

Preliminary Baseline Report: Steps Towards Afghan Girls' Education Success (STAGES)

Girls Education Challenge (GEC)

For

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| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY | 3 |
| 2. INTRODUCTION | 4 |
| 2.1. Background | 4 |
| 2.2. Theory of change | 5 |
| 2.3. Monitoring and evaluation strategy | 6 |
| 3. BASELINE METHODOLOGY | 7 |
| 3.1. Evaluation design | 7 |
| 3.2. Cohort girl tracking | 8 |
| 3.3. Data collection instruments | 8 |
| 3.4. Pre- and post fieldwork processes | 10 |
| 3.5 Sampling framework..... | 13 |
| 3.6. Methodological challenges | 16 |
| 4. RESULTS..... | 18 |
| 4.1. Household Characteristics..... | 19 |
| 4.2 Characteristics Of Cohort Girls | 46 |
| 4.3. Characteristics Of Selected Household Boys..... | 65 |
| 4.4. Egra And Egma Scores For Cohort Girls | 71 |
| 4.5. Barriers To And Enablers Of School Attendance And Retention, And Learning Outcomes | 83 |
| 4.6. Output Indicators..... | 86 |
| 4.7. Outcome Indicators | 94 |
| 5. CONCLUSION..... | 97 |

1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The executive summary will be provided in the final report after the second phase of data collection is completed.

2. INTRODUCTION

This preliminary report presents findings of baseline data collection conducted in 10 out of 14 STAGES intervention provinces in Afghanistan between December 2013 and March 2013. Due to a number of challenges completing the baseline data collection in one phase (including project delays, and government school closure over winter), the fieldwork was separated into two phases: phase 1 includes household surveys conducted during the winter period, and phase 2 includes household and school/class observation surveys to be conducted during the spring. Phase 1 of the baseline mainly sampled STAGES communities that initiated community-based classes early in the lifecycle of the project (CBE early) and later in the lifecycle of the project (CBE late). Consequently, at the time of baseline data collection, CBE early communities had been running classes for some time (since approximately mid-2013) and CBE late communities had either started running classes later in 2013 or were preparing to implement classes in 2014. Phase 2 of baseline data collection will concentrate on sampling communities receiving STAGES interventions in government schools and, in the absence of a control group, will sample additional households in CBE communities with a particular focus on CBE late communities beginning in the second year of STAGES. Consequently, it must be stressed that this report is a preliminary one based on data for approximately half of the sample. The results and the values for output and outcome indicators should be treated as incomplete as all baseline values will be updated once the full sample is available. Once phase two of baseline data collection is complete, the final report will be submitted.

2.1. BACKGROUND

The Department for International Development (DFID)-funded Girls' Education Challenge (GEC) consists of a range of interventions in DFID-partner countries aimed at addressing obstacles to girls' school enrolment, retention and learning. Steps Towards Afghan Girls' Educational Success (STAGES) is one of the GEC Step Change projects currently being implemented in Afghanistan. STAGES aims to reach 85,000 marginalised girls and increase their access to early childhood development (ECD) education, and community based education (CBE) at primary and secondary school grades. In particular, STAGES will target six-year old girls attending pre-school/ECD classes, girls in grades one to six in primary school, and girls in grades seven to nine in secondary school, with a view to beneficiary girls completing full cycles of primary and junior secondary schooling. This is occurring through a number of program-specific interventions, including:

- Provision of ECD and CBE classes for children (particularly marginalised girls), in close proximity to children's homes,
- Support of formal government schools and
- Teacher training and professional development, particularly for young women,
- Improved learning environments for children through infrastructural development projects, provision of teaching and learning resources and by establishing safe, respectful and violence-free environments,
- Community mobilisation to support children's (particularly girls') education,
- Establishing learning-friendly environments for children and adults through building libraries, and implementing community literacy and other education initiatives,

- Building government capacity at the district, province and national levels, and at teacher training centres.

Eureka Research and Evaluation, an Afghan-owned research and evaluation organisation, was tasked with conducting the baseline evaluation of STAGES, with a number of key tasks to be implemented. These include the provision of:

- Literature and document reviews,
- Development of a quasi-experimental methodology, including sampling framework, data collection instrument design,
- Fieldwork plans, including enumerator training and data collection, and monitoring of field procedures,
- Data entry, analysis and reporting,

The total baseline evaluation will be based on data collection conducted in thirteen provinces of Afghanistan. The original reach of STAGES was 15 target provinces; however, two provinces (Logar and Ghazni) were removed from programming prior to the baseline data collection, and one province (Herat) has been added. The first phase of baseline data collection (from which data is presented in this report) was conducted in ten provinces (Badakhshan, Baghlan, Bamyan, Faryab, Ghor, Kabul, Kapisa, Kandahar, Khost and Parwan) with three additional provinces (Kunduz, Herat and Balkh) to be sampled in phase two of data collection. Although STAGES is also working in six communities in Paktia (grouped in one sampling cluster), this cluster was not randomly selected for the baseline.

2.2. THEORY OF CHANGE

The literature in Afghanistan suggests that key barriers to girls' enrolment and retention include poverty, traditional cultural values that restrict girls' mobility, lack of support from families and communities to pursue education, poor access to nearby schools (particularly in rural areas), poor quality education and perceptions of poor security. The theory of change is thus based on a number of key assumptions, including that if girls have access to quality education, close to their homes, provided in a culturally appropriate manner, in safe and conducive learning environments and with support from family and community members, they will enrol in school and remain in school. Such an approach requires creating community ownership of education activities by engaging family and community members as change agents rather than beneficiaries, selecting instructors from communities, involving community members in the management of school and program activities (including participation in school shuras) and nurturing community support for, commitment towards and parental valuing of education. Community attitudes towards education will also be strengthened through radio and mobile messaging in relation to education, healthy and hygienic behaviours and positive parenting practices.

A key assumption of the project is that positive and sustainable changes to girls' educational achievements are based on broader change at multiple levels, including at community, district, province and national levels. Thus, STAGES also involves capacity building exercises at all these levels, including teacher training and support at local, district and province levels, and production

of knowledge, policy and research disseminated at the national level, particularly targeted at governmental and non-governmental agents. Another project assumption is that any gain in school attendance or learning achievements is the result of project activities, due to community-based classes targeting children and communities that did not have access to any education before project implementation began. A more detailed examination of the project's theory of change in light of baseline survey results is included in Section 4.5. Barriers to and Enablers of School Attendance and Retention.

The primary outcome to be achieved in STAGES is girls' enrolment in and completion of a full cycle of education with demonstrated learning. This outcome will be supported by the following outcome indicators.

- Outcome indicator 1: Number of marginalised girls who have stayed in school through the cycle of the project.
- Outcome indicator 2: Number of marginalised girls supported by GEC with improved learning outcomes.
- Outcome indicator 3: Additional funds secured during the life of the project alongside DFID GEC funds to support marginalised girls.
- Outcome indicator 4: The project has established mechanisms to enable marginalised girls to complete a full cycle of education.

Outcomes will be supported by the following seven outputs.

- Output indicator 1: Increased participation of marginalised children, particularly girls, in quality education.
- Output indicator 2: Positive/conducive learning environments established to support quality education.
- Output indicator 3: Within communities, there is increased demand for and engagement in quality education, particularly for girls.
- Output indicator 4: Teachers apply effective, gender fair and relevant teaching methodologies.
- Output indicator 5: Among adults and communities, there is increased literacy, health awareness and engagement with learning.
- Output indicator 6: Increased access for women to sustainable employment opportunities and positions of decision-making.
- Output indicator 7: Strengthened relationships and capacity among national, provincial and district level education actors to sustain girls' education.

2.3. MONITORING AND EVALUATION STRATEGY

As the independent evaluator, Eureka has been tasked only with completing the baseline evaluation, with the possibility of conducting monitoring spot checks in 2014, although this has not been confirmed. The STAGES PMU and project partners will collect monitoring data throughout the life cycle of the project (quarterly and yearly).

The evaluation strategy is based on a three-tiered test approach, occurring at baseline, midline and endline, employing a range of quantitative and qualitative methodologies, in combination with quarterly data collection in intervention communities, schools and school shuras. A key component of the evaluation strategy is the tracking of a group of cohort girls in intervention communities and analysing patterns of enrolment, retention and learning outcomes over the lifespan of the project. Empirical evaluation data will be complemented by secondary sources, primarily EMIS data.

The original evaluation design, developed before baseline data collection, consisted of a quasi-experimental design comparing intervention communities (both community-based and government) with a control group consisting of non-intervention government communities in order to demonstrate additionality. Due to a range of barriers in accessing government control groups (see details further below) the evaluation design has been revised and now consists of a pre-and post-test approach comparing cohort girls and sampled communities at baseline, midline and endline.

3. BASELINE METHODOLOGY

3.1. EVALUATION DESIGN

As noted above, the evaluation design has been revised to a pre- and post-test approach, based on the randomised sampling of households and cohort girls in intervention communities and comparison of evaluation data at baseline, midline and endline. This revision occurred due to a number of challenges accessing control government school communities, including difficulty obtaining governmental permission to collect data in control government schools. Furthermore, some enumerators conducting the first phase of data collection encountered some hostile behaviour from community members of intervention communities in which education activities had been delayed or cancelled, leading to concerns about the security of enumerators working in communities in which interventions were not taking place.

In a pre- and post-test approach, a counterfactual is difficult to establish as it consists of the intervention group prior to baseline data collection. The evaluation may also draw from a comparison between enrolled cohort girls and non-enrolled cohort girls (who remain out of school throughout the lifecycle of the project) in order to measure differences in learning outcomes. The primary limitation of this approach is the difficulty in establishing program impact on non-enrolled girls. For instance, while girls may remain un-enrolled throughout the life cycle of the project, they may directly or indirectly benefit from STAGES intervention activities. Consequently, it cannot be assumed that non-enrolled girls can serve as a reliable control group, although it may be possible to employ methods at midline and endline to measure how context-level factors impact on non-enrolled girls.

Selection of beneficiary girls is based on random selection of households in intervention communities (see sampling framework below) with the assumption that changes in intervention communities measured at midline and endline are a result of STAGES project activities. The

accuracy of this assumption is discussed in the conclusion of this report based on baseline data collection.

3.2. COHORT GIRL TRACKING

Over the lifespan of the project, cohort girl tracking will be controlled through a variety of approaches. Primarily, cohort girls have been given a unique tracking ID number and, furthermore, girls' household details have been recorded through the household survey. Details include contacts and permissions to return to girls' households at midline and endline and the contact details of other family or community members in case cohort girls move away from their communities or cannot be found at follow-up data collection phases.

3.3. DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

The baseline evaluation methods for phase 1 included a range of data collection instruments administered to three types of respondents: male head of household, female primary carer and cohort girl. The primary data collection instrument was the GEC household survey, to which a number of additional tools were added. These included a mini-KAP survey on health and hygiene based on health messages from the Ministry of Public Health, a mini-KAP survey on attitudes about women's participation in education, employment and other activities, a survey tool used to capture household mobile phone ownership/use and consumption of educational media through radio and print (New Home, New Life), and EGRA and EGMA literacy and numeracy testing. See Table 1 for an outline of instruments according to type of respondent.

Table 1: Data collection instruments according to respondents

| Instrument | Male Head of Household | Female Primary Care Giver | Girl |
|---|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------|
| GEC Household Survey | X | X | X |
| Mini-KAP: health and hygiene | X | X | |
| Mini-KAP: attitudes about women's participation in education, employment and other activities | X | X | X |
| Mobile and radio survey | | X | |
| EGRA/EGMA | | | X |

It should be noted that the three key respondents highlighted above were modified from the original GEC household survey, which was structured to include four possible respondents: first informant, primary carer of selected girl, head of household (who may be required to answer money questions D20-D25), and the selected girl. Although the gender of the girl is clearly set, the gender of the first informant, primary carer, and head of household could vary (for instance, all could be female, all could be male, or there could be a combination of both male and female respondents). Furthermore, while there could be overlap between the three potential adults who may be required to respond to the household questionnaire, it is possible that all three adult respondents are different individuals (for instance, first informant is simply the first person to open the door and could be any male or female member of the household, the primary carer of the selected girl could be another member of the household, and the male head of household who may be called upon to answer money questions may be another member of the household).

Consequently, the structure of participants was modified so that three participants responded to the household questionnaire, and the gender of each participant was pre-determined. There were several reasons for this decision:

1. Due to cultural norms in Afghanistan, Eureka matches the gender of enumerators to household respondents such that male enumerators interview male respondents and female enumerators interview female respondents. Thus, enumerator teams consist of one male and one female enumerator. Before sending enumerators to the field, it is clearer and more efficient for enumerators to have set tasks, including a clear understanding of whom they are interviewing.
2. As the number of respondents who must participate in the household survey increase, the length of time taken to complete the survey increases. This can lead to respondent fatigue and the increase of project costs (i.e. enumerators can complete fewer household surveys in one day).
3. Due to a number of additional instruments being incorporated into the household survey, target respondents for each instrument had to be predefined.
4. Because this reduced the amount of time spend in insecure communities, it reduced the risk level for enumerators.

Due to the reasons listed above, the list of target respondents was simplified and pre-determined. The GEC household survey was consequently divided into two separate survey instruments: one for male heads of households (conducted by a male enumerator) and one for female carers and cohort girls (conducted by a female enumerator). A variety of modifications were made to the GEC household survey, mainly to account for modification in target respondents, and in order to clarify and simplify the questionnaire for enumerators. All modifications are listed in the project inception report, but mainly included:

- Screening questions to ensure that households were selected only if there was at least one girl aged 5-15, a male head of household who was willing/able to respond to the questionnaire, and a female primary caregiver and girl aged 5-15 who consented to respond to the questionnaire (options for rescheduling were included).
- Rearrangement of some questions for clarity;
- Deletion of questions no longer relevant due to pre-definition of survey respondents;
- Insertion of skips and instructions to avoid unnecessary questioning and to ensure clarity for enumerators,

Learning assessment was measured through modified EGRA and EGMA literacy and numeracy instruments, which included a set number of subtasks. EGRA included four sub-tasks: letter sound identification fluency (sounding rather than naming letters), non-word identification fluency (reading invented words), oral reading fluency (reading a passage aloud), and oral reading comprehension (answering comprehension questions related to the passage). EGMA included six subtasks: number identification fluency (reading numerals), quantity discrimination (identifying differences between numbers by comparing quantities), missing number identification (completing

missing number patterns), addition fluency (basic addition operations), subtraction fluency (basic subtraction fluencies), and a written exercise (including addition, subtraction, division and multiplication operations). In order to avoid humiliating girls who have never attended school and who cannot read, enumerators were instructed to discontinue EGRA or EGMA if girls were unable to complete at least one item on a subtask. EGMA 6 subtask was only attempted if girls could complete at least 5 items on either EGMA 4 or 5 subtasks (addition and subtraction fluency).

Although the modified GEC household survey (with KAP surveys and EGRA and EGMA testing included) was the only instrument used in phase 1 of data collection, phase 2 will also include a school survey administered in government intervention schools. The school survey instrument measures appropriate learning resources, adequacy of facilities, and violence-free, girl-friendly and respectful school and class environment. The methods to be employed in the school survey include classroom visits and checklists, observation, checking of school documents, interviews with students, teachers and school shura members, and classroom observation exercises.

It should be noted that although the baseline school survey instrument includes qualitative methods, no qualitative instruments were used at the community or household level in line with Coffey and PWC's recommendations.

3.4. PRE- AND POST FIELDWORK PROCESSES

Translations

Translations of the Dari GEC household survey were provided by another GEC project implementer via the PMU. Eureka translators then checked these translations and corrected spelling and grammatical errors (few substantive errors were found). Eureka translators then translated the entire GEC questionnaire into Pashto. Translations of additional survey instruments (KAP surveys, mobile and radio survey, and EGRA and EGMA) were all conducted by Eureka translators. Partial translations of EGRA and EGMA instructions and stimuli booklets were provided by the STAGES PMU (obtained from Coffey). Eureka translators identified numerous problems with these translations, for instance: there were multiple errors in the subtask instructions (including instructing girls to name rather than sound letters); letters and non-words outlined in the instructions and stimuli booklets did not match; and reading fluency passages and comprehension questions differed between Dari and Pashto versions, and did not match within translated versions. Consequently, translators were instructed to start the translations of instructions from the beginning using the English versions (RTI guidance on EGRA and EGMA states that oral guidance/instructions remain essentially the same across all languages), with slight modifications made for new discontinuation rules when girls could not complete any items on individual subtasks. Dari and Pashto stimuli presented in enumerator instructions and stimuli booklets were largely kept as per the original translations but were checked for consistency (i.e matching stimuli) and modified accordingly. The only substantive changes made to stimuli were to the reading fluency passage and comprehension questions. As noted above, the Dari and Pashto versions contained different stories and questions. Furthermore, the questions in the Pashto version did not correspond correctly to the passage and contained many errors. Hence, we translated the Dari

passage and questions into Pashto and reasoned (in line with RTI guidance) that culturally appropriate words and concepts used in the Dari version were relevant in the Pashto language (although Dari and Pashto grammatical structures do differ). It should be noted that the lack of formal EGRA and EGMA standardisation in Afghanistan according to Dari and Pashto languages makes it difficult to establish normative rules for instrument development.

All translations were cross-checked by Eureka national research staff and further problems with translations were corrected. Further problems with translations were corrected after pretesting and during enumerator training (see below). Despite capturing the majority of translation problems before baseline data collection, two translation errors were found after phase 1 of data collection was complete while cleaning the database and identifying missing data or data inconsistencies. The first translation error relates to a skip in the male head of household survey where details of all household girls are recorded, such that girls' enrolment one and two years ago is only recorded for previously enrolled girls. The second translation error relates to one of the questions on breastfeeding in the mini-KAP health and hygiene survey.

Pretesting

The Dari and Pashto versions of the household surveys were pre-tested in Kabul city by Eureka staff. Each language version of the household survey was pretested twice. A number of issues were revealed during pretesting. For instance:

- Translation problems that were not picked up during translation cross-checks;
- A lack of adequate skips that posed large problems for enumerators who were asking respondents irrelevant questions;
- Problems with the structure of the survey given that target respondents were modified to male head of household, female primary care giver, and cohort girl;
- Problems with adequate screening of respondents. For instance, one male head of household passed the initial screening (i.e. stated that there was at least one eligible girl, and gave consent to participate), and agreed to continue the questionnaire after it was stated that the enumerator would like to speak with the caregiver of household children. However, this respondent later became agitated when the enumerators said that they would be interviewing a household girl, as this was not stated at the beginning of the interview. Consequently, additional text was added to the household questionnaire screening to make it very clear that the interview would involve both the female primary caregiver and a selected girl within the household.

Household surveys were also pretested twice by each enumerator team attending training in Kabul (see details of training below), structured into the training schedule. A number of additional issues arose during this second round of pretesting, including the following.

- Some (albeit few) additional translation errors were detected.
- Several questions and methods of questioning were modified due to problems with cultural sensitivities. For instance, in the male head of household questionnaire, male enumerators ask the male head of household the name of the female primary care giver. Male

enumerators suggested that it was culturally inappropriate for male strangers to ask for the name of another man's wife or other female relative. Consequently, this question was modified so that female enumerators directly asked female carers for their names.

- Enumerators identified further problems with skips, whereby irrelevant questions were being asked due to lack of adequate skipping.

Training

A total of 40 enumerators were brought to Kabul for training, 20 men and 20 women (i.e. 20 teams, each comprising one male and one female enumerator). Most of the enumerator teams were related (e.g. father and daughter, husband and wife); however, two teams were not related and consequently *mahrms* (male relatives) were brought to Kabul for the duration of the training (and also accompanied female enumerators to the field). Number of teams was decided upon based on two criteria: number of sampled communities in each province (e.g. due to the high number of communities sampled in Badakhshan, three teams were recruited), and requirement of Dari or Pashto speaking teams. The training was thus divided into a Pashto speaking group (10 enumerators, four of whom were bilingual and also conducted interviews in Dari), and a Dari speaking group (30 enumerators).

Eureka training for STAGES enumerators took place between the 3rd and the 12th of December 2013, over 10 days: three days for household survey training, five and a half days for EGRA and EGMA training, and one and a half days for pretesting. Two Eureka national researchers facilitated the training (one male researcher facilitated the training for Pashto speakers, and one female researcher facilitated the training for Dari speakers) with the assistance of the project manager. Eureka's regional coordinators also attended four days of the training to familiarize themselves with the research instruments and to identify communities on maps in order to help direct enumerator teams in the field. It is interesting to note that a large number of the enumerator teams brought their young children to the training, many of these children being aged between five and ten. Consequently, female enumerators practiced EGRA and EGMA on these children, creating a more interactive and fun training experience for both adult enumerators and children.

Monitoring and quality assurance procedures

Eureka conducted monitoring of field teams through a number of different strategies.

- Direct monitoring visits were conducted, involving monitors appearing unannounced in the communities in which enumerators were working according to their work plan, and checking that they were in the right community and that they were following field procedures. Provinces for direct monitoring were selected according to two key criteria: provinces where we have had monitoring problems in the past, and provinces that are more difficult to monitor due to weather and access issues. No problems were identified during monitoring visits and all enumerators were conducting their fieldwork when visited.
- Direct back checks (i.e. visiting communities where data collection had already occurred and checking household questionnaires) were conducted in two provinces. All households

confirmed the interviews and local shura members also confirmed that enumerators had conducted their field work.

- Telephone back checks were conducted for households in which telephone numbers were provided. Eureka monitors phoned respondents and asked them to describe the questionnaire and nature of the interview to ensure that the field work was conducted. It was noted that that in some cases respondents had in fact given the phone numbers of their neighbors as they did not have mobile phones. In these cases, neighbors passed the phone to the relevant respondent.
- Eureka monitors phoned maliks and other community leaders to confirm enumerator field work in two provinces.¹

During the baseline fieldwork for phase 1, a STAGES partner in Ghor province raised concerns about the fieldwork conducted in one district in particular. Eureka monitored the fieldwork by reviewing surveys, phoning local maliks and doing back checks in two communities, and found that the fieldwork had not been conducted. Another team was then deployed to Ghor province to complete the fieldwork.

Eureka also conducted quality assurance for data entry, by checking the data entry for 10% of household surveys (both male and female) and checking the database for inconsistencies in the data. After finding some consistent errors for specific types of questioning, all household surveys were rechecked for these questions and errors corrected. The main problem in this regard was data entry confusion generated by enumerators writing numerals in English or Persian script. For instance, the number 6 in Persian script appears like a 4 in English script and a five in Persian script appears like a zero in English script. These problems were primarily identified when large numbers four years old girls (actually six year olds) were identified in the database.

3.5 SAMPLING FRAMEWORK

Community sampling

The original sampling framework was designed in consultation with the STAGES PMU, Coffey, and Pricewaterhouse Coopers, according to a standard deviation of .2, power of 80% and the level of significance set at 95%. The sample for household surveys was calculated according to 10 household surveys per community plus one additional household survey per community included to account for attrition (total of 11 household surveys per community) (see Table 2). The sampling framework stipulated that within the 58 government control communities, 506 households with in-school girls would be sampled and 132 households with out-of-school girls would be sampled.

Table 2: Original baseline sampling framework

| Element | Group | Communities | Household survey | School/class survey | Teacher observation |
|---------|-------|-------------|------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
|---------|-------|-------------|------------------|---------------------|---------------------|

¹ A malik is the head or leader of a village or community and is often tasked with the responsibility of linking the local community with government representatives and other actors (such as development organizations), and resolving local community disputes.

| | | | | | |
|--------------|-------------------|-----|------|-----|-----|
| Intervention | CBE (early start) | 47 | 517 | N/A | N/A |
| | CBE (late start) | 47 | 517 | N/A | N/A |
| | GOV school | 47 | 517 | 47 | 47 |
| Control | GOV school | 58 | | 58 | 58 |
| | In school | | 506 | | |
| | Out of school | | 132 | | |
| Total | | 199 | 2189 | 105 | 105 |

Due to the elimination of the control group, the original sampling framework has been adapted. Sampling for phase 2 will replace control communities with STAGES intervention communities; however, proportions of CBE early/late start, or government school communities have not been established and will be updated in collaboration with the STAGES PMU, Coffey and PWC. It should be noted that separating the sample according to early-starting CBE communities (those that started community-based classes earlier in year 1 of project implementation) and late-starting CBE communities (those that implemented classes later in year 1 or in year 2) was necessary due to girls in each group having a different length of exposure to STAGES intervention activities. Consequently, where relevant, baseline analysis is disaggregated by time of project implementation (early or late). Nevertheless, this approach has its limitations given that not all girls within CBE early or CBE late groups began accessing classes at the same time during the school year.

The completed sample for phase 1 baseline data collection is presented in Table 3. Sampling of communities was conducted by Coffey, using a combination of stratified sampling to represent the range of ethnic and language subgroups represented in project areas, combined with random cluster sampling and random intra-cluster sampling. Sampling of communities for phase 2 of the baseline will be conducted in collaboration with the STAGES PMU.

Table 3: Baseline sample for phase 1 completed

| Element | Group | Communities | Household Survey |
|---------------------|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|
| Intervention | CBE (early start) | 59 | 649 |
| | CBE (late start) | 38 | 418 |
| | Gov (early) | 1 | 11 |
| Total | | 98 | 1078 |

Selection of households

In order to randomly select community households for baseline data collection, enumerators were instructed to begin a random walk from a key location in the community (for instance, the main entrance of the community or the community mosque). Enumerators were instructed to NOT begin the random walk from a school in the community or from the location of the STAGES community classes, as household girls living close to schools or community classes are more likely to be enrolled in school and thus may not be representative of girls in the general community.

Enumerators were instructed to turn right when facing the starting point for the random walk (facing the entrance of community or local mosque), select the fourth house on the left, continue walking and select the fourth house on the right and so on until 11 households have been selected. Enumerators were instructed to return to the starting point and turn left (i.e. the opposite direction) if they reached the end of the community before completing the quota of 11 interviews. The necessity for random household selection was emphasized during the training, and enumerators were advised that there may be situations in which traditional community leaders, members of school shuras, or partner organizations may attempt to select particular households for baseline data collection. Enumerators were instructed on polite but firm ways to ensure that this did not occur by stressing to community members that they were required to follow random selection of households according to Eureka's sampling policy.

Kish Grid

A Kish Grid was used to randomly select a girl aged 5-15 in each household and a boy aged 5-15 with the same primary caregiver as the selected girl. The Kish Grid was designed to incorporate household number along the horizontal axis (i.e. sequence of household in data collection, ranging from 1-11), and number of children along the vertical axis (i.e. the number of children listed in Tables 1 and 2 in the male household questionnaire, ranging from 1-9). For instance, if enumerators were collecting data at the fourth house in the community (within a sequence of 1-11), and there were two eligible girls living within that household, the Kish Grid would select girl number two within Table 2. It should be noted that enumerators were instructed to list the children in Table 1 and 2 according to ascending order of age (starting with the youngest child aged between 5-15, and ending with the oldest child aged 5-15). Although Kish Grids can be structured according to either ascending or descending age, enumerators were instructed to list children according to ascending age in order to optimize the opportunity to select younger girls (and thus girls who were more likely to be enrolled in first grade).

Although one cohort girl was randomly selected for each household (a total of 1078 girls for phase 1 of the baseline), in some households boys were not selected as there were no eligible boys aged 5-15 years living in the household or there were no eligible boys who shared the same caregiver as the selected girl. A total of 932 household boys were selected.

Selection of first-grade CBE girls

The target number of first grade girls to be included in the CBE sample was at least 100 and this target was met, with 314 first grade cohort girls included in phase 1 of baseline data collection. It was decided that the most efficient way to ensure 100 first grade girls were interviewed was to make it a precondition that at least one girl from each CBE community was enrolled in first grade, and this number was reviewed throughout the fieldwork to ensure that the quota of 100 girls was being met. Enumerators were instructed to purposefully sample one first grade girl in each community if they reached the 10th household in the sequence without having sampled any first grade girls. Where one household had two or more first grade girls, enumerators were instructed to select one of these girls using the Kish Grid.

Selection of new communities

During the training (and also during the fieldwork process), a number of communities were removed from the sample. For instance, all communities in Ghazni and Logar provinces were removed due to discontinuation of STAGES programming in these provinces. Furthermore, other communities had to be replaced due to inaccessibility (i.e. weather and security problems). In order to randomly select new communities for inclusion in the baseline, the following procedures were undertaken.

- Where possible, another community within the same cluster was selected according to already established intra-cluster ordering of randomly selected communities completed by Coffey International staff. If the original community randomly selected as number 1 within the cluster was inaccessible, then the community randomly selected as number 2 in the same cluster was chosen. If this community was also inaccessible then the community randomly selected as number 3 within the cluster was chosen, and so forth.
- In cases where whole clusters were inaccessible due to security or weather (or removed in the cases of Ghazni and Logar), new clusters were randomly selected. This was done by grouping all available clusters in Excel, and randomly selecting a cluster using the Excel random calculation =RAND(). The first community already randomly selected within that cluster was selected for inclusion in the baseline, and if necessary subjected to the same procedure listed in the point above.

It should be noted that the deletion of Ghazni and Logar communities from the sample impacted significantly on the sampling framework for the baseline data collection, as all the communities in Ghazni and Logar were CBE late starting. It was not possible to re-sample enough CBE late-starting communities to achieve the targeted sample of 47 as there were simply not enough CBE late-starting clusters to choose from. In re-selecting communities to replace Ghazni and Logar, CBE late starting clusters were purposefully sampled in order to boost the CBE late sample; however, some CBE late communities were not accessible due to weather restrictions (for instance, in Badakhshan). During the second phase of data collection for the baseline, it will be possible to sample additional late-starting classes from newly identified communities which will start in the second year of STAGES implementation.

3.6. METHODOLOGICAL CHALLENGES

A number of methodological challenges or limitations were encountered during phase 1 of baseline data collection. These were mainly related to sampling issues encountered prior to and during data collection, and access problems while collecting data in the field. Below are listed the primary challenges encountered that may impact ongoing monitoring and evaluation.

One of the primary methodological challenges or limitations of the baseline evaluation is the fact that data collection occurred in most communities after classes had begun (in some cases up to six months after classes had begun). Consequently, a true baseline before exposure to the intervention is not possible for most STAGES communities. Another challenge to the baseline related to the timing of project implementation is the start of CBE classes at different periods during the project,

creating a separation between CBE early-starting and late-starting classes, the latter starting either later in the first year or in the second year of project implementation.

As noted further above, the removal of communities from Ghazni and Logar decreased the sample for CBE late communities leading to an oversampling of CBE early communities. Given that the control group has been eliminated from the evaluation design, higher proportions of CBE late communities should be sampled in phase 2 of data collection in order to equalise CBE early and late starting groups.

Due to phase 1 of data collection being fielded in winter, some districts in STAGES target provinces were unable to be sampled at all. This was predominantly a problem in Badakhshan province, where few districts were accessible due to snow and blocked roads. Consequently, the data collected in Badakhshan cannot be assumed as representative, and efforts will be made to purposefully sample un-sampled districts in Badakhshan during phase 2 of the baseline.

Due to security challenges in Afghanistan constantly changing, security threats restricted sampling of some communities and districts, particularly in Badakhshan and Parwan provinces. It is difficult to predict whether these districts and communities will be secure and accessible at the time of phase 2. Furthermore, the recent and ongoing election period poses security challenges to enumerators working across all STAGES target provinces. Security over the coming month and particularly in preparation for phase 2 of baseline data collection will be monitored carefully in collaboration with STAGES project partners in the field and Eureka enumerators.

There are some problems with missing data in phase 1 of the baseline. Approximately half of respondents refused to answer questions about monthly household income, although male heads of households were more willing to answer these questions than female carers. Future waves of data collection should transfer questions about household income to male heads of household in the first instance in order to increase access to income data. Other problems with missing data involved contact information for selected households. Large proportions of female carers refused to give telephone numbers, in many cases because households did not own a mobile phone but in other cases because they stated that they did not personally own a mobile phone. In future waves of data collection, male heads of households should be asked for mobile phone numbers in order to strengthen contact information. There was also some missing or incomplete data for address details of cohort girls' households. Although enumerators were asked to return to the field to recollect address details in cases where large proportions of address details were missing, some missing data remains. It should be noted that address details are difficult to record due to lack of household numbering or street names. In future waves of data collection, those households for which address details are missing, vague or incomplete should be identified with the help of local traditional leaders such as maliks or shura members.

One challenge encountered in a number of communities was the interference of local maliks who attempted to dictate which households were sampled in the baseline survey. In one case, attempted interference was due to community concerns about ethnic divisions and wanting the baseline survey to sample ethnic groups equally due to perceptions that sampled households would have access to resources that other households would not have access to. In all these cases, enumerators

phoned Eureka's head office so that national research coordinators could speak with maliks and explain official fieldwork procedures. These issues were resolved on the phone for all cases except for one community in Badakhshan in which poor security, local conflicts and poor perceptions of the STAGES intervention led to the local malik's insistence (and condition placed on data collection in the community) that he accompany enumerators to households selected by him. For phase 2 of the baseline data collection, enumerators will be briefed on the possibilities of these situations happening and techniques for avoiding them; however, in a context of security threats, tribal or ethnic conflicts, and maliks acting as gatekeepers to communities, these issues may be difficult to mitigate.

