the Mothers Association as another strong factor in the act of carrying out advocacy works with the GEP3. The respondent added that the association is made up of all the mothers of the pupils in each school in a particular community. The responsibilities of the Moms Association (MA) in every network were given as:

i.   Assisting the SBMC in sensitizing and mobilizing communities during the meetings scheduled by mobilization officer both prior to enrolment and after.

ii. Assisting the SBMC in conducting ongoing sensitization activities as organized under different components of GEP3.

GEP3 to a very great extent is carrying out a lot of advocacy works with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic leaders in the two states. They incorporated the support of each and every member of the community. Thus they made the people realise that it is not just about "education for all girl-children" rather it is "all for girls' education".

Research Question 2: What proportion of female teachers has been trained by GEP3 to aid improvement of girl-child education in Sokoto and Katsina State?

Table 4.2: **Proportion of Female Teachers Trained in Sokoto and Katsina states between 2014 and 2017**

Year	Sokoto	Katsina	Difference
2014	350	527	177
2015	No record	No record	_
2016	830	1500	670
2017	250	No record	-

Sources: EDOREN

Table 4.2 shows that in 2014 Sokoto state GEP3 trained 350 female teachers while Katsina state GEP3 trained 527 female teachers respectively under the Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS). There was no record for the number of teachers trained in 2015, it is either teachers were not trained or there was no record for the number of female teachers trained in the two states under the GEP3 Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS). In 2016, 830 female teachers were trained in Sokoto State while Katsina state trained 1500 in the same year. There was an increase in the number of teachers trained in the two states in 2016 when compared with the numbers trained in 2014. While Sokoto state GEP3 trained 250 female teachers under FTTSS in 2017 there was no available record for the number of teachers trained in Katsina state under the FTTSS. Table 4.6 shows that Katsina state GEP3 is training more female teachers under the GEP3 FTTSS compared to the number of female teachers trained in Sokoto state under GEP3 FTTSS.

Discussions

This study found that GEP3 Sokoto and Katsina states are training female teachers through the Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS) every year in their state Colleges of Education. This has been done so as to increase the number of female teachers in the rural areas and also to solve the problem of parents who prefer their daughters to be taught by female teachers. This is not peculiar to the areas studied. Rather, it happens in most conservative communities, where some parents may not enable their girls to be instructed by a male educator. This is the situation in certain territories of Afghanistan, Pakistan and Bangladesh. The

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placement of female teachers can have immediate impact on enrolment, parents may incline toward female teachers over male teachers. An examination in Nepal, for instance, demonstrates that mothers feel more comfortable discussing their children with a female teacher (UNESCO PROAP, 2000).

The finding of this study also agrees with the findings of (Chin, 2004; Makwati, Audinos, and Lairez, 2003; Muralidhara and Sheth, 2014; Rawal and Kingdom, 2010) that the gender of teachers do make a difference for girls' educational outcomes, particularly in socially conservative cultures, where girls and women are confined or isolated into sex-specific spaces and have less mobility, or where concerns are solid about physical or sexual savagery or maltreatment against girls by teachers or students. Research also suggests that hiring more female teachers is essential in settings where there is an incredible difference in the proportion among male and female teachers and where social standards keep women and girls from attending school with male teachers (Kirk, 2004). This study also found that the provision of scholarship for girls has heightened interest in girls' education, increased participation of women in providing education for the girl-child and has created a demand for basic education. The study further found that the placement of female teachers in schools has led to increase in girls' enrolment. This agrees with the finding of Garba (2003) that earlier FTTSS study indicated that in some village's girls' enrolment increased just as the prospect of a female teacher eventually arriving in the village and improved their retention in school.

This finding agrees with the finding of Kirk (2006) that a female role model can support and encourage girls to successfully complete their studies. She can likewise be there to listen to any problems and provide guidance when necessary. However, this study found that going through FTTSS has not prepared the trainees for quality gender responsive pedagogy and gender responsive classroom management. This simply indicate that the gender of the teachers in this situation may not be as important as the possession of the necessary pedagogy to aid girl-child access to basic education, retention in school and learning outcomes. This agrees with the finding of Kirk (2006) and Camfed (2012) that it is important to remember, however, that hiring female teachers is not enough to create supportive environments for girls' education, and that one cannot assume that just because a teacher is a woman that she will always be supportive of girls' education needs. This finding is also in consonance with the finding of Chudgar and Sankar (2008) that the gender of teachers is only one

dimension that influences the teaching and learning process; a focus on the gender of teachers should not detract from also attending to other dimensions of teaching and learning, teacher pedagogy – that is how teachers teach. On the necessity of the bond laid on the FTTSS graduates, majority of the teachers said it was necessary since one of the aims of the FTTSS is to increase the supply of female teachers to rural areas. However, some of the respondents reported that bond has not been efficient due to the fact that some of the FTTSS graduates do not want to teach in rural schools and even the state government is only recruiting very few graduates of FTTSS after the completion of their training.

Research Question 3: Is there any difference in:
a. **girls' access to basic education in both GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto and Katsina States.**

Table 4.3:   The Trend of Girls' Access to Basic Education in GEP3 and Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states

	GEP3 Schools					Non-GEP Schools				
			Basic 5					Basic 5		
Cohorts	Session	Sokoto	% access	Katsina	% access	Session	Sokoto	% access	Katsina	% access
Cohort 1	2014/2015	870	32.6	2564	32.8	2014/2015	434	31.9	1333	30.8
Cohort 2	2015/2016	881	33.1	2559	32.7	2015/2016	447	32.9	1448	33.5
Cohort 3	2016/2017	914	34.3	2694	34.5	2016/2017	478	35.2	1541	35.7

Source: Computation from available school records

Table 4.3 shows slight improvements (from 32.8% and 32.6% to 34.5% and 34.3%, respectively) in girl-child access to education between 2014/2015 and 2016/2017 academic sessions in both Katsina and Sokoto occasioned by GEP3 intervention was relatively lower compared to those in Non-GEP schools (30.8% and 31.9% to 35.7% and 35.2%, respectively).

This implied that GEP3 intervention is working more effectively in terms of aiding the improvement of girl-child access to basic education in both Katsina and Sokoto states between 2014 and 2017, with more effects in Sokoto State. However, access is higher in Non-GEP schools than in GEP3 schools.

Discussions

The study found significant difference in girls' access to basic education in GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto and Katsina states respectively. Girls' access

to basic education is higher in Non-GEP schools than in GEP3 schools in the two states.

The distance of schools from home, costs and transportation problems are some of the primary factors that affect girl's access to basic education. From observations on the field these are some of the factors that could be responsible for the level of access in GEP3 schools. GEP3 schools are located in rural areas, thus they are sometimes distant from pupils homes. This affects girls' access to basic education in GEP3 schools than in Non-GEP schools that are not too distant and quite accessible. This is in agreement with the findings of a research in India which shows that a girl's probability of ever enrolling in school drops by 1 or 2 percentage points if the distance to her primary school increases marginally (Sipahimanlani, 1999).

However, sometimes the physical distance to school is not the only obstacle girls must overcome as regards access to basic education. The culture of the girls' learning environment is another crucial factor. Girls may also experience a vast cultural distance when they leave their own community that may be foreign or unfriendly (Lehman, 2013). This corroborates the findings of Lucas and Mbiti (2012) that even if the direct cost of schooling has been removed, indirect and opportunity costs, like having an adult take time out of his or her day to accompany a girl on her walk to and from school, mixed with cultural barriers, like limited mobility for adolescent girls, may still be factors in parents' decisions to keep daughters at home. Teacher absenteeism and truancy can also affect girls' access to basic education. This assertion was corroborated by the findings of various studies that a first and critical step is to have enough qualified teachers who attend school regularly and are able to engage students in their lessons.

The study shows slight improvements in girl-child access to education in Katsina and Sokoto states occasioned by GEP3 intervention. This could be as a result of the packages of intervention provided by GEP3 which are considered to be a means of improving girls' access to basic education. This current finding corroborates earlier findings of King and Winthrop (2015) that reported that the provision of girls' friendly amenities were observed to be particularly significant in improving women and girls' access to education. They further expressed that the most widely recognized government mediation in education is the immediate provision of state funded schools, which incorporates the development of school structures and classrooms, the

allocation of teachers, and the distribution of textbooks, school supplies, and classroom equipment.

b. Is there any difference in the retention of girl-child in GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto and Katsina States?

Table 4.4:   **The Trend of Retention of Girl-child in GEP3 Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states**

GEP3 Schools										
		Sokoto						Katsina		
Cohorts	Session	Basic 4	Session	Basic 6	% retention	Session	Basic 4	Session	Basic 6	% retention
Cohort 1	2014/2015	612	2016/2017	593	96.9	2014/2015	822	2016/2017	812	98.8
Cohort 2	2015/2016	698	2017/2018	693	99.3	2015/2016	912	2017/2018	901	98.8
	Average Percentage = 98.1%						Average Percentage = 98.8%			

Table 4.5: The Trend of Retention of Girl-child in Non-GEP schools in Sokoto and Katsina states

Non-GEP Schools										
		Sokoto						Katsina		
Cohorts	Session	Basic 4	Session	Basic 6	% retention	Session	Basic 4	Session	Basic 6	% retention
Cohort 1	2014/2015	600	2016/2017	523	87.2	2014/2015	813	2016/2017	733	90.2
Cohort 2	2015/2016	618	2017/2018	509	82.4	2015/2016	828	2017/2018	704	85.0
	Average Percentage = 84.8%						Average Percentage = 87.6%			

Source: Computation from available school records

Tables 4.4 and 4.5 show that the retention rates (98.8% to 98.8%; 96.9% to 99.3%, respectively) between 2014/2015 and 2016 and 2017 academic sessions in GEP3 schools in Sokoto and Katsina states are better than the declining rates in the Non-GEP schools (90.2% to 85.0%; 87.2% to 82.4%).

In comparing the findings obtained from the field on the girls' retention in GEP3 and Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states between 2014 and 2017, it was discovered that more girls stayed till the end of basic education in GEP3 schools than in Non-GEP schools. This implied that GEP3 intervention is working more effectively in terms of aiding the improvement of girl's retention in schools in Katsina and Sokoto states, with more effects in Sokoto State.

Discussions

Analysis of school records showed significant differences in the retention of the girl-child in GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto and Katsina states respectively. The retention rate of girls in GEP3 schools is higher when compared to the retention rate of girls in Non-GEP schools in Sokoto and Katsina states with more effects in Katsina state. This could be as a result of the provision of Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) as a catalytic intervention in GEP3 schools. Some of the conditions for GEP3 CCT are enrolment and attendance. This agrees with the findings of Akresh, de Walque, and Kazianga (2013) that cash conditionalities attached are critical for improving girls' enrolment (both primary and secondary), attendance, retention, transition and completion as well as reducing dropout rates. This is especially true for girls from resource-poor settings and poor households, where parents are forced to make a choice between sending their daughters to school or not.

This finding also agrees with findings from Kenya, where provision of school uniforms to children in primary school significantly reduced girls' school dropout rate from 19% to 16%, and reduced the teen pregnancy rate, from 16% to 13% (Dullo, Dupas and Kremer, 2014). The finding of this current study also agrees with the report of an evaluation of a school supplies programme in Kenya. According to the report of the evaluation, it was discovered that after five years, students participating in the programme had completed 15% more schooling as compared with students in control schools (David, Kremer and Ngatia, 2008).

c. Is there any difference in the learning outcome in GEP3 and Non-GEP schools and Katsina States?