Another challenge encountered in a number of communities was, as noted above, perceptions that participation in the household survey would somehow aid household members' access to resources, and that households with no or few eligible girls (i.e. aged 5 to 15 years) would somehow be deprived of such resources. Although enumerators explained that this was not the case, and that all girls in the community were eligible to attend community classes regardless of household participation in the survey, enumerators in one province described cases in which community members appeared to be 'sharing' girls between households, evident when the same girl was listed as a household member in multiple sampled households. This poses a problem for future waves of data collection, as cohort girls may not in fact be members of the households which they are linked to through the tracking system, and finding girls at follow-up periods may be difficult. At midline follow-up, this should be taken into consideration.

Finally, in a number of provinces, enumerators reported male heads of households and female carers referring to cohort girls with different names. This may have been due to male heads of households' discomfort revealing the names of his daughters to unknown men. In future waves of data collection, this may make it difficult to identify the cohort girl although future enumerators should use additional information (such as age and grade) to identify the girls within the household. This problem can be mitigated in future by adding a question to the female household survey in which the name of the cohort girl is verified.

4. RESULTS

The results are structured in six key sections, the first four which present the results of the household questionnaire according to household characteristics, characteristics of cohort girls, characteristics of selected household boys, learning outcomes for cohort girls (EGRA and EGMA results) and a discussion on projected barriers to and enablers of girls' school attendance and retention. This last section summarises key findings from the household survey that could impact on girls' education in general and cohort girls' school attendance and retention in particular. The fifth and sixth sections of the results analyse the key project outputs and indicators drawing from the data from the household questionnaire.

Where results describe cohort girls, or have been disaggregated by girls' school enrolment (in-school and out-of-school girls), this refers to randomly selected cohort girls who will be tracked over the course of the intervention. Similarly, results describing selected household boys refer to

those boys who are included in the female carer household questionnaire. Where results refer to total girls or total boys, this refers to the total number of girls or boys within sampled households whose data have been collected in the male head of household questionnaire.

4.1. HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

Household composition

The mean household composition of sampled households is 4.74 adults, defined as people aged 16 or over (with a range of 2 to 25 adults per household), and a mean of 2.16 adult women (with a range of 1 to 19 women per household). Only 17.4% of male heads of households claimed to have any mothers aged under 20 years in the household. When disaggregated by province, mean number of household adults was higher than the overall mean in Khost (6.74), Kandahar (5.41), Baghlan (5.4) and Faryab (5.37), and lower in all other provinces, and mean number of adult women per household was higher than the overall mean in Khost (3.05), Kandahar (2.61), Faryab (2.24), and Kapisa (2.23). The proportion of households with mothers aged under 20 years was higher than the overall average in Kandahar (50%), Faryab (45.5%), Parwan (36.4%) and Badakhshan (22.3%), and much lower in the other sampled provinces. When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, out-of-school girl households had a significantly higher mean number of adults in the household (5.15) when compared with in-school girls (4.53) ($t(1074) = -3.559, p = .001$).

All sampled households had at least one child aged 5 to 15 years (having at least one girl aged 5 to 15 years residing in the household was a precondition for participation in the household survey), and 76.2% had at least one child aged under 5 years. This latter figure varied somewhat by province, with fewer households in Kabul (44.8%), Kandahar (54.5%) and Bamyan (68.6%) having at least one child aged under 5 years. The mean number of boys aged between 5 and 15 years per household was 2.01 (range of between 0 and 9 boys), with a total number of 2172 boys across the sampled households. The mean number of girls aged between 5 and 15 years per household was 1.99 (range of between 1 and 7 girls), with a total of 2146 girls across the sampled households. When disaggregated by province, mean numbers of boys and girls per household were higher than the overall average for Faryab, Kabul, Kandahar, Kapisa and Khost. When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, out-of-school girl households had significantly higher mean numbers of boys (2.33) and girls (2.15) in the household when compared with in-school girls (1.86 and 1.91 respectively for boys and girls) (for boys, $t(1076) = -5.602, p = .001$, and for girls, $t(1076) = -3.644, p = .001$).

The ages of male heads of households and female primary carers were not recorded in the household questionnaires. Although self-reported age (particularly of adults) in Afghanistan can be unreliable, it may be worth obtaining ages (or at least approximate age ranges) in future waves of data collection in order to record important demographic data that may impact on school enrolment and retention of STAGES beneficiary girls. Ages of all household boys and girls were recorded. Of the 2172 total household boys aged between 5 and 15 years, the mean age was 9.65 years. Of the 2146 total household girls aged between 5 and 15 years, the mean age was 9.38 years.

Household origin and mobility

Female carers were the only adults asked about their country of birth, with the vast majority stating Afghanistan and only 1.1% stating another country (in all cases Pakistan). Female carers were also asked about the birth country of the randomly selected household boys and cohort girls in their households. Almost all selected girls and boys were born in Afghanistan (99.3% and 99.6% respectively) with other countries of birth including Pakistan and Iran. Of those cohort girls who were born in Afghanistan, the large majority were born in the same province in which they currently live, with the majority of inter-provincial movement of children since birth occurring from those born in other provinces (particularly Uruzgan, Helmand and Kabul) and subsequently moving to Kandahar.

Almost all sampled households (98.3%) reported living in the village/city in which they currently reside one year ago, with the majority of those living in the community for less than one year claiming to have moved from another community in the same province due to economic or family/personal reasons. Of those who had lived in their village for more than one year, 37.2% of households claimed to have lived there for more than 20 years and 29.5% for 10 or more years, with a mean of 11.43 years spent in the community for those living there for between 2 and 20 years.² This suggests that the majority of households have a stable position in the community and are unlikely to leave over the course of the STAGES intervention, minimising the risk of girls' lack of school retention due to inter- or intra-provincial mobility. This was confirmed when households were asked whether they thought they would be living in their community in one year, with only 2% (n=23) claiming not to know or stating that they may not be in the community, with the majority of these household members stating that they didn't know to where they might move. Just over half of household members who claimed that they might move away are currently living in Bamyan, with only a few household members in other provinces (Badakhshan, Faryab, Kabul, Kandahar, Kapisa and Khost) claiming that they may move. Of these 23 households, 10 household members stated that it would not be okay for researchers to speak with another person about the selected girl in one year's time (or that they didn't know whether it would be okay), and these households were mainly concentrated in Bamyan (although one household member stated that it would be okay to contact her if she was still living in the community). Four additional household respondents who claimed that they would be living in the community in one year's time said that they would prefer researchers did not contact them at that time (two respondents in Bamyan and two in Kandahar).

In relation to the general mobility and movement of female carers, 63.4% reported someone else in the household deciding whether they could visit friends or relatives in another place, 77% of whom provided the reason that the other person usually made decisions about whether they could do things or not. When disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment, a slightly higher proportion of female carers of in-school girls (33.3%) reported being able to decide to visit friends and relatives compared with 25.2% of carers of out-of-school girls. Furthermore, a slightly higher proportion of out-of-school girl carers who could not make decisions reported being unable to do so because

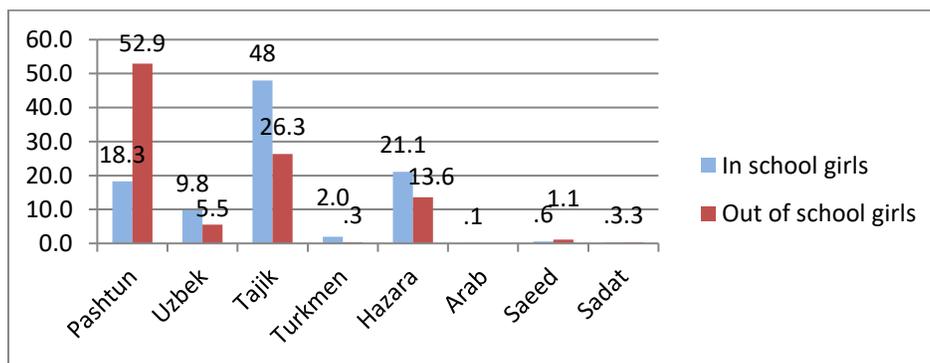
² The STAGES intervention in Kabul province specifically targets refugees; however, it is impossible to identify from the household survey from where beneficiaries in Kabul or other provinces have migrated if they have lived in their community for more than one year. Hence, it is difficult to confirm whether targeted populations are accessing the intervention.

another person makes decisions when compared with in-school girl carers (81.7% and 74.2% respectively). A much higher proportion of female carers in Faryab (81.8%) and Badakhshan (58.6%) reported being able to make decisions about their own movement to visit friends and relatives in other places.

Household ethnicity and language

Only male heads of household were asked about their ethnicity, with the largest proportion (40.7%) identifying as Tajik, 29.9% identifying as Pashtun, 18.6% as Hazara, 8.3% as Uzbek, and smaller proportions of male respondents identifying as Turkmen (1.4%), Saeed (0.7%), Sadat (0.3%) or Arab (0.1%). When disaggregated by cohort girls school enrolment, male head of household's ethnicity varied substantially, with more than half of out-of-school girls belonging to Pashtun households (see Figure 1). When further disaggregated by province, it is clear that the large proportion of Pashtun out-of-school girls is mainly attributable to households in Kandahar and Kabul provinces (and to a lesser degree in Khost province), with approximately three quarters of Pashtun girls in Kandahar, two thirds in Kabul and half in Khost not enrolled in school. This is unlikely to be due to age biases in the data, given that the mean age of Pashtun girls (9.25 years) was only slightly higher than girls of other ethnicities (for instance, 8.95 years for Tajik girls and 9.06 years for Hazara girls) and was lower than the mean age of Uzbek girls (9.56 years). Furthermore, when cohort girls' school enrolment among Pashtun girls in Kandahar, Kabul and Khost provinces was examined according to cohort girls' age, there was only a slightly lower mean age among those girls enrolled in school when compared with those not enrolled in school in Kabul province (8.41 and 8.62 years respectively) and Kandahar province (10.0 and 10.19 years respectively). In contrast, the difference in mean age in Khost was large with in-school girls having a mean age of 7.13 years and out-of-school girls having a mean age of 12.06 years. This does not appear to be due to school dropout given that the large majority of out-of-school girls in Khost had never been enrolled in school.

Figure 1: Male head of household ethnicity [disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment]



Both male heads of households and female caregivers were asked about their spoken language; however, it should be noted that the household questionnaire had slightly different wording for heads of households and carers (the former were asked *what is the main language spoken by you*

while the latter were asked *what is your first language*). This makes comparison difficult as first language may differ to main spoken language. Almost half of male heads of households (48.1%) stated that Dari was their main spoken language, with others claiming to mainly speak Pashto (29.1%), Hazara (13.4%), Uzbek (8%), Turkmen (1.4%) or Arabic (0.1%). These figures differed minimally for female caregivers, with a slightly higher proportion claiming their first language to be Dari (51.5%), 28.4% stating Pashto, 10.7% Hazara, 7.7% Uzbek and 1.8% Turkmen. Female carers were also asked about the *first language* of the randomly selected cohort girls and boys in the household, which largely reflected the language spoken by male heads of households and female caregivers, with Dari being the most commonly spoken language (50.7 and 49.7% respectively for cohort girls and boys) (see Table 4).

Table 4: Language of household members

| | Male HOH | Female carer | Cohort girls | Selected boys |
|----------------|-----------------|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| Dari | 48.1% | 51.5% | 50.7% | 49.7% |
| Pashto | 29.1% | 28.4% | 28.7% | 29.6% |
| Uzbek | 8% | 7.7% | 7.8% | 8.6% |
| Hazara | 13.4% | 10.7% | 11.3% | 10.4 |
| Turkmen | 1.4% | 1.8% | 1.5% | 1.7% |
| Arabic | 0.1% | ----- | ----- | ----- |

Household relationships in the community

The overall majority of households (92.9%) claimed to know people in their community who would help them if needed, with the majority of households who did not know people who could help located in Kandahar and Kabul. When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, a significantly higher proportion of out-of-school girl households (12.2%) claimed to not know people who could help when compared with in-school girl households (2.1%) ($t(1059) = -7.219, p = .001$). This suggests that perceived lack of community support may impact negatively on girls' school enrolment.

Household educational attainment

There were large educational disparities between male heads of household and female primary caregivers, with 55.2% of male respondents not having completed any grades at school compared with 92.4% of female respondents. For those respondents who had completed at least one grade of school, 5.7% of male heads of household completed primary school, 3.2% completed junior secondary school, 9.2% completed senior secondary school, and 5% completed higher education. In contrast, 0.6% of female primary caregivers completed primary school, 0.5% completed junior secondary school, 1.6% completed senior secondary, and 0.3% completed higher education. When disaggregated by province, female respondents' educational attainment remained low across all provinces, with slightly higher proportions of female respondents in Faryab and Kandahar completing at least one grade of school, with the majority of these respondents in Kandahar dropping out after fourth grade, and in Faryab dropping out after fifth grade or seventh grade (first year of secondary school). Overall, the mean age for female respondents leaving school was 13.66. When male head of household educational attainment was disaggregated by cohort girls' school

enrolment, it is interesting to note that the proportions of men who had not completed any grades of school did not differ significantly between in-school girl and out-of school girl households (54.7% and 56.2% respectively). Nevertheless, of those men who had completed at least one grade of schooling, men from in-school cohort girl households had completed a slightly higher number of mean school grades (7.73) than men from out-of-school cohort girl households (6.99).³ Furthermore, a slightly higher proportion of men in in-school cohort girl households (6.6%) completed higher education when compared with men in out-of-school cohort girl households (1.9%).

Much in line with female primary caregivers' low educational attainment, 89.5% reported not being able to read and write a letter in the local language of instruction, with higher rates of self-reported literacy in Baghlan, Faryab and Kandahar. Although slightly higher reported literacy rates among female respondents in Faryab and Kandahar are expected due to higher educational attainment in these provinces, it is curious to note slightly elevated literacy rates in Baghlan, where educational attainment was low. However, fieldworker reports suggested that girls in Baghlan had strong access to *Madrasa* education (see EGRA and EGMA results further below in this report), potentially explaining higher literacy rates among adult women, although this is difficult to confirm given that there were no direct questions about *madrasa* in the household questionnaire.⁴

Data for current and past educational attainment and school enrolment were recorded for all household boys (n=2172) and girls (n=2146) aged between 5 and 15 years. More household boys were currently enrolled in school (78.6%) when compared with household girls (64.7%), and school enrolment varied across the sampled provinces with the gap between girls' and boys' school enrolment diminishing in Ghor, Bamyan, Badakshan, Kapisa, Baghlan and Faryab, and widening in the other provinces, particularly Khost, Kandahar and Kabul (see Figure 2). When disaggregated by main language spoken by male head of household, the highest proportion of boys' school enrolment was recorded for Dari and Hazara speaking households, with slightly lower proportions of enrolment in Pashto and Uzbek speaking households (see Figure 3). Patterns of school enrolment differed substantially for household girls, with much lower enrolment rates in Pashto speaking households, and the highest enrolment rates in Uzbek speaking households (higher for girls than for boys). When disaggregated by both province and main language spoken by male head of household, the results for mixed Dari/Pashto provinces are revealing with fewer girls in Pashto speaking households when compared with Dari speaking households enrolled in school in Kabul and Kapisa and little difference in school enrolment between boys in Dari and Pashto speaking households in these two provinces. In contrast, rates of school enrolment for both boys and girls was higher in Pashto speaking households when compared with Dari speaking households in

³ Grades Primary 1 to Senior Secondary 3 were given values from 1 to 12 in order to obtain means.

⁴ *Madrasas* (Islamic religious teaching centers) have a long history in Afghanistan and have traditionally focused on teaching the reading of the Koran and Islamic principles and morals, although other subjects such as literacy, numeracy, mathematics, geography, history, science, logic and literature have been included at different times in traditional and more modern historical moments. Since the fall of the Taliban in 2001, the Afghan Ministry of Education has maintained, built and supported the presence of *madrasas* alongside formal government education. Although *madrasas* have historically been targeted towards older boys or young men seeking to become clerics or Islamic scholars, primary school aged children (including girls) have accessed and continue to access *madrasa* education in many parts of the country.

Baghlan province, with the same proportion of girls and boys attending school in Pashto speaking households.

Figure 2: Total household boys and girls enrolled in school disaggregated by province

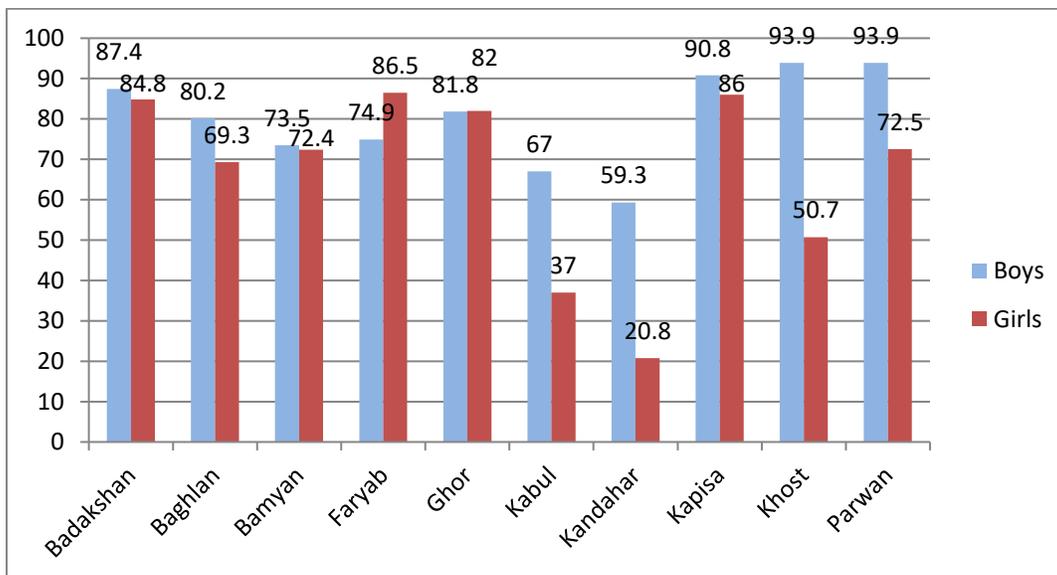
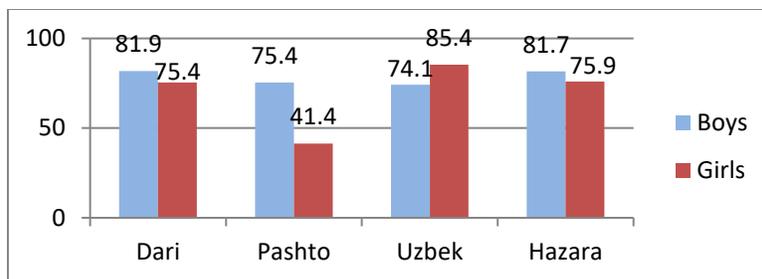


Figure 3: Total household boys and girls enrolled in school disaggregated by main language spoken by male head of household

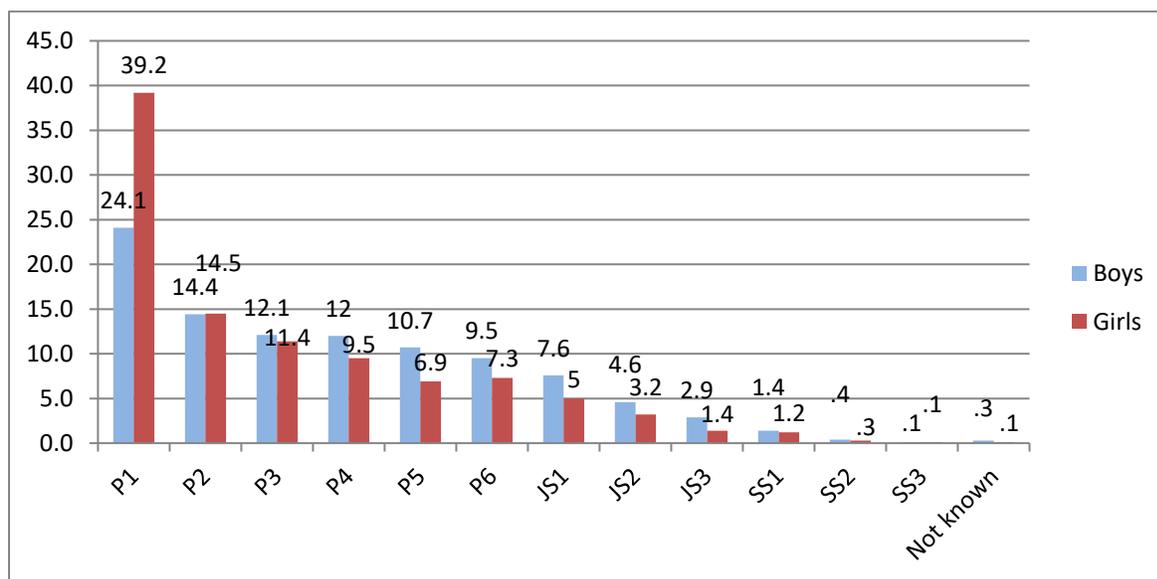


Of those boys and girls enrolled in school, male heads of households claimed that 81.8% of boys were enrolled in government schools compared with 60% of girls. More girls than boys (39.2% and 24.1% respectively) were currently enrolled in first grade of primary school, perhaps reflecting higher enrolment of girls in STAGES intervention schools (see Figure 4). When children's grade was cross tabulated with type of school (government or non-government), 62.9% of first grade girls were reported to be attending non-government schools while 65.8% of first grade boys were reported to be attending government schools, suggesting that higher proportions of girls than boys are attending community based classes.⁵ In Figure 4, there was no difference between proportions

⁵ In the male head of household questionnaire, respondents were simply asked to indicate whether schools were government or non-government. However, in the female carer questionnaire, respondents were asked to indicate who was running cohort girls' schools, with options including local or central government, or religious, charitable, private, foreign or non-governmental organizations. In either case, it may be difficult to discern government from non-government schools given that there may be some cross-over between the two.

of girls and boys enrolled in second grade of primary school, with enrolment dropping off across subsequent grades for both boys and girls, and the gap between boys and girls widening in favour of the former for all subsequent primary school grades (particularly grade five) and gradually levelling out across junior and senior secondary school.

Figure 4: Current grade of school enrolment for total household boys and girls



According to male heads of households, of the 21.4% of boys not currently enrolled in school only 5.4% had ever been to school, and of the 35.3% of girls not currently enrolled 7.3% had ever been to school. For girls, rates of having been enrolled were slightly higher in Bamyan and Khost. Among once enrolled boys and girls, 16.4% of girls completed primary school (grade 6) compared with 40% of boys, and only 5.5% of girls completed at least one grade of secondary compared with 28% of boys. Despite boys completing more grades than girls, the mean age that children left school was 9.52 years for boys and 9.5 years for girls, suggesting that those girls who were once enrolled began attending school at a later age than boys.

Due to a skipping error in the household questionnaire, data for girls' enrolment one year ago and two years ago was only recorded for those girls who were not enrolled but who were once enrolled in school (this will be corrected in Phase 2 of baseline data collection). Of the girls not currently enrolled but once enrolled, 16.4% were enrolled one year ago and 38.2% were enrolled two years ago.

According to heads of households, 52.5% of boys and 33.7% of girls were able to read and write a letter in the language of instruction. When data on reading and writing a letter in the language of instruction were disaggregated by current school enrolment, and cross tabulated with current

For instance, *madrasas* (religious schools) may be supported by the government, or some government or non-governmental schools may be jointly run by more than one organization or actor.

school grade, the mean grade at which both currently enrolled boys and girls were reported to be able to read and write (rounded up) was fourth grade primary, although the mean was slightly less than 4 for girls (3.86) and slightly more for boys (4.15).⁶ It should be highlighted that male heads of households' reported literacy of their children may not be accurate; however, when cohort girls' reported literacy was cross tabulated with their EGRA mean scores, those girls who were reported to be literate had an overall mean score of 47.08% on EGRA (four subtasks weighted equally) while girls who were reported to be non-literate had an overall mean score of 10.89%.

Household employment

The majority of male heads of households (80.3%) claimed to have a job, business or work outside of the home, the majority of whom reported working in farming or fishing related activities, 22.5% doing so for the family, 15.4% doing so to sell crops, and 7% participating in farm labour. Other male respondents participated in a range of employment activities including teaching (8%), sales (9.8%), and driving (5.2%), with other employment activities largely distributed across varying professional and skilled employment categories. In contrast, 98.4% of female primary caregivers reported not having a job, business or work outside of the home. Of those women who did work outside of the house, almost all worked as teachers, the majority comprising female respondents from Badakhshan.

When male head of household employment in a job, business or work outside the home was disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, a higher proportion of households with out-of-school girls claimed to have employed male heads of households (86.7%) when compared with households with in school girls (77.1%) and this difference was statistically significant ($t(1076) = 3.754, p = .001$), suggesting that household male employment is not necessarily a predictor of marginalised girls' school enrolment in this sample.

Male heads of households reported data on whether total household girls and boys contributed economically to the household through work, revealing that a slightly higher proportion of boys (22%) contribute economically to the household when compared with girls (19%). When disaggregated by total household girls' school enrolment, a higher proportion of non-enrolled girls (23.3%) contributed economically to the household than enrolled girls (18.9%). There was no difference between enrolled and non-enrolled boys for economic contribution to the household.

Household disabilities

Overall, 5.4% of female primary caregivers claimed to have a disability or permanent health problem that stopped them from performing normal daily activities, although rates of disability were predominantly concentrated among female respondents in Bamyan and Ghor. When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, a slightly higher proportion of female carers (6.1%) claimed to have a disability in in-school girl households when compared with female carers in out-of-school girl households (3.9%), suggesting that carer's disability is not a deterrent to girls' school enrolment.

⁶ Grades Primary 1 to Senior Secondary 3 were given values from 1 to 12 in order to obtain means.

Of total household children, very few were reported to have a 'disability' that impacted on their sight, hearing, moving, or self-care (only 1.1% of boys and 0.9% of girls). This result should be read with caution given higher rates of 'difficulties' recorded for cohort girls (see further below), but may be related to different meanings attributed to 'disability' and 'difficulty'.

Household infrastructure and technologies

The majority of household respondents reported having roofs and floors made of precarious materials. Approximately half (50.6%) of household roofs were made of wood, 35.2% of thatch, and 12.8% of mud, with smaller numbers of household roofs made of cement/concrete (3.4%), tin/iron sheeting (1.6%) or roofing tiles (0.4%).⁷ Household floors were predominantly made of thatch (54.3%), mud (32.3%), or cement/concrete (11.3%), with smaller numbers of households having floors made of wood (3.5%), roofing tiles (0.5%) or tin/iron sheeting (0.2%). There was less precarious housing infrastructure in some provinces. For instance, large proportions of household respondents in Kandahar had roofs made of tin/iron sheeting or concrete/cement (17% and 22.7% respectively) and floors made of cement/concrete (47.7%). Smaller but still substantial proportions of household respondents in Khost had roofs made of cement/concrete or roofing tiles (14.1% and 4% respectively) and floors made of cement/concrete (18.2%), with 37.1% of Kabul households having floors made of cement/concrete. Almost all respondents (98.8%) claimed to have a toilet just for their household dwelling.

The majority of sampled households obtain water from sources outside of the household, with 49.3% obtaining water from a protected well, 22.1% from a public outdoor tap or borehole, 17.8% from a river, lake or pond, and 5.8% from an unprotected well or rain water. Only 4.8% of respondents obtain water through piping into their dwelling. Sources of water vary somewhat across the sampled provinces, with higher proportions of households obtaining water through piping into the dwelling in Kandahar (21.6%), Badakhshan (10.9%), and Faryab (8.1%), and high proportions of households obtaining water from a river, lake or pond in Parwan (75%), Bamyan (64.5%), Baghlan (37.4%) and Kapisa (27.3%).

Approximately three quarters of sampled households have some kind of access to electricity, with the most common type of supply being electricity grid (41.4%), and smaller numbers of households accessing electricity from solar power (11.2%), a generator (3.6%) or from some other source (17.7%). Sources of electricity vary substantially across the sampled provinces, with access to electricity grid high in Faryab (99%), Badakhshan (97.3%), and Kandahar (39.8%), access to solar power high in Bamyan (81%), access to a generator high in Baghlan (27.3%), access to some other source of electricity common in Parwan (97.7%) and Kabul (38.5%), and no access to electricity in large proportions of households in Khost (91.9%), Kapisa (65.9%), Ghor (46.3%) and Kabul (37.8%).

⁷ Note that although the household survey asked respondents to name the main material of the roof and floor of the house, a small number of respondents claimed to have two materials in equal value, with 42 respondents naming two main materials for the roof (mainly combinations of wood and mud, or mud and thatch), and 21 respondents naming two main materials for the floor (mainly combinations of wood and mud, mud and thatch, or thatch and wood). Hence, data for these two questions have been entered as multiple responses.

Despite large proportions of households overall having access to some form of electricity, more than half of respondents (58.6%) claimed not to have electricity available at all times of the day, and 82.6% of respondents claimed to cook with fire, with only 2.2% using electricity to cook and 15.2% using gas. Furthermore, only slightly more than a quarter of sampled households (27.5%) use electricity as a main source of light when it is dark, with more households accessing oil lamps (36.2%) or solar lamps (28%), and smaller numbers using gas (6.3%) or fire (1.5%) as a source of light. Availability and use of electricity varied somewhat across the sampled provinces, with very high proportions of households with access to electricity having it available at all times in Faryab (99%) and large proportions of households not having electricity available at all times in Ghor (100%), Parwan (100%), Kapisa (100%), Kandahar (83.3%), and Baghlan (70.3%). Sources of power for cooking did not differ substantially according to province, with fire being the most popular source in all sampled provinces, although large proportions of respondent use gas in Faryab and Kandahar. The most popular sources of light when it is dark are electricity in Faryab, Bamyan, and Ghor, gas in Kapisa, oil lamps in Kandahar, Badakhshan and Baghlan, and solar lamps in Kabul, Khost and Parwan.

Almost two thirds of sampled households have access to some form of mass media; 36.1% have access to a radio, 17.5% to a TV and 8.7% have access to both, but 36.8% of households have no access to these technologies. Although the majority of households across most of the sampled provinces had access to either a TV or radio (or both), more than half of respondents in Parwan (88.6%), Badakhshan (74.5%), Kapisa (54.5%) and Bamyan (52.9%) claimed to have no access to either type of technology.

When asked about household sources of transportation, 45% of respondents claimed that the household had a bicycle, scooter, motorcycle or car, with higher reported ownership of one of these vehicles in Kapisa (97.7%), Khost (87.9%), and Ghor (62.8%), and less ownership reported in Badakhshan (2.7%), Parwan (29.5%), and Bamyan (35.5%).

Almost two thirds of respondents (62.9%) claimed to have at least one phone (including a mobile phone) in the household, although rates of phone ownership varied greatly across the sampled provinces with a high proportion of respondents in Kapisa (100%), Khost (100%), Parwan (95.5%), Baghlan (90.9%), and Kabul (90.9%) claiming to have at least one phone in the household, and a low proportion of respondents from Ghor (3.3%) and Badakhshan (18.6%) reporting household phone ownership. Within those households that had phones, only 26.8% of female primary caregivers claimed to have their own personal mobile phone, with larger proportions of female caregivers in Kandahar, Faryab and Kapisa, and fewer female respondents in Khost, Baghlan and Kabul claiming to have a mobile phone. Overall, the majority of household mobile phone owners consisted of male household members. For instance, in those households with mobile phones, large proportions of female respondents claimed that male spouses owned their own mobile phones (75.2%), with other male family members including fathers (40.4%), brothers (24.6%), fathers in law (17%) and uncles (10.2%). Children (gender not specified) were also named as mobile phone owners (18.7%). Much lower proportions of mobile phone owners comprised female household members, such as mothers (3.2%), mothers in law (2.8%), sisters (1.3%), and sisters in law (1.2%), although female relatives' mobile phone ownership was slightly higher in Bamyan.

Of those female respondents who claimed to own a mobile phone, 41.2% used Roshan, 30.8% used MTN, 28.6% used Etisalat and 15.4% used Afghan Wireless (13.7% of female respondents who have their own phone claimed to use more than one mobile service provider). Reported mobile phone service provision differed slightly for other household members, with 45.3% of female respondents claiming their other family members to use MTN, 41.6% Roshan, 36.1% Afghan Wireless, and 26.5% Etisalat (approximately 52% of female carers' household relatives were reported to use more than one service provider). More than three quarters (77.8%) of female respondents who own their own mobile phone keep this phone on all the time and the remaining respondents claim to keep their phone on at varying times of the day. When asked about their other household members, 59.9% of female respondents claimed that their spouses kept their mobile phones on all the time, 35.5% claimed that their fathers did, and 20.4% claimed their brothers to do so, with smaller numbers of other relatives keeping their mobile phones on all the time.

When female carers who claimed to have at least one mobile phone in the household were asked whether they would like to receive text messages about health or education, a large proportion (44.7%) stated that they did not have a mobile phone, despite others in the household having access to mobile phones. Approximately a third of female respondents with at least one mobile phone in the household stated that they would like to receive text messages: 15.8% about health only, 3.7% about education only, and 14.6% about both health and education.

Overall, the data for household infrastructure and technologies did not differ significantly between households with in-school cohort girls and households with out-of school cohort girls, except in relation to three variables: household access to electricity, access to TV and/or radio technologies, and household mobile phone ownership. Significantly more households with cohort girls enrolled in school (78.1%) had access to some form of electricity when compared with out-of-school girl households (65.7%) ($t(1070) = -4.579, p = .001$). It is interesting to note that for the other two variables, out-of-school girl households had significantly more access to technologies than in-school girl households: 70.6% of out-of-school girl households and 58.2% of in-school girl households had access to a TV, radio or both ($t(1067) = 4.223, p = .001$); and 78.7% of out-of-school girl households and 55% of in-school girl households owned at least one mobile phone ($t(1076) = 7.814, p = .001$). This suggests that radio, TV and mobile phone technologies may be good sources of education and health messaging to reach out-of-school girl households.

Household socioeconomic profile

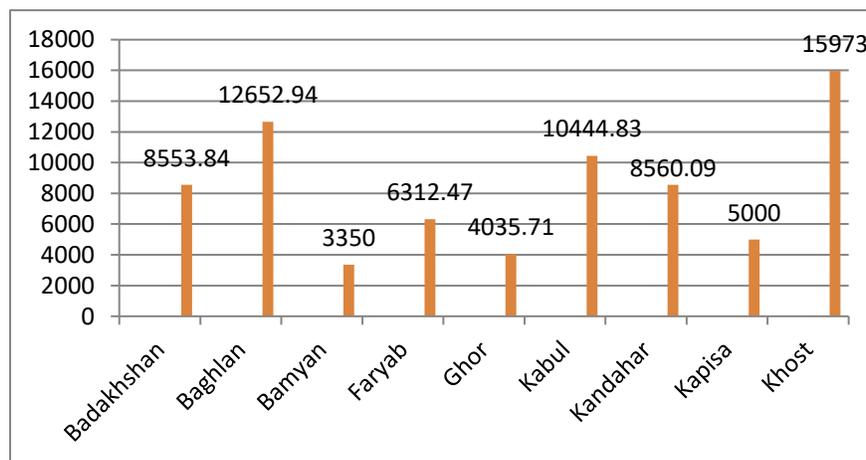
A large proportion of female primary carers (36.2%) refused to respond to questions about household income, with higher proportions of respondents in Kapisa, Bamyan, Ghor and Kandahar refusing to answer these questions. Enumerators reported female carers' discomfort responding to money questions and suggested that male heads of households appeared more disposed to providing this information. The household survey does provide an opportunity for female respondents to swap to male heads of households for these questions, with 30.5% of those female carers who agreed to respond requesting that these questions be asked of the male head of household. Of those respondents who answered money questions, there were substantial refusals or not known responses for the question on monthly household income, although more so for female carers than for male heads of households, suggesting that in future waves of data collection

the household survey may benefit from directing these questions to the male head of household in the first instance.

Of those households for which income data were recorded, 60.6% reported having money coming in from any source in the past year, with much fewer households in Badakhshan (7.2%), Faryab (23.8%), and Bamyan (39.3%) claiming to have had any source of income. When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, significantly more out-of-school girl households (76.3%) claimed to have had money coming in from any source when compared with in-school girl households (51.7%) ($t(673) = 6.674, p = .001$).

The large majority of sampled households (89.1%) reported not making payments to anyone for the house they lived in, with much higher proportions of respondents in Parwan and Kandahar claiming to make house payments. As noted further above, there were high rates of refusals or not known responses for questions about monthly household income, with approximately 50% of the total sample responding to this question; therefore, data for monthly income is not necessarily representative of the sampled households. Of those who did respond, the majority provided amounts in Afghanis with a smaller proportion in Pakistani rupees. In order to calculate mean income across sampled households, all income amounts for Pakistani rupees were converted into Afghanis.⁸ Respondents reported a total mean of 9678.32 Afghani per month (approximately 170 US dollars), with higher mean monthly income in Khost, Baghlan and Kabul and much lower mean income in Bamyan, Ghor and Kapisa (see Figure 5).⁹ When monthly household income was disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment, out-of-school girl households reported a slightly higher mean monthly income (10951.45 Afghanis) than in-school girl households (8964.03 Afghanis), although this difference was not statistically significant ($t(535) = -1.92, p = .055$).

Figure 5: Mean monthly income in Afghani disaggregated by province



⁸ The conversion rate of 1 Afghani = 1.71638 Rupees was used according to the exchange rate on 17th April 2014.

⁹ Note that Parwan is not included in Figure 5 due to all households refusing to answer money questions or questions about household income.

Despite high refusal rates for household income questions, there were few refusals or not known responses for more general questions about self-perceived economic situation. When asked about money and things that they owned, 48.1% of household respondents reported needing a little more, 42.5% a lot more and 6.9% reported having enough. When asked to consider everything, including money, the place where they lived and friendships, 45.7% of household respondents reported needing their situation to be a bit better, 38.5% a lot better, and 13.7% claimed that their situation was acceptable. Approximately one quarter of household respondents reported being unable to meet basic needs without charity, with 60.9% claiming to be able to meet their basic needs. Smaller proportions of household members reported being able to meet basic needs with some non-essential goods (7.9%) or having plenty of disposable income (0.7%). There was little difference between in-school and out-of-school cohort girl households for these three variables; however, there was some variation across sampled provinces, with high proportions of respondents from Kapisa and Badakhshan claiming to need a lot more and needing their situation to be a lot better, and a high proportion of respondents in Baghlan (87.9%) reporting being unable to meet basic needs without charity.

Household knowledge about girls' schools and attitudes towards children's education

The majority of female primary carers (81.7%) reported knowing which was the closest primary school that local girls could go to, although fewer (62.9%) reported knowing which was the closest secondary school for girls. Although knowledge of local primary and secondary schools for girls varied somewhat across the sampled provinces, it was very low among female carers in Kandahar (9.1% for both primary and secondary schools). This is likely due to STAGES community classes being late-starting in Kandahar and not having started yet in the sampled communities at the time of baseline data collection. Moreover, there were significant differences between female carers of in-school and out-of-school cohort girls in relation to knowledge of nearest primary schools that girls can attend (91.2% and 62.9% respectively for in-school and out-of-school girl households) and secondary schools that girls can attend (76% and 36.8% respectively for in-school and out-of-school girl households).

Overall, the mean distance (in minutes walking) it took to reach the nearest primary school that girls could attend was reported to be 33.65 minutes and 63.07 minutes to reach the nearest secondary school (range of between one and 180 minutes for both primary and secondary schools). The reported mean distance to travel for the nearest primary school that girls could attend was highest in Kandahar and Kabul (both provinces with predominantly late starting STAGES classes), and lowest in Badakhshan, Ghor and Faryab. The mean distance to travel for the closest secondary schools that girls' could attend remained low in Faryab but increased across all the other provinces. When disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment, female carers from in-school girl households reported significantly less travel time to reach the closest primary and secondary schools that girls could attend (24.3 minutes and 55.09 minutes respectively for primary and secondary schools) when compared with female carers of out-of-school girls (52.23 minutes and 78.92 minutes respectively for primary and secondary schools). It should be noted that although in some communities reaching girls' schools may require long travel times, reports of time given by female carers are subjective and may not necessarily constitute accurate distances.

A lower proportion of female carers (14.8%) reported believing that any of the journeys to girls' schools is dangerous, although this number differed somewhat across the sampled provinces with larger proportions of female respondents in Kandahar and Kabul claiming that any of the journeys to girls' primary and secondary schools are dangerous. Furthermore, significantly more female carers from out-of-school girl households (23.5%) claimed that the journey to girls' schools was dangerous when compared with female carers from in-school girl households (10.5%) ($t(979) = 6.922, p = .001$).

Female carers were asked a series of questions to ascertain household and perceived community attitudes towards children's education. Approximately half of respondents reported thinking that when girls go to school they learn about the same as boys, 21.3% suggested that girls learn more than boys, and only 10.1% suggested that girls learn less. When disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment, a higher proportion of in-school than out-of-school girl household members stated that girls learn the same as boys (57.2% and 39.9% respectively) or more than boys (23.6% and 16.9% respectively), and a higher proportion of out-of-school than in-school girl household members stated that girls learned less than boys (15.5% and 7.4% respectively) or that it depends (18.8% and 6.3% respectively). Furthermore, higher proportions of respondents in Baghlan (39.4%), Kandahar (27.3%) and Khost (20.2%) reported thinking that girls learn less than boys. Although all respondents in Khost and Kandahar identified as Pashtun, it is interesting to note that in Baghlan province Pashtun ethnicity was not specifically related to beliefs that boys learn more than girls, with approximately the same proportions of Pashtun, Tajik and Hazara respondents expressing these opinions. The majority of household respondents (94.2%) agreed that education helps people make better lives for themselves, with a slightly higher but insignificant proportion of in-school cohort girl households (95%) stating that boys learn more than girls when compared with out-of-school girl households (92.5%). Only 3.1% of respondents overall spontaneously stated that education is helpful for men and boys only.

When female carers were asked to describe which factors were important in household decision making about whether children should go to school, 93% of respondents stated that children's age was important, with other important factors including jobs for adults, the time of year, and the child's ability (see Figure 6). Fewer respondents agreed that the gender of the child or jobs for children in the area were important factors. When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, fewer in-school girl household members rated the factors as important when compared with out-of-school girl household members, except in relation to jobs for adults in the area (see Figure 7). Across the sampled provinces, children's gender was rated as important by a low proportion of respondents in Badakhshan, Bamyan, Faryab, Ghor, Kapisa and Kandahar, and a higher proportion of respondents in Parwan, Khost and Kabul. It is interesting to note this finding for Kandahar given lower overall rates of girls' enrolment when compared with boys.

Figure 6: Importance of factors when deciding whether a child should attend school

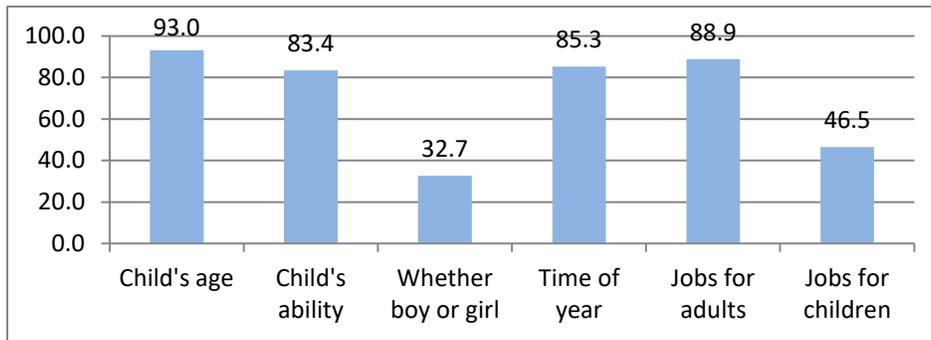
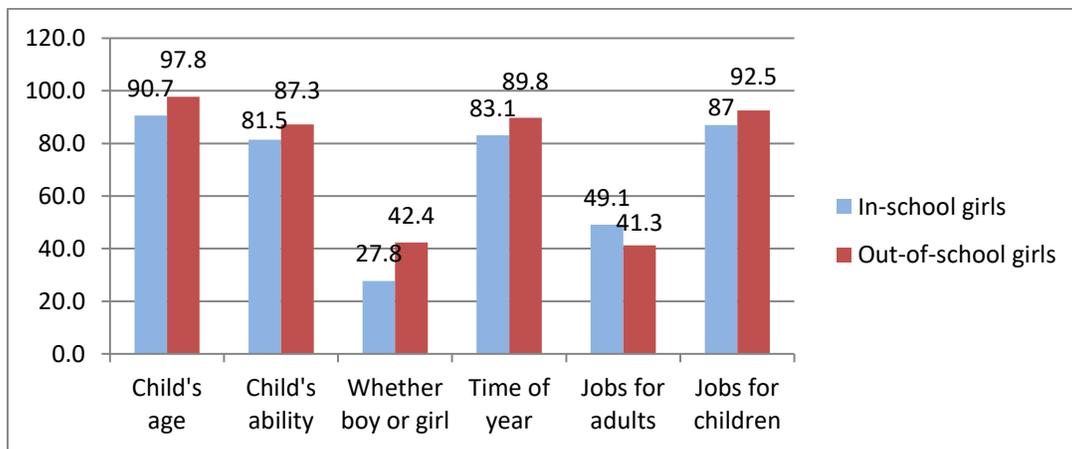


Figure 7: Importance of factors when deciding whether a child should attend school (disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment)



When asked a multiple response option question on household decision making about children's education, 36.7% of female carers stated that both parents made decisions. Other frequent responses referred to the head of household (20.2%), spouse (15.9%) or father (21.4%). A higher proportion of in-school cohort girl households (43%) stated that both parents made decisions about children's education when compared with out-of-school cohort girl households (24.4%). Large proportions of female carers reported both parents making decisions about education in Badakhshan (79.5%), Parwan (79.5%) and Bamyān (66.1%), with male household members (mainly spouses and fathers) predominantly making such decisions in other provinces, particularly in Baghlan, Ghor, Kandahar, Kapisa and Khost.

Female carers were asked a series of broader questions about community practices and support for girls' education and 65.7% reported that it was usual for most people in their community to send girls to school. A higher proportion of in-school cohort girl household respondents (77.8%) claimed that most community members sent girls to school when compared with out-of-school cohort girl respondents (41.6%), and higher proportions of respondents in Ghor, Badakhshan, Bamyān, and Parwan stated the same. Fewer household respondents in Khost, Kandahar, Kabul and Kapisa believed that most girls in their community were sent to school. In Kabul and Kandahar, these

results may indicate that community members in fact do not send girls to school given these two provinces mainly consist of late-starting STAGES communities, many of which did not have classes operating at the time of Phase 1 of baseline data collection due to instructions to implement classes after the baseline data collection.

A large proportion of female respondents (60.9%) reported feeling that there was enough support in their community for girls to go to school, 28.7% perceived not enough support and only 3.1% did not feel that girls should attend school. It is interesting to note that more out-of-school girl cohort households respondents (49.3%) perceived insufficient support for girls' education when compared with in-school girl household respondents (18.3%). Perceptions of insufficient lack of support were more frequent in Khost, Kandahar, Kapisa, Kabul and Baghlan, with slightly higher proportions of respondents in Kandahar, Kapisa and Baghlan also stating that girls should not attend school.

The majority of sampled households (68.2%) do not have members currently participating in Community Development Councils (CDCs) or school shuras (9.8% of respondents claimed that there were no such committees or groups in their community). When disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment, a slightly higher number of in-school girl household members (21.8%) are currently participating in CDCs or school shuras compared with 11.9% of out-of-school girl household members, the latter which also reported slightly higher rates of lack of school committees in the community. The gap between participation and nonparticipation according to cohort girl school enrolment widened in Bamyan, Kabul and Kapisa; furthermore, a much higher proportion of out-of-school girl households in Baghlan (41.2%) reported having no school shuras/CDCs when compared with in-school girl households (12.3%).

When asked whether they thought there were any ways that families could be helped to provide education for girls, 69.3% of female carers said yes with common reported forms of assistance including providing safety and security for children (22.5%), establishing more schools in the area (17.4%), providing economic assistance (13.4%), conducting outreach through advertisements (12.4%) and increasing children's motivation to study (12%). Other less frequently cited responses included providing stationary and establishing winter courses. Ensuring the safety and security of children was a predominant concern in Baghlan, Faryab, Ghor and Kapisa.

Household knowledge, attitudes and practices associated with health and hygiene

The household survey included a KAP survey to measure knowledge, attitudes and practices associated with health and hygiene among male heads of households and female carers, based on health messaging by the Ministry of Public Health.

When male heads of households and female carers were asked what the main causes of diarrhoea in children are, large proportions gave correct responses including polluted food (55.7% and 56.6% respectively for men and women), unclean water (42.8% and 42.1%), unwashed hands (20.8% and 30.2%), unwashed fruit and vegetables (19.1% and 24.3%) and not taking care of hygiene (12.5% and 16.1%). Slightly more male respondents than female respondents gave incorrect responses,

which included polluted air (13.3% and 7.4% respectively) and extreme temperatures (1.7% and 0.5%).

More male respondents than female respondents gave complete or correct responses to a question about the main ingredients of oral rehydration liquid (commonly known as ORS – oral rehydration salts), with 30.6% of men and 24.8% of women correctly stating sugar, salt and water. Other frequent responses among both male and female respondents included boiled water, fluids, and ORS (without stating the actual ingredients). Both types of respondent also listed a large number of foods and drinks as the ingredients of ORS, including pasta, rice, fruit juices, tea, yoghurt, different kinds of soups/broths, and local Afghan dishes. When disaggregated by province, high proportions of male respondents in Baghlan, Kabul, Kandahar, Kapisa and Khost, and high proportions of female respondents in Kandahar and Kapisa correctly and completely answered sugar, salt and water, with lower proportions in other provinces. Furthermore, a large proportion of male and female respondents in Bamyan stated not knowing what the ingredients of ORS were. Respondents were also asked what foods they gave to their children when they had diarrhoea, revealing many similar kinds of foods as those mentioned above, although the most frequent responses included foods with high water content, fluids, salty soft foods, short-grain rice, pasta, food prescribed by the doctor, yoghurt, dried curd and a number of different kinds of soups and fruit or vegetable juices.

Almost all male and female respondents agreed that it is important to wash one's hands with soap after defecating and almost all claimed to take their children to the doctor when they had diarrhoea (although slightly fewer female than male respondents reporting taking their children to the doctor). The majority of respondents (85.3% and 79.6% of men and women respectively) disagreed that boiling water doesn't prevent diarrhoea. The majority of those men and women who agreed that boiling water does not prevent diarrhoea came from Bamyan, with large proportions of male respondents also refusing to answer or stating that they didn't know (more women than men disagreed with the statement). Although this finding may indicate poorer reach of hygiene education in Bamyan, it may also be due to respondent lack of understanding of the question given it is phrased in the negative.

Respondents were also asked a number of questions about the effects and prevention of polio, with the majority of men and women (87.3% and 86.7% respectively) stating that paralysis was an effect of polio, and other effects including disease, weakening of eye sight, and damaged hearing. Only 0.3% of men and 2.7% of women suggested that death is an effect of polio. A small number of men and women also stated that an effect of polio was burden on the family, and a small number of women stated that children cannot continue their studies. Although there was little variation in type of responses across the sampled provinces, it is interesting to note that a high proportion of male respondents in Khost (51.5%) mentioned burden on the family as an effect of polio, a high number of female respondents in Kandahar mentioned children not being able to continue their studies (13.6%), and a very high proportion of male and female respondents in Bamyan claimed not to know what the effects of polio were. The majority of respondents (91.5% and 91.2% of men and women respectively) correctly referred to vaccination as a form of prevention of polio with other responses including child protection, on time treatment, nutritious food, going to the doctor, and not arranging marriages.

The large majority of respondents (97.8% of men and 98.8% of women) reported thinking that children should be vaccinated and that their own children were vaccinated against polio (95.5% of men and 95.8% of women). A series of questions about household vaccinations later in the female questionnaire revealed that although 89% of female carers reported all household children having had a polio vaccination, 9% reported only some children having been vaccinated against polio. When asked about vaccinations in general and other types of vaccinations, 85.7% of female carers stated that all children in their family aged between 2 and 15 years had received vaccinations (13.7% of carers stated that some children had had vaccinations). Fewer carers reported all children having had a measles vaccination (78.7%), tuberculosis vaccination (68.7%) or diphtheria vaccination (63.8%), with no children having received a tuberculosis vaccination in 6.4% of households, diphtheria vaccination in 10.3% of households, and measles vaccination in 3.7% of households. Remaining responses consisted largely of non known/refused responses or only some household children having had these vaccinations. When disaggregated by province, no vaccination, only vaccinating some children and not knowing about the vaccination status of children were largely concentrated in Bamyan, Kandahar, Kapisa and Khost provinces for most types of vaccinations except for polio; however, small numbers of respondents in Bamyan and Kandahar claimed not to have vaccinated any children against polio. When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, significantly higher proportions of in-school girl households than out-of-school girl households reported having vaccinated all of their children against polio, tuberculosis, diphtheria and measles, with higher proportions of out-of-school girl households than in-school-girl households not vaccinating any household children.

When asked about children's respiratory illness (such as whooping cough, flu or pneumonia), a large proportion of female carers (65.8%) stated that none of their children had had such illnesses in the past year, with 14.1% reporting all their children and 16.1% reporting some of their children having had such illnesses. When disaggregated by province, much higher proportions of carers in Kabul, Kapisa, Kandahar and Khost reported some or all children having had respiratory illnesses. Furthermore, a higher proportion of carers of in-school girls (72.4%) than out-of-school girls (52.6%) reported none of their children having had respiratory illnesses in the past year.

When asked a series of open-ended question about breastfeeding, the majority of male and female respondents gave responses in line with the Ministry of Public Health's approved health messaging, with 79.1% of men and 78% of women stating that mothers should breastfeed their babies for two years with responses ranging from between five and 36 months. Furthermore, more than 80% of male and female respondents stated that mothers should begin breastfeeding after birth or on the first day of birth. Smaller proportions of respondents referred more specifically to timing, stating one, two or three hours after birth and only 5% of men and 10.3% of women stated the second day after birth. Despite large numbers of respondents referring to breastfeeding on the first day of a baby's birth, 37.4% of men and 22.2% of women agreed that mothers should not breastfeed babies the day they are born, with agreement concentrated in Kabul, Kandahar and Khost for men, and in Kandahar and Khost for women. When household survey translations were checked (particularly the Pashto survey, given that all of Kandahar and Khost respondents and half of Kabul respondents are Pashto speakers), no errors were found; hence, it is possible that respondents were confused with the question given it was phrased in the negative. Furthermore, a large proportion of

respondents (approximately 60% of both men and women) agreed that mothers should only give breast milk to babies younger than one year, despite agreeing that babies should be breastfed for more two years. When translations were checked, an error was found in both the Dari and Pashto surveys for both male and female respondents. Instead of asking if respondents agreed that mothers should only give breast milk to babies *younger* than one year, the questions stated *older* than one year. Furthermore, the wording of the question is vague given that it could have more than one interpretation: mothers should only breastfeed babies when they are older than one year, or mothers should only give breast milk (and not others foods) to babies older than one year.

Regardless of these inconsistencies in the data, the majority of male respondents claimed that their wife started breastfeeding their last baby within the first day of birth and breastfed their baby for two years or more. Female respondent data was largely similar, although 11.6% of women stated that they started breastfeeding their last baby the second day after birth while 4.4% of men stated the same. It should be noted that these slight differences may be due to some male heads of households not being related to the primary female carer through marriage. Approximately 15% of male respondents refused to answer or didn't know the answer to these two questions, potentially because they were being asked by a male enumerator specifically about respondents' wives.

Those female carers who claimed that the household had a radio were asked about whether household members listened to the radio drama show 'New Home, New Life'.¹⁰ Approximately two thirds of female respondents (67.7%) claimed that members of the household listened to the radio drama, and listening to the radio show was very common in Faryab, Ghor, Kabul, Khost and Parwan. Most household members (57.4%) were reported to listen to the show weekly with smaller proportions of household members listening to it daily (33.7%) or monthly (2.8%). Few female carers reported listening to the radio show themselves, with the majority of household members who do listen to the show consisting of male household members, including spouses (67.3%), fathers (37%), brothers (19.6%), and fathers in law (17.1%). 20.2% of carers also stated that children listened to the radio show, although gender of children was not specified. A smaller number of carers indicated that mothers (14.4%), sisters (9.8%) and mothers in law (5.8%) listened to 'New Home, New Life'. Respondents were also asked whether household members read the 'New Home, New Life' magazine. Due to the questions on 'New Home, New Life' being skipped for those respondents who didn't own a radio, 44.8% of respondents were asked about reading the magazine (this should be modified in future phases of data collection as those who don't have access to a radio may have access to reading materials). Of those who were asked about 'New Home, New Life' magazine, the majority (89.2%) reported nobody in the household reading the magazine. Of those female carers who did have household members who read the magazine, the majority suggested that they accessed the magazine through community centres, on the street or from the library.

Household adult support for women's and girls' participation in education, employment and other activities

¹⁰ "New Home, New Life" is an Afghan cultural radio program that serves both entertainment and educational purposes, with educational themes covering a range of topics including health, disability, education, human rights, livelihoods and governance.

The household survey questionnaire included a KAP survey to measure perceptions of women's and girls' participation in education, employment and other activities among three household members: male heads of households, female primary caregivers, and cohort girls (with some small variations in the KAP survey questioning between these three types of respondents). This section presents KAP data for household adults (see further below for cohort girls' perceptions about women's and girls' participation).

Male heads of households

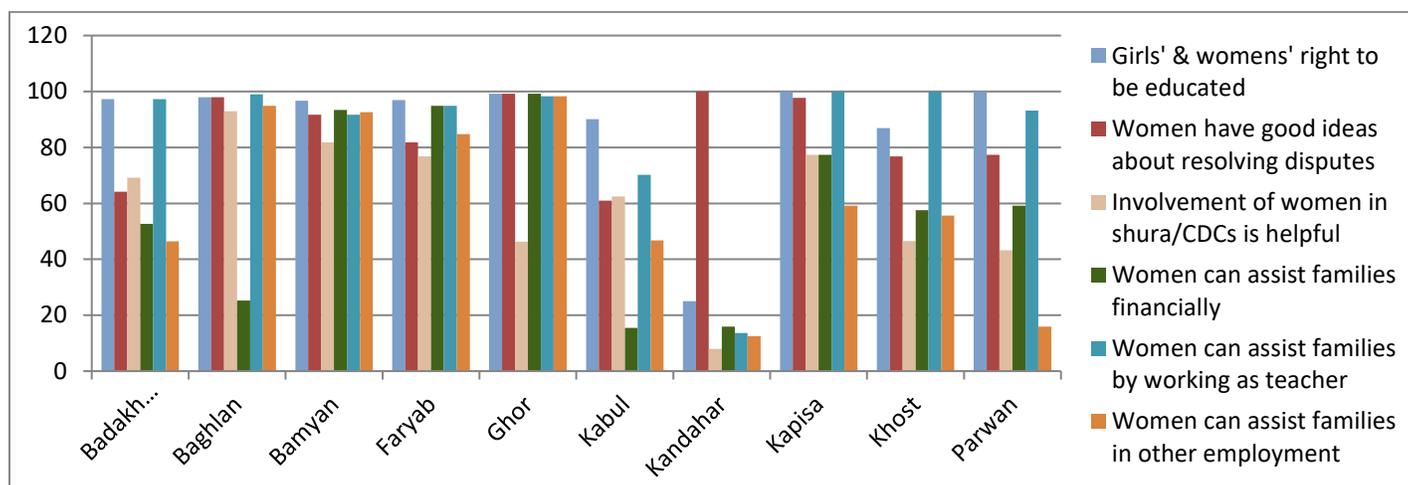
The majority of male heads of households (89.9%) agreed/strongly agreed that it is girls' and women's right to be educated, with only 8% disagreeing with this statement. There was diminishing agreement with other statements. For instance, although there was strong agreement that women have good ideas about dispute resolution (78.8%), there was less support (54%) for their participation in shuras and CDCs, which consist of community meetings and processes that traditionally belong to the realms of men and where disputes are commonly discussed and resolved. Male heads of households indicated diminishing agreement with statements related to women's economic and employment activities and contributions to households. While a large proportion of respondents (86.5%) agreed/strongly agreed that women can assist families by working as a teacher, fewer agreed that women can assist their families by working in another form of employment (61.4%) or that women can assist their families financially (65%). While agreement with the statement that women can assist their families by raising children was very high (98.2%), it is curious to note that agreement that women can assist their families through household/domestic activities was much lower (62.7%). This may have been a problem with interpretation of the question or may have been related to the wording of the question: by disagreeing that women 'can' assist their families with domestic activities, respondents may have been disagreeing with the idea that women can choose whether or not to perform these activities, instead believing that women should or must fulfil these duties. It is also possible that respondents misinterpreted the question to mean women assisting with domestic activities (e.g. as a paid cleaner or cook) outside the household.

The pattern of these results was mainly consistent across the sampled provinces with some pronounced variations. While more than 90% of male respondents in most provinces agreed that it is girls' and women's right to be educated, only 25% of male respondents from Kandahar agreed with this statement (see Figure 8).¹¹ Indeed, agreement with most of the statements was very low among male Kandahar respondents, except for the statement that 'women have good ideas about resolving disputes' with which 100% of respondents agreed. Agreement with statements related to women's participation in resolving disputes or in shuras/community meetings was largely consistent across the other provinces, with less support for women's participation in community meetings in most provinces when compared with support for women's role in dispute resolution (particularly in Kandahar, Parwan, Ghor and Khost). There was more variability across the provinces in relation to statements regarding support for women's economic and employment activities. There were high rates of agreement with women assisting their families financially,

¹¹ Data for statements related to women assisting their families with domestic/household activities and raising children are not included in Figures 8 and 9.

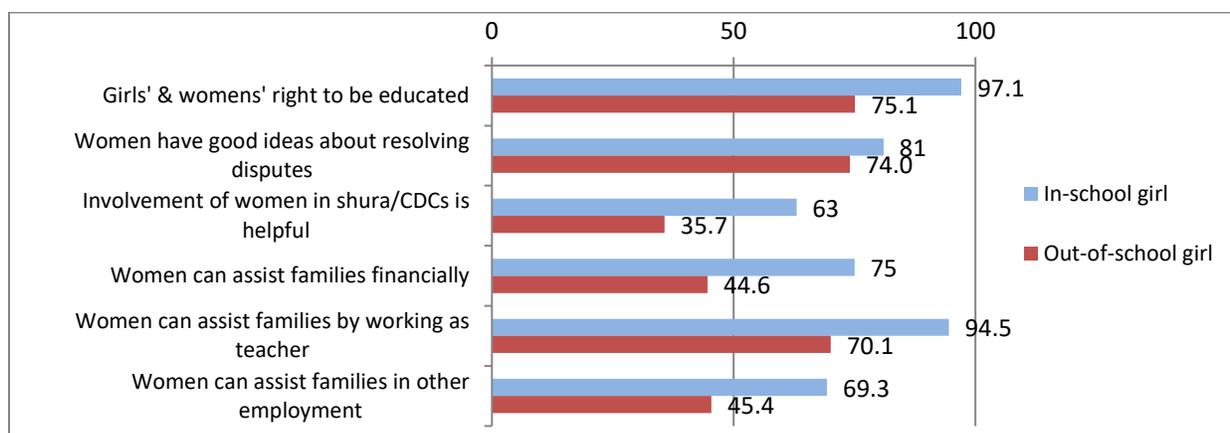
through working as a teacher, and through working in other employment in Bamyan, Faryab and Ghor. However, agreement with women assisting their families financially was very low in Kandahar, Baghlan and Kabul. Furthermore, agreement with women assisting their families in other forms of employment was very low in Kandahar and Parwan, and moderate in Badakhshan, Kabul, Kapisa and Khost.

Figure 8: Male head of household agreement with statements associated with women's and girls' participation in education, employment and other activities (disaggregated by province)



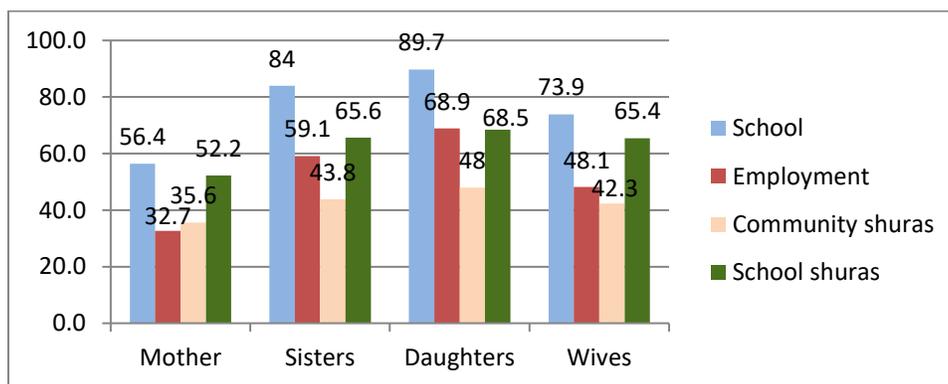
When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, significantly more male heads of in-school girl households agreed with all the statements related to women's participation in education, employment and other activities when compared with male heads of out-of-school girl households (see Figure 9). The largest gap in agreement between in-school and out-of-school male heads of households occurred for perceptions of women's ability to assist their families financially and their involvement in shuras/CDCs, with the smallest gap occurring for the statement related to women's ideas about dispute resolution.

Figure 9: Male head of household agreement with statements associated with women's and girls' participation in education, employment and other activities (disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment)



Male heads of households were also asked to state whether they supported the participation of different female relatives (mothers, sisters, daughters, wives) in a range of activities: school courses, employment, community shura meetings, and school shura meetings. Overall, support was highest for daughters and lowest for mothers, with greater support for all female family members participating in school courses and lower support for women’s participation in community shuras and employment, particularly for mothers and wives (see Figure 10). It is important to mention that support for daughters’ participation could be biased by the age of particular daughters in the household; for instance, fathers of five year olds may not support their daughters to participate in employment while fathers of 15 year olds may support their daughters’ employment more.