Table 4.6: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in English Studies by GEP3 and Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto State

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t-test for equality of means			
						t	df	t-value (2tailed)	Mean diff
Learning Outcome in English studies	GEP 3	220	6.8545	3.7729	.2544	10.528	345	.000	3.9254
	Non-GEP	127	2.9291	2.4306	.2157				

Table 4.6 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in English studies by GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state. There was significant difference in students' learning outcome in English studies by GEP 3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state. The GEP3 Schools have (mean = 6.8545; SD = 3.7729) while the Non-GEP Schools have (mean = 2.9291; SD = 2.4306). The mean difference (3.9254) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level (t $_{(345)}$ = 10.528, p < 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in English studies in GEP3 schools than in Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state.

Table 4.7: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in Basic science by GEP3 and Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto State

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t-test for equality of means			
						t	df	t-value (2tailed)	Mean diff
Learning Outcome in Basic science	GEP3	220	6.8773	4.0991	.2764	11.060	345	.000	4.3103
	Non-GEP	127	2.5669	2.0686	.1836				

Table 4.7 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in Basic Science by GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in Basic Science by GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state. The GEP3 Schools have (mean = 6.8773; SD = 4.0991) while the Non-GEP Schools have (mean = 2.5669; SD = 2.0686). The mean difference (4.3103) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level (t $_{(345)}$ = 11.060, p < 0.05). This

implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in Basic Science in GEP3 schools than in Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state.

Table 4.8: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in Mathematics by GEP3 and Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto State

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t-test for equality of means			
						t	df	t-value (2tailed)	Mean diff
Learning Outcome in Mathematics	GEP3	220	6.7091	2.8488	.1921	10.883	345	.000	3.2524
	Non-GEP	127	3.4567	2.3629	.2097				

Table 4.8 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in Mathematics by GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in Mathematics by GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state. The GEP3 Schools have (mean = 6.7091; SD = 2.8488) while the Non-GEP Schools have (mean = 3.4567; SD = 2.3629). The mean difference (3.2524) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level ($t_{(345)}$ = 10.883, p < 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in Mathematics in GEP3 schools than in Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state.

Table 4.9: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in English studies by GEP3 and Non-GEP Schools in Katsina State

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t-test for equality of means			
						t	df	t-value (2tailed)	Mean diff
Learning Outcome in English studies	GEP3	448	11.1808	3.3225	.1570	3.004	806	.003	.8197
	Non-GEP	360	10.3611	4.4299	.2335				

Table 4.9 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in English studies by GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Katsina state. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in English studies by GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Katsina state. The GEP 3 Schools have (mean = 11.1808; SD = 3.3225) while the Non-GEP Schools have (mean = 10.3611; SD = 4.4299). The mean difference (.8197) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level ($t_{(806)}$ = 3.004, p

< 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in English studies in GEP3 schools than in Non-GEP schools in Katsina state.

Table 4.10: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in Basic Science by GEP3 and Non-GEP Schools in Katsina State

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t	df	t-value (2tailed)	Mean diff
Learning Outcome in Basic science	GEP3	448	13.4688	5.2451	.2478	11.960	806	.000	4.1410
	Non-GEP	360	9.3278	4.4124	.2326				

Table 4.10 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in Basic Science by GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Katsina state. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in Basic Science by GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Katsina state. The GEP3 Schools have (mean = 13.4688; SD = 9.3278) while the Non-GEP Schools have (mean = 9.3278; SD = 4.4124). The mean difference (4.1410) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level (t $_{(806)}$ = 11.960, p < 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in Basic Science in GEP3 schools than in Non-GEP schools in Katsina state.

Table 4.11: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in Mathematics by GEP3 and Non-GEP Schools in Katsina State

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t	df	t-value (2tailed)	Mean diff
Learning Outcome in Mathematics	GEP3	448	10.9196	3.7836	.1788	3.752	806	.000	1.0391
	Non-GEP	360	9.8806	4.0676	.2144				

Table 4.11 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in Mathematics by GEP 3 and Non-GEP 3 schools in Katsina state. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in Mathematics by GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Katsina state. The GEP3 Schools have (mean = 10.9196; SD = 3.7836) while the Non-GEP Schools have (mean = 9.8806; SD = 4.0676). The mean difference (1.0391) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level (t $_{(806)}$ = 3.752, p < 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in Mathematics in GEP3 schools than in Non-GEP schools in Katsina state.

Table 4.12: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in English Studies by GEP3 Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t-test for equality of means			
						t	Df	t-value (2tailed)	Mean diff
Learning Outcome in English studies	Sokoto	220	6.8545	3.7729	.2544	15.114	666	.000	4.3263
	Katsina	448	11.1808	3.3225	.1570				

Table 4.12 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in English studies by GEP 3 Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in English studies by GEP3 Schools in both states. The GEP3 Schools in Sokoto have (mean = 6.8545; SD = 3.7729) while the GEP 3 Schools in Katsina have (mean = 11.1808; SD = 3.3225). The mean difference (4.3263) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level (t $_{(666)}$ = 15.114, p < 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in English studies in GEP3 schools in Katsina state than GEP3 schools in Sokoto state.

Table 4.13: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in Basic Science by GEP3 Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t-test for equality of means			
						t	df	t-value (2tailed)	Mean diff
Learning Outcome in Basic science	Sokoto	220	6.8773	4.0991	.2764	16.347	666	.000	6.5915
	Katsina	448	13.4688	5.2451	.2478				

Table 4.13 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in Basic science by GEP3 Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in Basic science by GEP3 Schools in both states. The GEP3 Schools in Sokoto have (mean = 6.8773; SD = 4.0991) while the GEP3 Schools in Katsina have (mean = 13.4688; SD = 5.2451). The mean difference (6.5915) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level (t $_{(666)}$ = 16.347, p < 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in Basic science in GEP3 schools in Katsina state than in GEP3 schools in Sokoto state.

Table 4.14: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in Mathematics by GEP3 Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t-test for equality of means			
						t	df	t-value (2tailed)	Mean diff
Learning Outcome in Mathematics	Sokoto	220	6.7091	2.8488	.1921	14.597	666	.000	4.2106
	Katsina	448	10.9196	3.7836	.1788				

Table 4.14 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in Mathematics by GEP 3 Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in Mathematics by GEP3 Schools in both states. The GEP3 Schools in Sokoto have (mean = 6.7091; SD = 2.8488) while the GEP3 Schools in Katsina have (mean = 10.9196; SD = 3.7836). The mean difference (4.2106) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level (t $_{(666)}$ = 14.597, p < 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in Basic science in GEP3 schools in Katsina state than in GEP3 schools in Sokoto state.

Table 4.15: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in English Studies by Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t-test for equality of means			
						t	df	t-value (2tailed)	Mean diff
Learning Outcome in English studies	Sokoto	127	2.9291	2.4306	.2157	17.968	485	.000	7.4320
	Katsina	360	10.3611	4.4299	.2335				

Table 4.15 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in English studies by Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in English studies by Non-GEP Schools in both states. The Non- GEP Schools in Sokoto have (mean = 2.9291; SD = 2.4306) while the Non-GEP Schools in Katsina have (mean = 10.3611; SD = 4.4299). The mean difference (7.4320) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level (t $_{(485)}$ = 17.968, p < 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in English studies in Non-GEP schools in Katsina state than in GEP schools in Sokoto state.

Table 4.16: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in Basic Science by Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t	df	Sig (2tailed)	Mean diff
						t-test for equality of means			
Learning Outcome in Basic science	Sokoto	127	2.5669	2.0686	.1836	16.627	485	.000	6.7609
	Katsina	360	9.3278	4.4124	.2326				

Table 4.16 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in Basic science by Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in Basic science by Non-GEP Schools in both states. The Non- GEP 3 Schools in Sokoto have (mean = 2.5669; SD = 2.0686) while the Non-GEP Schools in Katsina have (mean = 9.3278; SD = 4.4124). The mean difference (6.7609) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level ($t_{(485)}$ = 16.627, p < 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in Basic science in Non-GEP schools in Katsina state than in Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state.

Table 4.17: t-test for Students' Learning Outcome in Mathematics by Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states

Variable	Group	N	Mean	Std Dev	Std error mean	t	df	Sig (2tailed)	Mean diff
						t-test for equality of means			
Learning Outcome in Mathematics	Sokoto	127	3.4567	2.3629	.2097				
						16.817	485	.000	6.4239
	Katsina	360	9.8806	4.0676	.2144				

Table 4.17 shows the result of t-test analysis of students' learning outcome in Mathematics by Non-GEP Schools in Sokoto and Katsina states. There was significant difference in the students' learning outcome in Mathematics by Non-GEP Schools in both states. The Non- GEP Schools in Sokoto have (mean = 3.4567; SD = 2.3629) while the Non-GEP Schools in Katsina have (mean = 9.8806; SD = 4.0676). The mean difference (6.4239) is statistically significant at 0.05 alpha level ($t_{(485)}$ = 16.817, p < 0.05). This implied that there is an improvement in learning outcome in

Basic science by Non-GEP schools in Katsina state than in Non-GEP schools in Sokoto state.

Discussions

There was significant difference in the learning outcome of pupils in GEP3 and Non-GEP schools in Sokoto and Katsina states respectively. The learning outcome of pupils in GEP3 schools is higher than in Non-GEP schools in the two states with more effects in Sokoto State.

This finding agrees with the earlier finding in the Burkinabe Response to improve Girl's chances to succeed (BRIGHT) programme in Burkina Faso, which placed well-resourced schools in 132 villages. The packages of interventions provided included in addition to other things, school construction, teaching and learning inputs, teacher support and housing, gender sensitivity training for officials, incentives for children to attend school and a mechanism for mobilising community support for education in general and for girls' education in particular. The program results were promising. Enrolment of all children ascended by 19% and scores improved by 0.41 standard deviation on tests that covered Mathematics and French. (Kazianga, H., de Walque, D., and Alderman, H., 2012).

Research Question 4a: What are the constraints militating against the effectiveness of the GEP3 (in terms of implementation and achievement of its objectives) as identified by all stakeholders (project implementers, project beneficiaries (indirect) and Islamic teachers in Sokoto and Katsina States?

Constraints militating against the effectiveness of GEP 3

The interactions with the traditional leaders, parents, teachers and Islamic leaders revealed that late disbursement of funds, irregular training and monitoring of teachers, teacher absenteeism, unavailability of sufficient teachers, misconception of religious teachings and unskilled activities of unqualified teachers are factors affecting the implementation and achievement of GEP3 objectives. This can be deduced from the responses of the respondents.

"untimely release of funds as and when due by project implementers"

A female teacher

This was also confirmed by an official of GEP3 that "*late disbursement of funds has influenced the project negatively*".

Judging from the responses of these respondents it was indicated that sufficient fund was not released as and when due for the implementation of the project objectives and this is having a negative influence on the achievement of the project objectives.

Also, irregular training of teachers, teachers' absenteeism, unavailability of sufficient teachers in rural areas and not monitoring the activities of teachers affect the implementation and achievement of GEP3 objectives as stated by some respondents. A male head teacher indicated that *"most teachers do not want to work in rural areas.*

Female teachers who were trained under the Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme (FTTSS), which is one of the catalytic interventions of GEP3 are meant to teach in rural schools for two years after completing their programmes in the states Colleges of Education but most of these teachers prefer to teach in urban areas. Though, FTTSS beneficiaries are supposed to fulfill a two-year bond after the completion of their programmes, but like most teachers they also want to teach in urban areas. A male head teacher confirmed that *"female teachers trainee scholarship scheme beneficiaries are not left out of the preference for teaching in urban areas*"

Aside this, most of the teachers play multiple roles in their communities and this affect their roles as teachers. This implicitly affects their pupils learning outcome which could lead to withdrawal of these pupils from school as a result of poor performance. A male head teacher also confirmed that: "*some of the teachers have multiple roles in the community in which they work or multiple jobs, all taking them away from school or even class most times*"

It can be said that most teachers even the FTTSS beneficiaries do not want to teach in the rural areas as a result of lack of motivation, lack of incentives, unavailability of social amenities and multiplicity of the roles they play.

Lack of seriousness on the part of the pupils also militates against the achievement of GEP3 objectives. One of the objectives of GEP3 is to improve girls learning outcomes. However, these girls do not attend school regularly and this affects the quality of their learning outcomes. For example, a female teacher had this to say "*some children do not come to school regularly. This attitude impacts negatively on their learning*".

Also, lack of the correct understanding of Islamic creeds affects parents' decision either to enrol their girls in school, make them stay in school or complete their education. A male teacher confirmed that "*parents still withdraw their daughters from school as a result of religious misinterpretation. Some even prefer to send their children especially girls to Islamic schools. Some of these girls will be married off immediately they reach puberty*"

The girls' inability to read and do simple arithmetic is a very huge constraint to the achievement of one of the objectives of GEP3, which is to improve the learning outcome of girls. The majority of the girls sampled for the study have not acquired basic competencies and foundational skills at the basic education level.

> "*low achievement of the pupils especially the girls is due to poor quality of schooling. Really, most of these girls are coming to school now but they cannot read*"

> A male teacher

In summary, untimely release of funds, multiplicity of roles played by teachers, pupils' absenteeism, lack of the correct understanding of the Islamic creed and poor quality schooling are some of the problems militating against the implementation and achievement of GEP3 objectives.

Discussions

This study revealed that there are constraints hindering the effectiveness of GEP3 in terms of its implementation and achievement of its objectives as identified by traditional leaders, religious leaders, parents, teachers and GEP3 staff. These include: late disbursement of funds by the project implementers, teachers do not want to work in rural areas, irregular training and monitoring, teacher absenteeism, insufficient teachers in rural areas among others. As stated by majority of the respondents, the implementers of the project do not release funds on time. Most times they release the funds late and this affect the achievement of the objectives of the project. They suggested that funds should be released as at when due.

Another major constraint identified by the project beneficiaries is the issue of insufficient teachers in the rural areas which may be as a result of lack of motivation. Hence this affects their desire to stay in these rural schools. This finding is in line with the findings of Adelabu (2005), Adekola (2007), Sherry (2008) and Dunee et al. (2013) that teacher motivation generally in Nigeria has been found to be low, often

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leading to high levels of absenteeism, especially in rural areas and also leading to high level of attrition (Urwick and Aliyu, 2003). The main issues affecting teacher motivation, which Federal Ministry of Education (FME) recognises, include low pay, inadequate issues affecting teacher support, limited career prospects and poor infrastructure and teaching conditions (FME, 2009a). Hence, this affects the learning outcome of the girls. This finding also agrees with the finding of Sperling and Winthrop (2016) that submitted that reviews find that the first and basic step is to have enough qualified teachers who attend school regularly and are able to engage students in their lessons. This implies that the project implementers should offer teacher's incentives as this may help reduce teacher absenteeism and improve student achievement. This has been found to be effective in South Korea. In South Korea, an incentive program offering better pay and better working conditions attracts a larger proportion (77%) of qualified teachers to disadvantaged schools in villages and small towns than in large urban cities (32%). Explicitly, teachers serving in a difficult area are given salary incentives, smaller class sizes, reduced teaching time, the opportunity to choose their next school (teachers rotate every five years), and promotion to administrative positions (King and Hong, 2008; Thomas, Chudgar and Rew; 2013).

Teachers playing multiple roles, lack of appropriate pedagogical skills, pupils playing truancy and pupils' lack of basic skills were all indicated as major constraints militating against the effectiveness of GEP3 in terms of implementation and achievement of its objectives. Some teachers were said to be performing multiple roles in the communities where they are working. This may affect their effectiveness in the classroom. Most of the Islamic teachers are also Imams while others belong to one committee or the other in their various communities. This finding agrees with the finding of Sperling and Winthrop (2016) that in many places, teachers have multiple roles in the community or has multiple jobs, all taking them away from class. It was also indicated that lack of basic skills by the girls may affect their retention in school. This finding is in consonance with the finding of Winthrop and McGivney (2015) that once girls enrol and remain in school, the third major hurdle they face is to ensure that they are learning well while there. Undoubtedly, the quality of schooling and girls' ability to complete school are closely related. In the event that girls are struggling to master their lessons, they are most likely to fall behind in school and ultimately drop out.

Furthermore, the respondents claimed that religious misinterpretations and gender norms to some extent remain constraints hindering the achievement of the objectives of GEP3 even with the sensitization activities going on about the benefits of girls' education.

Research Question 4b: What are the possible solutions or suggestions for effective implementation and achievement of the objectives of the GEP3 in Sokoto and Katsina?

Possible solutions and suggestions for the achievement of GEP3 objectives

The interactions with the traditional leaders, parents and teachers revealed that timely disbursement of funds, regular training and monitoring of teachers, continuous delivery of sermons, enlightenment of stakeholders on the negative effects of gender roles on girl-child education, ensuring that mobilization and sensitization are heightened and that emphasis shift to quality learning outcome for girls from access to basic education and retention in school are some of the probable solutions to the constraints against the effectiveness of GEP3 and solutions that will aid the implementation and achievement of the objectives of GEP3. A male head teacher responded that *"teachers posted to rural areas should be given incentives and motivated to work"*

With regard to religious inhibition, the religious leaders are to ensure that sermons are continually delivered on the benefits of educating the girl-child. This is to correct the misinterpretations of the Islamic teachings by some of the parents on the Islamic perspective of educating the girl-child. A male teacher supporting this indicated that religious leaders should *"ensure the continuous delivery of sermons about the benefits of educating the girl-child.*

In order to curb the problem of poor quality schooling which is affecting the learning outcome of the girl-child a female teacher suggested that *"regular attendance in school and acquisition of better basic skills should be part of the criterion for the eligibility for cash transfer for the female pupils"*

It can be deduced from the responses of the teachers that incentives should be given to teachers posted to rural areas and they should be motivated to work, sermons should be continually delivered by religious leaders while regular attendance in school and acquisition of better basic skills should be part of the criterion for the eligibility for cash transfer for female pupils.

Since teachers are pivotal to the implementation and achievement of GEP3 objectives, efforts should be made to train them regularly and their activities should also be monitored. This will aid the implementation and achievement of GEP3 objectives. A male parent opined that *"regular training and monitoring of teachers activities should be ensured.*

Respondents concluded that to ensure improvement of teacher pedagogical skills and pupils achievement of foundational skills required at this level, teachers must be regularly trained and their activities monitored.

Timely disbursement of funds by the project implementers and ensuring its proper usage is very crucial to the effective implementation and achievement of the objectives of GEP3, while the actualization of crossing the third hurdle (quality learning outcome for girls) after the first two hurdles (access to basic education and retention in school) should be emphasized. According to a traditional leader *"to solve the problem of finance, the project implementers should disburse funds early and ensure its proper usage.* Another traditional leader summed it up, *"emphasis on girl-child access to basic education and retention in school should shift to quality learning outcome of the girls".*

Largely, the traditional leaders suggested that to solve the problem of late disbursement of funds, the project implementers should disburse funds early and ensure its proper usage. They also suggested that emphasis should shift to quality learning outcome of the girls from access to basic education and retention in school. GEP3 officials commented that parents and the society at large should be enlightened on the negative effects of gender roles on girl-child education while mobilization and sensitization should be heightened.

> *"enlighten all stakeholders on the negative effects of gender roles on girl-child education"*
>
> A GEP3 official

Mobilization and sensitization are major advocacy works carried out by GEP3 with all stakeholders in order to ensure the promotion of girl-child education, gender parity in basic education, equal learning outcome and profitable outcomes from the huge investments on girl-child education made by the project implementers. A GEP3 official suggested that *"mobilization and sensitization should be heightened"*

Conclusively, gender discrimination and gender stereotypic acts affect the education of the girl-child and so there is the need to heighten the mobilization and sensitization of all educational stakeholders on the negative effects of gender roles on girl-child education. In order to achieve gender parity in education, equal learning outcome among girls and boys and profitable outcomes from the huge investments on girl-child education made by the project implementers gender discrimination and gender inequalities in education must be eliminated wherever they exist.

Discussions

The project beneficiaries gave various suggestions which could bring about effective implementation and better achievement of the project's objectives. The suggested solutions are: disbursement of funds as at when due, given incentives to teachers posted to rural areas, regular trainings and monitoring of teachers. Vavrus (2009) and Schweisfurth (2011) in their works found that training teachers and providing them with continued support for improving how they teach can be effective in improving quality learning opportunities for girls and boys. Unterhalter (2012) suggested that the lesson learnt from existing studies is that teacher training must be simultaneously accompanied by a focus on improving the conditions in which teachers teach and on providing them with continuous professional support and opportunities for training and gaining further qualifications. In order to improve teachers attendance and punctuality in school as well as the learning outcome of the pupils especially the girl-child regular monitoring have been suggested as a probable solution.

Other suggestions include emphasising importance of improved learning outcome through acquisition of the basic skills. The parents and their daughters should be enlightened on the fact that girls' access to school is the first hurdle, retention in school is the second hurdle and after crossing these two hurdles, the third major hurdle they face is to ensure that they are learning well while they are there. This hurdle is as important if not more important than the first two hurdles.

Research Question 5: To what extent are the school environments in Sokoto and Katsina states gender responsive with respect to:
   a. **availability of responsive infrastructure**
   b. **gender responsive classroom setup**
   c. **availability of responsive teaching and learning materials**
   d. **gender responsive interactions**
   e. **gender responsive school management**

Research Question 5a

Table 4.18:   Availability of Gender Responsive Infrastructure (Sokoto and Katsina states)

	Are the following available in your school:	Sokoto State				Katsina State			
		Available Freq. (%)	Not Available Freq. (%)	Mean	SD	Available Freq. (%)	Not Available Freq. (%)	Mean	SD
1.	Boarding facilities	-	42 (100)	2.000	.000	-	42 (100)	2.000	.000
2.	Potable water	41 (97.6)	1 (2.4)	1.024	.154	28 (66.7)	14 (33.3)	1.667	.477
3.	Separate health facilities for boys and girls	2 (4.8)	40 (95.2)	1.952	.216	9 (21.4)	33 (78.6)	1.786	.415
4.	Separate recreational facilities for boys and girls	-	42 (100)	2.00	.000	14 (33.3)	28 (66.7)	1.667	.477
5.	Separate libraries for boys and girls	3 (7.1)	39 (92.9)	1.929	.261	5 (11.9)	37 (88.1)	1.881	.328
6.	Separate toilet facilities for boys and girls	31 (73.8)	11 (26.2)	1.262	.445	25 (59.7)	17 (40.5)	1.405	.497
7.	Sanitary bins in girls' toilets	-	42 (100)	2.000	.000	10 (23.8)	32 (76.2)	1.762	.431
8.	Hangers, hooks or nails in the girls' toilets	1 (2.4)	41 (97.6)	1.976	.154	6 (14.3)	36 (85.7)	1.857	.354
9.	Guidance and counseling unit for girls	11 (26.2)	31 (73.8)	1.738	.445	24 (57.1)	18 (42.9)	1.429	.501
		Grand Mean = 15.881 Weighted Mean = 1.7646				Grand Mean = 15..454 Weighted Mean = 1.717			

Table 4.18 reveals that all the schools (100%) in Sokoto and Katsina states do not have boarding facilities (item 1). Also, all the schools (100%) in Sokoto state do not have separate recreational facilities for boys and girls (item 4) whereas 33.3% have such facilities for their students in Katsina state. Furthermo re, 100% of the schools in Sokoto state do not make provisions for sanitary bins in the girls' toilets (item 7) whereas 10 schools (24%) provided this facility in Kasina state.