Figure 10: Male head of household support for female relatives' participation in activities



When disaggregated by province, the data for these questions are more polarising. For instance, support for all activities, for all female relatives is very high in Bamyan and very low in Kandahar, and support for women’s participation in employment and community shuras is very low for mothers, sisters and daughters but substantially higher for wives in Parwan. In Ghor province, male respondents largely supported their sisters and daughters to participate in all four types of activities, with support for wives and mothers (particularly the latter) diminishing in relation to participation in school and employment.

When disaggregated by cohort girls’ school enrolment, fewer male heads of out-of-school girl households indicated supporting their female relatives to participate in activities when compared with male heads of in-school girl households, and this was true for all types of female relative (mother, sister, daughter and wife) and for all types of activity (school courses, employment, community shuras and school shuras) (see Figures 11 to 14). It is interesting to note that the smallest gap between in-school and out-of-school girl male heads of households occurred for support for female relatives’ participation in school courses and this was consistent across all categories of female relative. Nevertheless, all differences between in-school and out-of-school girl male heads of households were significant.

Figure 11: Male head of household support for MOTHER's participation in: [disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment]

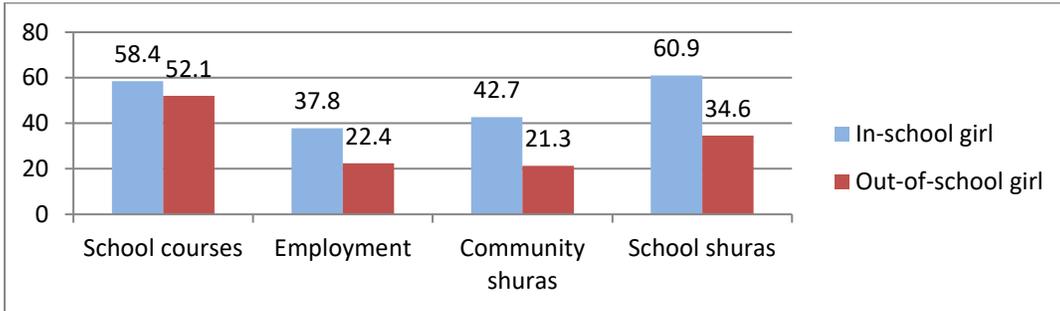


Figure 12: Male head of household support for SISTER's participation in: [disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment]

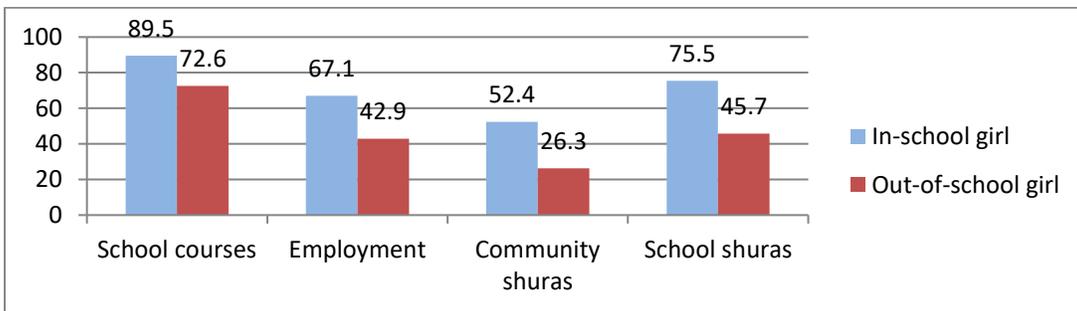


Figure 13: Male head of household support for DAUGHTER's participation in: [disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment]

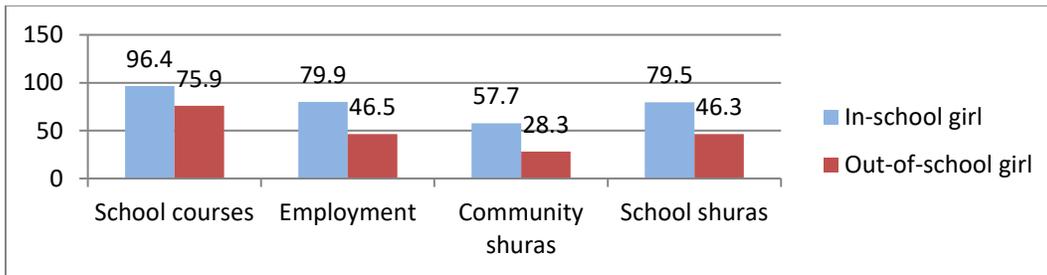
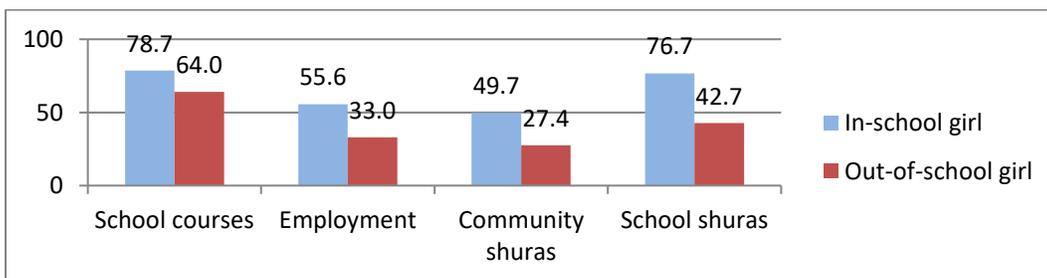


Figure 14: Male head of household support for WIVES's participation in: [disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment]

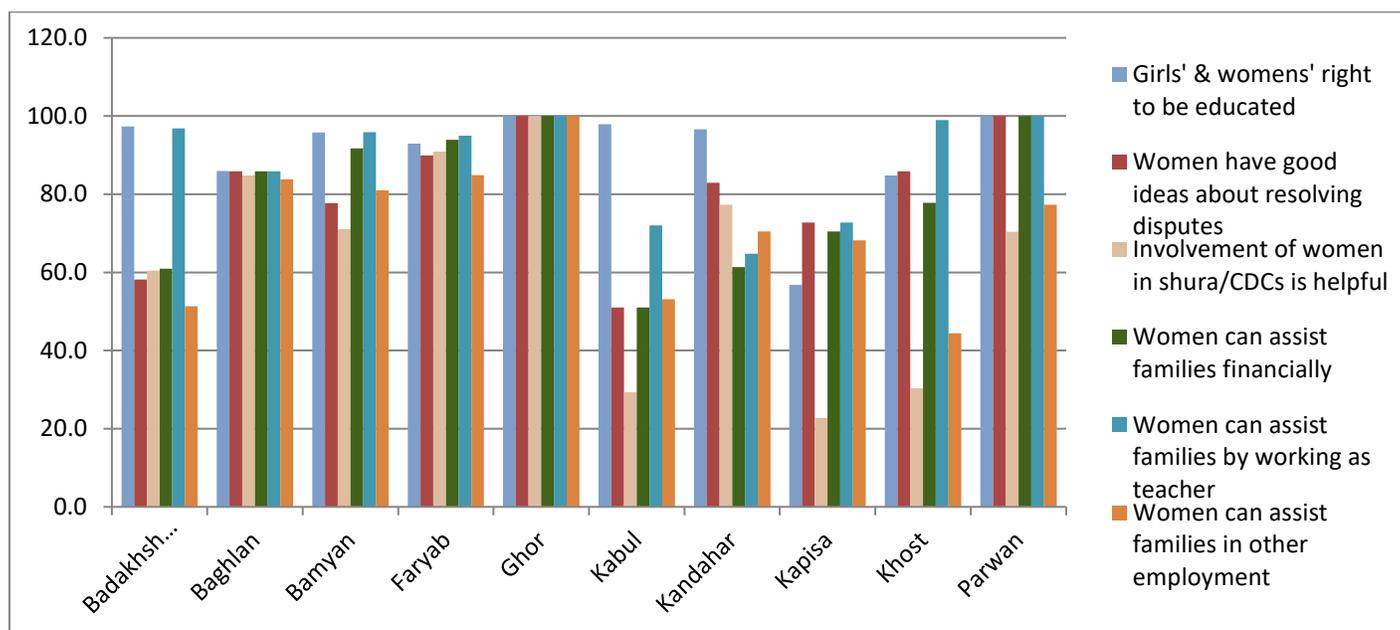


Female primary caregiver

When female primary caregivers were asked the same series of questions associated with female relatives' participation in education, employment and other activities, support and agreement was higher than for male heads of household overall. Much like male heads of households, the majority of female respondents (93.3%) agreed that it is girls' and women's right to be educated, with fewer female respondents agreeing that women have good ideas about resolving disputes (76.4%, slightly less agreement than men but mainly attributable to women's higher refusal and not known responses) and that the involvement of women in shuras, CDCs and other meetings is helpful (64.5%, more than for men). Female respondents also indicated more agreement than men with statements related to women's economic and employment activities, with 89.3% of female respondents agreeing that women can assist their families by working as a teacher, 76.3% agreeing that women can assist their families financially, and 69.1% agreeing that women can assist their families by working in some other form of employment. Much like men, female respondents agreed that women can assist their families by raising children (95.2%) with fewer female respondents (70.3%) agreeing that women can assist their families through domestic/household activities (potentially due to the same issues of interpretation outlined further above for male respondents).

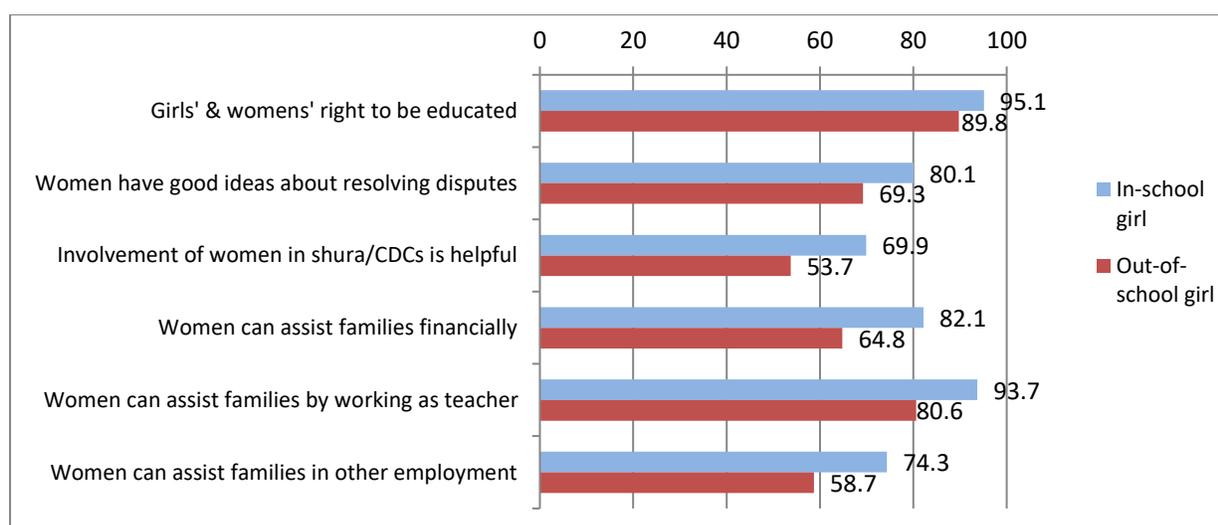
When disaggregated by province, the pattern of results for female carers was similar to male heads of households, although with more agreement on women's participation across most categories of activities (see Figure 15). However, this was not the case for Kandahar and Kapisa. While few male heads of households in Kandahar agreed with statements associated with women's participation in education, employment, and community meetings, large proportions of female carers in Kandahar agreed with these statements, particularly in relation to girls' and women's right to be educated. Conversely, in Kapisa, fewer female carers than male heads of households agreed with all the statements about women's participation, particularly in relation to women's involvement in shuras/CDCs.

Figure 15: Female carer agreement with statements associated with women's and girls' participation in education, employment and other activities (disaggregated by province)



When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, the results for female carers were similar to those for male heads of households, with more female carers of in-school cohort girls agreeing with all the statements when compared with female carers of out-of-school cohort girls (see Figure 16). Across all activity types, the gaps between in-school and out-of-school groups were smaller for female carers than for male heads of households, particularly in relation to agreement that girls and women have the right to be educated. Nevertheless, the differences between female carers of in-school girls and out-of-school girls was significant for all statements presented in Figure 16).

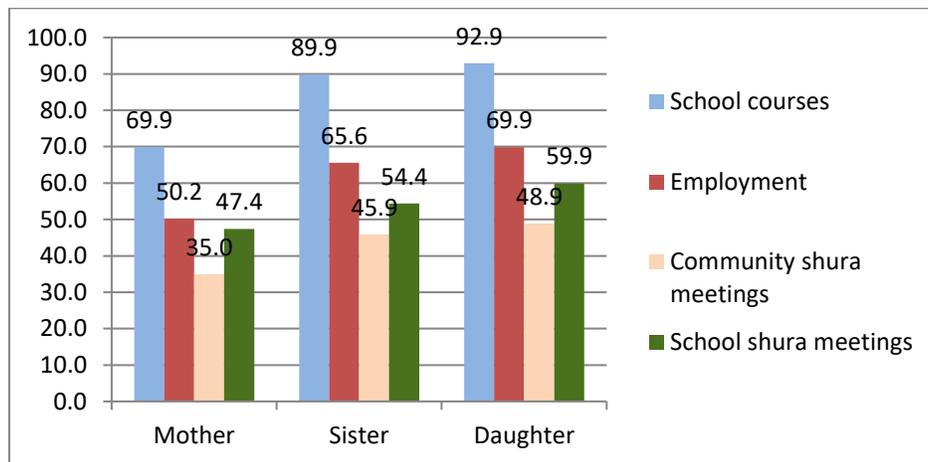
Figure 16: Female primary carers' agreement with statements associated with women's and girls' participation in education, employment and other activities (disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment)



A series of t-tests were performed to analyse the difference between male and female agreement with statements associated with women’s participation in education, employment, and other activities. The differences between male and female agreement that women and girls have the right to education and women have good ideas about resolving disputes were not significant. However, there were significant differences between male and female respondents’ agreement with other statements, with female primary carers indicating significantly more agreement than male heads of households that women’s involvement in shuras/CDCs is helpful ($t(869) = -7.263, p = .001$), women can assist their families financially ($t(957) = -2.217, p = .027$), women can assist their families by working as a teacher ($t(1026) = 5.327, p = .001$), and women can assist their families by working in some other form of employment ($t(947) = -3.385, p = .001$).

Female carers were also asked to state whether they supported the participation of different female relatives (mothers, sisters, and daughters) in a range of activities: school courses, employment, community shura meetings, and school shura meetings. Female carers indicated more support for their female relatives participating in these activities when compared with male heads of households and, much like for male heads of households, female carer support was highest for daughters and lowest for mothers, with greater support for all female family members participating in school courses (see Figure 17). However, while male heads of households generally indicated more support for female relatives’ participation in school shuras than in employment, this pattern was reversed for female carers, who indicated more support for their mothers, sisters and daughters participating in employment than in school shura meetings.

Figure 17: Female carer support for female relatives’ participation in activities



Support for female relatives’ participation varied substantially across the sampled provinces. For instance, much like for male heads of households, female carer support for all activities, for all female relatives was high in Bamyan (although slightly lower for all female relatives’ participation in community or school shuras). In Ghor, female respondents had high levels of support for sisters and daughters participating in all four activities, but very low support for their mothers doing the same. In Kandahar, support for female relatives’ participation in school courses was very high; however, support diminished gradually for the other activities, particularly for mothers. Patterns for female carers’ support for female relatives remained largely stable in Khost and Parwan, except

for diminishing support for mothers' participation in employment, while female carers in Kabul indicated increasing support for mothers' participation in employment. Although very small proportions of female carers in Kapisa indicated support for their female relatives' participation in community and school shuras, the majority of the data for participation in shuras in Kapisa consisted of not known responses.

When disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment, there was less support from female carers of out-of-school girls than carers of in-school girls in relation to almost all female relatives' (mothers, sisters and daughters) participation in all activities (school courses, employment, community shuras and school shuras). There was only one exception, whereby female carers of out-of-school girls indicated significantly greater support than carers of in-school girls for mothers' participation in school courses (see Figures 18 to 20). Only some differences between in-school and out-of-school girl carers were statistically significant. For instance, there were significant differences between in-school and out-of-school groups for support for mothers' participation in school courses and employment, sisters' participation in employment and school shuras, and daughters' participation in all activities.

Figure 18: Female carer support for MOTHER's participation in: [disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment]

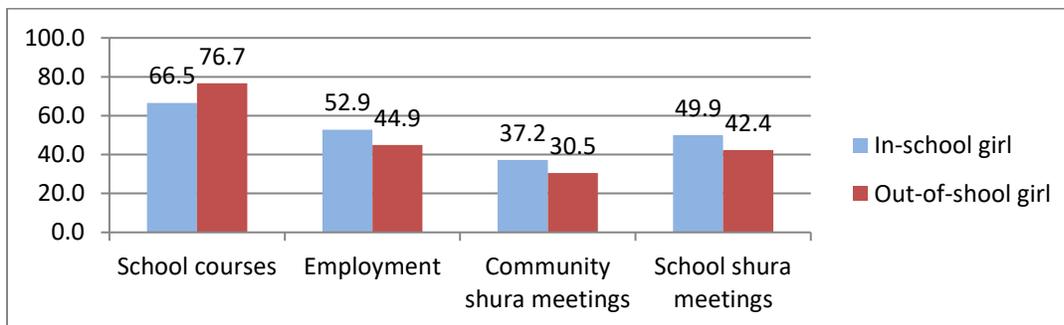


Figure 19: Female carer support for SISTER's participation in: [disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment]

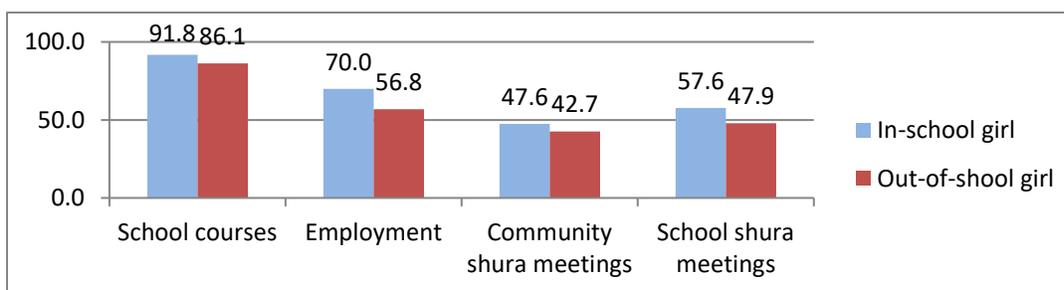
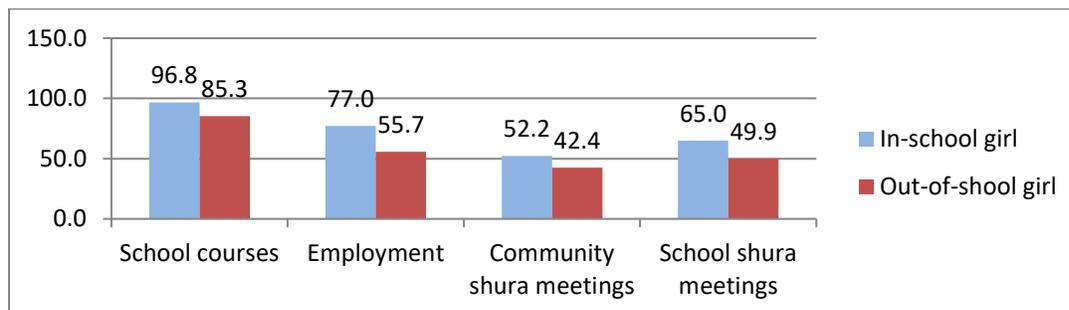


Figure 20: Female carer support for DAUGHTER's participation in: [disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment]



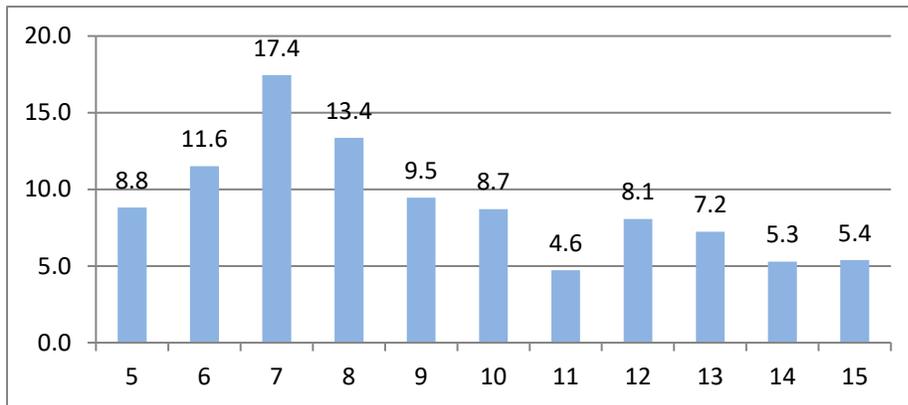
When comparing female carer and male head of household support for female relatives' participation, more female carers indicated support than male heads of households for almost all type of female relative conducting activities related to education, employment and community meetings, with the exception of sisters' participation in school shuras (significantly more male heads of households than female carers reported supporting their sisters to participate in school shuras). Although most differences between female carers and male heads of households were significant, some were not. For instance, support for mothers' participation in school shuras and daughters' participation in employment and school shuras did not differ significantly between male heads of households and female carers.

4.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF COHORT GIRLS

Age of cohort girls

The mean age of randomly selected cohort girls was 9.12 years with the most frequent ages being 7 years (17.4%), 8 years (13.4%) and 6 years (11.6%) (see Figure 21). When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, the mean age for in-school girls was slightly younger (9.02 years) than for out-of-school girls (9.32 years). Approximately half of respondents could give the year of birth of selected girls, although much fewer could provide the month (27.9%) or day (17.2%) of girls' births. Of those respondents who indicated the year of girls' birth, years did not always match the girls' age. This, however, is not unusual given low proportions of children in Afghanistan obtaining birth certificates or other forms of identification on which their birth dates are indicated, and overall poor knowledge of both children's and adult's age.

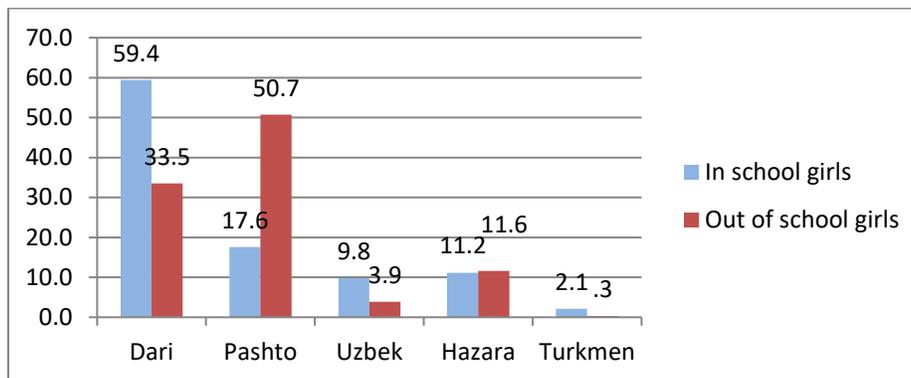
Figure 21: Proportion of cohort girl age groups in years



Language of cohort girls

As noted previously, Dari was the most common first language spoken by cohort girls (50.7%), with 28.7% speaking Pashto, 11.3% Hazara, 7.8% Uzbek and 1.5% Turkmen. When first language of cohort girls was disaggregated by in-school and out-of-school girls, approximately half of out-of-school girls are Pashto speakers with a smaller proportion of Dari speaking girls out of school, despite Dari being the most common first language of girls (see Figure 22).

Figure 22: First language of cohort girls disaggregated by girls' school enrolment



Female primary caregivers were asked about the main language of instruction in their area, with 74.1% stating Dari and 25.9% stating Pashto. When these responses were compared with official records of language of instruction in selected communities (obtained from the STAGES sample), they were largely consistent within selected communities (either Dari or Pashto). Both Dari and Pashto were named as the main languages of instruction in two communities in Kabul province where both languages are officially taught in schools. Both Dari and Pashto were also named as the main language of instruction in one community in Kapisa named Seid Ali Khil, where only Pashto is the official language of instruction. During post-fieldwork debriefing, the enumerators from Kapisa (both of whom are fully bilingual in Dari and Pashto) mentioned that in Seid Ali Khil some female carers reported the language of instruction as Dari despite projects records indicating Pashto. Time

taken to reach cohort girls' schools did not differ substantially within this particular community, suggesting that girls are not attending different schools; however, female carers within this community did give a number of different names of cohort girls' schools, so it is possible that both Dari and Pashto are being taught in the community or neighbouring communities. Nevertheless, the interviews in this community were conducted in Pashto (as were EGRA and EGMA testing).

According to female primary caregivers, only slightly more than half of cohort girls (54.9%) could speak the language of instruction well, with 22.4% speaking a little, and 21.3% not speaking the language of instruction. However, cross tabulating cohort girls' first language with main language of instruction and ability to speak main language of instruction revealed some inconsistencies in the data. For instance, 8% of those carers who claimed that cohort girls' first language was Dari and that Dari was the main language of instruction also claimed that girls did not speak the main language of instruction (occurring mainly in Kabul and Badakhshan). Similarly, 40% of those carers who claimed that cohort girls' first language was Pashto and that Pashto was the main language of instruction also claimed that girls did not speak the main language of instruction (occurring mainly in Kabul and Kandahar). No translation problems were found in either the Dari or Pashto household questionnaires; however, it is interesting to note that the majority of female carers who gave these inconsistent responses also reported girls not being enrolled in school. There are a number of possible explanations for these inconsistencies. Perhaps these female carers did not know what the language of instruction was in the community given that girls were not attending school, or perhaps they misinterpreted the question about girls being able to speak the language of instruction as girls were not currently *being instructed*. Alternatively, this may be a problem with the questioning in the household survey, which asks what girls' first language is rather than main spoken language. For instance, it is possible that girls' first language was Pashto but her main language is now Dari.

Other cases of girls reportedly not speaking the language of instruction occurred for girls in Faryab province whose first language was Uzbek in communities in which Dari is the main language of instruction. This also occurred for girls in Bamyan province whose first language is Hazara in communities where Dari is the main language of instruction, and girls in Faryab province whose first language is Turkmen in communities where Dari is the main language of instruction. Only a few girls whose first language is Pashto in a community where Dari is the main language of instruction could not speak the language of instruction. Although 27.7% of girls whose first language is Uzbek, 40% of girls whose first language is Hazara and 26.6% of girls whose first language is Turkmen are not able to speak the main language of instruction (Dari), the majority of these girls (68%) are currently enrolled in school. That there are higher rates of Hazara-speaking girls who don't speak the language of instruction but who are enrolled in school is not surprising given that Hazara and Dari are closely related and very similar, while Turkmen and Uzbek are from a different language family than Dari and are very different.

Despite these findings for Uzbek, Hazara and Turkmen speaking girls, a larger proportion of out-of-school cohort girls overall (46.8%) could not speak the language of instruction when compared with in-school girls (8.5%), likely due to large numbers of girls in Pashto speaking school communities in which Pashto was girls' *first language*.

Cohort girls' difficulties, illness and confidence

Although data collected from male heads of households for total household girls indicated that very few had a disability, the data collected from female carers for randomly selected cohort girls indicates some 'difficulties'. According to female carers, 99.4% of cohort girls do not have difficulty seeing, even when wearing glasses. Of those who were reported to have difficulties, most did not have access to glasses although those girls who did have access to glasses had access every day. The majority of cohort girls (99.7%) were also reported to have no difficulty hearing (with the few girls with hearing problems not having access to a hearing aid) or no difficulty walking or climbing steps (98.4%). Nevertheless, there were slightly lower proportions of cohort girls who had no difficulty remembering or concentrating (84.9%), although the majority of girls with difficulty were reported to have 'some' difficulty rather than a lot of difficulty or not being able to concentrate or remember at all. A slightly lower proportion of cohort girls (83.2%) were reported to have no difficulty with self care (washing, dressing, feeding, toileting etc), with 4.1% reported to not be able to take care of themselves, 2% reported to have a lot of difficulty, and 9.6% having some difficulty. A slightly lower proportion of girls (80.7%) were also reported to have no difficulty communicating (understanding or being understood) in the language of interview, with 6.8% reported to have some difficulty and 10.9% of female carers stating that they didn't know. When girls' difficulties were cross tabulated with age, the majority of cases of girls' difficulties (particularly for difficulties self caring and communicating in language of interview) occurred for those aged five to seven years, suggesting that these may be cases of girls' younger developmental stage rather than disabilities.

Overall, 19.6% of cohort girls were recorded as having at least one difficulty and a higher proportion of in-school cohort girls (22%) were reported to have a difficulty when compared with out-of-school cohort girls (14.7%). Overall, 73.5% of female carers claimed that the difficulties did not make any difference to how much time girls spend in school, 62.6% claimed that the difficulties didn't make any difference to how much school work girls did, and 55.1% said that the difficulties didn't make any difference to how much girl learned. For all three questions, substantial proportions of respondents gave not known responses, although 4.8% stated that girls spent less time in school because of these difficulties, 12.9% stated that girls did less work because of these difficulties, and 18.4% of respondents stated that girls learned less because of these difficulties. When these three questions were disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment, the most striking differences between in-school and out-of-school girls was the lower proportion of not known responses for enrolled girls and very high not known responses for out-of-school girls. When cross tabulated by age, the large majority of not known responses for out-of-school girls occurred for those girls aged five, six, or seven years, perhaps suggesting that these girls were currently not enrolled as they were too young rather than due to any reported difficulties.

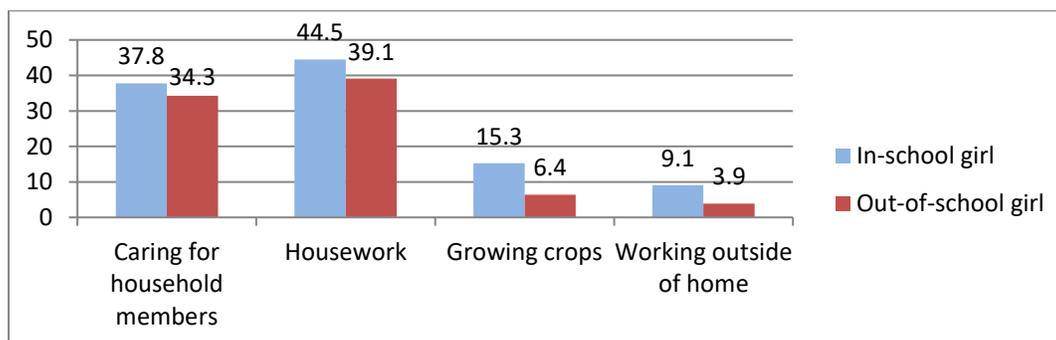
According to female carers, the large majority of cohort girls (95.5%) did not have any serious illnesses in the last year, with slightly more out-of-school girls (5%) reported to have had a serious illness than in-school girls (2.1%), and a higher proportion of girls in Kandahar (13.6%) reported to have had a serious illness. When asked to compare cohort girls' confidence with the confidence of other girls in the community, 56.8% of carers said that cohort girls were about as confident as other girls, 23.6% said they were more confident and 13.3% stated that they were less confident. When

disaggregated by province, less confidence remained low across most of the provinces and was elevated for girls in Badakhshan (45%). When disaggregated by school enrolment, more female carers from in-school girl households (27.2%) reported girls being more confident than other girls in the community when compared with out-of-school girls (16.3%); however, a slightly larger proportion of female carers from in-school girl households (15.2%) also reported girls being less confident when compared with out-of-school girl households (9.4%).

Cohort girls' participation in household and economic activities

Large proportions of cohort girls were reported to spend time doing housework (42.7%) or caring for younger or older household members (36.6%), with smaller proportions helping to grow crops (12.3%) or working in a family business or other work outside the home (7.3%). When disaggregated by province, higher proportions of girls in Bamyan, Ghor and Parwan participated in all four types of activities, with the highest proportions of girls working outside of the home living in Bamyan and Badakhshan. When disaggregated by school enrolment, more in-school girls participated in all types of activities than out-of-school girls (see Figure 23). However, differences between in-school and out-of-school girls were only statistically significant for growing crops and working outside of the home.