However, majority of the schools in Sokoto state (98%) provided portable water (item 2) while only 28 (67%) schools in Katsina state did. More than 90% of the schools in Sokoto state did not provide hangers, hooks or nails in the girls' toilets (item 8) and separate health facilities for boys and girls (item 3). Whereas in Katsina state only 6 (14.3%) schools provided hangers, hooks or nails in the girls' toilets

while only 1 (2.4%) has such facilities for their students in Sokoto state and as regards separate health facilities only 9 (21.4%) provided such facilities in Katsina state. Also, majority of the schools in Sokoto state (92.9%) did not provide separate libraries for girls and boys (item 5) while only 5 (11.9%) schools in Katsina did. Furthermore, 11 (26.2%) schools do not provide separate toilet facilities for boys and girls (item 6) in Sokoto state whereas 25 (59.7%) provided this facility in Katsina state.   Moreover, only 11 (26.25%) schools in Sokoto state provided guidance and counselling unit for girls (item 9) while 24 (57.1%) schools provided such facility in Katsina state.

Discussions

The study found that gender responsive infrastructures like portable water and separate toilet facilities are available in most of the schools used for the study. This may be responsible for access and retention. Lack of toilets and water facilities in the schools have been distinguished as contributory components to girls' withdrawal from school. The finding of this investigation is in consonance with the finding of Onyilo, Onbolu, Muhammed and Gege (2008) that the intersectoral coordinated effort between Basic Education (BE) and Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) program bringing about the arrangement of water and sanitation offices has had exceptional effect on the victories recorded in expanded enrolment, participation/maintenance of students, particularly girls in the schools. The specialists further inferred that the development of water and sanitation offices in elementary schools have helped an ideal sterile condition which is safe and conducive for physical, mental and emotional health of the school community vital for the child to achieve maximum benefits from educational programmes.

This further corroborates FAWE (2005) that ensuring adequate toilet facilities may be a budget issue, but again the impact of not doing so can affect the learning process. Moreover, some schools do not have separate toilets for girls and boys, and even if they do the toilets may be too close together to provide adequate privacy for girls. In addition, the girls' toilets may not be conducive for girls to change their sanitary wear. A simple attachment like a hook or a nail to enable the girls to hang items on the inside of the toilet door may be necessary, along with a supply of water to facilitate menstrual hygiene.

Anjali (2014) found that in India, school latrine construction reduced dropout rates relatively equally for both girls and boys. Also randomized trial in Kenya

demonstrated that sanitation improvements reduced girls' school absence. Schools that had student to toilet ratios greater than the government standard of 24:1 for boys and 30:1 for girls, and had a water source within 1 kilometre of the school during dry season, were randomly selected and randomly assigned to receive a combination of hygiene promotion (HP) and water treatment (WT) – or of HP, WT and toilet construction- in addition to a control group that received nothing. Girls in the HP and WT treatment group were estimated to experience a reduction in absence by 6.1 days per girl per year. A similar effect was shown for girls in the HP, WT and toilet construction group. These girls were estimated to reduce their absenteeism by 6.8 days per girl per year. The study was limited in its ability to explain the causal mechanisms behind the impact on girls' attendance, although the findings indicate that these interventions can be effective in creating a more girl-friendly environment (Freeman, Greene, Drebelbis, Saboori, Muga, Brumback and Rheingans, 2012).

Research Question 5b
Table 4.19: Gender Responsive Classroom Setup

S/N	STATEMENTS	Sokoto State		Katsina State	
	Does the class consider the following approaches when responding to the needs of both boy and girls:	Yes Freq. (%)	No Freq. (%)	Yes Freq. (%)	No Freq. (%)
1.	Classroom set up that mixes girls and boys	-	42 (100)	-	42 (100)
2.	Classroom set up that enhances participation of both girls and boys	36 (85.7)	6 (14.3)	36 (85.7)	6 (14.3)
3.	Arrangement of furniture that encourages girls to speak out and overcome their shyness	35 (83.3)	7 (16.7)	33 (78.6)	9 (21.4)
4.	Stools in laboratories that are appropriate in size and shape thus enabling effective participation of both girls and boys	9 (21.4)	33 (78.6)	12 (28.6)	30 (71.4)
5.	Fixtures and visual aids on the walls that send gender responsive messages	14 (33.3)	28 (66.7)	20 (47.6)	22 (52.4)
6.	Appropriate shelf heights in libraries	6 (14.3)	36 (85.7)	10 (23.8)	32 (76.2)
7.	Appropriate size of desks and chairs that gives convenience	32 (76.2)	10 (23.8)	23 (54.8)	19 (45.2)
8.	Appropriate weight of desks and chairs that can be easily be moved about.	34 (81.0)	8 (9.0)	28 (66.7)	14 (33.3)

Table 4.19 reveals that all the schools (100%) in Sokoto and Katsina states have classroom setups that do not mix shows girls and boys (item 1). Also, more than 80% classroom setups in schools in both Sokoto and Katsina states enhance participation of both girls and boys (item 2). More than 80% of the classrooms in schools in Sokoto state arranged their furniture in such a way that it encourages girls

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to speak out and overcome their shyness (item 3) whereas 33 (78.6%) provides such facilities for their students in Katsina state. Also, more than 80% of schools provided appropriate weight of desks and chairs that can be easily moved (item 8) about while more than 60% provided such facilities for their students in Katsina state. Furthermore, 32 (76.2%) schools in Sokoto state provides appropriate size of desks and chairs that gives convenience (item 7) while 23 (54.8%) schools provided such facilities for their students in Katsina state. whereas libraries in schools in Sokoto state do not have appropriate shelf heights (item 6) whereas 10 (23.8%) libraries in schools in Katsina state have such facilities for their students. Further, the result revealed that more than 70% of laboratories in schools in Katsina state do not have stools that are appropriate in size and shape thus enabling effective participation of both girls and boys (item 4) whereas 12 (28.6%) schools provided such facilities for their students in Sokoto state. More than 60% of schools in Sokoto do not have fixtures and visual aids on the walls that send gender responsive messages (item 5) whereas 20 (47.6%) have such aids in their classrooms in Katsina state.

Discussions

This study found that the classroom setup in the schools used for the study were gender responsive. This can affect the way the pupils learn. Evidently, FAWE (2005) reported that how the classroom is arranged can contribute positively or negatively to teaching and learning processes. Some schools put a lot of effort into creating orderly learning environments, from the layout of the furniture in the classroom or laboratory and the use of walls for illustrations, to the quality of chairs and desks as well as the overall physical infrastructure. Other schools seem to find it difficult to address the issue of classroom set up, particularly when classes are large. It is important for teachers (and school managers) to understand how the configuration and maintenance of learning spaces affects the quality and gender responsiveness of the education provided therein. Also, fixtures and visual aids in the classroom must not send gender-biased messages or be gender stereotypic in nature as this can affect the pupils especially the girls. The finding of study does not correspond with the submission of FAWE (2005) that a gender responsive classroom set up responds to the specific needs of both boys and girls. And that this approach considers the fixtures and visual aids on the walls that send gender responsive messages, classroom set ups

are mixed and stools in laboratories are appropriate in size and shape thus enabling effective participation of both girls and boys respectively.

Research Question 5c

Table 4.20: **Gender Responsiveness in term of Availability of Teaching and Learning Materials**

	Sokoto State		Katsina State	
Teaching and Learning Materials	**Yes Freq. (%)**	**No Freq. (%)**	**Yes Freq. (%)**	**No Freq. (%)**
1. The textbooks contain gender stereotypes	40 (95.2)	2 (4.8)	25 (59.5)	17 (40.5)
2. The visual aids contain gender stereotypes	26 (61.9)	16 (38.1)	26 (61.9)	16 (38.1)
3. The teacher reviews the teaching and learning materials for gender responsiveness	40 (95.2)	1 (4.8)	30 (71.4)	12 (28.6)
4. Wherever gender-biased illustrations, examples or statements appear in textbooks, the teacher adds interpretations and examples to capture gender responsiveness	23 (54.8)	19 (45.2)	34 (81.0)	8 (19.0)
5. Teacher uses gender responsive classroom illustrations, charts, pictures and diagrams to fill the gender gaps in textbooks	16 (38.1)	26 (61.9)	8 (19.0)	34 (81.0)

Table 4.20 reveals that more than 90% of the textbooks used in Sokoto state contained gender stereotypes (item 1) whereas about 60% of the textbooks used in Katsina state contained gender stereotypes. However, more than 90% teachers in Sokoto state indicated that they review the teaching and learning materials for gender responsiveness (item 3) whereas more than 70% teachers indicated that they do this in schools in Katsina state. Also, more than 60% of the visual aids in schools in both Sokoto and Katsina states contained gender stereotypes (item 2). Moreover, 23 (54.8%) of the teachers in Sokoto state indicated that wherever gender biased illustrations, examples or statements appear in textbooks they added interpretations and examples to capture gender responsiveness (item 4) while 34 (81%) did same in schools in Katsina state. Furthermore, 16 (38.1%) of teachers in Sokoto state used gender responsive classroom illustrations, charts, pictures and diagrams to fill the gender gaps in textbooks (item 6) while 8 (19%) of teachers in schools in Katsina state did same in their schools.

Discussions

The findings of this study indicated that the textbooks used in the schools are majorly gender biased. In these textbooks, females tend to be under represented; males and females are associated with certain personal traits and are depicted in stereotyped ways in both occupational and domestic spheres. This agrees with the finding of Blumberg (2007) that over the past three decades an increasing number of studies have been undertaken to examine the gender context of textbooks; female tend to greatly under represented; males and females are associated with certain personal traits; they are depicted in stereotyped ways in both occupational and domestic spheres.

This finding is in consonance with the findings Hazir and Skelton (2013) who reported that in Pakistan, a recent gender analysis of public school textbooks found that illustrations and depictions of women and men continue to perpetuate dominant gender stereotypes and gender norms, "fixing" the idea that men dominate Pakistani society. Men were far more likely to be represented in positions of authority and power – such as judges, police and army officers, business executives and independent farmers – whereas images of less prestigious occupations were populated by women. Similarly, a gender analysis of Jordanian national curriculum illustrates that not only are textbooks highly gender biased in the explicit images and languages used, but the hidden ideological messages embedded throughout also convey a particularly disempowering desirability for women to remain in the home and legitimize the role of education as preparing girls for the marriage rather than the labour market (Mayyada, 2014).

The study also found that wherever gender-biased illustrations, examples or statements appear in textbooks, the teacher adds interpretations and examples to capture gender responsiveness and also use gender responsive classroom illustrations, charts, pictures and diagrams to fill the gender gaps in textbooks respectively. This agrees with the findings of Blumberg (2015) and Camfed (2012) that to date, the literature on gender and textbooks has been dominated by studies that illustrate how curricular materials are gender biased, rather than evaluating the impact of attempts to gender sensitize them. But what we have learned from practitioner wisdom is that when schools pay attention to whether their curricular and teaching materials not only reflect principles of gender equality but also explicitly teach issues of gender equality, girls tremendously.

Research Question 5d
Table 4.21: Gender Responsive Interactions

	Interactions	Sokoto State		Katsina State	
		Yes **Freq. (%)**	**No** **Freq. (%)**	**Yes** **Freq. (%)**	**No** **Freq. (%)**
1.	Teacher interacts equally with both girls and boys	42 (100)	-	41 (97.6)	1 (4.8)
2.	Students interacts equally amongst themselves	40 (95.2)	2 (4.8)	40 (95.2)	2 (4.8)
3.	Male domination exists in the class	27 (64.3)	15 (35.7)	32 (76.2)	10 (23.8)
4.	Female passivity exists in the class	37 (88.1)	5 (11.9)	25 (59.5)	17 (40.5)
5.	Class interaction makes the learning environment conducive	42 (100)	-	41 (97.6)	1 (4.8)
6.	Teacher addresses the girls by name	42 (100)	-	39 (92.9)	3 (7.1)
7.	Teacher encourages diverse point(s) of view from the girls	41 (97.6)	1 (4.8)	37 (88.1)	5 (11.9)
8.	Teacher encourages girls to talk in the class	41 (97.6)	1 (4.8)	42 (100)	-
9.	Teacher encourages relevant student-led discussion by the girls	39 (92.9)	3 (7.1)	38 (90.5)	4 (9.5)
10.	Teacher uses probing questions to build on answers giving by girls	39 (92.9)	3 (7.1)	36 (85.7)	6 (9.5)
11.	Teacher uses a variety of strategies in class to aid improvement in the learning outcome of the girls	3 (7.1)	39 (92.9)	2 (4.8)	40 (95.2)
12.	Teacher allows all students to participate in the learning activities	42 (100)	-	42 (100)	-
13.	Students participate equally in class presentation	2 (4.8)	40 (95.2)	9 (21.4)	33 (78.6)
14.	Teacher asks girls questions	42 (100)	-	40 (95.2)	2 (4.8)
15.	Teacher encourages girls to take up leadership positions in class projects	40 (95.2)	2 (4.8)	36 (85.7)	6 (14.3)
16.	Teachers encourages girls to take up role as class prefects	36 (85.7)	6 (14.3)	39 (92.9)	3 (7.1)
17.	Both girls and boys have a chance to use equipments during practical science experiments	5 (11.9)	37 (88.1)	14 (33.3)	28 (66.7)
18.	Girls have a chance to use equipments during practical science experiments	5 (11.9)	37 (88.1)	27 (64.3)	15 (35.7)
19.	Boys have a chance to use equipment during practical science experiments	37 (88.1)	5 (11.9)	27 (64.3)	15 (35.7)
20.	Teaching and learning processes are responsive to the specific needs of girls	24 (57.1)	18 (42.9)	38 (90.5)	4 (9.5)
21.	Teaching and learning processes are responsive to the specific needs of boys	24 (57.1)	18 (42.9)	36 (85.7)	6 (14.3)
22.	Teacher encourages female pupils to talk during class activities	42 (100)	-	41 (97.6)	1 (4.8)
23.	Teacher encourages female pupils to lead discussions during class	42 (100)	-	37 (88.1)	5 (11.9)

Table 4.21 reveals that all the teachers (100%) in Sokoto and Katsina states allowed all students to participate in the learning activities (100%) (item 12). Also, all the teachers (100%) in Sokoto state interacted equally with both girls and boys (item 1) while more than 90% did the same in schools in Katsina state. The result also reveals that class interaction makes the learning environment conducive (item 5) in all

the schools (100%) in Sokoto state while more than 90% did the same in schools in Katsina state. Also, all the teachers (100%) in schools in Sokoto addressed the girls by name (item 6) while more than 90% did the same in Katsina state. Moreover, all the teachers in schools in Sokoto state encouraged the female pupils to talk during class activities (item 22) while 41 (97.6%) did same in schools in Katsina state. Also, all the teachers (100%) in Sokoto state asked the girl's questions (item 14) while more than 90% do same in schools in Katsina state. The result further revealed that all the teachers (100%) encouraged the female pupils to lead discussions during class (item 23) while more than 80% did same in schools in Katsina state.

Furthermore, 41 (97.6%) teachers in Sokoto state encouraged girls to talk in the class (item 8) whereas all the teachers (100%) in Katsina state did the same in their schools. Also, 41 (97.6%) teachers in Sokoto state encouraged diverse point(s) of view from the girls (item 7) while 37 (88.1%) did the same in Katsina state. Moreover, more than 90% of students in Sokoto and Katsina states interacted equally amongst themselves. However, more than 90% of students in Sokoto state did not participate equally in class presentation whereas only 9 (21.4%) participated equally in class presentation in Katsina state. The result further revealed that 40 (95.2%) teachers in Sokoto encouraged girls to take up leadership positions in class projects (item 15) while 36 (85.7%) did same in Katsina state. Also, 39 (92.9%) teachers encouraged relevant student-led discussion by the girls while 38 (90.5%) did same in schools in Katsina state.

Moreover, 39 (92.9%) teachers in Sokoto state used probing questions to build on answers giving by girls (item 10) while 36 (85.7%) did same in Katsina state. The result also revealed that 37 (88.1%) boys in Sokoto state had a chance to use equipment during practical science experiments (item 17) while 27 (64.3%) had the chance to use equipments during practical science experiments. Also, more than 80% female passivity exists in classes (item 4) in Sokoto state while more than 50% female passivity exists in schools in Katsina state. Furthermore, 36 (85.7%) teachers in Sokoto state encouraged girls to take up roles as class prefects (item 16) while 39 (92.9%) teachers did same in Katsina state. The result further revealed that 27 (64.3%) male domination existed in classes (item 3) in Sokoto state while 32 (76.6%) male domination existed in classes in Katsina state. Also, 5 (11.9%) girls in Sokoto state had a chance to use equipments during practical science experiments (item18) whereas 27 (64.3) girls in Katsina state had a chance to use equipments during

practical science experiments. Moreover, 5 (11.9%) of both girls and boys in Sokoto state had a chance to use equipments during practical science experiments (item 17) while 14 (33.3%) of both girls and boys in Katsina state had a chance to use equipments during practical science experiments. Also, only 3 (7.1%) teachers in Sokoto state used variety of strategies in class to aid improvement in the learning outcome of the girls (item 11) while only 2 (4.7%) teachers did same in Katsina state.

Discussion

This disagrees with the report of studies in Kenya and Nigeria, found that boys are given more chances to ask and answer questions, to utilize learning materials, and to lead gatherings; girls are given less time on errand than young men in science and get less reassuring criticism. Such discoveries have likewise been the situation in numerous nations in South Asia (UNICEF 2001, 2002). The finding of this study was affirmed by a report from UNICEF (2001) on its African Girls' Initiative recognized efforts in Angola, Benin, Cameroon, Eritrea and Malawi that attempted such gender-sensitive teacher training and found that compelling methodologies incorporate empowering regard for girls and boys similarly, ensuring that women and girls can take an interest in class similarly with boys, urging girls to study subjects, for example, Mathematics and Science where less girls than boys have done as such, communicating comparable desires for boys and girls in learning execution and proposing non-conventional occupations for girls. Concentrates in India and Mali exhibit further the effect of not exclusively instructors' non-biased and sex populist mentalities on understudy execution, yet in addition the significance of educators drawing in understudies in addressing sexual orientation unfair practices and demeanors on training's capability to enable women and girls' break to out of cycles of persecution (Santhya et al. 2015).

This study also found that teachers do not use a variety of strategies in class to aid improvement in the learning outcome of the girls. Teachers are a key component to improving the quality of instruction. Extensive evidence exists linking good teachers to the schooling success of both girls and boys. Teacher's ability to use variety of strategies to aid the learning outcome of pupils generally depends on how skilled such teacher is. A teacher must be skilled in the use of gender responsive pedagogy and specifically the use of gender responsive lesson arranging. Lesson planning includes a wide range of decisions – – the learning materials to use,

methodologies, content, learning activities, language use, classroom interaction, classroom set up, assessment of the learning, etc. The finding of this study agrees with the finding of FAWE (2005) that though numerous teachers have what it takes to develop good lesson plans, making the plans gender responsive requires a special set of skills and attitudes. A gender responsive lesson plan takes into consideration the specific needs of girls and boys in all the teaching–learning processes – content, learning materials, methodologies and activities, classroom arrangement, and so on. The content of the lesson will be determined by the syllabus. Once this is decided, the teacher has to see how the lesson plan takes into account gender considerations in the delivery of this content in the class.

Research Question 5e

Table 4.22: Gender Responsive School Management

S/N	The school management:	Sokoto state		Katsina state	
		Yes Freq. (%)	**No** Freq. (%)	**Yes** Freq. (%)	**No** Freq. (%)
1.	establishes a gender responsive policy framework	29 (69.0)	13 (31.0)	33 (78.6)	9 (21.4)
2.	provides teaching/ learning materials that are gender responsive	24 (57.1)	18 (42.9)	26 (61.9)	16 (38.1)
3.	formulates rules and regulations that will transform the school into a gender responsive environment	29 (69.0)	13 (31.0)	36 (85.7)	6 (9.5)
4.	apply rules and regulations that will transform the school into a gender responsive environment	29 (69.0)	13 (31.0)	38 (90.5)	4 (9.5)
5.	monitor the execution of rules and regulations that will transform the school into a gender responsive environment	31 (73.8)	11 (26.2)	40 (95.2)	2 (4.8)
6.	provides necessary human resources for efficient gender responsive management and governance of the school.	9 (21.4)	33 (78.6)	10 (23.8)	32 (76.2)
7.	intervene and sensitize the community about the importance of girls' education	38 (90.5)	4 (9.5)	40 (95.2)	2 (4.8)
8.	provides rules and regulations that cater for girls who miss school for genuine reasons such as menstruation-related causes.	27 (64.3)	15 (35.7)	27 (64.3)	15 (35.7)
9.	encourages mutual respect among class members	42 (100)	-	39 (92.9)	3 (7.1)
10.	treats all students equally	42 (100)	-	40 (95.2)	2 (4.8)

Table 4.22 reveals that all the school management treated all students equally (item 10) in Sokoto state while 40 (95.2%) school management in Katsina state did same. Also, all the school management (100%) encouraged mutual respect among class members (item 9) while 39 (92.9%) school management did same in Katsina state. The result also reveals that 38 (90.5%) school management in Sokoto state intervened and sensitized the community about the importance of girls education (item 7) while 40 (95.2%) school management did same in Katsina state. Furthermore, 31 (73.8%) school management in Sokoto state monitored the execution of the rules and regulations that transformed the school into a gender responsive environment (item 5) while 40 (95.2%) school management did same in Katsina state. Also, 29 (69%) school management in Sokoto applied the rules and regulations that transformed the school into a gender responsive environment (item 4) while 38 (90.5%) school management did same in Katsina state. Moreover, 29 (69%) school management in Sokoto state formulated rules and regulations that transformed the school into a gender responsive environment (item 3) while 36 (85.7%) did the same in Katsina state. Also, 29 (69%) school management in Sokoto state established a gender responsive policy framework (item 1) while 33 (78.6%) school management did same in Katsina state. However, 27 (64.3) school management in Sokoto and Katsina states provided rules and regulations that cater for girls who miss school for genuine reasons such as menstruation-related causes (item 8). The result also revealed that 24 (57.1%) school management in Sokoto state provided teaching and learning materials that are gender responsive (item 2) while 26 (61.9%) did same in Katsina state. However, 9 (21.4%) school management in Sokoto state provided necessary human resources for efficient gender responsive management and governance of the school (item 6) while 10 (23,8%) did same in Katsina state.

Discussions

The study found that the school management systems are supportive in the effort to make schools gender responsive. However, the school management must establish a gender responsive framework provide rules and regulations that will transform the school into a gender responsive environment, human resources for efficient gender responsive management and governance of the school and gender responsive teaching learning materials in order to make the schools totally gender responsive. The finding of this study is in tandem with the finding of FAWE (2005)

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that the school management has an overarching role to play in ensuring the school environment nurtures a gender responsive pedagogy. It is the school management that provides teaching and learning materials that are gender responsive and the management that re-trains teachers in gender responsive pedagogy. In addition, it is management's responsibility to formulate, apply and monitor rules and regulations that will transform the school into a gender responsive environment. Moreover, the school management should provide the necessary human resources for efficient gender responsive management and governance of the school. When parents do not send girls to school, the management should intervene and sensitize the community about the importance of girls' education.

CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, the summary of findings of the research work is presented and some recommendations are given. The conclusion of the study and number of suggestions for further research were also provided.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

This study evaluated the Girl's Education Project 3 in improving access, retention and learning outcome at basic education in Sokoto and Katsina States from 2014 to 2017. In other to assume the investigation of this study, a pilot study was carried out to identify potential problem areas, deficiencies in the research instruments and protocol prior to implementation during the main study. In this study an important outcome variable; retention and some output variables such as: access and learning outcome and input variables: catalytic interventions (conditional cash transfer, advocacy works with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers, female teachers' scholarship) and gender responsive pedagogy were all worked on. The study adopted the explanatory concurrent mixed methods design (QUAN+qual). The study used the Logical Framework Approach to evaluate the project. Collected data were analysed using frequency, mean, percentages and standard deviation at 0.5 level of significant as well as the transcription of interview schedule in thematic form. The major findings of this study are as follow:

1. The study revealed that poverty is the major barrier to girl-child education in the Northern part of the country and rural poverty is evident in some of the communities were GEP3 schools are located.

2. The study revealed that in Northern Nigeria, girls schooling is more sensitive to cost however defined, than boys schooling.

3. The study revealed that Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) is only being provided in Sokoto and Niger states out of the five GEP3 states. Moreover, not all the GEP3 schools in Sokoto state are receiving the money.

4. It was revealed that the conditions for eligibility to receive cash transfer are 75 per cent attendance and being resident in the community and CCT has helped to reduce barriers to girl-child education and also aided retention of girl-child in school.

5. To make schools more accessible for the girl-child, CCT should cover the girls' direct costs of schooling (tuition or school fees paid annually or at each term), indirect costs of schooling (the price of uniforms, school supplies, transportation etc.) and the opportunity costs of schooling (the "services" lost by a family when their daughter or son attends school- for example water collection, child care of younger siblings etc.).

6. The study revealed that direct payment of students' stipend to their mother's or guardians improved accountability of the disbursement process and this has aided improvement in girl's attendance at school. The study revealed that packages of intervention are not provided by GEP3 rather schools are given N250, 000 (School Improvement Grant) quarterly to cater for their needs through SBMC. The SBMC determines what the school needs and send a proposal to the GEP officer at the LGEA who then ratifies the budget. Enumerators are later sent by UNICEF to ensure the grant given to them was effectively utilised.

7. The study revealed that some parents are responsible for their daughters dropping out of school before completion of the basic education cycle but specifically at the primary education level.

8. The project has brought about a positive change in the attitude of parents, traditional leaders, teachers and other stakeholders to girls' education and they are providing the needed support for GEP3.

9. It was revealed that most of the female teachers who trained under Female Teacher Trainee Scholarship Scheme were not given opportunity to carry out the two year bond or employed to teach in GEP3 schools by the states governments after the completion of their programme.

10. Efforts should be made to improve the girl-child psychological access to basic education. This has to do with putting into consideration the fact that educational facilities are accessible only when the school respond appropriately to girl's learning needs and learning styles. The girl's should not just be physically present in the school, they should be learning sufficiently while there.

11. GEP3 has led to improvement in economic, physical, sociological and cultural access.

12. The Girls' Education Project 3 (GEP3) enhanced retention and learning outcome of the girl-child in Katsina and Sokoto states between 2014 and 2017, with more effects in Sokoto State.

13. GEP3 schools are located in rural areas where there is low enrolment of girls in schools, thus access is higher in Non-GEP schools than in GEP3 schools.

14. It was also revealed that majority of the learners could not read the question papers given to them. This simply means that in terms of western education these learners are simply illiterates and innumerate.

15. Gender disaggregated data were not available.

16. The study also revealed that the curriculum, textbooks and other learning materials are gender stereotypic in nature and most of the schools are not using the gender responsive pedagogy. .

17. It was revealed that classes were mixed, but boys and girls do not sit on the same chair rather their chairs are arranged column by column; boys' column and girls' column.

18. The project has equipped the trained teachers with some needed skills to aid the education of the girl-child but they do not possess the gender responsive pedagogy skills.

19. The study revealed that teacher absenteeism is very high among teachers who were posted to GEP3 schools possibly because these schools are located in rural areas.

20. The major learning of this evaluation of GEP3 is that the girls are now in school, they are staying in school till completion but they are not achieving the basic skills at this level of education; literacy, numeracy and life skills.

21. The study revealed that proper integration of Western and Islamic education is yet to be achieved in the Islamic Quranic centres (IQS).

22. It was revealed that most of the schools do not keep adequate records.

23. Late disbursement of funds, irregular monitoring, teacher absenteeism, non-usage of gender responsive pedagogy in schools, unavailability of gender disaggregated data, emphasis on access and retention rather on learning outcome, non-provision of packages of intervention and bad record keeping are parts of the constraints to effective implementation and achievement of the project's objectives.

24. Suggested probable solutions include: disbursement of funds as at when due, regular monitoring, adoption of gender responsive pedagogy in schools, collection and keeping of gender disaggregated data, the emphasis should be shifted to quality learning outcome, packages of intervention should be provided for GEP3 schools by UNICEF and establishment of Management Information System (MIS) by schools that provides information on all pupils.

5.2   Conclusion

Girls' Education Project 3 was put in place in order to aid improvement in girl-child access, retention in school and learning outcome through provision of packages of intervention, promotion of catalytic interventions; Conditional Cash Transfer, advocacy works with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers and female teacher scholarships, to help break the persistent barriers to girls' education amongst others.

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that the objectives of GEP3 are to some extent being achieved except for the slightness of the girl-child access to basic education and learning outcome in terms of literacy and numeracy. However, the learning outcome of GEP3 pupils is better when compared with their colleagues in Non-GEP schools. The access and retention rates of GEP3 pupils too are higher when compared to what exist in Non-GEP schools. Girls' access to basic education, retention in school and learning outcome has been enhanced in Katsina and Sokoto states between 2014 and 2017, with more effects in Sokoto State.

However, some constraints inhibiting effective implementation and achievement of the project objectives include: late disbursement of funds, irregular monitoring, teacher absenteeism, non-usage of gender responsive pedagogy in schools, unavailability of gender disaggregated data, emphasis on access and retention rather on learning outcome, non-provision of packages of intervention and bad record keeping among others. Some of the possible solutions that will make GEP3 to overcome the problems as suggested by the beneficiaries of the project include: disbursement of funds as at when due, regular training and monitoring, adoption of gender responsive pedagogy in schools, collection and keeping of gender disaggregated data, the emphasis should be shifted to quality learning outcome, packages of intervention should be provided for GEP3 schools by UNICEF and establishment of Management Information System (MIS) by schools that provides

information on all pupils among others. Information provided should however be gender-disaggregated for better understanding of the situation of the girl-child education.

5.3   Implication of the Findings of the Study

The findings summarised above have useful educational implications for the following groups of people: project implementer's, project beneficiaries (direct or indirect), government, traditional and religious leaders, school based management committee members, teachers/head teachers, and publishers of textbooks and other instructional aids.

i.   In order to ensure implementation of the objectives of GEP3, the project implementers should provide adequate funds, conditional cash transfer, provide scholarship for trainee female teachers and employment for them after completion of programme, carry out advocacy works with parents, teachers and leaders and other packages of intervention, carry out regular monitoring of teachers, train teachers on gender responsive pedagogy, collect disaggregated data and make adequate use of it, ensure more parental and community involvement, increase the conditions for eligibility for CCT and emphasis should be shifted to improved learning outcome in the next phase of GEP (GEP4), if the project is to be continued.

ii.   The findings of the study indicated that the input variable (catalytic interventions; CCT, advocacy works with traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers and also female teacher scholarships) has effect on both the output variables (access and retention) and the outcome variable (learning outcome). The study suggests the need for project implementers to provide adequate catalytic interventions and also that the project beneficiaries should give adequate support to the project through the provision of more advocacy works.

iii. There is need for parents and the community to be fully involved in advocacy works on girl-child education.

iv.   Apart from this, there is need for government to make policies that will deal with parents who withdraw their girl-child from school.

v.   In order to ensure improvement in the girl-child access to basic education and retention in school, the traditional and religious leaders should continually create awareness on the need for girl-child education.

vi.   The findings have shed light on the need to make School Based Management Committee members play collaborative roles in the improvement of girl-child access to basic education, retention in schools and completion of basic education.

vii.   The study also provides evidences on the need to adopt gender responsive pedagogy by the teachers and head teachers. It is therefore necessary to provide relevant gender responsive pedagogy; school management systems, classrooms set ups, teaching and learning materials and interactions, so as to aid girl-child retention in school and learning outcome.

viii.   In order to reflect the changing roles in society and economy, textbook publishers should examine the gender context of the textbooks they publish.

ix.   The study provides ample evidences on the need for government to engage in gender responsive budgeting in order to cater for the differential educational needs of boys and girls.

5.4   Limitations to the Study

The study was limited to Sokoto and Katsina states middle basic education (basic 4 to 6) in GEP3 and Non-GEP schools. The variables were restricted to input variables (catalytic interventions and gender responsive pedagogy), output variable (access) and outcome variables (retention and learning outcomes). Hence, additional variables and school level could bring a different result.

Many factors also served as constraints to the practicality of the study. The respondents included the basic 6 female pupils and these pupils have limited literacy and numeracy skills. Thus, it took the researcher a longer time to be able to administer the achievement tests. Also to get the SBMC members, project co-ordinators and UNICEF Focal persons constituted a huge challenge. Another major constraint was the issue of record keeping. Most of the schools had poor record keeping attitudes. Thus, the collection of enrolment and attendance records from schools was also major constraints. Several visits had to be made to schools to get necessary records from the head teachers. The research teams had to encourage some of the head teachers

through rendering of assistance to them in locating the needed documents in the schools.

5.5   Suggestions for Further Studies

Further researches could be carried out in the other states of GEP3 in order to generalize the findings of this study. The study focused on the objectives of GEP3 with much attention on provision of packages of intervention to improve girl-child access to basic education, retention of the girl-child in school and learning outcome for girls, and promotion of catalytic interventions. Therefore, other factors such as provision of support to School Based Management Committees to increase female representation, improving the community ability to hold teachers to account and to ensure that issues specific to girls' attendance are raised and tackled should be considered in future studies in order to ascertain the extent of success of the implementation of GEP3.

5.6   Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, some recommendations are made. That is, in order to improve the Girls' Education Project 3 in Nigeria, the following should be done:

1. Since poverty has been identified as the most important and pervasive factor for education inequality, the direct and indirect costs of educating girls should be eliminated. This can be achieved by the provision of cash transfer (conditional or unconditional) scholarships and stipends for girls.

2. GEP3 should endeavour to provide Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) to all the five GEP3 states. This can be achieved by providing all GEP3 schools with CCT to cater for the direct and indirect costs of sending girls' to school

3. CCT as a catalytic intervention in GEP3 should be continued even in other phases of GEP due to its being able to break the economic barrier to girl-child education by aiding girls' access to basic education, retention in school and completion of basic education. This can be achieved by ensuring that CCT is given to all eligible girls in all GEP3 schools in all GEP3 states and making CCT one of the packages of intervention in the next phase of GEP.

4. The condition for eligibility to receive cash transfer should be increased; apart from 75 per cent attendance and being resident of that community, the girls should also be encouraged to have at least 45 per cent score in the termly school exams and must remain unmarried until she obtains at least Basic Education Certificate Education (BECE). This can be achieved by increasing the conditions for eligibility and working strictly with them.