Figure 23: Cohort girls' participation in household and economic activities (disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment)

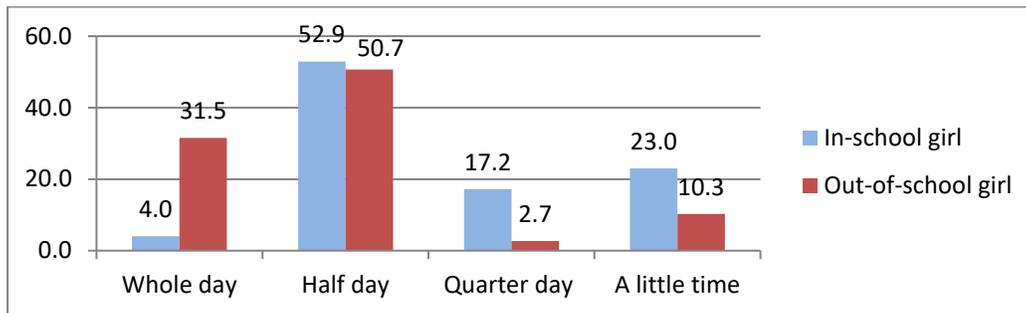


When these results were cross tabulated by age, it is interesting to note that the mean age of enrolled girls who participate in caring, housework and growing crops is younger than for non-enrolled girls: for caring, 10.45 years and 12.59 years respectively for in-school and out-of-school girls; for housework, 10.65 years and 12.6 years; and for growing crops, 10.94 years and 12.65 years. This pattern was reversed for working outside of the home, with a mean age of 11.31 years for in-school girls working outside of the home compared with 7 years for out-of-school girls; however, this result should be read with caution given that a total of 65 in-school girls were reported to work outside the home compared with only 2 out-of-school girls.

Of those girls who were reported to do at least one activity, 52.2% were reported to spend half a day on most days doing these activities, 19.2% spend a little time (an hour or less), 13% spend a quarter day (a few hours a day), and 12.1% the whole day. Furthermore, higher proportions of girls in Parwan, Kabul, Baghlan and Bamyan were reported to spend all day performing these activities when compared with other provinces. Although a higher proportion of in-school girls were

reported to do the four types of activities than out-of-school girls, the latter were reported to spend more time doing these activities per day than the former. About the same proportion of in-school and out-of-school girls were reported to spend half the day on most days doing household and work-related activities; however, a much larger proportion of out-of-school girls (31.5%) than in-school girls (4%) were reported to spend the whole day doing such activities (see Figure 24).

Figure 24: Cohort girls' time spent doing activities on most days (disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment)



More female carers from out-of-school girl households than in-school girl households claimed that girls' everyday activities stopped them from going to school all the time (21.2% and 0% respectively) or sometimes (28.1% and 11.8% respectively). The majority of female carers from in-school girl households (86.8%) reported girls' daily activities not impacting on school attendance compared with 41.1% of female carers from out-of-school girl households. When disaggregated by province, very high proportions of female carers in Khost and Baghlan reported girls' daily activities stopping them from going to school sometimes or all the time.

Of those female carers who reported cohort girls conducting at least one type of activity or task, 69.8% stated that the girl would not have to do the same tasks if she attended school all day, every day. When disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment, more carers from in-school girl households (73.9%) than out-of-school girl households (60.3%) stated that girls would not have to do the same tasks if they attended school all the time, and 18.4% of carers from in-school girl households stated that girls already did attend school all the time.

The majority of girls from both in-school and out-of-school households who were working (excluding those who only did caring or housework activities) were reported to be doing farming-related activities, with smaller proportions selling or delivering. Furthermore, 89.3% of in-school girls were reported to not be earning or contributing money to the household compared with 57.1% of out-of-school girls, with 28.6% of the latter reported to be making a fairly important economic contribution to the household.

Cohort girls' experiences in the community

The majority of carers claimed that cohort girls had not had any bad or dangerous experiences while travelling around the area (92.9%) or near their homes (93.3%), and 95.7% stated that girls had had no problems with local people being hostile. When disaggregated by province, a much higher proportion of respondents from Kandahar reported girls having had bad or dangerous experience in the area (15.9%) or near their homes (14.8%), with 26.1% reporting that girls had

had some or a lot of problems with people being hostile. Furthermore, despite low rates of cohort girl school enrolment in Kandahar, the majority of those girls who were reported to have had dangerous or bad experiences in Kandahar are currently enrolled in school. Overall, a slightly higher proportion of in-school girls were reported to have had bad, dangerous or hostile experiences than out-of-school girls; however, these differences were not statistically significant.

The large majority of carers (98.7%) reported girls speaking the same language as most children in the community, with a slightly lower (albeit insignificant) proportion of out-of-school girls reported to speak the same language as other children. Of those few respondents who reported cohort girls speaking a different language, all stated that these girls had no difficulties as a result.

Approximately three quarters of female carers claimed that cohort girls had some good friends in their community, and a much higher proportion of in-school girls (84.7%) were reported to have good friends when compared with out-of-school girls (53.5%), perhaps due to out-of-school girls having limited opportunities to establish friendships outside of a school environment.

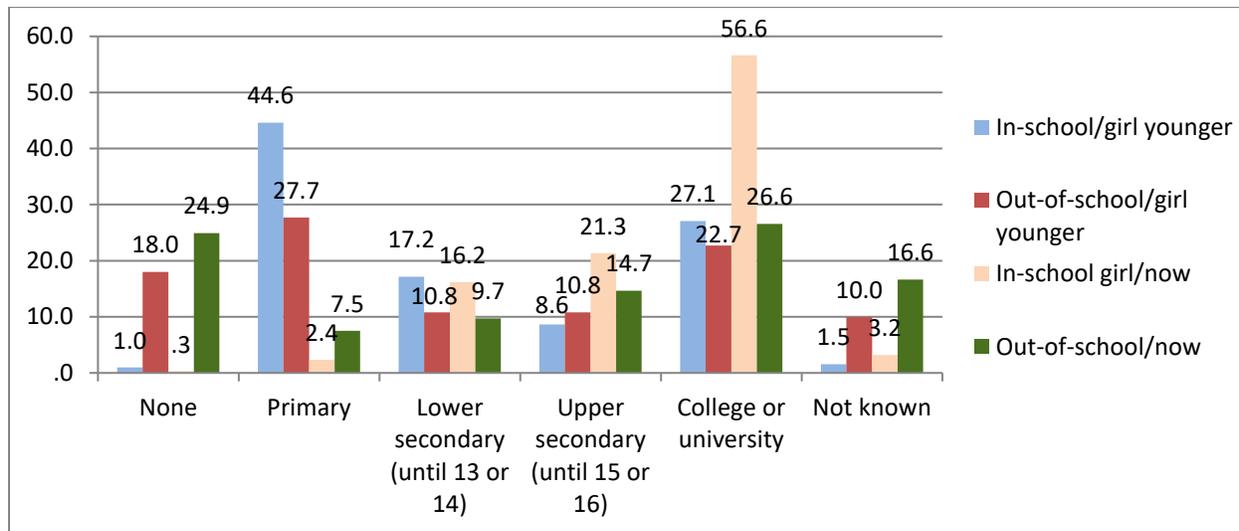
Cohort girls' support with education

Carers were asked a number of questions about community and family support for cohort girls' education. The majority of cohort girls (96.7%) did not have a scholarship or bursary during the past year, 85.2% of girls did not receive school books from sources other than family members or schools, and 87.4% of girls did not attend any special classes or study groups in the past year. Furthermore, in the past year, 81.9% of girls did not receive any special tutoring or help with schoolwork from non-family members, 80.6% did not talk to non-family members about enrolling or staying in school and 82.2% did not receive help from non-family members to enrol or stay in school. All girls who received a bursary or scholarship were currently enrolled in school and the large majority of those who did receive support in the form of school books, special classes or study groups, special tutoring and other forms of support were currently enrolled in school.

When carers were asked what level of schooling they wanted girls to have when the girls were younger (as compared to the present time), 39% said primary school, 15% said lower secondary school, 9.4% said upper secondary school, 25.6% said college or university, 6.7% said no schooling and 4.4% said that they didn't know what level of schooling they wanted girls to have. When asked what level of schooling carers wanted girls to have now, the results indicate that higher proportions of respondents now want girls to have upper secondary education (19.1%) or college/university education (46.6%). When disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment, more carers of out-of-school girls (18%) than in-school girls (1%) did not want girls to have any education when they were young, and more carers of in-school girls than out-of-school girls wanted girls to have primary, lower secondary or university/college education (see Figure 25). It is interesting to note that in relation to how much education carers want girls to have *now* compared with how much they wanted girls to have when they were younger, a higher proportion of carers of in-school girls now want girls to have secondary and college/university education (particularly the latter). For carers of out-of-school girls, a larger proportion now want girls to have no education when compared to what they wanted when girls were young, and fewer now want girls to have primary

school education. However, slightly higher proportions of out-of-school girl carers now want girls to have secondary and college/university.

Figure 25: Female carers' past and current desires for girls' education (disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment)



70.4% of carers stated they would like girls to be in education when they are aged 18 years, 18% would prefer girls to be married, and 1.2% would prefer them to be working. There were large differences between carers of in-school and out-of-school girls for this question, with 81.2% of in-school girls carers and 49% of out-of-school carers preferring that girls are in education at the age of 18, with a higher proportion of out-of-school girl carers (28.8%) preferring girls to be married and 19.7% not knowing what they would prefer girls to be doing. Although desire for girls to be in education remained high in Badakhshan, Baghlan, Bamyān, Faryab, Kabul and Parwan, higher proportions of respondents in Ghor (52.1%), Khost (27.3%) Kandahar (25%) and Kapisa (22.7%) reported preferring that girls are married at the age of 18.

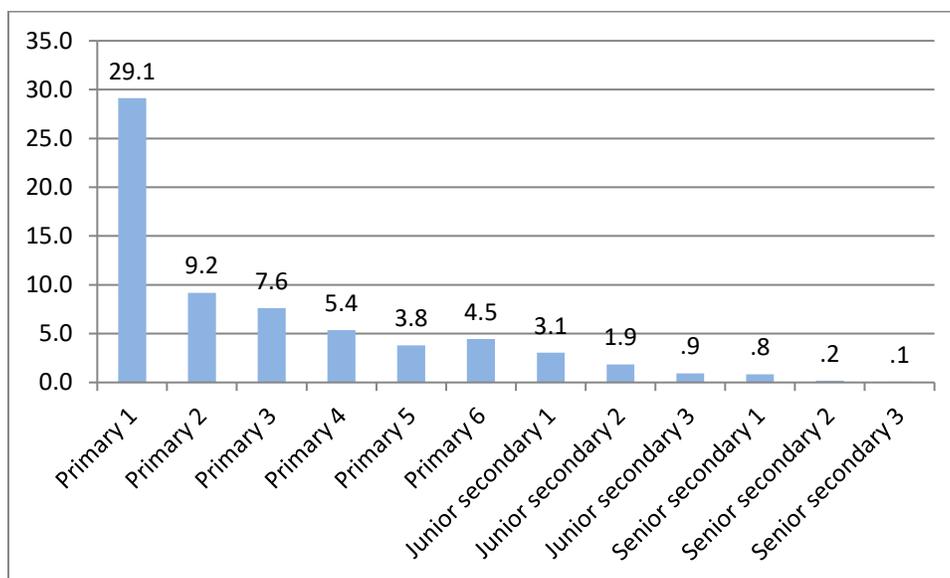
For carers of girls aged 12 years or more, a higher proportion of out-of-school girl carers (31.5%) than in-school girl carers (19.2%) stated that in the next year girls may leave the household or move away because they are engaged to be married or may be starting a family. When disaggregated by cohort girls' age, the majority of those girls who may move away are aged 12 years (33.3%) or 13 years (29%), with fewer 14 year olds (17.4%) and 15 year olds (20.3%) potentially moving away to marry or start a family. Those girls who may move away are largely concentrated in Ghor, Parwan, Khost, and Kandahar provinces. Possibility of girls moving away to get engaged or start a family was cross tabulated with the level of schooling female carers stated they would like girls to have now in order to identify any discrepancies between attitudes and practices. Large proportions of carers who stated that girls may move reported wanting girls to have no education (29%), lower secondary education (20.3%), or not knowing what level of schooling they wanted girls to have (24.6%). Only 10.1% of carers who stated that girls may move away also stated that they would like girls to have college or university education. These data suggest that attitudes and practices are generally in line with one another, as fewer girls who may

soon get engaged or start a family have carers who would like them to achieve more advanced education.

Carer-reported characteristics of cohort girls enrolled in school

Approximately two thirds of the sample of cohort girls (66.5%) was reported to be enrolled in school at the time of the baseline data collection, with 89.5% enrolled in primary school (29.1% enrolled in first grade) and lower proportions of girls (10.5%) enrolled in secondary school (see Figure 26). According to female carers, since the start of the school year 96.5% of enrolled girls had attended school on most days that the school was open and of those who had not attended on most days, 37.5% were reported to have attended less than half the time, 16.7% about half the time and 16.7% more than half the time.

Figure 26: Frequencies for grades cohort girls are currently enrolled in



The mean age that cohort girls started school is 6.81 years, with a range of between three and fourteen, with 40.4% of cohort girls starting school at the age of 7 years and 25.1% starting at the age of 6 years, which is in line with typical ages that children begin attending formal pre-schools or primary schools in Afghanistan. It is also possible that younger girls had enrolled in *madrassa* classes. When disaggregated by grade of school, the mean age that first grade girls started school is 7.01 years with a range of between five and thirteen years. It is interesting to note that as grade increases, the mean age that girls began school decreases gradually suggesting that girls used to begin school at a younger age than they currently do, although these younger ages may reflect participation in early childhood development classes rather than primary school.

A large proportion of girls (80.3%) were reported not to have missed any years or months of schooling while 14.5% were reported to have missed some months and 0.3% some years. The provinces in which girls were mostly reported to have missed some months of school were Bamyan, Baghlan and Badakhshan.

According to female carers, 57% of cohort girls' schools are only for girls and 43% are for boys and girls, with higher proportions of girl-only schools for those girls attending secondary school. When disaggregated by province, there was a much higher proportion of girls attending mixed gender schools in Ghor (100%), Parwan (96.9%) and Kabul (62.3%). Female carers were also asked the gender of cohort girls' main teachers, with 61.8% stating that the teacher was female, 34.2% male, and 3.3% both male and female teachers. A higher proportion of secondary school girls (84%) were reported to have a female teacher when compared with primary school girls (59.2%), and very high proportions of girls in Faryab (100%), Badakhshan (96.3%) and Khost (85.4%) had female teachers, with high proportions of girls with male teachers in Ghor (90.4%) and Parwan (78.1%).

When EGRA and EGMA scores were analysed according to gender of cohort girls' teacher, first grade girls with female teachers had slightly higher overall mean EGRA and EGMA scores when compared with girls who had male teachers. However, across all subsequent primary school grades, girls with male teachers scored higher on EGRA and lower on EGMA than girls with female teachers. That first grade girls taught by female teachers are scoring higher than girls taught by male teachers may indicate that STAGES training of female teachers is having a positive effect on girls' learning outcomes, although this is difficult to establish before collecting school survey data. It is also possible that girls' higher EGRA scores in male teacher classes across subsequent primary school grades is due to male teachers in Afghanistan commonly having higher levels of education than female teachers. However, consistently higher EGMA scores among girls taught by female teachers is a curious finding. It is possible that this is due to a proportion of male teachers in sampled communities being mullahs who previously taught *madrassa*, which has largely focused on literacy over numeracy, although this seems at odds with the large proportions of household members claiming that girls in grades higher than first grade are attending government schools.

When asked about who was responsible for running the schools that girls were attending, a large proportion of respondents suggested that girls were attending a government school (50.3% central government and 7.1% local government). The remaining respondents stated that girls' schools were run by a charitable organisation (25.7%), a private organisation (11.9%), foreign people (1.5%), a religious organisation (1.3%), local people (1%) or Aga Khan (0.3%). When disaggregated by primary or secondary school, a much higher proportion of girls enrolled in secondary school (96%) were attending government schools compared with girls enrolled in primary school (54%). When examining data according to specific grade, it is apparent that a large proportion of girls in first grade (70.4%) are reported to be attending non-government schools, with the majority of girls in other grades attending government schools. This suggests that a large proportion of first grade cohort girls are beneficiaries of STAGES intervention classes.

Although 88.3% of female carers of primary school girls and 90.7% of carers of secondary school enrolled girls stated that girls are attending the closest primary/secondary school that girls can attend, when carers were asked how much time it took for girls to get to school in minutes, the mean amount of time was 26.64 minutes: 25.27 minutes for girls in primary school (with a range between one and 240 minutes) and 38.56 minutes for girls in secondary schools (with a range between three and 150 minutes). When time taken to get to school was disaggregated by cohort girls' grade of enrolment and type of school (government or non-government), the mean time taken

for first grade girls to travel to government schools (31.13 minutes) was double the mean time taken to travel to non-government schools (15.85 minutes).

According to the majority of female carers, the journey to girls' school was very easy (37.9%) or fairly easy (46.6%), with few reporting the journey to girls' school as fairly difficult (11%) or very difficult (4.3%). More carers in Baghlan, Bamyán, Kabul and Kandahar reported the journey being difficult, with difficulty remaining low in the other provinces. A Spearman's Rho test found a significant correlation between difficulty of girls' journey and time spent getting to school, such that longer distances to get to school were related to increasing difficulty for girls ($r_s = .282, p = .001$).

According to female carers, cohort girls completed a mean of 3.71 hours of school a day with a range of between one and twelve hours. Cohort girls in secondary school completed a slightly higher number of mean hours a day (4.22 hours) when compared with primary school girls (3.65 hours). When disaggregated by province, cohort girls in Ghor, Badakhshan, and Kandahar were reported to spend a higher mean number of hours in school per day when compared with the overall mean, and girls in Kapisa and Kabul spent fewer hours. Given that government mandated daily hours of class is two hours for lower primary school and two and a half hours for upper primary school, it is possible that carers included time it took for girls to reach school rather than exact hours that girls spent in class. A Pearson's correlation between daily hours of class and time taken to reach school was significant ($r = .109, p = .004$), indicating that as reported time taken to reach school increased so did girls' reported number of hours in classes, suggesting that carers may have added travel time to reports of girls' hours spent in school.

37.8% of female carers claimed that there were some days when cohort girls didn't have classes because their teachers were absent from work, 69.7% of whom claimed that this occurred a few times a month, 22.5% a few times a year, and 5.2% a lot of times each month. When disaggregated by primary or secondary school, there was a larger proportion of secondary school girl households (54.7%) than primary school girl households (35.8%) claiming that classes were cancelled due to teachers' absence; however, there was little variation between primary and secondary school girl households in relation to how often teacher absence disrupted classes. There were much more frequent reports of teacher absence disrupting classes in Badakhshan (74.9%), Khost (70.8%), and Kabul (52.8%), and much less frequent reports of teacher absence in Faryab (4.9%), Parwan (6.3%), and Baghlan (12.3%).

The majority of enrolled girls (83.3%) were reported to speak the same language at home as the language of instruction. Although the large majority of Dari and Pashto speaking girls (98.8% and 93.7% respectively) were reported to be attending schools in which their first language was the same as the language of instruction, lower proportions of Uzbek-speaking girls (12.9%) and Hazara-speaking girls (61.3%) were reported to speak the language of instruction at home. These girls were largely concentrated in Faryab (for Uzbek speakers) and Bamyán (for Hazara speakers).

Very few female carers (1.5%) reported violence having occurred at cohort girls' school in the past year and most of those who did claimed that cohort girls had seen violence against girls. No carers of girls in mixed schools claimed that girls had seen any violence against boys at school. When asked whether witnessing violence had made girls afraid of going to school, most carers said no or

that they didn't know. Of those girls who were currently going to mixed schools, 62% of carers claimed that boys usually helped girls, 10.6% claimed that boys sometimes made it difficult for girls, and 22.4% stated that both things sometimes occurred and that it depended on the situation.

Few female carers (8.8%) claimed to have paid for cohort girls' school in the past year and of those who did pay something, only 11.4% claimed to have paid school fees. Overall, 26.6% of carers claimed that it was difficult to afford for cohort girls to go to school. Higher proportions of female carers in Kandahar (50%), Ghor (25%) and Khost (20.8%) claimed to have paid for girls' school in the past year, and a large number of these respondents from Kandahar (41.7%) claimed that these payments included school fees. Furthermore, higher proportions of female respondents in Kandahar (85%), Parwan (84.4%), Bamyan (58%), Ghor (40.4%), Kabul (37.7%) and Kapisa (36.8%) claimed that it was difficult to afford for cohort girls to go to school, with the majority of respondents in Badakhshan, Baghlan, Faryab and Khost claiming that it was not difficult to afford to send cohort girls to school. When difficulty affording to send cohort girls to school was cross tabulated with a series of questions related to household economic situation, there was no relationship between difficulty affording to send girls to school and ability or inability to meet basic needs. This suggests that household economic situation is not necessarily a deterrent to girls' school enrolment, particularly if there are no costs associated with enrolment.

Carer-reported characteristics of cohort girls not enrolled in school

According to primary carers, of those cohort girls who are not currently enrolled in school, only 5.8% (n=21) have ever attended school, five of whom attended school in the last two years. The mean age that these girls started school was 6.83 years (with a range of five to nine years) and the mean age that they stopped going to school was 10.4 years (with a range of eight to thirteen years).

When asked about what situation *at home* stopped out-of-school girls from going to school, carers gave a range of responses, including: violence/bullying/harassment at home or nearby (18.3%), girls living too far away (16.1%), girls were too young (8.6%), girls were too old (8.6%), girls had obligations at home (doing housework or caring) (8%), families couldn't afford to send girls (5.8%), families would not allow girls to go to school (4.4%), girls found that school was not useful (4.2%), girls had an illness (2.5%) and 29.9% of respondents said that nothing at home stopped girls from going to school. When disaggregated by province, girls living too far away was a common reason in Badakhshan, Baghlan and Kabul, violence/bullying/harassment in Kabul and Kandahar, families being unable to afford to send girls to school in Bamyan, girls being too young in Faryab and Bamyan, girls having household obligations in Ghor and Kapisa, girls being too old in Khost, and families not allowing girls to go to school in Kandahar.

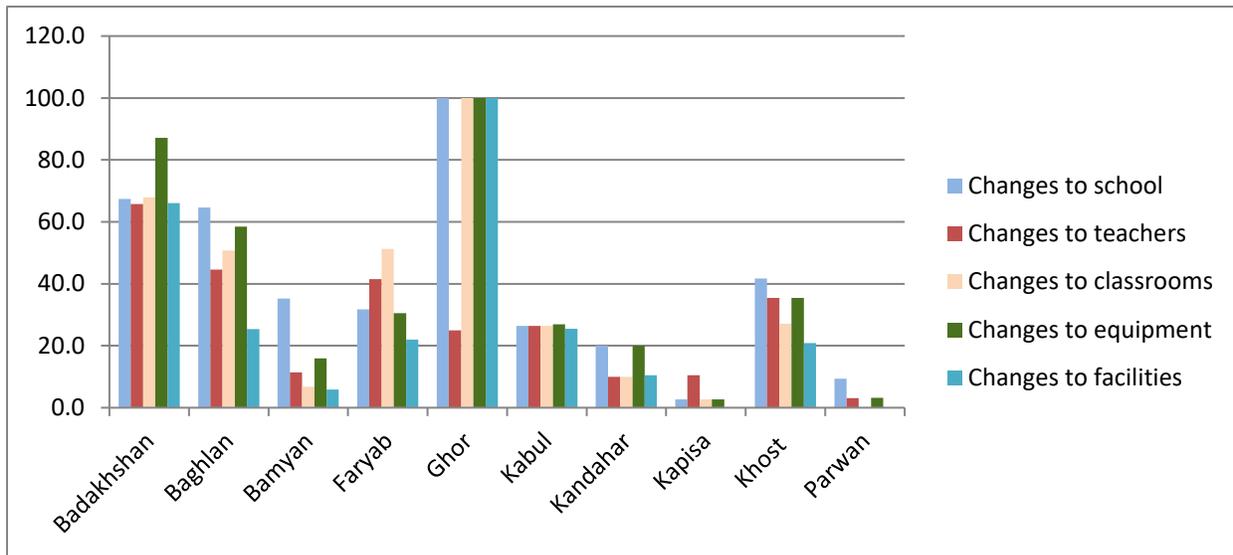
When asked about what situation *in schools* stopped out-of-school girls from going to school, the majority of carers (75.6%) said that there was no situation in schools, with 15% stating that there are no local schools, 3% stating that teaching was poor, and smaller numbers stating that schools were too far, facilities were poor, and there was violence/bullying/harassment at school. When disaggregated by province, larger proportions of carers in Parwan, Khost, Kandahar and Bamyan stated that there were no local schools, and statements related to poor teaching in schools were mainly concentrated in Khost.

Carer-reported characteristics of cohort girls' school infrastructure and resources

The majority of female carers expressed satisfaction with the infrastructure and resources at cohort girls' schools, including with the classroom (88.8%), toilets (85.5%), textbooks (90.8%) and teaching (88.7%). Dissatisfaction with all four was concentrated in Bamyan and Baghlan, with higher numbers of respondents also indicating dissatisfaction with classrooms in Kabul, toilets in Khost, textbooks in Kapisa and Khost, and teaching in Khost. When disaggregated by primary or secondary school enrolment, satisfaction with classrooms, toilets, textbooks and teaching was higher for carers of secondary school girls than for carers of primary school girls.

When female carers were asked a series of questions about changes to schools in their communities, 51.7% stated that there had been some changes to the schools in their community in the past year with more schools and better schools listed as the most common type of change and 98.9% acknowledging this change as an improvement. When asked specifically about changes in cohort girls' schools, 36.3% stated that there had been changes in the teachers and 47.7% stated that there had been changes in the classrooms, with almost all respondents stating that these changes were an improvement, with more and better teachers, and more and better classrooms the most common type of change cited. 53.3% of respondents acknowledged changes in equipment (such as textbooks or desks) and most stated that this change was an improvement with more and better equipment (a small number of respondents suggested that the change was worsening due to less equipment). 40.9% of respondents acknowledged changes in facilities (such as toilets and places to eat), with almost all respondents stating that this change was an improvement due to more and better facilities. For all types of change, more respondents from secondary school girl households acknowledged change than primary school girl households, particularly in relation to more and better teachers. When disaggregated by province, change was acknowledged most in Ghor (except for changes to teachers), with much less acknowledgment of change in Bamyan, Kabul, Kandahar, Kapisa and Parwan provinces (see Figure 27). When disaggregated by community type (CBE early or late starting), more female carers from CBE early communities acknowledged all types of change when compared with carers from CBE late communities; however, differences in acknowledgment of change were the largest for overall change to schools in the community in the past year (38% of carers in CBE early communities and 28.5% of carers in CBE late communities) and acknowledgment of change in equipment (39.7% of carers in CBE early communities and 28.3% of carers in CBE late communities).

Figure 27: Frequencies for female carers knowing of changes to schools in the area (disaggregated by province)



Cohort girls’ self-reported perceptions of school and education

Cohort girls who are currently enrolled in school were asked a series of questions about their experiences at and perceptions of school. Of those girls enrolled in a mixed gender school (43%), 87.7% said that there were times that boys were helpful to girls at school and 20.1% said that boys sometimes made difficulties for girls at school. Many fewer girls reported boys being helpful in Bamyan and Kandahar, although large proportions of girls in these two provinces reported not knowing the answer to the question. Furthermore, more girls reported boys making difficulties for girls at school in Khost, Bamyan, Parwan and Badakhshan. When disaggregated by cohort girls’ grade, a quarter of girls in first grade primary school stated that boys made things difficult for girls at school with lower number of girls in other grades saying the same. When EGRA and EGMA scores were analysed according to girls’ perceptions of boys making things difficult for girls at school, those first grade girls who claimed that boys made things difficult had lower overall scores (4.92 for EGRA and 11.77 for EGMA) than those first grade girls who stated that boys did not make things difficult (7.41 for EGRA and 17.1 for EGMA), although first grade girls who claimed to attend girls-only classes had the highest scores (11.23 for EGRA and 20.34 for EGMA). This finding did not hold for subsequent school grades, although it is difficult to establish patterns in the data for subsequent grades given that few girls in other grades claimed to experience difficulties due to boys’ behaviour.

Almost all enrolled girls stated that they like school, thought school was a good place to be most of the time or sometimes and felt school was generally a good place for them. Slightly fewer girls stated that going to school was fun most of the time (85.2%) or sometimes (8%), with perceptions of school being not fun largely concentrated in Khost, Kandahar and Kapisa, and among five and six year olds in grade 1. The majority of girls felt that teachers treated them fairly (92.9%) and respected their opinion (92.7%), with slightly fewer (89.7%) feeling that teachers really cared about them or would try to help them when they were sad or upset (89.8%) (most of the remaining

girls did not know if teachers cared about them or would help them if they were sad). Girls' feelings that teachers did not treat them fairly, respect their opinion, or help them if they were sad were largely concentrated in Bamyan, Khost and Kapisa provinces, as were the not known responses to these questions. Furthermore, not known responses to these questions were largely concentrated among five and six year olds in grade one and two of primary school (particularly grade one). Although EGRA and EGMA scores appear to be lower for first grade girls who reported negative perceptions of school and of their teachers, it is difficult to make comparative statements due to very few girls making such negative comments.

Almost all girls stated that they wanted to do well at school, usually paid attention in class, and usually tried their best in school, although a small proportion of girls in Kapisa province claimed not to know the answers to these questions.

When asked how often girls felt happy at school, 66.2% said that they felt happy all the time, 25.6% most of the time, 8% some of the time and 0.3% none of the time, with five year olds in grade 1 less frequently stating that they were happy all the time when compared with older girls. Conversely, when asked how often they felt unhappy at school, 52.4% of girls said some of the time, 42.9% none of the time, 2% most of the time and 1.8% all the time. Very few girls reported feeling afraid at school all the time (1.7%) or most of the time (0.6%), with the majority claiming to feel afraid none of the time (59.1%) or some of the time (37.7%), although five year olds (in first grade) and twelve year olds (mainly in first year secondary) more frequently reported being afraid some of the time when compared with girls of other ages and grades. Although it is possible that feeling afraid may be related to broader feelings of security, it is possible that girls in first grade primary and first year of secondary (7th grade) feel afraid due to attending a new school and negotiating new experiences.

For those girls currently enrolled or enrolled in the past, 69.7% stated that there were a lot of things about school that were good, 13.9% stated that there were some good things about school, and 14.9% said there was nothing good about school, with little variation across age groups, and higher proportions of girls in Parwan, Kabul and Kandahar stating that there were no good things about school. Girls were asked what they thought was good about school, with the most common responses being study/education (61.1%) and good teachers (10.5%), and other less frequently cited responses including familiarity with the other children, familiarity with teachers, familiarity with the school resources, security, friends, and rules and discipline.¹² A small proportion of girls (7.6%) stated that parental support was a good thing about school, which may have been due to a misunderstanding of the question given that parental support is not related to schools themselves. When comparing those girls who are currently enrolled with those who are not enrolled but were once enrolled, a higher proportion of once enrolled girls (85.7%) stated that there were a lot of good things about school than currently enrolled girls (69.2%); however, this difference may be due to very small numbers of once enrolled girls in the sample. Types of reasons for why school is good did not differ between currently and once enrolled girls, with study/education and good teachers the most popular responses for both groups of cohort girls.

¹² Note that although the household survey specifies that open-ended questions about good things at school are to be asked of girls aged 10 years and over, enumerators recorded responses for five to nine year olds when girls specified responses unprompted. These responses have been retained in the database rather than deleted.

When asked about whether there were things about school that were not good, 78.9% of girls said no, 12.6% said there were some things that were not good, and 7.1% said there were a lot of things. Furthermore, beliefs that a lot of or some things about school were not good were more frequent in Khost, Kandahar and Bamyan. The most frequently cited things about school that were not good (for those girls who gave open-ended responses) were being absent from school (13.3%), the fact that girls should not study (12.6%), irregularity of classes (11.2%), disunity (9.1%), and insecurity (9.1%), with less frequently cited responses including lack of household support, improper customs at school, lack of teachers, fear of young people teasing and annoying girls, poor quality of teachers, children fighting, injustice and schools being too far.¹³ When comparing those girls who are currently enrolled with those who are not enrolled but were once enrolled, a higher proportion of once enrolled girls stated that there were a lot of bad things or some bad things about school (19% and 14.3% for once enrolled and currently enrolled girls) than currently enrolled girls (6.7% and 12.6% respectively for a lot of bad things or some bad things). As noted above, these differences may be due to small numbers of once enrolled girls in the sample. Due to very small numbers of once enrolled girls aged 12 years and older (n=7), comparisons between currently enrolled and once enrolled girls' statements about things that are not good about school cannot be made.

The majority of girls (87%) stated that they thought about what they wanted to do when they were older, with 8.9% stating that they didn't know. The highest proportion of girls who didn't think about what they wanted to do when they were older or didn't know consisted of five year olds. 96.9% of girls thought that it is good for children to go to school. It is interesting to note an apparent contradiction in the data whereby all of the girls who stated that a bad thing about going to school was that girls should not study (see the previous paragraph) also stated that it is good for children to go to school. Although this proportion of girls is small (n=18), it is possible that the contradiction is due to the wording of the question about whether it is good for children to go to school. In other words, girls may believe that girls should not study but also agree that *children* should go to school (perhaps referring to boys), although this is not possible to confirm. When disaggregated by school enrolment, there were few differences between in-school and out-of-school girls, although a slightly lower proportion of out-of-school girls than in-school girls reported thinking about what they want to do when they are older and thinking that it is good for children to go to school.

Girls aged between 10 and 15 years were asked some additional questions about school, with 81.3% stating that school is important for what they want to do when they grow up and 12.5% stating that it isn't. A large proportion of girls in Badakhshan (42.9%) stated that going to school was not important for what they want to do when they grow up, and 20.4% of girls in Bamyan said that they didn't know the answer to this question. The majority of girls aged 10 to 15 years also thought that it was important for children to go to school, with little variation across sampled provinces. Responses for these two questions did not differ significantly between in-school and out-of-school girls.

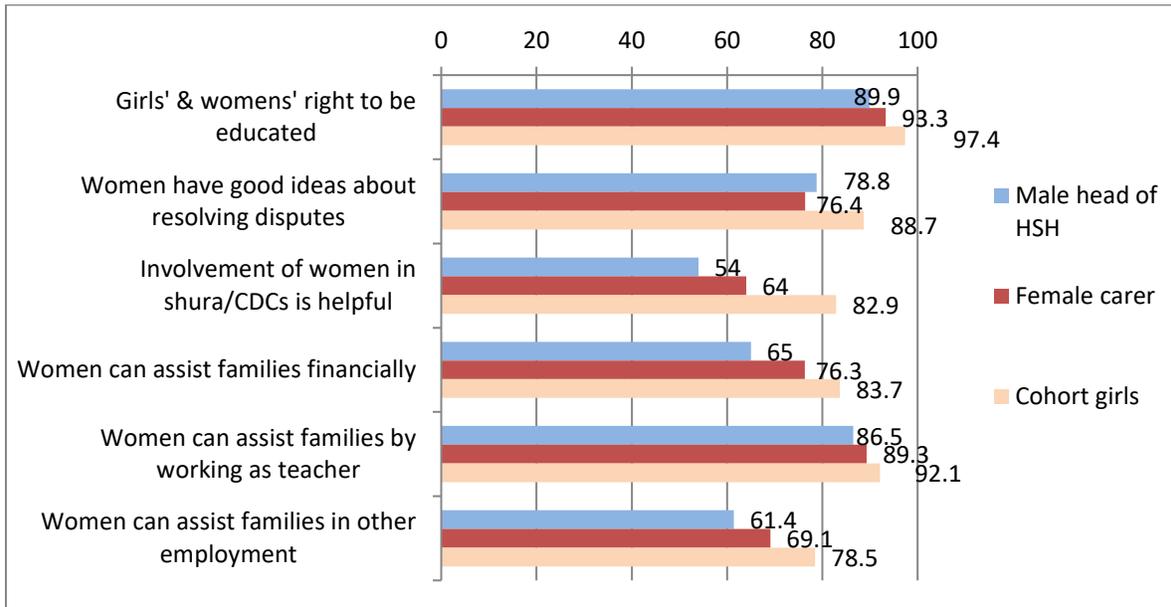
¹³ Similarly to the previous footnote, although the household survey specifies that open-ended questions about things that are not good about school are to be asked of girls aged 10 years and over, enumerators recorded responses for five to nine year olds when girls specified responses unprompted. These responses have been retained in the database rather than deleted.

More than half of girls aged 10 to 15 years (57.1%) felt that they could not choose whether to stay in school and that they just had to accept what happens, and only 36.4% felt that they could make decisions about school or their future based on what they think is important. When disaggregated by girls' school enrolment, a higher proportion of in-school girls (63.4%) than out-of-school girls (46.2%) reported feeling that they could not choose to stay in school and had to accept what happens; however, this difference can mainly be accounted for by a much higher proportion of out-of-school girls than in-school girls stating that they didn't know the answer to the question. In contrast, a higher proportion of in-school girls (45.5%) than out-of-school girls (20.6%) reported being able to make decisions about school or their future based on what they thought was important. When disaggregated by school grade (for enrolled girls), it is interesting to note that feelings of not being able to choose whether to stay in school decrease from first grade of primary school to third grade primary school and then begin to increase from fourth grade onwards, hitting the highest average in first year of secondary school and then reducing over subsequent grades of secondary school (although a much lower sample of secondary school girls makes it difficult to draw conclusions from these findings). The same pattern was not evident for girls' feelings about making decisions about school or their futures, although fewer girls in first, second and third grades of primary school agreed that they could make such decisions and more girls enrolled in these grades said they didn't know when compared with girls in higher school grades.

Cohort girls' self-reported support for women's and girls' participation in education, employment and other activities

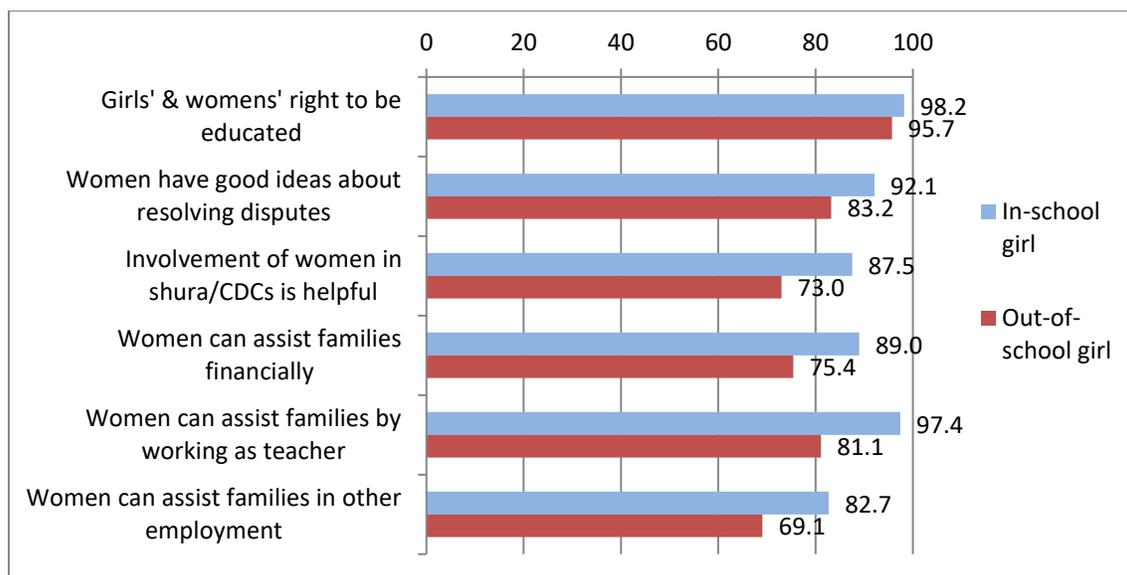
Girls aged eight years and older were asked the same series of questions asked from male heads of households and female caregivers about support for women's and girls' participation in education, employment and other activities. Girls' support for all activities/statements was greater than for male heads of households and female carers, although it followed the general pattern shown by male and female adult respondents: strong support for women's and girls' rights to education and diminishing support for women's participation in dispute resolution, community meetings, and different forms of economic activity, with more support for women's participation in employment as a teacher (see Figure 28). Much like responses from male heads of households and female carers, girls' responses varied across the sampled provinces, with higher proportions of girls in Baghlan, Bamyan, Faryab, Ghor, Khost and Parwan, and lower proportions in Kabul and Badakhshan, agreeing with women's participation in dispute resolution, community shuras, financial assistance to families, and working in some other form of employment (not teaching).

Figure 28: Comparison between male head of households', female carers' and cohort girls' agreement with statements associated with women's and girls' participation in education, employment and other activities



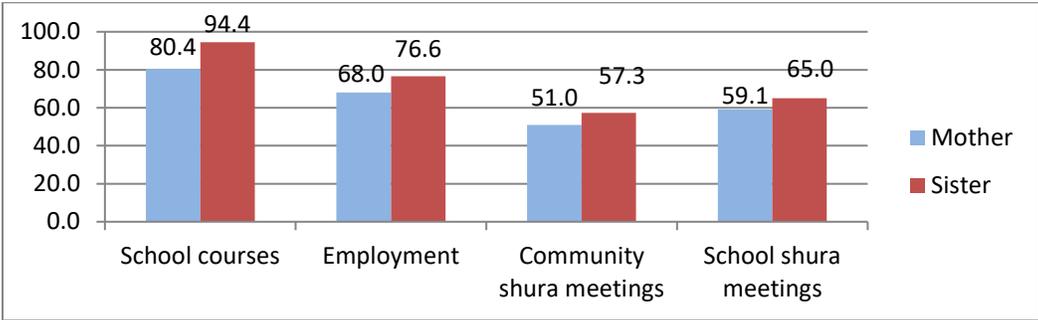
When disaggregated by girls' school enrolment, more in-school girls than out-of-school girls agreed with all statements related to education, employment and other activities, with the gap between the two groups of girls' agreement smaller in relation to girls' and women's right to be educated, and larger for other statements, particularly for women's participation in community shuras, financially assisting their families, and participating in some other form of employment (see Figure 29). All differences between in-school and out-of-school girls were significant. When disaggregated by age or enrolled girls' grade of enrolment, no discernible patterns emerged.

Figure 29: Cohort girls' agreement with statements associated with women's and girls' participation in education, employment and other activities [disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment]



Girls' support for their female relatives (mothers and sisters) to participate in a range of activities followed a similar pattern to male heads of households and female carers, including: more support for sisters' than mothers' participation in school courses, employment, community shura meetings and school shura meetings, most support for school courses across all female relative categories, and least support for female relatives' participation in community shura meetings (see Figure 30). Higher proportions of cohort girls indicated support for their mothers and sisters to participate in all four activities when compared with male heads of households and female carers. When disaggregated by province the results varied substantially. Girls indicated less support for mothers' and sisters' participation in most activities in Badakhshan, Baghlan, Kabul, Faryab and Parwan, with much greater and consistent support for mothers and sisters in Bamyan, Ghor and Khost.

Figure 30: Cohort girls support for MOTHER's and SISTER's participation in:



When disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment, support for sisters across all categories of activity was greater than support for mothers for both in-school and out-of-school girls; however, support remained lower among out-of-school girls when compared with in-school girls for almost all activities related to mothers and sisters (see Figures 31 and 32). The only exception was support for mothers' participation in school courses, which out-of-school girls were significantly more supportive of than in-school girls. The only other statistically significant difference between in-school and out-of-school girls was the former's greater support for mother's participation in employment. When disaggregated by age or girls' school grade, no discernible patterns emerged; however, when disaggregated by primary and secondary school enrolment, higher proportions of primary school enrolled girls supported their mothers and sisters to participate in all four activities when compared with girls enrolled in secondary school.

Figure 31: Cohort girls support for MOTHER's participation in: [disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment]

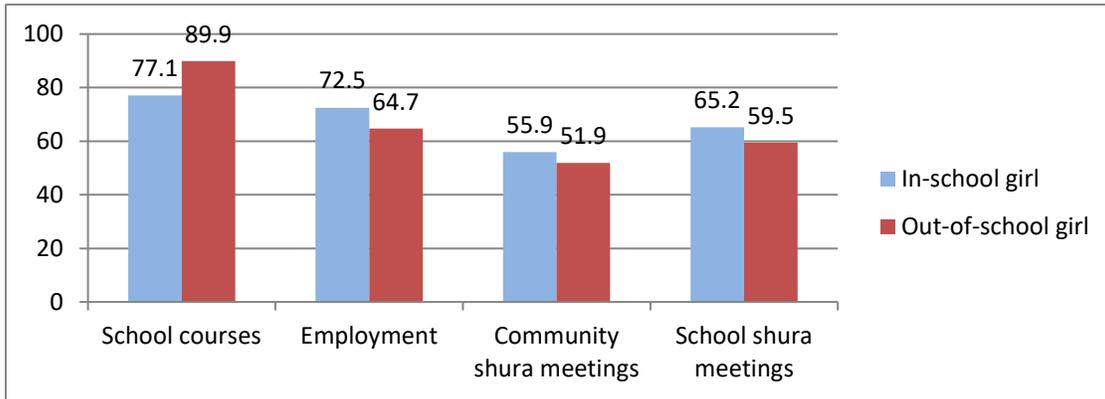
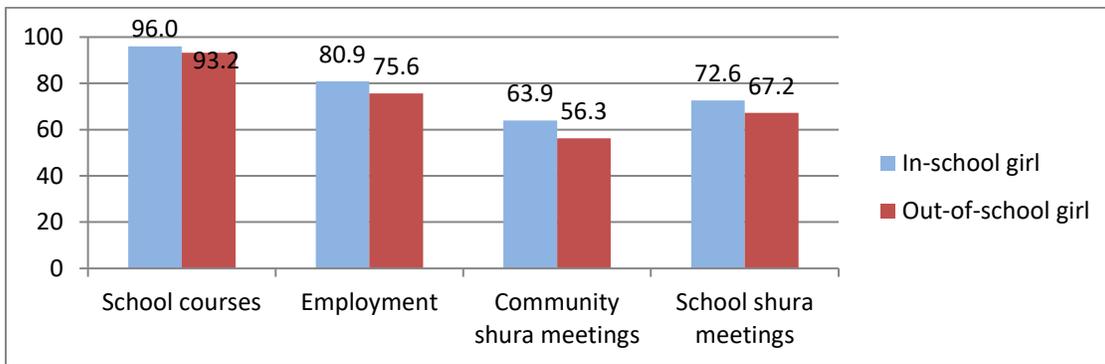


Figure 32: Cohort girls support for SISTER's participation in: [disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment]

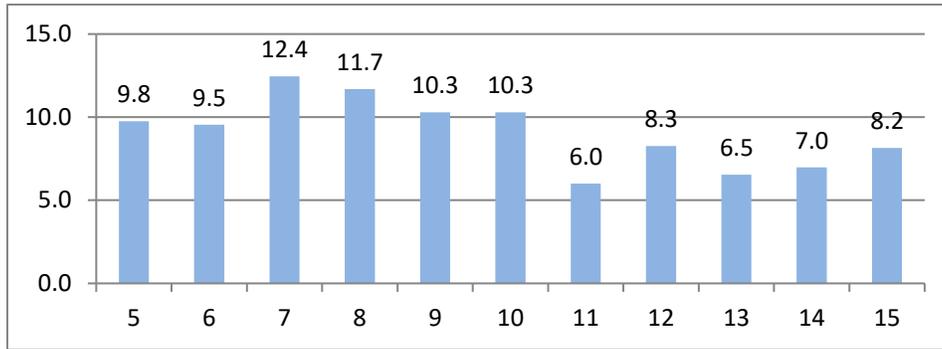


4.3. CHARACTERISTICS OF SELECTED HOUSEHOLD BOYS

Age of cohort boys

The mean age of cohort boys was 9.53 years and, much like cohort girls, the most frequent ages of boys were 7 years (12.4%) and 8 years (11.7%) (see Figure 33), albeit with a more even spread of age across boys' age categories than for girls. When age was disaggregated by boys' school enrolment, the mean age of boys in school was older (9.91 years) than for out-of-school boys (8.09 years).

Figure 33: Proportions of boys' age groups in years

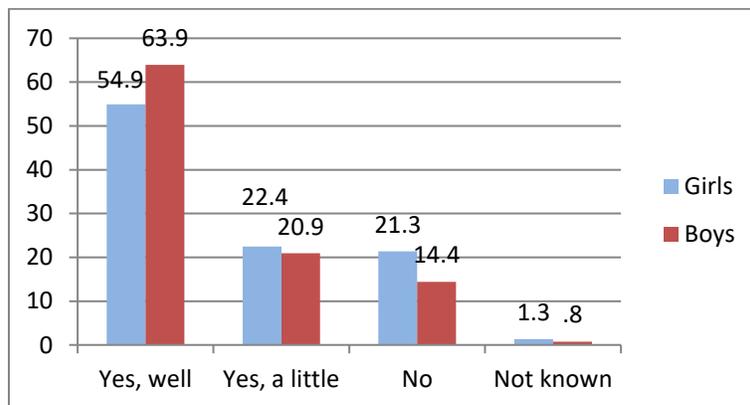


Language of selected boys

As described earlier in this report in the section on household language, Dari was the most common first language spoken by boys (49.7%), followed by Pashto (29.6%), Hazara (10.4%), Uzbek (8.6%) and Turkmen (1.7%). When disaggregated by boys' school enrolment, the largest proportion of out-of-school boys consisted of Pashto speakers and the largest proportion of in-school boys consisted of Dari speakers, which was a similar pattern to cohort girls. Nevertheless, a larger proportion of in-school boys are Pashto speakers (27%) than in-school girls (17.6%).

According to female primary carers, significantly more boys (63.9%) could speak the main language of instruction well when compared with cohort girls (54.9%) ($t(911) = 7.149, p = .001$), and more cohort girls (21.3%) than boys (14.4%) could not speak the language of instruction (see Figure 34). A much higher proportion of out-of-school boys (49.5%) than in-school boys (5.3%) could not speak the language of instruction, which was a similar result to cohort girls, although a slightly higher number of in-school girls could not speak the language of instruction when compared with boys.

Figure 34: Can Girl/Boy speak language of instruction?



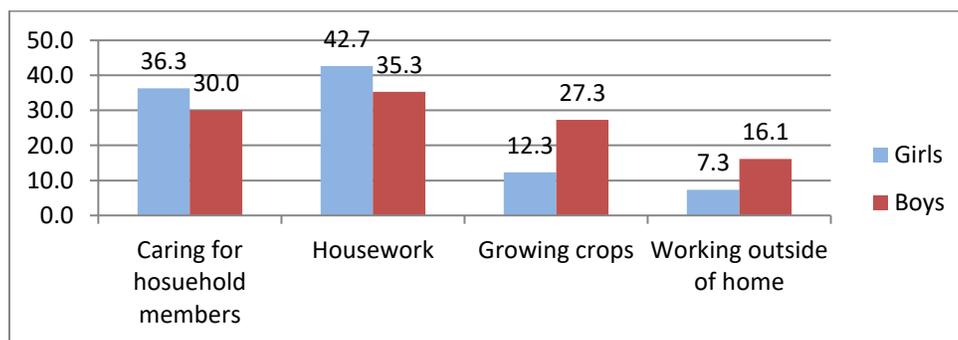
The results for boys' first language, local language of instruction, and ability to speak language of instruction revealed similar inconsistencies to the results for cohort girls, whereby a small

proportion of boys had the same first language as the language of instruction but couldn't speak the language of instruction (mainly for boys whose first language is Pashto in a Pashto language of instruction community). Many of these cases for boys occurred for the same female carer who reported similar data for girls, suggesting that any problems with interpretation or wording (e.g. *first* rather than *main* language) affected both boys and girls. Furthermore, reports of boys' inability to speak the language of instruction occurred in the same provinces as girls, for instance, boys with Uzbek as a first language who were unable to speak Dari were concentrated in Faryab, and boys with Hazara as their first language and who were unable to speak Dari concentrated in Bamyan. Also like the results for girls, cases of boys with Pashto as a first language but who were unable to speak Pashto (main language of instruction), largely occurred in Kabul and to a lesser degree in Kandahar.

Selected boys' participation in household and economic activities

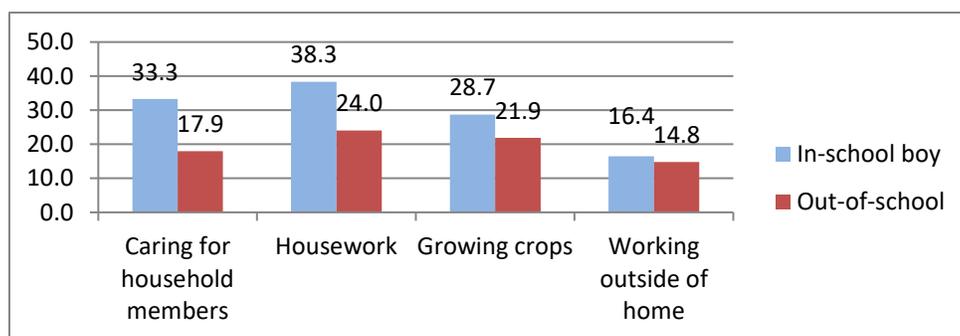
Female carers were asked about boys' participation in household and economic activities, reporting 30% of boys participating in caring for household members, 35.3% in housework, 27.3% in growing crops and 16.1% working outside of the household. Lower proportions of boys than girls participated in activities within the household, such as caring or housework duties, but higher proportions of boys participated in growing crops or working outside the home (see Figure 35). In relation to growing crops, it is possible that there is a seasonal bias in responses due to data collection occurring in winter at which time crops are not planted or harvested in colder provinces. Hence, it is possible that reported participation of girls and boys in growing crops may be elevated in phase two of data collection given that it will take part in spring/summer.

Figure 35: Cohort girls' and boys' participation in household and economic activities



When disaggregated by province, higher proportions of carers in Parwan, Faryab, Kapisa, Badakhshan and Ghor reported boys caring for household members and doing housework, while higher proportions of carers in Parwan, Kapisa, Ghor, Bamyan and Badakhshan reported boys growing crops. Although boys' working outside of the household was uncommon in most of the sampled provinces, it was more common in Bamyan and Badakhshan. When disaggregated by boys' school enrolment, more in-school boys participated in all types of household and economic activities than out-of-school boys, a pattern similar to cohort girls (see Figure 36).

Figure 36: Boys' participation in household and economic activities [disaggregated by school enrolment]



Although more in-school boys participate in household and economic activities than out-of-school boys, out-of-school boys spend more time on average per day conducting activities than in-school boys (the same pattern found for cohort girls). For instance, only 6.5% of in-school boys spend the whole day on most days doing activities compared with 58.3% of out-of-school boys, with time spent working all day much more common in Khost and Parwan provinces. According to female carers, these activities stop 9.7% of in-school boys from attending school all the time compared with 58.3% of out-of-school boys, with high proportions of boys in Khost, Faryab and Baghlan being stopped from going to school because of household or economic activities. Only 15.3% of in-school boys would still have to do the same tasks if they attended school all day, every day, compared with 35% of out-of-school boys. The majority of both in-school and out-of-school boys who work outside the home do farming and selling with fewer boys working in delivery, making goods or mining. When asked about how important the money from boys' working was to the family, 76.7% of carers of in-school boys said that boys did not earn money and only 21% said the money was fairly or very important. In contrast, 73.1% of carers of out-of-school boys stated that the money boys earned was fairly or very important to the household. All carers of boys who were working in Khost and Kabul provinces said that boys' economic contribution to the household was very or fairly important.

Selected boys' experiences in the community

According to female carers, very few boys have had any dangerous experiences while travelling in the area or near their homes, with a slightly higher number of carers claiming that local people had been hostile to boys. Boys' dangerous experiences were largely concentrated in Baghlan and Kandahar, and hostile experiences in Kapisa and Kandahar. A slightly higher proportion of in-school boys than out-of-school boys was reported to have had dangerous or hostile experiences; however, none of these differences were statistically significant.

98.9% of boys were reported to speak the same language as other children in the community, with only nine boys speaking a different language (all living in Faryab or Kabul provinces). Of these nine boys, four were reported to have some or a lot of difficulties because he spoke a different language than other boys. Although a slightly higher proportion of out-of-school boys than in-school boys were reported to speak a different language to other children in the community, this difference was not significant.

The majority of boys (83.5%) were reported to have some good friends in their community, with 10.2% not having good friends and 6.3% of carers not knowing whether boys had friends or not. When disaggregated by boys' school enrolment, significantly more in-school boys (93.6%) were reported to have good friends than out-of-school boys (72.3%) ($t(871) = -8.587, p = .001$). Much lower proportions of boys in Kandahar and Khost were reported to have friends in the community. Although in Kandahar this may be due to boys' lower school enrolment and thus reduced opportunities to interact with other boys, a large proportion of boys in Khost are enrolled in school and thus lack of friendship may be due to another reason.

Selected boys' support with education

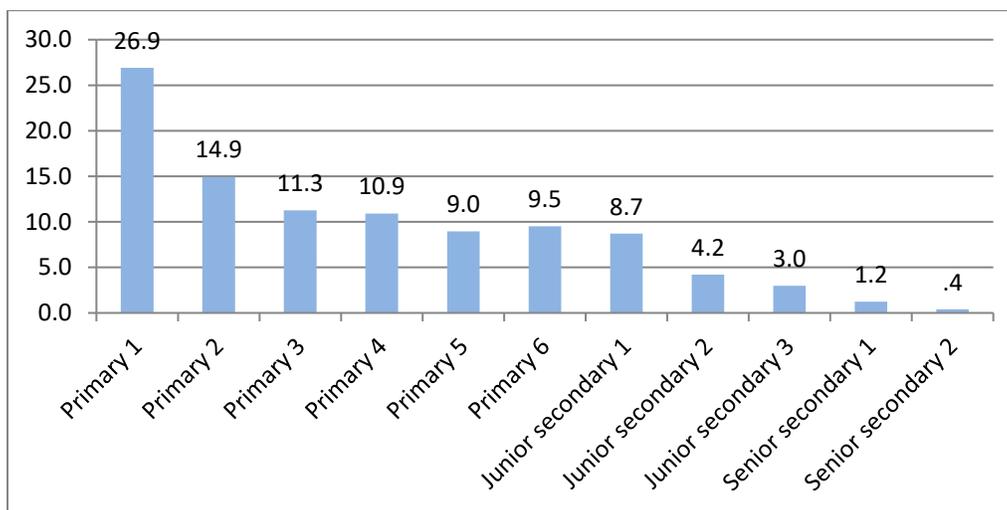
When carers were asked what level of schooling they wanted boys to have when the boys were younger (as opposed to currently, 38.3% said college or university, 36.4% said primary school, with lower numbers stating that they wanted boys to have lower secondary (12.3%), upper secondary (10.9%) or no education (1.6%). When asked what level of schooling carers wanted boys to have now, a much larger proportion said college or university (67.9%) or upper secondary (20.3%). More female carers wanted boys now to be in college or university than cohort girls. When disaggregated by boys' enrolment, high proportions of in-school boy carers wanted boys to have primary school (38.5%) or college/university (40.8%) when they were younger, and higher proportions of carers now want in-school boys to have college/university (75.3%) or upper secondary (19.6%). Carer responses related to out-of-school boys followed a similar pattern when comparing level of education carers wanted for boys when they were younger and what they wanted now. More carers of out-of-school boys now want boys to have college/university education (40.3%) or upper secondary education (23%) when compared to what they wanted when boys were younger (29.1% and 15.3% respectively for college/university and upper secondary). When disaggregated by province, very high proportions of female respondents from most provinces now wanted boys to have college or university education, with higher proportions in Ghor, Kandahar and Faryab now wanting boys to have lower or upper secondary schooling.

More carers overall reported wanting boys to be in education at the age of 18 years (88%) than cohort girls (70.4%), and few wanted boys to be working (7.8%) or married (2.3%). When disaggregated by province, a higher proportion of carers from Kandahar (26.1%), Parwan (22%), and Kabul (10.9%) wanted boys to be working and a slightly higher proportion of carers from Ghor (8%), Kapisa (5.3%) and Faryab (4.1%) wanted boys to be married. When disaggregated by boys' school enrolment, higher proportion of carers of in-school boys wanted boys to be in education (94.4%) when compared with carers of out-of-school boys (63.8%). Furthermore, 19.4% of out-of-school boy carers wanted boys to be working and 8.2% wanted boys to be married.

Carer-reported characteristics of boys enrolled in school

More boys (79%) than cohort girls (66.5%) are currently enrolled at school, with 82.5% of boys enrolled in primary school (26.9% in first grade) and 17.5% enrolled in secondary school (see Figure 37). Lower proportions of boys are enrolled in school in Kandahar (58%), Kabul (66.7%), and Faryab (73.5%).

Figure 37: Proportions of in-school boys disaggregated by grade of enrolment



Since the start of the school year, 93.8% of enrolled boys were reported to have attended school on most days that the school was open with lower proportions of boys in Bamyan (77.5%), Kandahar (84.3%) and Baghlan (85.2%) attending school on most days. Of those boys who had not attended on most days, 92.4% were reported to have attended more than half the time with lower proportions of boys in Baghlan, Bamyan and Faryab attending school half the time.

The mean age that boys started school was 6.77 years with a range of between 3 and 14 years, with 45.4% of boys starting school at the age of 7 years and 24.2% at the age of 6 years. A large proportion of boys (86.5%) were reported to have missed no school since they started school and only 12.1% missed some months, mainly in Bamyan, Khost, Kandahar and Baghlan provinces.

According to female carers, the mean time in minutes it took boys to travel to school was 33.89 minutes with a range of between 1 and 300 minutes and longer mean travel times in Kabul (51.05 minutes), Ghor (49.66 minutes) and Bamyan (46.56 minutes). It takes a slightly higher mean time to travel to boys' secondary schools (39.34 minutes) than primary schools (32.74). It should be emphasised that these times are not exact but are reported by female carers and may be inaccurate. Although it is possible that longer times reported (such as 300 minutes) are in relation to travel to boarding schools, this is unlikely as no female carers in the sample claimed that boys were attending boarding school.

The majority of female carers (82.7%) reported not having to pay for boys' school and of those who did pay, only 9% were paying school fees. When disaggregated by province, larger proportions of carers in Khost (78%), Kandahar (74.5%) and Ghor (26.2%) reported paying for boys' school and of

those who did pay something, the majority who claimed to be paying boys' school fees are from Khost province. Overall, 17% of carers stated that it was difficult to afford sending boys to school, with 87.2% of carers from Khost reporting difficulties affording to send boys to school.

Carer-reported characteristics of boys not enrolled in school

Of those boys not currently enrolled in school, only 4.1% (n=8) had ever been to school (mainly boys from Khost and Parwan) and half of these boys had attended school in the last two years. The mean age that boys started school was 6 years and the mean age that boys stopped school was 12.13 years. When carers were asked if there was anything about boys' situation at home that prevented them from going to school, 54.6% said no while other carers gave a range of reasons including the family being unable to afford it (14.8%), boys being too young (9.7%), boys living too far away (7.1%), boys having obligations at home (6.6%) and the family not allowing it (2%). The majority of carers (90.4%) stated that there was no situation at local schools that stopped boys from enrolling, with a small number of respondents suggesting that there were no local schools (2.5%), the teaching was poor (1.5%) or that facilities were in bad condition (0.5%).

4.4. EGRA AND EGMA SCORES FOR COHORT GIRLS

EGRA and EGMA instruments were administered to the majority of cohort girls. A small proportion of girls (11.8%, n = 127) refused to participate in EGRA and EGMA testing because they stated that they were not able to read (enumerators also mentioned that in some cases primary caregivers refused as girls were not able to read). The large majority of these girls (93.7%) were not currently enrolled in school and had never been enrolled, with a smaller proportion (5.5%) consisting of first grade girls who also refused (or whose caregivers' refused) because they were not able to read. Only one girl enrolled in a grade higher than first grade refused to participate in EGRA and EGMA testing. Nevertheless, a large proportion of non-enrolled girls (67%) who stated that they couldn't read attempted to do EGRA and EGMA testing (although the majority got zero scores for both EGRA and EGMA).

The following section is divided into results for EGRA and EGMA, disaggregated by a number of variables including cohort girl enrolment, grade of enrolment, language of interview, girls' ability to speak language of instruction and type of community (CBE early and CBE late). Assessments here are based on scores for out-of-school cohort girls and cohort girls enrolled in all primary and secondary grades. It should be noted, however, that outcomes are based on tracking target girls in grades 1-9. Furthermore, while this section of the report is a descriptive one in order to examine patterns in EGRA and EGMA scores, learning outcome targets according to GEC guidance are listed in section 4.7.

EGRA Scores

When EGRA scores were disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment and zero scores were included in the analysis, there are large mean differences between enrolled girls' and non-enrolled girls' scores for all subtasks (see Table 5). When zero scores were excluded from analysis, EGRA

scores increased for enrolled girls for all subtasks; however, the increase in scores was much higher for non-enrolled girls.

Table 5: Mean EGRA scores disaggregated by cohort girl school enrolment

| | EGRA 1 - Letter sound identification fluency - Correct letters sounded per minute | EGRA 2 - Non-word identification fluency - Correct non-words per minute | EGRA 3 - Oral reading fluency - Correct words per minute | EGRA 4 - Oral reading comprehension - Number of correct answers out of 5 |
|-----------------------------|--|--|---|---|
| Zero Scores Included | | | | |
| Girls Enrolled | 36.34 | 15.28 | 23.79 | 1.30 |
| Girls Not Enrolled | 8.87 | 2.55 | 3.01 | .15 |
| Zero Scores Excluded | | | | |
| Girls Enrolled | 39.76 | 19.07 | 34.42 | 2.79 |
| Girls Not Enrolled | 24.67 | 18.70 | 42.88 | 3.70 |

When only including non-enrolled girls in the analysis and including zero scores, it is evident that once enrolled girls had higher scores than never enrolled girls on all subtasks (see Table 6). Furthermore, when excluding zero scores, EGRA scores for all subtasks increased for both once enrolled and never enrolled girls, particularly the latter. It is interesting to note that some girls were able to read despite never having been enrolled in school. Although this could be due to home schooling, it is more likely due to girls' participation in *madrasa* classes given that enumerators from a number of provinces reported that girls described participating in such education currently or in the past.