5. Adequate packages of intervention should be provided so as to aid access, retention and learning outcome of girls instead of the N250, 000 being given by the project implementers in place of the packages of intervention to the schools quarterly. This can be achieved by providing the actual packages of intervention to GEP3 schools in place of the monetary equivalent.

6. All female teachers who were trained in FTTSS should be employed by the state governments to teach in GEP3 schools. This can be achieved by making them observe the two years bonds and employing them afterwards.

7. Regular training of teachers, since they are key component to improving the quality of education of their pupils and also ensure that girls acquire basic competencies and foundational skills during their limited number of years in school. This can be achieved by regular training of teachers to aid their acquisition of skills.

8. Teachers who are posted to GEP3 schools in rural areas should be offered incentives to cater for the limited or unavailable social amenities and prevalence of rural poverty in these areas, in other to reduce teacher absenteeism. This can be achieved by motivating the teachers to stay in these schools when they are posted there.

9. Improving access is not enough to achieve sustainable gains in girls' education; assuring that girls have high-quality education while in school may be equally important if not more important. This can be achieved by putting all efforts into providing high-quality education for the girls.

10. The major future focus of GEP should be learning and high-quality education. This can be achieved by exposing pupils to early reading and mathematical skills which will lead to the acquisition of the most basic skills at this level; literacy and numeracy.

11. Textbook publishers should be trained on the need to examine the gender context of the textbooks they publish so as to reflect the changing roles in the

society and the economy. This can be achieved by training textbook publishers on gender responsive pedagogy.

12. It is essential to transform the school climate and school culture into one that is not just gender-responsive but also promote parity in enrolment and achievement of girls, reduce constraints on gender equity, eliminate gender stereotypes and provide facilities, curricular and learning processes that are welcoming to girls. This can be achieved by the adoption of gender responsive pedagogy in schools.

13. Government should endeavour that reports of gender analysis is regularly used in developing education policies especially in national education plans. This can be achieved by the adoption of gender responsive budgeting by the nation.

14. The quality of schooling should be improved for the girls since this is closely related to their ability to complete school. This can be achieved through the adoption of gender responsive curricular and learning materials.

15. Proper integration of Western and Islamic education should be carried out in the Integrated Quranic Schools. This can be achieved by designing and implementing curricula that blended the Western and Islamic education.

5.7   Contributions to Knowledge

The study has made the following contributions to knowledge

1.   This study has provided empirical baseline information for understanding some factors responsible for the barriers against girl-child education, possible solutions, importance of girl-child education, essence of parental and community involvement in girls' education and the advocacy works on girl-child education. Also, the extent of success of GEP3 in improving girl-child access to basic education, retention in school and the learning outcome was also provided.

2.   The study has provided an empirical approach to understanding the state of girl-child education in Northern Nigeria and specifically in Sokoto and Katsina states.

3.   Theory of social justice was effectively applied and found to be relevant to girl-child education project in this study.

4.   Instruments used in this study have been validated for further studies.

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APPENDIX I

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN
DOCUMENTS ANALYSIS GUIDE FOR ACCESS AND RETENTION (DAGAR)

School	GEP3 Supported Schools								Non-GEP Schools							
S/N	N Access				Retention				Access				Retention			
	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18
1																
2																
3																
4																
5																
6																
7																
8																
9																
10																

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN
CONDITIONAL CASH TRANSFER QUESTIONNAIRE (CCTQ)
Dear Respondent,

      This instrument is designed to elicit information on the conditional cash transfer provided by GEP3 and the extent to which the intervention has enhanced the participation of girls in basic education. Kindly give honest information and be assured that all information given will be strictly used for research work only. Thank You.

SECTION A
Gender: Male [ ]   Female [ ]
Educational Qualification: NCE [ ]   B.ED [ ]   B.A/ B.SC [ ]   M. ED [ ]   PhD [ ] others (specify)
State: Sokoto [ ]   Katsina [ ]

SECTION B
Scale Specification: (Very Great Extent = 4; Great Extent =3; Moderate Extent =2; No Extent=1)

	CONDITIONAL CASH TRANSFER (CCT)	Very Great Extent	Great Extent	Moderate Extent	No Extent
	To what extent:				
1	has provision of CCT aided the education of girls from this community?				
2	has the direct payment of students' stipend to their mother's or guardians improved transparency of the disbursement process?				
3	has the direct payment of student's stipend to their mother's or guardians improved accountability of the disbursement process?				
4	has CCT aided girl-child enrolment in this school?				
5	has conditional cash transfer (CCT) aided improvement in girls attendance at school?				
6	has CCT aided girl-child retention in this school?				
7	has CCT aided girl-child completion of primary education in this school?				
8	has CCT has helped to reduce the girl-child risk of dropping out of school?				
9	has the state government been financially committed to keeping CCT working?				
10	has CCT helped to suppress poverty as a persistent barrier to girls education in this community?				

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN
LEADERS, PARENTS AND ISLAMIC TEACHERS INTERVIEW GUIDE

(LPITIG)

1. What are the factors that affect the education of the girl-child in this community?

2. Suggest solutions to the factors that affect the education of the girl-child?

3. Mention various ways through which you are supporting girl-child education in this community.

4. What is Girls' Education Project Phase 3 (GEP3)?

5. What has GEP3 achieved in this community?

6. How is GEP3 perceived by members of this community?

7. How do you collaborate with the following to promote girl-child education in this community:

(i) GEP3

(ii) Schools

8. What are the advocacy works that you carry out with GEP3 to achieve the following as regards girl-child in this community:

(i) enrolment in school

(ii) attendance in school

(iii) retention in school

(iv) completion of primary education

9. Looking critically at the education of the girl-child in this community, what kind of education do parents/guardians prefer for their girl-child:

(i) Islamic Education

(ii) Western Education

(iii) Integrated Quranic Education

(b) What do you think is the reason for their preference?

10. What are the constraints militating against the effectiveness of GEP3 (in terms of implementation and achievement of its objectives)?

11. What are the possible solutions or suggestions for effective implementation and achievement of the objectives of GEP3?

APPENDIX IV

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN
GENDER RESPONSIVE SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT CHECKLIST (GRSEC)

	SECTION A Gender Responsive Infrastructure Indicate availability/non-availability of the following in the school:	**Availa ble**	**Not Available**
1	Boarding facilities		
2	Portable water		
3	Separate health facilities for boys and girls		
4	Separate recreational facilities for boys and girls		
5	Separate libraries for boys and girls		
6	Separate toilet facilities for boys and girls		
7	Sanitary bins in girls' toilets		
8	Hangers, hooks or nails in the girls' toilets		
9	Guidance and counselling unit for girls		
	SECTION B Gender Responsive Classroom set ups	**Yes**	**No**
	Does the class consider the following approaches when responding to the needs of both boy and girls:		
1	Study hall set up that blends women and girls and young men		
2	Study hall set up that upgrades support of the two women and girls and young men		
3	Course of action of furniture that urges women and girls to stand up and conquer their timidity		
4	Stools in labs that are proper fit as a fiddle consequently empowering successful support of the two women and girls and young men		
5	Installations and visual guides on the dividers that send sexual orientation responsive messages		
6	Suitable rack statures in libraries		
7	Suitable size of work areas and seats that gives comfort		
8	Appropriate weight of desks and chairs that can be easily moved about.		

	SECTION C Gender Responsive Teaching and Learning Materials	YES	No
1	The textbooks contain gender stereotypes		
2	The visual aids contain gender stereotypes		
3	The teacher reviews the teaching and learning materials for gender responsiveness		
4	Wherever gender-biased illustrations, examples or statements appear in textbooks, the teacher adds interpretations and examples to capture gender responsiveness		
5	Teacher uses gender responsive classroom illustrations, charts, pictures and diagrams to fill the gender gaps in textbooks		
	SECTION D Gender Responsive Interactions	Yes	No
1	Teacher interacts equally with both girls and boys		
2	Students interacts equally amongst themselves		
3	Male domination exists in the class		
4	Female passivity exists in the class		
5	Class interaction makes the learning environment conducive		
6	Teacher addresses the girls by name		
7	Teacher encourages diverse point(s) of view from the girls		
8	Teacher encourages girls to talk in the class		
9	Teacher encourages relevant student-led discussion by the girls		
10	Teacher uses probing questions to build on answers giving by girls		
11	Teacher uses a variety of strategies in class to aid improvement in the learning outcome of the girls		
12	Teacher allows all students to participate in the learning activities		
13	Students participate equally in class presentation		
14	Teacher asks girls questions		
15	Teacher encourages girls to take up leadership positions in class projects		
16	Teacher encourages girls to take up role as class prefects		
17	Both girls and boys have a chance to use equipment during practical science experiments		
18	Girls have a chance to use equipment during practical science experiments		
19	Boys have a chance to use equipment during practical science experiments		
20	Teaching and learning processes are responsive to the specific needs of girls		
21	Teaching and learning processes are responsive to the specific needs of boys		
22	Teacher encourages female pupils to talk during class activities		
23	Teacher encourages female pupils to lead discussions during class		

	SECTION E Gender Responsive School Management Systems.	Yes	No
	The school management:		
1	establishes a gender responsive policy framework		
2	gives showing learning materials that are sexual orientation responsive		
3	figures guidelines and guidelines that will change the school into a sexual orientation responsive condition		
4	apply principles and guidelines that will change the school into a sexual orientation responsive condition		
5	screens the execution of principles and guidelines that will change the school into a sexual orientation responsive condition		
6	gives essential HR to proficient sexual orientation responsive administration and administration of the school.		
7	mediates and sharpen the network about the significance of women and girls' instruction		
8	framework gives standards and guidelines that provide food for women and girls who miss school for real reasons, for example, monthly cycle related causes.		
9	encourages mutual respect among class members		
10	treats all students equally		

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN
GIRLS' EDUCATION PROJECT PHASE 3 STAFF INTERVIEW GUIDE
(GEPSIG)

SECTION A

Background Information
Kindly supply the following information.
Gender: Male [ ]   Female [ ]
Position Held:
State Assigned to: Sokoto [ ]   Katsina [ ]
Did you work with previous GEP phases?   Yes [ ]   No [ ]
Phase 1 [ ]   Phase 2 [ ]
State Posted to -------------------------
How long have you been working with GEP? 1-3 years [ ]   4– 6 years [ ]   7 – 9 years [ ] 10 - 12 [ ]

SECTION B

1.   What is Girls' Education Project 3 (GEP3) and how is the project implemented?
2.   What are the barriers to girls' education and how are you breaking these barriers?
3.   What are the steps taken by GEP3 to get more girls into school?
4.   What are the advocacy works that you carry out with the traditional leaders, parents and Islamic teachers to achieve the following as regards the girl-child:
      (i) enrolment in school
      (ii) attendance in school
      (iii) retention in school
      (iv) completion of primary education
5.   What does GEP3 provide for the girls and their schools to aid access, retention and learning outcome?
6.   What are the expected results of GEP3?
7.   How do families benefit from the cash transfer programme?
8.   How many families have profited by money exchanges, to urge them to send their little girls to class instead of out to work?
9.   How many female educators do we have in the state and what number of these instructors were trained through the FTTSS since the inception of GEP3 in this state?
10.   How do you ensure that female teachers that are trained eventually teach in GEP3 supported schools after the completion of their courses?
11.   What are the steps taken by GEP3 to make teachers/head teacher's acquire gender responsive pedagogy so as to bring about improved learning outcomes for girls?
12.   How many teachers/head teachers have being trained in gender responsive pedagogy?
13.   How has the state government being contributing to GEP3?
14.   What are you doing to ensure that children who attend Integrated Quranic/Tsangaya schools benefit from improved quality education?
15.   What are the constraints militating against the effectiveness of the GEP3 (in terms of implementation and achievement of its objectives)?
16.   What has GEP3 achieved?