Table 6: Mean EGRA scores for non-enrolled cohort girls disaggregated by ever having been enrolled

| | EGRA 1 - Letter sound identification fluency - Correct letters sounded per minute | EGRA 2 - Non-word identification fluency - Correct non-words per minute | EGRA 3 - Oral reading fluency - Correct words per minute | EGRA 4 - Oral reading comprehension - Number of correct answers out of 5 |
|-----------------------------|--|--|---|---|
| Zero Scores Included | | | | |
| Girl previously enrolled | 40.13 | 20.80 | 32.27 | 2.07 |
| Girl never enrolled | 6.80 | 1.34 | 1.08 | .03 |
| Zero Scores Excluded | | | | |
| Girl previously enrolled | 54.73 | 34.67 | 53.78 | 3.88 |
| Girl never enrolled | 20.32 | 12.71 | 30.62 | 3.00 |

When disaggregated by cohort girls' grade of enrolment, although first grade girls have low scores in all four subtasks, these scores increase for every grade of enrolment (see Table 7). When

excluding zero scores, the only impact on scores according to grade is for primary school grades, particularly for those girls enrolled in first grade (see Table 8). Zero scores have less impact on individual subtask scores as girls progress through primary school, and have no impact on scores by the time girls reach sixth grade, except for reading comprehension.

Table 7: Mean EGRA scores disaggregated by cohort girls' school grade (zero scores included)

| | EGRA 1 - Letter sound identification fluency - Correct letters sounded per minute | EGRA 2 - Non-word identification fluency - Correct non-words per minute | EGRA 3 - Oral reading fluency - Correct words per minute | EGRA 4 - Oral reading comprehension - Number of correct answers out of 5 |
|--------------------|--|--|---|---|
| Primary 1 | 16.07 | 5.25 | 4.31 | .12 |
| Primary 2 | 32.22 | 12.53 | 17.52 | .87 |
| Primary 3 | 45.38 | 20.23 | 32.04 | 1.78 |
| Primary 4 | 51.74 | 22.68 | 35.82 | 2.02 |
| Primary 5 | 55.59 | 22.85 | 42.95 | 2.54 |
| Primary 6 | 60.10 | 28.46 | 49.98 | 3.04 |
| Junior secondary 1 | 71.64 | 33.70 | 59.42 | 3.36 |
| Junior secondary 2 | 81.44 | 35.55 | 71.05 | 4.05 |
| Junior secondary 3 | 81.52 | 37.10 | 65.50 | 4.40 |
| Senior secondary 1 | 78.00 | 43.00 | 76.33 | 4.56 |
| Senior secondary 2 | 84.00 | 48.00 | 86.00 | 5.00 |
| Senior secondary 3 | 125.00 | 46.00 | 86.00 | 5.00 |

Table 8: Mean EGRA scores disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment for primary school girls (zero scores excluded)

| | EGRA 1 - Letter sound identification fluency - Correct letters sounded per minute | EGRA 2 - Non-word identification fluency - Correct non-words per minute | EGRA 3 - Oral reading fluency - Correct words per minute | EGRA 4 - Oral reading comprehension - Number of correct answers out of 5 |
|-----------|--|--|---|---|
| Primary 1 | 19.82 | 8.76 | 10.92 | 1.57 |
| Primary 2 | 32.89 | 13.78 | 22.24 | 1.87 |
| Primary 3 | 45.38 | 21.00 | 33.68 | 2.28 |
| Primary 4 | 52.66 | 24.87 | 40.03 | 2.67 |
| Primary 5 | 55.59 | 23.43 | 45.15 | 2.89 |
| Primary 6 | 60.10 | 28.46 | 49.98 | 3.24 |

When disaggregating the data by girls' grade of enrolment and language of interview, including zero scores and focusing on those girls enrolled in primary school, it is evident that first grade girls tested in Pashto have higher scores on EGRA 1, 2 and 3 subtasks than first grade girls tested in Dari;

however, first grade girls tested in Dari perform slightly better on oral reading comprehension than girls tested in Pashto (see Table 9). By second grade, mean scores for letter sound identification even out between girls tested in Pashto and Dari although the former score more highly than the latter for other subtasks, including oral reading comprehension. Although girls tested in Pashto continue to score more highly than girls tested in Dari in grade three on all four EGRA subtasks, these differences are variable across other grades, with Pashto-tested girls largely dominating the subtasks in most grades except for fifth grade and except for oral reading fluency and comprehension in fourth grade. When zero scores are excluded from analysis, scores for both Dari- and Pashto-tested girls in first grade are higher for all four subtasks; however, zero scores stop having any impact on Pashto-tested girls' scores at third grade for all four subtasks. In contrast, Dari-tested girls' overall scores continue to be impacted by zero scores up until sixth grade, particularly for reading fluency and comprehension subtasks, suggesting that some Dari-tested girls are unable to complete at least one item on EGRA subtasks (primarily EGRA 3 and 4 exercises) until the end of primary school.

Table 9: Mean EGRA scores for primary school girls (disaggregated by school grade and language of testing, and including zero scores)

| | Language of interview | EGRA 1 - Letter sound identification fluency - Correct letters sounded per minute | EGRA 2 - Non-word identification fluency - Correct non-words per minute | EGRA 3 - Oral reading fluency - Correct words per minute | EGRA 4 - Oral reading comprehension - Number of correct answers out of 5 |
|-----------|-----------------------|---|---|--|--|
| Primary 1 | Dari | 15.20 | 4.82 | 4.22 | .13 |
| | Pashto | 21.42 | 7.91 | 4.81 | .02 |
| Primary 2 | Dari | 32.11 | 11.99 | 16.25 | .82 |
| | Pashto | 32.81 | 15.31 | 24.13 | 1.13 |
| Primary 3 | Dari | 43.05 | 17.69 | 27.42 | 1.58 |
| | Pashto | 53.67 | 29.28 | 48.44 | 2.50 |
| Primary 4 | Dari | 52.00 | 22.77 | 34.33 | 1.92 |
| | Pashto | 48.25 | 21.50 | 55.50 | 3.25 |
| Primary 5 | Dari | 55.82 | 22.95 | 42.99 | 2.54 |
| | Pashto | 51.00 | 21.00 | 42.00 | 2.50 |
| Primary 6 | Dari | 58.70 | 27.64 | 48.09 | 2.95 |
| | Pashto | 75.50 | 37.50 | 70.75 | 4.00 |

Pashto-tested girls' higher EGRA scores in the first few grades of primary school when compared with Dari-tested girls is in line with the results of other projects involving literacy and numeracy testing in Afghanistan (IRC 2013). There could be a number of reasons for these differences in scores in the STAGES baseline. One likely reason is that a proportion of girls tested in Dari speak it as a second language, speaking Uzbek, Turkmen, Hazara or Pashto as their first language. However, it is a curious result given that a large proportion of Pashto-tested girls are enrolled in CBE late starting classes, many which had not opened at the time of baseline data collection (for instance in Kabul and Kandahar provinces). When EGRA scores (including zero scores) were further

disaggregated by community sampling type (CBE early, CBE late and GOV early), first grade Pashto-tested girls in CBE early communities scored more highly than CBE late starting girls on letter sound identification but scored lower on oral reading fluency and comprehension (both groups had the same scores for reading invented words). It is interesting to note that first grade Dari-tested girls also performed better on all EGRA subtasks in CBE late starting communities when compared with CBE early starting communities.

Overall, when scores for first grade girls were disaggregated only by community sampling type, girls in CBE late starting communities scored higher on all four EGRA subtasks than girls from CBE early starting communities (see Table 10), and this pattern held for three subtasks (excluding reading comprehension) when zero scores were excluded from analysis.¹⁴ A slightly higher proportion of first grade girls in CBE late communities (35%) are reported to be attending government schools when compared to girls in CBE early communities (26.2%). While EGRA scores disaggregated by community type (CBE early or CBE late) and school type (government or non-government) show no substantial variation within CBE early communities, scores within CBE late communities reveal that girls who are reported to be attending government schools have higher scores on all four EGRA subtasks than girls reported to be attending non-government schools. . Hence, it is possible that higher scores in CBE late communities is attributable to girls’ enrolment in government schools. It is also possible that some cohort girls in CBE late starting communities have attended or are currently attending *madrasa*; however, this is difficult to establish given that the household survey does not question girls or caregivers specifically about *madrasa* education.

Table 10: Mean EGRA scores for first grade girls (disaggregated by community sampling type)

| | EGRA 1 - Letter sound identification fluency - Correct letters sounded per minute | EGRA 2 - Non-word identification fluency - Correct non-words per minute | EGRA 3 - Oral reading fluency - Correct words per minute | EGRA 4 - Oral reading comprehension - Number of correct answers out of 5 |
|-----------------------------|---|---|--|--|
| Zero Scores Included | | | | |
| CBE Early | 14.31 | 4.71 | 3.10 | .05 |
| CBE Late | 21.21 | 6.80 | 7.78 | .31 |
| Zero Scores Excluded | | | | |
| CBE Early | 18.18 | 8.44 | 9.21 | 1.83 |
| CBE Late | 23.9 | 9.54 | 13.82 | 1.47 |

Girls’ EGRA scores were also disaggregated by girls’ reported ability to speak the language of instruction. Overall, EGRA scores indicate that reading ability diminishes as girls’ reported ability to speak the language of instruction reduces although, when zero scores are excluded, differences between girls who can speak the language of instruction a little and those cannot speak it are negligible (see Table 11). When the data were further disaggregated by girls’ school grade, being

¹⁴ One government intervention community was also sampled in phase one of baseline data collection; however, those results are not included in Table 10 as only one first grade girl was sampled from that community. Remaining government intervention communities will be sampled in phase two of data collection.

able to speak the language of instruction impacts very little on EGRA scores for first grade girls, instead impacting on scores for girls in higher grades, particularly third and fourth grades. When examined according to province, particularly in those provinces where substantial proportions of carers claimed that girls did not speak the language of instruction, EGRA scores diminish slightly as ability to speak the language of instruction diminishes in Bamyán and Faryab, particularly in first grade (and third and fourth grades in Faryab). However, EGRA scores in Kabul increase as girls' ability to speak the language of instruction diminishes, suggesting that inconsistencies in the Kabul data for ability to speak language of instruction (described earlier in this report) may be due to a misinterpretation of the question rather than differences between girls' *first* and *main* language of instruction. The majority of girls in Kandahar who are reported to not speak the language of instruction are not enrolled in school and mostly scored zero on all EGRA subtasks; hence, it is difficult to establish from EGRA scores whether girls are unable to speak the language of instruction or are simply not able to read due to non-enrolment.

Table 11: Mean EGRA scores for all cohort girls (disaggregated by girls' ability to speak language of instruction)

| | EGRA 1 - Letter sound identification fluency - Correct letters sounded per minute | EGRA 2 - Non-word identification fluency - Correct non-words per minute | EGRA 3 - Oral reading fluency - Correct words per minute | EGRA 4 - Oral reading comprehension - Number of correct answers out of 5 |
|---|--|--|---|---|
| Zero Scores Included | | | | |
| Speaks language of instruction well | 36.77 | 15.78 | 25.40 | 1.35 |
| Speaks language of instruction a little | 28.50 | 10.62 | 13.94 | .79 |
| Cannot speak language of instruction | 8.34 | 2.77 | 3.87 | .27 |
| Zero Scores Excluded | | | | |
| Speaks language of instruction well | 41.97 | 22.24 | 41.26 | 3.07 |
| Speaks language of instruction a little | 31.23 | 13.66 | 22.32 | 2.25 |
| Cannot speak language of instruction | 30.34 | 12.45 | 21.35 | 2.14 |

EGMA Scores

When EGMA scores were disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment and zero scores were included in the analysis, there are large mean differences between enrolled girls' and non-enrolled girls' scores for all subtasks; however, the gap between groups of girls diminishes substantially when zero scores are excluded from analysis (see Table 12). Once zero scores are excluded, although enrolled girls score more highly than non-enrolled girls on number identification and number discrimination, non-enrolled girls score more highly on all other EGMA subtasks. When examining the data only for non-enrolled girls, it appears that high EGMA scores are mainly attributed to those girls who were once enrolled, particularly when excluding zero scores (see Table 13). Nevertheless, when excluding zero scores, those girls who have never been enrolled also scored highly, particularly for addition and subtraction subtasks. When further disaggregating the data by age, younger girls were able to complete some items on number identification and

discrimination subtasks, but higher scores across all subtasks are attributed to older girls, particularly those aged between 13 and 14 year olds for both once enrolled and never enrolled girls. As mentioned in the previous section on EGMA scores, it is possible that never enrolled girls previously attended *madrassa* education, which also typically involves teaching mathematics.

Table 12: Mean EGMA scores disaggregated by cohort girls' school enrolment

| | EGMA 1 - Number identification fluency - Correct numbers per minute | EGMA 2 - Quantity discrimination - Number of correct responses | EGMA 3 - Missing number identification - Number of correct responses | EGMA 4 - Addition fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 5 - Subtraction fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 6 - Written exercise - Correct answers per minute |
|-----------------------------|---|---|--|---|--|---|
| Zero Scores Included | | | | | | |
| Girls Enrolled | 13.75 | 4.78 | 3.68 | 4.76 | 3.63 | .89 |
| Girls Not Enrolled | 3.15 | .95 | .41 | .52 | .48 | .09 |
| Zero Scores Excluded | | | | | | |
| Girls Enrolled | 14.66 | 5.57 | 4.95 | 7.64 | 6.77 | 2.97 |
| Girls Not Enrolled | 10.74 | 4.40 | 5.26 | 10.42 | 10.55 | 3.50 |

Table 13: Mean EGMA scores for non-enrolled cohort girls disaggregated by ever having been enrolled

| | EGMA 1 - Number identification fluency - Correct numbers per minute | EGMA 2 - Quantity discrimination - Number of correct responses | EGMA 3 - Missing number identification - Number of correct responses | EGMA 4 - Addition fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 5 - Subtraction fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 6 - Written exercise - Correct answers per minute |
|------------------------------|---|---|--|---|--|--|
| Zeros Scores Included | | | | | | |
| Girl previously enrolled | 15.16 | 5.27 | 4.07 | 5.87 | 5.47 | 1.20 |
| Girl never enrolled | 2.36 | .66 | .17 | .16 | .15 | .01 |
| Zero Scores Excluded | | | | | | |
| Girl previously enrolled | 20.67 | 7.18 | 6.10 | 11.00 | 11.71 | 4.50 |
| Girl never enrolled | 8.92 | 3.66 | 4.33 | 9.25 | 8.50 | 1.50 |

When the data for currently enrolled girls were disaggregated by school grade (with zero scores included), although number identification fluency increases more quickly throughout the grades, improvement on other subtasks, particularly addition, subtraction, and written subtasks, appears to be slower (see Table 14). Furthermore, girls across all grades performed better on the addition subtask than subtraction and written subtasks. When zero scores are excluded from analysis, number identification fluency scores equalize for girls by 3rd grade (i.e. in grades one and two, some girls score zero on number identification) (see Table 15). However, scores equalize completely for other subtasks at later grades: 6th grade for quantity discrimination and missing number

identification, junior secondary 1st grade for addition, junior secondary 3rd grade for subtraction, and senior secondary 2nd grade for the written exercise.

Table 14: Mean EGMA scores disaggregated by cohort girls' grade (zero scores included)

| | EGMA 1 - Number identification fluency - Correct numbers per minute | EGMA 2 - Quantity discrimination - Number of correct responses | EGMA 3 - Missing number identification - Number of correct responses | EGMA 4 - Addition fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 5 - Subtraction fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 6 - Written exercise - Correct answers per minute |
|--------------------|--|---|---|---|--|---|
| Primary 1 | 8.37 | 2.83 | 1.82 | 1.80 | 1.27 | .14 |
| Primary 2 | 12.10 | 4.63 | 3.37 | 4.16 | 3.16 | .69 |
| Primary 3 | 16.13 | 6.27 | 5.45 | 6.73 | 5.06 | 1.24 |
| Primary 4 | 16.74 | 5.86 | 4.82 | 6.11 | 4.25 | .82 |
| Primary 5 | 18.33 | 6.56 | 5.34 | 7.24 | 5.88 | 1.34 |
| Primary 6 | 20.58 | 6.81 | 5.42 | 8.48 | 6.75 | 1.98 |
| Junior secondary 1 | 23.53 | 7.67 | 6.48 | 9.30 | 7.33 | 2.21 |
| Junior secondary 2 | 27.36 | 8.20 | 6.45 | 10.30 | 8.10 | 2.85 |
| Junior secondary 3 | 23.60 | 8.70 | 7.40 | 12.30 | 10.40 | 4.00 |
| Senior secondary 1 | 33.21 | 9.33 | 7.78 | 13.44 | 10.89 | 3.22 |
| Senior secondary 2 | 41.58 | 10.00 | 9.00 | 15.50 | 14.50 | 8.50 |
| Senior secondary 3 | 23.08 | 8.00 | 8.00 | 18.00 | 11.00 | 7.00 |

Table 15: Mean EGMA scores disaggregated by cohort girls' grade (zero scores excluded)

| | EGMA 1 - Number identification fluency - Correct numbers per minute | EGMA 2 - Quantity discrimination - Number of correct responses | EGMA 3 - Missing number identification - Number of correct responses | EGMA 4 - Addition fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 5 - Subtraction fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 6 - Written exercise - Correct answers per minute |
|--------------------|--|---|---|---|--|---|
| Primary 1 | 9.66 | 4.05 | 3.52 | 5.03 | 4.60 | 1.75 |
| Primary 2 | 12.48 | 4.92 | 4.51 | 7.49 | 6.80 | 2.62 |
| Primary 3 | 16.13 | 6.43 | 5.81 | 8.00 | 6.69 | 3.00 |
| Primary 4 | 16.74 | 5.86 | 5.09 | 7.10 | 6.21 | 1.81 |
| Primary 5 | 18.33 | 6.73 | 5.48 | 7.62 | 7.09 | 2.50 |
| Primary 6 | 20.58 | 6.81 | 5.42 | 8.85 | 7.20 | 3.39 |
| Junior secondary 1 | 23.53 | 7.67 | 6.48 | 9.30 | 8.34 | 3.32 |
| Junior secondary 2 | 27.36 | 8.20 | 6.45 | 10.84 | 9.00 | 4.07 |
| Junior secondary 3 | 23.60 | 8.70 | 7.40 | 12.30 | 10.40 | 5.00 |
| Senior secondary 1 | 33.21 | 9.33 | 7.78 | 13.44 | 10.89 | 4.83 |
| Senior secondary 2 | 41.58 | 10.00 | 9.00 | 15.50 | 14.50 | 8.50 |
| Senior secondary 3 | 23.08 | 8.00 | 8.00 | 18.00 | 11.00 | 7.00 |

When EGMA scores (with zero scores included) were disaggregated by girls' primary school grade and language of interview, Pashto-tested girls perform slightly better in number identification and quantity discrimination than Dari-tested girls, and Dari-tested girls perform slightly better in all other subtasks (see Table 16). However, although both groups of girls advance in the subtasks throughout primary school, Pashto-tested girls outscore Dari-tested girls in most EGMA subtasks in most primary school grades, particularly for addition, subtraction and written subtasks. As outlined previously, this may be due to many girls tested in Dari speaking it as a second language.

Table 16: Mean EGMA scores for primary school girls (disaggregated by school grade and language of testing, and including zero scores)

| | Language of interview | EGMA 1 - Number identification fluency - Correct numbers per minute | EGMA 2 - Quantity discrimination - Number of correct responses | EGMA 3 - Missing number identification - Number of correct responses | EGMA 4 - Addition fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 5 - Subtraction fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 6 - Written exercise - Correct answers per minute |
|-----------|-----------------------|---|--|--|--|---|--|
| Primary 1 | Dari | 8.36 | 2.81 | 1.86 | 1.84 | 1.33 | .11 |
| | Pashto | 8.42 | 2.98 | 1.58 | 1.56 | .91 | .28 |
| Primary 2 | Dari | 11.82 | 4.39 | 3.08 | 3.65 | 2.53 | .34 |
| | Pashto | 13.56 | 5.88 | 4.88 | 6.81 | 6.44 | 2.50 |
| Primary 3 | Dari | 15.24 | 5.63 | 4.75 | 5.41 | 3.50 | .45 |
| | Pashto | 19.28 | 8.56 | 7.94 | 11.44 | 10.61 | 4.06 |
| Primary 4 | Dari | 16.79 | 5.91 | 4.74 | 6.15 | 4.19 | .75 |
| | Pashto | 16.07 | 5.25 | 6.00 | 5.50 | 5.00 | 1.75 |
| Primary 5 | Dari | 18.55 | 6.64 | 5.36 | 7.15 | 5.74 | 1.21 |
| | Pashto | 14.04 | 5.00 | 5.00 | 9.00 | 8.50 | 4.00 |
| Primary 6 | Dari | 19.92 | 6.68 | 5.23 | 7.98 | 6.11 | 1.30 |
| | Pashto | 27.78 | 8.25 | 7.50 | 14.00 | 13.75 | 9.50 |

When disaggregating EGMA scores (zeros included) for first grade girls by community sampling type and language of interview, Dari-tested girls in late starting communities have higher scores than girls in early starting communities for almost all subtasks except for subtraction and written exercises. In contrast, Pashto-tested girls in early starting communities have higher scores than girls in late starting communities for number identification and discrimination subtasks, with late-starting girls scoring more highly on all other subtasks. When zero scores are excluded, these patterns remain largely the same for Dari-tested girls (with the exception of higher addition scores for girls in early starting communities), and Pashto-tested girls (with the exception of higher number discrimination scores among girls in late starting communities).

When disaggregating EGMA scores for first grade girls by community sampling type only, girls in CBE late starting communities score more highly than girls in CBE early communities on all subtasks when zero scores are included (see Table 17). When zero scores are excluded, CBE late

scores remain higher for number identification, number discrimination and missing number subtasks; however, girls in CBE early communities have higher scores for all other subtasks, suggesting that first grade girls in early starting communities are performing better on more advanced numeracy tests. As noted for EGRA scores, high scores in some EGMA subtasks for girls in late starting communities may be due to girls attending *madrasa* education or government schools.

Table 17: Mean EGMA scores for first grade girls (disaggregated by community sampling type)

| | EGMA 1 - Number identification fluency - Correct numbers per minute | EGMA 2 - Quantity discrimination - Number of correct responses | EGMA 3 - Missing number identification - Number of correct responses | EGMA 4 - Addition fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 5 - Subtraction fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 6 - Written exercise - Correct answers per minute |
|-----------------------------|---|---|--|---|--|---|
| Zero Scores Included | | | | | | |
| CBE Early | 7.86 | 2.77 | 1.62 | 1.71 | 1.23 | .10 |
| CBE Late | 9.81 | 3 | 2.35 | 2.03 | 1.31 | .21 |
| Zero Scores Excluded | | | | | | |
| CBE Early | 9.02 | 3.92 | 3.31 | 5.15 | 4.98 | 1.77 |
| CBE Late | 11.54 | 4.44 | 4 | 4.76 | 3.75 | 1.70 |

Girls' EGMA scores were also disaggregated by girls' reported ability to speak the language of instruction. Much like for EGRA scores, EGMA scores indicate that numeracy skills diminish as girls' reported ability to speak the language of instruction reduces although, when zero scores are excluded, differences between girls who can speak the language of instruction a little and those cannot speak it are negligible for most subtasks (see Table 18). When the data were further disaggregated by girls' school grade, being able to speak the language of instruction impacts very little on EGMA scores for girls across all first grades, with girls who are reported not to speak the language of instruction often performing better on EGMA subtasks than those girls who can speak the language of instruction well or a little. Although this may be related to language of instruction having less impact on girls learning numeracy than literacy, it may also be due to the inconsistencies in the data for girls' ability to speak the language of instruction. When examined according to province, with particular attention to those provinces in which proportions of girls were reported to not speak the language of instruction (Bamyan, Faryab, Kabul and Kandahar), there were negligible differences in EGMA scores between first grade girls who could speak the language of instruction well, a little or not at all.

Table 18: Mean EGMA scores for all cohort girls (disaggregated by girls' ability to speak language of instruction)

| | EGMA 1 - Number identification fluency - Correct numbers per minute | EGMA 2 - Quantity discrimination - Number of correct responses | EGMA 3 - Missing number identification - Number of correct responses | EGMA 4 - Addition fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 5 - Subtraction fluency - Correct answers per minute | EGMA 6 - Written exercise - Correct answers per minute |
|-----------------------------|---|---|--|---|--|---|
| Zero Scores Included | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|-------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Speaks language of instruction well | 13.05 | 4.61 | 3.38 | 4.67 | 3.67 | .99 |
| Speaks language of instruction a little | 11.80 | 3.83 | 2.95 | 3.39 | 2.45 | .39 |
| Cannot speak language of instruction | 4.20 | 1.42 | 1.17 | 1.14 | .83 | .15 |
| Zero Scores Excluded | | | | | | |
| Speaks language of instruction well | 14.80 | 5.64 | 4.98 | 8.21 | 7.38 | 3.52 |
| Speaks language of instruction a little | 13.19 | 5.10 | 4.90 | 7.06 | 6.18 | 1.68 |
| Cannot speak language of instruction | 14.67 | 5.40 | 5.00 | 5.42 | 4.58 | 2.00 |

Combined mean scores for EGRA and EGMA

EGRA and EGMA scores were combined to produce mean overall values, reported as percentages of correct responses out of total possible responses, with all subtasks weighted equally. These values are calculated with inclusion of zero scores to avoid inflating scores given that large proportions of non-enrolled girls and first grade girls obtained zero scores for both EGRA and EGMA tests. This section is descriptive, in order to compare overall EGRA and EGMA scores; however, as noted previously, learning outcome targets according to GEC guidance are listed in section 4.7.

It is evident that overall, girls perform better at EGMA subtasks than EGRA subtasks (see Table 19), which is consistent with the literature on literacy and numeracy testing in Afghanistan. When disaggregated by grade of enrolment, overall values for literacy and numeracy increase over school grades. While large gaps between literacy and numeracy values continue until third grade, from fourth grade onwards values for literacy increase in larger proportions than figures for numeracy with girls performing better in literacy testing than numeracy testing, with a spike in numeracy values in second year of senior secondary school and a drop in third year of senior secondary (see Table 20).¹⁵ When EGRA and EGMA values for first grade girls were disaggregated by community sampling type, girls in CBE late starting communities had higher values for both EGRA and EGMA than girls in CBE early starting communities (see Table 21); however, this was only statistically significant for EGRA scores ($t(304) = -4.705, p = .001$).¹⁶ While first grade Pashto-tested girls scored more highly than Dari-tested girls in EGRA baseline values, the reverse was true for EGMA baseline values (see Table 22), although differences between Pashto- and Dari-tested girls were not statistically significant for either EGRA or EGMA baseline values.

Table 19: Overall values for EGRA and EGMA scores

| | |
|--|--|
| EGRA average baseline scores (percentage) | EGMA average baseline scores (percentage) |
|--|--|

¹⁵ It should be noted that figures for senior secondary school should be read with caution as only two cohort girls are enrolled in second year of senior secondary school and one girl is enrolled in third year of senior secondary school.

¹⁶ Scores for girls in government intervention communities have been excluded and will be included in the final report once all government intervention communities have been sampled.

| | |
|--------|--------|
| 23.79% | 26.43% |
|--------|--------|

Table 20: Overall values for EGRA and EGMA scores disaggregated by grade of enrolment

| | EGRA average baseline scores (percentage) | EGMA average baseline scores (percentage) |
|--------------------|--|--|
| Not enrolled | 5.14% | 5.81% |
| Primary 1 | 8.48% | 17.44% |
| Primary 2 | 23.78% | 30.23% |
| Primary 3 | 39.75% | 44.10% |
| Primary 4 | 44.77% | 41.24% |
| Primary 5 | 50.49% | 47.44% |
| Primary 6 | 58.97% | 52.28% |
| Junior Secondary 1 | 68.90% | 59.36% |
| Junior Secondary 2 | 78.59% | 65.52% |
| Junior Secondary 3 | 80.03% | 69.58% |
| Senior Secondary 1 | 86.03% | 79.83% |
| Senior Secondary 2 | 95.00% | 100.17% |
| Senior Secondary 3 | 104.25% | 77.36% |

Table 21: Overall values for EGRA and EGMA scores for first grade girls disaggregated by community sampling type

| | EGRA average baseline scores (percentage) | EGMA average baseline scores (percentage) |
|-----------|--|--|
| CBE Early | 7.05% | 16.44% |
| CBE Late | 12.54% | 20.10% |

Table 22: Overall values for EGRA and EGMA scores for first grade girls disaggregated by language of interview

| | EGRA average baseline scores (percentage) | EGMA average baseline scores (percentage) |
|--------|--|--|
| Dari | 8.09% | 17.51% |
| Pashto | 10.86% | 16.96% |

4.5. BARRIERS TO AND ENABLERS OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND RETENTION, AND LEARNING OUTCOMES

The household questionnaire reveals a number of barriers to and enablers of school attendance and retention, and learning outcomes, most of which are in line with the STAGES project theory of change. These are listed below:

The literature suggests that poverty and low socio-economic status is an important reason for not sending children to school in Afghanistan, either due to costs involved in school attendance or the necessity to have children working and contributing economically to the household. The results of the baseline survey show some differing results in relation to these issues. Significantly more household members of out-of-school girls claimed to have had money coming in from any source when compared with in-school girl households. This is consistent with the finding that significantly more out-of-school girl households than in-school girl households claimed to have employed male heads of households. Furthermore, when difficulty affording sending cohort girls to school was cross tabulated with a series of questions related to household economic situation, there was no relationship between difficulty affording to send girls to school and ability or inability to meet basic needs. It appears from the data that lower household income, perceptions of being unable to meet basic needs and household male unemployment are not necessarily predictors of marginalised girls' lack of school enrolment in this sample; although it is difficult to make conclusions about monthly household income given that only half of households provided this data.

Although there does not appear to be a relationship between low household income and girls' lack of school enrolment, there does appear to be a relationship between cohort girls' daily household and work-related activities and lack of school enrolment. A higher proportion of in-school girls were reported to do one or more types of activities (housework, caring, growing crops or working) than out-of-school girls; however, the latter were reported to spend more time doing these activities per day than the former, with, for instance, 31.5% of out-of-school girls and 4% in-school girls reportedly spending the whole day doing such activities. More female carers from out-of-school girl households than in-school girl households claimed that girls' everyday activities stopped them from going to school all the time (21.2% and 0% respectively) or sometimes (28.1% and 11.8% respectively), and the majority of female carers from in-school girl households (86.8%) reported girls' daily activities not impacting on school attendance compared with 41.1% of female carers from out-of-school girl households. Furthermore, many more in-school girls (89.3%) were reported to not be earning or contributing money to the household compared with 57.1% of out-of-school girls, with 28.6% of the latter reported to be making a fairly important economic contribution to the household.

These results suggest that although low household income is not necessarily a barrier to girls' school enrolment and retention, girls' economic contribution to the household and particularly their time spent conducting household and work-related activities is a barrier to their participation in education. Yet it is difficult to disentangle household income from children's economic contribution to the household. For instance, it is possible that household income is higher in out-of-school girl households precisely because children (both boys and girls) are making important economic contributions.

The educational attainment of male heads of households appears to have some effect on girls' school enrolment. For those men who had completed at least one grade of school, men from in-school cohort girl households had completed a higher number of mean school grades than men from out-of-school girls' households. Furthermore, a higher proportion of men in in-school cohort girl households completed higher education when compared with men in out-of-school girl

households. Data for female carer educational attainment was not analysed by girl school enrolment as the large majority of female carers had never completed any grades of school.

One assumption of the project's theory of change is that cultural traditions that restrict girls' and women's mobility and participation in public life are a strong factor in households refusing to send girls to school, particularly when they are older. There is some support for this assumption in the baseline data. For male heads of households, female carers and cohort girls, there were significant differences between in-school cohort girl households and out-of-school cohort girl households in relation to support for girls' and women's education, access to employment and other activities (such as dispute resolution and community or school shuras). Furthermore, significantly higher proportions of in-school girl carers than out-of-school carers stated that girls learn the same or more as boys when they attend school. These data suggest that more traditional conceptions of girls' and women's roles and abilities may be impacting on girls' access to school.

The baseline results indicate that among both adult male and female respondents there is limited support for women's participation in shuras. Given the theory of change's assumption that sustainable change in girls' education outcomes is reliant on active community engagement through community ownership of the project and management of decision-making bodies such as school shuras, and given that women should participate in these mechanisms, the finding that fewer community members support women's shura participation could pose a barrier for girls' school enrolment and retention.

Although disabilities can impact on children's access to education, and their enrolment and retention, there appear to be few overall household children with disabilities in the baseline sample, although this may be due to cultural sensitivities associated with disabilities rather than actual low rates of disabilities. Although a slightly higher number of cohort girls were reported to have 'difficulties' doing certain activities, such as remembering or concentrating, self-care or communicating, the project cannot assume that difficulties are the same as disabilities. Indeed, most cohort girls who were listed as having such difficulties were 5 or 6 years old suggesting that these difficulties may be a result of younger developmental stage rather than disability. Although a small number of female carers claimed to have a disability, more carers of in-school girls (6.1%) than out-of-school girls (3.9%) claimed having a disability, suggesting that carer's disability is not necessarily a deterrent to girls' school enrolment.

Based on the literature that suggests that geographic proximity of children (particularly girls) to schools will improve school enrolment and attendance, the project theory of change assumes that establishing community-based education close to girls' homes will improve enrolment and attendance. The results of the baseline indicate that that in-school girl households report significantly less travel time to reach girls' primary schools and secondary schools when compared with carers of out-of-school girls, suggesting that the theory of change assumption is supported. Furthermore, significantly more carers of out-of-school girls claimed that the journey to girls' schools was dangerous when compared with carers of in-school girls, perhaps indicating that perceptions of insecurity may impact negatively on girls' school enrolment (although causality cannot be established).