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN
English Studies Achievement Test (ESAT)
Read the following passage carefully and answer the questions that follow by choosing the most appropriate of the options lettered A – E

It is proper to show appreciation for any good thing done to you by others. You may receive a gift or service from someone whether in moment of need or not. Whatever the <u>situation</u>, you should not fail to appreciate any good thing you enjoy from others.

You may receive a cash or present ranging from house, electronics, or even a toy. You may also enjoy support or help from others. You may be helped to cross the road, locate a particular place or object or to do something you either don't know how to do or cannot do for one reason or the other.

Even if the object given or the assistance rendered is lower than you expect, the love behind the giving should be appreciated. "Thank you" is a very simple expression which many people find difficult to say in appropriate situations.

1. The passage says we should be thankful for
A. Assistance rendered to us in moment of need
B. Gifts sent to us by our friends
C. Money given to us by others
D. Money, present or service given to us by others
E. Services and gifts received when they are most needed
2. A word that is nearest in meaning to "situation" and that can at the same time replace it as used in the passage is ----------------- A. case   B. environment C. location D. place E. time
3. The passage tells us that assistance may take --------------- forms   A. five B. four C. six D. three E. two
4. The passage is mainly ----------------- the reader   A. advising   B. blaming C. commanding D. promising E. warning
5. The most appropriate title for the passage is ---------------- A. kinds of assistance B. helping others C. receiving assistance from others D. showing appreciation E. The meaning of "Thank you"

SECTION B

Fill in the gaps in each of the following sentences:

6. When last did you ------------ Abdullah? A. saw   B. sees   C. seen   D. see E. seeing
7. Every year my country ----------------- her independence anniversary on October 1st
A. celebrates B. celebrate C. celebrated D. celebrating E. was celebrating
8. He didn't know when he -------------------- into laughter A. was bursting B. bursted C. bursts D. bursting   E. burst
9. Have you -------------- your assignment to your teacher? A. show B. shoes C. sown D. showing E. shown
10. Before we arrived our teacher ---------------------- A. was leaving B. had left C. has left D. left E. leaves

SECTION C

The words lettered A-E below are five parts of speech. Identify which part of speech is the word underlined in the following sentences

11. The latecomers were asked to <u>run</u> on the parade ground. A. Adverb B. Verb C. Noun D. Pronoun E. Adjective
12. The boy was <u>dancing</u> in the class when the head teacher entered. A. Adverb B. Verb C. Noun D. Pronoun E. Adjective
13. He spoke too <u>loudly</u> when he was asked a question. A. Adverb B. Verb C. Noun D. Pronoun E. Adjective
14. Adamu and Hauwa were forgiven when <u>they</u> were to leave the garden. A. Adverb B. Verb C. Noun D. Pronoun E. Adjective
15. <u>Abuja</u> is one of the cities in Nigeria. A. Adverb B. Verb C. Noun D. Pronoun E. Adjective

SECTION D

PHONICS

Choose the correct consonant digraph to complete each word.

16	Plu-------er	(A) mb	(B) ng	(C) bb	(D) ff	(E) nb
17.	Tele------one	(A) ff	(B) ph	(C) bh	(D) dd	(E) gj
18.	Pu-------le	(A) zz	(B) ss	(C) ff	(D) gg	(E) jk
19	-------ight	(A) kn	(B) gn	(C) sn	(D) km	(E) mm
20	Va------ey	(A) ll	(B) wh	(C) zz	(D) ss	(E) pp

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN
Basic Science Achievement Test (BSAT)

1. The ability of living things to produce young ones of their kind is called -------
--------- (a) movement (b) reproduction (c) respiration (d) excretion

2. The elements which act upon rocks and gradually break them down over a
period of time is referred to as ------------------- (a) weather (b) climate
(c) water (d) wind

3. Reproduction is important for -------------------- (a) discontinuity of life
(b) death (c) continuity of life (d) respiration

4. Rocks are grouped into --------------- types (a) five (b) four (c) three (d) two

5. The kind of rock that is formed when molten materials inside the earth
forcefully erupt to the earth's surface is called ----------------- (a) sedimentary
(b) metamorphic

6. Bases that are soluble in water are called -------------- bases (a) insoluble
(b) solvent (c) insolvent (d) soluble

7. The fertilised ovule forms the seeds and the ovary forms the ---------------
(a) root (b) stem (c) plant (d) fruit

8. Rocks consist of --------------- (a) elements (b) minerals (c) clay (d) soil

9. The kind of rock is formed when mineral sediments are moved by natural
forces like wind and water from one place to another is called ----------------
(a) igneous (b) sedimentary (c) indigenous (d) metamorphic

10. Citric acid can be found in -------------- (a) orange (b) milk (c) banana
(d) water

11. Soluble bases are also called -------------- (a) potash (b) hydroxide (c) alkalis
(d) acids

12. Acids and bases are ---------------- substances (a) mechanical (b) electrical
(c) chemical (d) technological

13. The transfer of pollen from the anther to the stigma of a flower is called -------
------- (a) pollution (b) contamination (c) pollination (d) population

14. There are ------------types of pollination (a) five (b) four (c) three (d) two

15. The type of pollination in which pollen grains from a flower are transferred to
the stigma of the same flower is called ----------------- pollination (a) cross
(b) crescent (c) self (d) counter

16. Rocks are classified according to the nature of their ------------------
    (a) germination (b) growth (c) formation (d) destruction

17. Substance which are capable of changing blue litmus paper to red are called ---------(a) bases (b) drugs (c) acids (d) marble

18. Acids that occur naturally are called ------------- acids (a) inorganic (b) organic (c) organizer (d) inorganizer

19. The type of pollination in which pollen grains from one flower are transferred to the stigma of another flower is called --------------- pollination (a) cross (b) crescent (c) self (d) counter

20. The process whereby the male gamete from the pollen tube unites with the female gamete in the ovule of a flower is called -------------------
    (a) reproduction (b) respiration (c) fertilisation (d) movement

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN
Mathematics Achievement Test (MAT)

1. A day is equal to -------------- minutes (a) 1440 (b) 1260 (c) 2460 (d) 6024
2. We have ----------------- days in four years (a) 1459 (b) 1461 (c) 1460 (d) 1464

The pie chart shows how 180 students travel to school.

Walk 100^0

Bus 150^0

Bicycle 80^0

Taxi 30^0
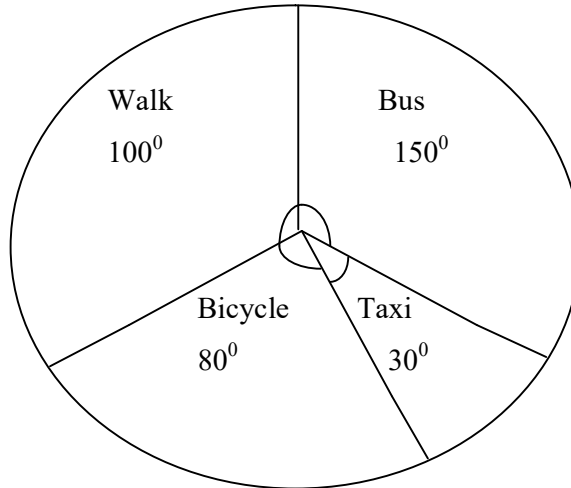
3. By what means of transportation do the most number of students travel to school?
   (a) bus (b) walk (c) bicycle (d) taxi
4. By what means of transportation do the least number of students travel to school
   (a) bus (b) walk (c) bicycle (d) taxi
5. How many students cycle to school? (a) 80 (b) 60 (c) 40 (d) 180
6. How many students travel to school by bus? (a) 75 (b) 45 (c) 80 (d) 5
7. How many students walk to school? (a) 20 (b) 80 (c) 50 (d) 100
8. What is the percentage of those that walk to school? (a) 1500 (b) 1000 (c) 2600 (d) 800
9. -------------- radii is equal to diameter (a) 5 (b) 20 (c) 2 (d) 1
10. The distance around a circle is called ------------------ (a) circumference (b) diameter
    (c) radius (d) radii
11. The sum of angle in a triangle is equal to -------------- (a) 1800 (b) 900
(c) 2700 (d) 3600
12. Which shape has 4 equal sides, 4 right angles and 4 lines of symmetry? (a) rectangle
    (b) triangle (c) square (d) rhombus
13. Which triangle has 3 equal sides? (a) equilateral (b) isosceles (c) right angle triangle
(d) left angle triangle
14. Which of the following triangles has 2 equal sides with one line of symmetry?
(a) equilateral (b) isosceles (c) right angle triangle (d) left angle triangle

**Study the following triangles carefully and use the information to answer questions 15 -
17**

A

B

C
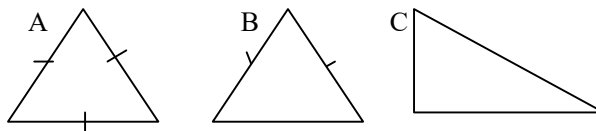
15. Triangle A is a ------------------ triangle (a) scalene (b) isosceles (c) equilateral (d) right angle

16. Triangle B is a ------------------- triangle (a) scalene (b) isosceles (c) equilateral (d) right angle

17. Triangle C is a ----------------- triangle (a) scalene (b) isosceles (c) equilateral (d) right angle

18. The most frequently occurring number in a group of numbers is referred to as --------------- (a) mean (b) mode (c) median (d) average

Use the information below to answer questions 19 and 20

The group of ages of 30 pupils in primary 6A is given in the table below.

Ages in years	Frequency
9	2
10	6
11	12
12	10

19.   What is the mode? (a) 9 (b) 11 (c) 6 (d) 10

20.   The mean is --------------- (a) 12 (b) 6 (c) 11 (d) 9

INTERNATIONAL CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL EVALUATION (ICEE)
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

SHADING SHEET FOR ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

Instruction: *Please choose one correct option for each question and shade the corresponding answer on this answer sheet provided for you. Please do not write on either side of the question papers.*

It is optional to write your name. Thank you

ENGLISH STUDIES

S/N	A	B	C	D	E
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					
9.					
10.					
11.					
12.					
13.					
14.					
15.					
16.					
17.					
18.					
19.					
20.					

BASIC SCIENCE

S/N	A	B	C	D	E
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					
9.					
10.					
11.					
12.					
13.					
14.					
15.					
16.					
17.					
18.					
19.					
20.					

MATHEMATICS

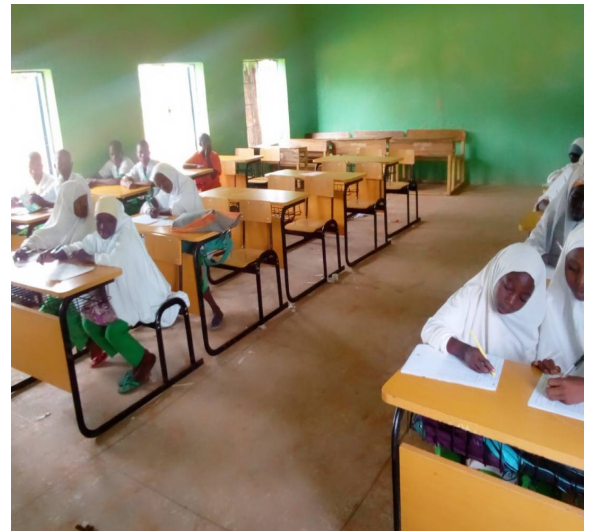| S/N	A	B	C	D	E
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APPENDIX X

Entrance of one of the GEP3 schools in Bodinga LGA, Sokoto state

A research assistant and the pupils during administration of the achievement tests

A cross-section of pupils writing the achievement tests

A typical classroom arrangement