In relation to targeting households with radio and mobile messaging about health and education, only a third of female carers wanted to receive mobile text messaging although there were high refusal rates due to no mobile phone ownership. However, significantly more out-of-school girl households reported having access to a TV, radio or both, and to a mobile phone, suggesting that radio, TV and mobile phones are good sources of education and health messaging to reach out-of-school girl households. Furthermore given that almost two thirds of sampled households had at least one mobile phone (even if mostly owned by male household members), mobile messaging could still be an effective means of reaching female carers given that recent research suggests that 80% of Afghan women have some form of access to mobile phones (USAID 2013).

Perceptions of lack of community support may impact negatively on girls' school enrolment given that significantly more carers of out-of-school girls claimed not to know people who could help them when compared with carers of in-school girls.

In relation to general community support for girls to go to school, a much higher proportion of out-of-school girl carers (49.3%) than in-school girl carers (18.3%) perceived insufficient support for girls' education. Furthermore, the data suggests that those girls enrolled in school are receiving more support than non-enrolled girls. For instance, all girls who received a bursary or scholarship were currently enrolled in school and the large majority of those who received support in the form of school books, special classes or study groups, special tutoring and other forms of support were currently enrolled in school. Consequently, STAGES activities should ensure that educational support activities in intervention communities (e.g. building of libraries) are not restricted only to enrolled girls.

The household survey allows for questioning of female carers on the reasons for cohort girls' non-enrolment, and open-ended responses are in line with the results reported in this section and the broader literature on girls' education in Afghanistan. The most common responses for girls never having gone to school or dropping out of school were violence/bullying/harassment, girls living too far away from the school and girls having obligations to conduct household work.

Finally, a key project assumption is that positive learning outcomes are dependent on a number of factors including quality teaching and the provision of welcoming and safe environments. Both factors are difficult to ascertain in phase 1 of the baseline as the school survey (including observational measures of welcoming and safe environments, and teaching quality) was not administered, and will be administered in government intervention schools in phase 2 of the baseline. Nevertheless, it is possible to examine current learning outcomes by analysing EGRA and EGMA scores according to a number of variables associated with girls' perceptions of their learning environment. In particular, EGRA and EGMA scores are lower for first grade girls who attend mixed-gender classes than those who attend girl-only classes and, for those girls in mixed classes, scores are lower for those who claim that boys at school create difficulties for girls when compared with girls who perceive no difficulties from boys. Consequently, perceived difficulties caused by boys may be a barrier to girls' learning outcomes.

4.6. OUTPUT INDICATORS

The following section outlines baseline indicator values for key project outputs drawing from the household survey. Note that not all output indicator values can be defined from the household survey data and some must be produced from the school survey, which has not yet been conducted in the baseline data collection. Some output indicators are assumed to be zero given that corresponding data will be collected quarterly rather than at baseline.

Description of the baseline position for each output indicator in the log-frame

Output 1: Increased participation of marginalized children, particularly girls, in quality education

| | | | | |
|--|--|--|--|-----|
| Output indicator 1.1 | Number of new students (sex disaggregated) enrolling in ECD, Grade 1 and Grade 7, in CBE and ALP classes | | | |
| Baseline values for this indicator must be assumed as zero at baseline and will be produced directly through the quarterly collection of data. | | | | |
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|--|--|--|--|--|
| Output indicator 1.2 | Number and percentage of children (sex disaggregated) transitioning from grade to grade in primary and lower secondary | | | |
| Baseline values cannot be produced for children's transitioning between grades in CBE schools and are assumed to be zero. Data for transitioning in government schools can be obtained for government intervention schools and will be collected in phase two of the baseline data collection. | | | | |

| | | | | |
|---|--|-------|-------|--|
| Output indicator 1.3 | Percentage of children (sex disaggregated) as a proportion of the serviced population NOT enrolling in schools (both formal and CBE) | | | |
| Baseline values are listed for total household boys and girls in CBE communities and one government intervention community. Values are the percentage of household girls and boys not currently enrolled. | | | | |
| Baseline values | Total | Girls | 35.3% | |
| | | Boys | 11.4% | |
| Data source | Questions B34 and B46 in the household survey were used to record school enrolment and non-enrolment for total household boys and girls. | | | |
| Data reliability and limitations | The main limitation of the data is the inability to derive percentages of girls and boys currently attending informal or formal <i>madrassa</i> education as there are no questions in the household survey to ascertain this kind of education. Consequently, a proportion of children listed as not enrolled may in fact be attending <i>madrassa</i> classes and, similarly, a proportion of children listed as enrolled may also be attending <i>madrassa</i> instead of government or CBE classes. Anecdotal data derived from enumerator debriefing suggests that some children who were reported to not be attending school were in fact participating in <i>madrassa</i> . | | | |

| | |
|--|---|
| Output indicator 1.4 | Number of children (sex disaggregated) dropping out of ECD, primary and lower secondary (both formal and CBE) |
| Baseline values cannot be produced for children dropping out of ECD, primary and lower secondary school and are assumed to be zero. Data for school dropout in future may be obtained through three key sources: (1) EMIS data collected at the end of each school year, (2) comparing baseline, midline and endline household data on enrolment for total household children and (3) comparing midline and endline school survey data for CBE schools, and baseline, midline and endline school survey data for government schools. | |

OUTPUT 2: Positive/conducive learning environments established and supported to support quality education

| | |
|--|--|
| Output indicator 2.1 | Number of school, classes and community learning areas physically equipped with adequate education facilities and appropriate learning materials |
| Baseline values for this indicator for CBE classes and schools must be assumed as zero as the baseline school survey is only conducted in government intervention communities. Baseline values will be produced for government intervention classes and schools once phase two of baseline data collection (which includes the school survey) is complete. | |

| | |
|--|--|
| Output indicator 2.2 | Number of schools, classes and community learning areas implementing policies supporting violence free, welcoming, girl-friendly, respectful and safe learning zone for children |
| Baseline values for this indicator for CBE classes, schools and learning areas must be assumed as zero as the baseline school survey is only conducted in government intervention communities. Baseline values will be produced for government intervention classes and schools once phase two of baseline data collection (which includes the school survey) is complete. | |
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| Output indicator 2.3 | Number of schools, classes and community learning areas in which the community has undertaken rehabilitation or enhancement of school buildings or grounds |
|-------------------------|--|

OUTPUT 3: Within communities, increased demand for and engagement in quality education, particularly for girls

All output indicators for output three listed below are assumed to be zero at baseline, and values will be produced through the quarterly collection of data.

| | |
|-------------------------|---|
| Output indicator 3.1 | Number of communities mobilized to support education through ECD, CBE, ALP and formal schools |
|-------------------------|---|

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|-------------------------|---|
| Output indicator 3.2 | Number of active School Shuras established and/or supported for ECD, CBE, ALP and formal schools |
| Output indicator 3.3 | Number of active school student associations established and/or supported in formal schools |
| Output indicator 3.4 | Contribution to support education provided by communities through contributions provided in-kind (monetarised for reporting purposes) |

OUTPUT 4: Teachers supply effective, gender fair and relevant teaching methodologies

| | |
|--|--|
| Output indicator 4.1 | Number of teachers (sex disaggregated) in ECDs, CBEs, ALPs, and formal schools receiving professional support through training, in classroom support and participation in Teacher Learning Circles |
| Baseline values for this indicator must be assumed as zero at baseline and will be produced directly through the quarterly collection of data. | |

| | |
|--|--|
| Output indicator 4.2 | Number of teachers (sex disaggregated) in ECDs, CBEs, ALPs, and formal schools applying effective learner centred and gender-fair teaching methodologies in classroom practice |
| Baseline values for this indicator must be assumed as zero at baseline and will be produced directly through the quarterly collection of data. | |

| | | | | | |
|---|--|--------|--------|---------|-------|
| Output indicator 4.3 | Percentage of children (sex disaggregated) in CBEs, ALPs, and formal schools demonstrating improved learning achievement on learning achievement tests | | | | |
| Baseline values cannot be sex disaggregated as only cohort girls completed EGRA and EGMA testing. Baseline values are reported for all cohort girls (enrolled and not enrolled), and also disaggregated by girls' grade of enrolment. | | | | | |
| Baseline values | All cohort girls | EGRA | 23.79% | | |
| | | EGMA | 26.43% | | |
| Disaggregated by grade of enrolment | Not enrolled | EGRA | 5.14% | EGMA | 5.81% |
| | Primary 1 | 8.48% | | 17.44% | |
| | Primary 2 | 23.78% | | 30.23% | |
| | Primary 3 | 39.75% | | 44.10% | |
| | Primary 4 | 44.77% | | 41.24% | |
| | Primary 5 | 50.49% | | 47.44% | |
| | Primary 6 | 58.97% | | 52.28% | |
| | Junior secondary 1 | 68.90% | | 59.36% | |
| | Junior secondary 2 | 78.59% | | 65.52% | |
| | Junior secondary 3 | 80.03% | | 69.58% | |
| | Senior secondary 1 | 86.03% | | 79.83% | |
| | Senior secondary 2 | 95.00% | | 100.17% | |
| Senior secondary 3 | 104.25% | | 77.36% | | |
| Data source | EGRA and EGMA testing | | | | |

| | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Data reliability and limitations | Although EGRA and EGMA baseline values are assumed to be reliable, there may be some problems at the level of disaggregation for girls' inability to speak the language of instruction. As pointed out previously in the report, there may have been some confusion in questioning about whether girls spoke the language of instruction, weakening the power of the baseline data to reliably measure differences between girls who are being instructed in their own language and those who are not. Although this was not a translation issue, training for phase 2 data collection will ensure that enumerators are aware of these possible respondent confusions and follow up on results that are inconsistent. |
|----------------------------------|---|

OUTPUT 5 - Among adults and communities, increased literacy, health awareness and engagement learning

| | |
|--|---|
| Output indicator 5.1 | Number of adults (sex disaggregated) enrolled in literacy classes |
| Baseline values for this indicator must be assumed as zero at baseline and will be produced directly through the quarterly collection of data. | |

| | |
|--|--|
| Output indicator 5.2 | Number of adults (sex disaggregated) participating in family workshops, reading activities and other community based activities supporting education |
| Baseline values for this indicator must be assumed as zero at baseline and will be produced directly through the quarterly collection of data. | |
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| Output indicator 5.3 | Number of adults (sex disaggregated) benefiting from improved knowledge and attitudes about health and hygiene messaging |
| <p>The baseline value is obtained from a number of variables measured in the household survey (KAP survey on health and hygiene), including on issues related to knowledge about treatment for and prevention of children's diarrhoea, vaccination practices and breastfeeding practices. Male heads of households and female carers were asked the same questions for purposes of comparison, and baseline values are indicated for both men and women.</p> <p>Baseline values were obtained by recoding included variables (see data source below) with a 1 given for 'correct' responses and a zero given for 'incorrect' responses. All eight recoded variables were aggregated (with equal weighting assigned to each variable) and a mean obtained for each respondent, with an average percentage obtained over the whole sample.</p> <p>For a question on the ingredients for ORS, a response of sugar, salt and water was given a value of 1, and all other responses were given a value of 0 (reported ingredients of ORS varied enormously, including a range of Afghan local foods). For questions on breastfeeding (when should mothers start breastfeeding their children, and for how long should they breastfeed), responses were coded as correct based on the Ministry of Health's messaging. For instance, any response indicating the need to start breastfeeding babies on the first day of birth (responses included first day, after birth, two hours after birth etc) were coded as correct, and any</p> | |

| | | |
|---|--|--------|
| <p>responses indicating starting to breastfeed on the second day of birth or later were coded as incorrect. For length of time that babies should be breastfed, two years or more was coded as correct and any amount of time less than two years was coded as incorrect.</p> <p>Other questions were nominal variables (e.g. yes/no, agree/disagree) and were more straightforward to code as correct or incorrect (for instance, do you take your children to the doctors, do you think children should be vaccinated, have your children been vaccinated against polio, and agreement or disagreement with the statement “it is important to wash your hands after defecating”).</p> | | |
| Baseline values | Male | 85.25% |
| | Female | 84.26% |
| Data source | Questions B74.2, B74.3, B74.6, B74.9, B74.10, B74.11, B74.12 (male) and D45, D46, D49, D52, D53, D54 and D55 (female) | |
| Data reliability and limitations | There were a number of questions from the health and hygiene KAP survey that were omitted for a number of reasons. For instance, questions were asked about what foods were given to children when they have diarrhoea, with an enormous amount of responses ranging from different kinds of soups, juices and other foods. Coding such responses as correct or incorrect was difficult given that some local foods (such as soups) may be adequate and others not. It should be noted that very few people stated that breast milk should be fed to babies/children when they have diarrhoea. Two agreement questions (mothers shouldn't breastfeed babies the day they are born, mother should only give breast milk to babies younger than one year) were omitted due to inconsistent data and a problem with translation. A question about agreement with the statement “Boiling water does not prevent diarrhoea” was also omitted as it may have caused some confusion by being phrased in the negative. | |

OUTPUT 6: Increased access for women to sustainable employment opportunities and positions of decision making

| | |
|--|---|
| Output indicator 6.1 | Number of women employed as teachers, head teachers and school principals in ECD, CBE, ALP and formal schools |
| Baseline values for this indicator must be assumed as zero at baseline and will be produced directly through the quarterly collection of data. | |

| | |
|--|--|
| Output indicator 6.2 | Number of girls/women training to become teachers at TTCs, participating in the teacher apprenticeship programme or acting as teacher volunteers |
| Baseline values for this indicator must be assumed as zero at baseline and will be produced directly through the quarterly collection of data. | |

| | |
|--|--|
| Output indicator 6.3 | Number of women participating in decision-making within communities at school shuras (ECD, CBE, ALP and formal schools) and CDCs |
| Baseline values for this indicator must be assumed as zero at baseline and will be produced directly through the quarterly collection of data. | |

| | |
|------------------|---|
| Output indicator | Percentage of men who, when surveyed, expressed support about their |
|------------------|---|

| | | |
|--|--|--------|
| 6.4 | female relatives (mothers, sisters, wives, daughters) leaving the home to go to school, course, employment or meetings | |
| <p>The baseline values are obtained from a number of variables measured in the household survey (KAP survey on support for women's participation in education, employment, and other activities), including on overall support for women's participation, and support specifically for different kinds of female relatives' participation.</p> <p>Although the baseline output indicator refers to percentage of men showing support, the baseline values have been presented for male heads of households, female carers and cohort girls aged eight years and above, in order to compare change within these groups over time and also compare change between groups. Note that during pretesting, girls below the age of 10 years (particularly girls aged 5, 6 and 7) gave frequent not known and refused responses to the questions on women's and girls' participation. For this reason it was decided not to ask these questions of girls younger than eight.</p> <p>There were two types of questioning for the KAP survey, based on a five-point likert scale, and nominal (yes/no) responses. For the likert scale questions, strong disagreement was recoded as -2, disagreement as -1, neither agree nor disagree as 0, agreement as 1, and strong agreement as 2. Refused and not known responses were coded as 0 in order to avoid losing entire cases. For nominal questions, yes was coded as 2, no as -2, and not known and refused responses as 0. Data for all included questions were aggregated (all variables weighted equally) and a mean for each case was obtained, and an overall mean for respondents obtained. The baseline value has a possible range of between - 2 and 2, with higher values indicating more support for women's activities and lower values indicating less support.</p> | | |
| Baseline values | Male | 0.4624 |
| | Female | 0.65 |
| | Girl | 0.8538 |
| Data source | Questions B74.17, B74.18, B74.19, B74.22, B74.23, B74.24, B74.25 – B74.28 (male); D60, D61, D62, D65, D66, D77, D68 – D70 (female); and E30a, E30b, E30c, E30f, E30g, E30h, E30i – E30j (girl). | |
| Data reliability and limitations | The data included in the baseline values are considered reliable; however, two questions were omitted from the analysis (agreement that women can assist their families by raising children and women can assist their families through household/domestic activity). These questions were included in the KAP survey to provide some comparison between roles seen as traditional for women (housework and child rearing) and those that tend to be less supported (education and employment). Hence, they are not in fact a measure of respondent support for women's economic, educational and political participation. Furthermore, the results for the question on women assisting with household work revealed some inconsistent results that are fully described earlier in the results section of this report. | |

Output 7: Strengthened relationships and capacity among national, provincial and district level education actors to sustain girls' education

None of the output indicators (listed below) for output 7 can be measured in the baseline.

| | | |
|------------------|-----|---|
| Output indicator | 7.1 | Number of CBE classes handed over to with promised continued support by the MoE by the end of the project (demonstrating buy in by MoE) |
| Output indicator | 7.2 | Effective system established with the MoE and MoF for the payment of CBE teachers |

| | | |
|------------|-----------|--|
| Output 7.3 | indicator | Number of training materials and assessment tools/procedures shared and adopted by MoE in whole or part |
| Output 7.4 | indicator | Number of visits, training courses and meetings with communities and schools made by or in coordination with PED/DED to support the delivery of girls' education |
| Output 7.5 | indicator | Number of policy briefs and research findings submitted and accepted by MoE and policy development forums, symposiums and working groups attended with the MoE |

Analysis of project design and assumptions

Due to incompleteness of the baseline data collection, it is difficult to make conclusions about project assumptions and design objectives. In particular, there are a number of outputs that will rely on the completion of the baseline school survey, which is only conducted in government intervention schools in the baseline. Nevertheless, a number of assumptions and design objectives can be tentatively evaluated, with more detail possible in the final report.

- The project assumes that changes over the lifecycle of STAGES can be attributed to STAGES activities due to marginalised girls in intervention communities not previously having access to education. The baseline data suggests that a large proportion of girls in first grade (70.4%) are attending CBE classes; however, almost a third of first grade girls in CBE communities are reportedly attending government schools. Furthermore, the majority of girls that were reported to be enrolled in grades 2—6 and secondary grades are reported to be attending government schools. This data is supported by respondents' reports of time taken in minutes to reach girls' schools, with time taken to reach non-government schools half of that taken to reach government schools. These results suggest that the project assumptions may only hold for a particular subset of first grade girls, although more cohort girls may begin attending CBE classes rather than government school classes during the lifecycle of the project.
- The assumption noted above should also be questioned based on the potential presence of *madrasa* education in intervention communities. According to enumerators, some household members and girls discussed attendance at *madrasa* and, furthermore, some girls who had never been enrolled but who could complete some items on EGRA and EGMA testing claimed to be attending or to have attended *madrasa* education. Consequently, changes in girls' learning outcomes may not necessarily be attributed to STAGES activities but in some cases may be attributable to *madrasa* education; however, this is currently not possible to analyse due to no direct questioning in the household survey on *madrasa* education. Questions about *madrasa* should thus be added to the household survey. It should be noted that there may be some crossover between STAGES activities and *madrasa* education given that, according to enumerators, many CBE classes are taking place within mosques and are being taught by mullahs.

- Output indicators in many cases refer to the separate measurement of ECD, CBE, ALP and formal (government) classes; however, this will be difficult to do given the current sample and the methods used to collect data. Although there are communities listed as ALP in the sample, all of these are also listed as having at least one other type of school (including government, CBE and ECD), and in some cases all four types (GOV, CBE, ECD and ALP). Consequently, it is not possible to code these communities as having only one type of school/class in order to disaggregate data. This should be checked with project partners before submission of the final report. Furthermore, it is difficult to establish which cohort girls may be participating in ECD classes given that the male household survey does not ask about ECD but only asks for current school grade. Consequently, it is possible that some children classed as not enrolled are in fact participating in ECD classes and it is also possible that some male heads of households listed ECD participating children as enrolled in first grade of primary school. Just over a third of first grade girls are aged five or six years old, so it is possible that they are in fact attending ECD classes instead of grade 1 classes; however, this is difficult to confirm. Although it is possible that parents are making errors in giving the age of their daughters (common in Afghanistan due to low rates of registering births), it is also possible that girls aged younger than seven years (the standard age for first grade enrolment) are attending primary school, particularly in communities where STAGES ECD classes are not listed as a type of intervention school/class.
- Although the school survey has not yet been conducted in government intervention communities, analysis of the outputs suggest that the school survey instrument should be revisited and revised before fielding phase 2 of data collection.
- Although the school survey does include some qualitative tools, there are no qualitative instruments in the baseline used at the level of the household or community. Consequently, the possibility for triangulating survey data with qualitative data (for instance through interviews or focus groups) and gaining a deeper understanding of the household survey results or community dynamics in intervention contexts is not possible at baseline. It is interesting to note that Eureka conducted debriefing sessions with all enumerators after completion of their fieldwork, and the information they gave provided a qualitative contribution to understanding some of the contextual issues that intervention communities are currently facing, which may impact on girls' education and which may ultimately affect overall project impact. For instance, one enumerator team reported local community members' unhappiness about STAGES community-based classes due to a number of reasons, including perceptions of girls' unequal access to classes and also due to a local mullah who was discouraging girls' school attendance, claiming it to be un-Islamic. Clearly enumerator anecdotes are no substitute for targeted and well-designed qualitative research methods; however, such methods are currently absent from the baseline and should be added to future waves of data collection.

4.7. OUTCOME INDICATORS

| | |
|-------------------|---|
| Outcome indicator | Number of marginalized girls who have stayed in school through the life cycle |
|-------------------|---|

| | | | |
|--|--|-----|-----------------------------------|
| 1 | of the project | | |
| The outcome indicator measures number of cohort girls currently enrolled in school (excluding girls enrolled in senior secondary school). As outlined in the previous section on output indicators, the household survey does not measure girls' enrolment in ECD classes; consequently, figures listed here are for cohort girls enrolled in primary (grades 1 to 6) or secondary school (grades 7 to 9). This can be revised in coordination with the PMU by recoding enrolled 5 and 6 year olds as attending ECD rather than grade 1, according to the log-frame assumption, although this may inaccurately code some girls who are in fact in grade 1. | | | |
| Baseline value | Primary 1 | 314 | (29.1% of sample of cohort girls) |
| | Primary 2 | 99 | (9.2% of sample of cohort girls) |
| | Primary 3 | 82 | (7.6% of sample of cohort girls) |
| | Primary 4 | 58 | (5.4% of sample of cohort girls) |
| | Primary 5 | 41 | (3.8% of sample of cohort girls) |
| | Primary 6 | 48 | (4.5% of sample of cohort girls) |
| | Secondary 7 | 33 | (3.1% of sample of cohort girls) |
| | Secondary 8 | 20 | (1.9% of sample of cohort girls) |
| | Secondary 9 | 10 | (0.9% of sample of cohort girls) |
| Data source | C48 in female household questionnaire, and B48 in male household questionnaire | | |
| Attendance data | Attendance data has not been collected in the baseline. Phase 2 of the baseline can collect school registration data from government intervention schools; however, this has not been included in the baseline methodology and may need to be revised. Spot checks can also be used to acquire attendance data and this will be discussed further with the STAGES PMU. | | |

| | | | | |
|---|---|-----------------|---------------------|---|
| Outcome indicator 2 | Number of marginalised girls supported by GEC with improved learning outcomes | | | |
| The outcome indicators measure mean EGRA scores for three subtasks: correct non-words per minute, correct story words read per minute, and correct number of reading comprehension questions answered. Overall mean scores for EGMA, presented as percentages of correct responses, are also included, with scores for individual EGMA subtasks weighted equally. All scores have zeros included and are disaggregated by cohort girls' grade of school enrolment, with scores for non-enrolled girls included. Learning targets have been calculated for cohort girls in grades 1–9 by calculating a .2 standard deviation from the mean score for one grade above (for midline) and two grades above each cohort grade. Note that although girls in 10 th and 11 th grades will not be tracked, scores are included in order to calculate midline and endline learning targets for girls in 8 th and 9 th grade. It should be noted that targets are difficult to set according to 11 th grade scores as only two cohort girls are currently enrolled in 11 th grade. This should be reviewed after phase 2 of data collection. | | | | |
| Baseline values and targets: EGRA – Correct non-words read per minute Disaggregated by grade of enrolment | Grade | Score non-words | Standard deviation | Target scores = 0.2σ above the mean (MT = midline target and ET = endline target) |
| | Not enrolled | 2.55 | 8.334 | --- |
| | Primary 1 | 5.25 | 6.556 | --- |
| | Primary 2 | 12.53 | 8.516 | MT for P1 = + 1.703 |
| | Primary 3 | 20.23 | 11.101 | MT for P2, and ET for P1 = + 2.220 |
| | Primary 4 | 22.68 | 13.429 | MT for P3, and ET for P2 = + 2.686 |
| | Primary 5 | 22.85 | 12.858 | MT for P4, and ET for P3 = + 2.572 |
| | Primary 6 | 28.46 | 12.247 | MT for P5, and ET for P4 = + 2.449 |
| | Secondary 7 | 33.70 | 12.198 | MT for P6, and ET for P5 = + 2.440 |
| | Secondary 8 | 35.55 | 10.195 | MT for S7, and ET for P6 = + 2.039 |
| | Secondary 9 | 37.10 | 9.279 | MT for S8, and ET for S7 = + 1.856 |
| | Secondary 10 | 43.00 | 6.858 | MT for S9, and ET for S8 = + 1.371 |
| Secondary 11* | 48.00 | 2.828 | ET for S9 = + 0.566 | |

| | | | | |
|---|------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|--|
| Baseline values: EGRA – Correct story words read per minute Disaggregated by grade of enrolment | Grade | Score story words | Standard deviation | Target scores = 0.2σ above the mean (MT = midline target and ET = endline target) |
| | Not enrolled | 3.01 | 13.208 | --- |
| | Primary 1 | 4.31 | 7.317 | --- |
| | Primary 2 | 17.52 | 16.152 | MT for P1 = + 3.23 |
| | Primary 3 | 32.04 | 21.829 | MT for P2, and ET for P1 = + 4.366 |
| | Primary 4 | 35.82 | 27.05 | MT for P3, and ET for P2 = + 5.41 |
| | Primary 5 | 42.95 | 30.05 | MT for P4, and ET for P3 = + 6.01 |
| | Primary 6 | 49.98 | 28.533 | MT for P5, and ET for P4 = + 5.707 |
| | Secondary 7 | 59.42 | 29.798 | MT for P6, and ET for P5 = + 5.96 |
| | Secondary 8 | 71.05 | 25.435 | MT for P7, and ET for P6 = + 5.087 |
| | Secondary 9 | 65.50 | 19.392 | MT for P8, and ET for P7 = + 3.878 |
| | Secondary 10 | 76.33 | 22.478 | MT for P9, and ET for P8 = + 4.496 |
| | Secondary 11* | 86.00 | 0 | ET for S9 = + 0 |
| Baseline values: EGRA – Correct reading comprehension questions answered (out of 5) Disaggregated by grade of enrolment | Grade | Score reading comprehension | Standard deviation | Target scores = 0.2σ above the mean (MT = midline target and ET = endline target) |
| | Not enrolled | .15 | .766 | --- |
| | Primary 1 | .12 | .457 | --- |
| | Primary 2 | .87 | 1.075 | MT for P1 = + 0.215 |
| | Primary 3 | 1.78 | 1.207 | MT for P2, and ET for P1 = + 0.241 |
| | Primary 4 | 2.02 | 1.642 | MT for P3, and ET for P2 = + 0.328 |
| | Primary 5 | 2.54 | 1.66 | MT for P4, and ET for P3 = + 0.332 |
| | Primary 6 | 3.04 | 1.57 | MT for P5, and ET for P4 = + 0.314 |
| | Secondary 7 | 3.36 | 1.245 | MT for P6, and ET for P5 = + 0.249 |
| | Secondary 8 | 4.05 | 1.146 | MT for P7, and ET for P6 = + 0.229 |
| | Secondary 9 | 4.4 | .843 | MT for P8, and ET for P7 = + 0.169 |
| | Secondary 10 | 4.56 | .726 | MT for P9, and ET for P8 = + 0.145 |
| | Secondary 11* | 5 | 0 | ET for S9 = + 0 |
| Baseline values and targets: EGMA – Combined mean for all subtasks weighted equally (percentage correct) Disaggregated by grade of enrolment | Grade | EGMA Score | Standard deviation | Target scores = 0.2σ above the mean (MT = midline target and ET = endline target) |
| | Not enrolled | 5.81% | --- | --- |
| | Primary 1 | 17.44% | 14.489 | --- |
| | Primary 2 | 30.23% | 17.498 | MT for P1 = + 3.4996 |
| | Primary 3 | 44.10% | 20.075 | MT for P2, and ET for P1 = + 4.015 |
| | Primary 4 | 41.24% | 16.984 | MT for P3, and ET for P2 = + 3.3968 |
| | Primary 5 | 47.44% | 18.878 | MT for P4, and ET for P3 = + 3.7756 |
| | Primary 6 | 52.28% | 20.002 | MT for P5, and ET for P4 = + 4.0004 |
| | Secondary 7 | 59.36% | 20.780 | MT for P6, and ET for P5 = + 4.156 |
| | Secondary 8 | 65.52% | 22.667 | MT for P7, and ET for P6 = + 4.5334 |
| | Secondary 9 | 69.58% | 17.070 | MT for P8, and ET for P7 = + 3.414 |
| | Secondary 10 | 79.83% | 25.508 | MT for P9, and ET for P8 = + 5.1016 |
| | Secondary | 100.17% | 6.133 | ET for S9 = + 1.2266 |

| | | | | |
|--|-----|--|--|--|
| | 11* | | | |
|--|-----|--|--|--|

* There are only two cohort girls in Secondary grade 11 so reliable learning targets cannot be set.

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| Outcome indicator 3 | Additional funds secure during the life of the project alongside DFID GEC funds to support marginalized girls (cash and in-kind funds already committed to project by partners) |
| This information cannot be captured in the baseline. In-kind contributions from communities is assumed to have a baseline of zero and data on this will be collected quarterly. Other funding is recorded in the project budget | |

| | |
|---|---|
| Outcome indicator 4 | Project has established mechanisms to enable marginalized girls to complete a full cycle of education |
| The Project will track the number of communities mobilised to support girls' education (drawing from output indicator 3.1) and the Ministry of Education's commitment to supporting CBE classes established by the Project (drawing from output indicator 7.1). Taken together, these two measurements will indicate the opportunities for girls to complete primary schools. | |
| Baseline value | 0% |

5. CONCLUSION

This preliminary report outlines the results of data collected in the first phase of the baseline evaluation and will be finalised after the second phase of data collection is complete. Hence, these results should be interpreted as partial and incomplete.

There are a number of context-level findings that help to define the baseline for STAGES and inform programming. Some key ones are listed below.

- There are some limitations in household access to radio and mobile phone technologies; however, significantly more out-of-school girl households than in-school girl households have access to these technologies. This suggests that radio and phone messaging related to health and education is a good source to reach out-of-school girl households. However, project activities should not dismiss in-school girl households and should encourage other forms of outreach to households with more limited access to technologies. Furthermore, far many fewer women than men claimed to have access to mobile phones or consume radio shows such as New Home, New Life. Consequently, other means should be used to reach women, although women may have access to the mobile phones of male household members so reaching women through male household members' mobile phones should not be discounted.
- Although large proportions of households did not provide data on monthly income, the available data (including monthly income and other measures of household economic context) suggests that low income is not necessarily a barrier to school enrolment if school-related costs remain low or non-existent. Furthermore, although some participation in

household and economic activities (including housework, caring, growing crops and work outside the household) does not necessarily limit girls' school enrolment, large amounts of time spent daily on these activities appear to be a greater barrier to school enrolment and retention.

- Male and female adults in households with in-school cohort girls display better health and hygiene practices than out-of-school girl households, and report higher rates of vaccination of children and less respiratory illness among household children.
- Male and female adults in households with in-school cohort girls display more positive attitudes than out-of-school girl household members towards girls' and women's education, employment and other activities such as participation in community shuras, school shuras and dispute resolution. In-school girl household members also report more equal decision-making about education between men and women in the household.
- Among both adult male and female respondents there is limited support for women's participation in shuras. Consequently, given a key project output being women's greater participation in school shuras and other community school-based activities, programming should attempt to influence popular cultural beliefs that women should not have a role in such community activities.
- Significantly more carers of out-of-school girls than in-school girls claimed that the journey to girls' schools was dangerous, highlighting the potential role that safe access to schools may play in girls' enrolment and retention.

The findings largely support the project's theory of change, particularly its assumptions that key barriers to girls' enrolment and retention include traditional cultural values about women's roles, lack of support from families and communities to pursue education and lack of safe and violence-free environments. The baseline results also indicate some evidence for the assumption that girls will enrol and remain in school if schools are easily accessible and located nearby, evident through primary carers' reports that girls not enrolled in school live too far from accessible schools. Furthermore, female carers from in-school girl households reported significantly less travel time to reach girls primary and secondary schools when compared with female carers of out-of-school girls. The data also suggests that proportions of enrolled cohort girls are travelling long distances to attend government schools, suggesting that some families may value girls' education enough to send girls to schools that are further away. Nevertheless, there is a large spike in first grade girls' enrolment in (presumed) CBE classes, suggesting that provision of CBE services is leading to girls' uptake of first grade primary school.

Initial baseline findings indicate that at least some of the children in target communities are attending government schools, although in some cases parents appeared to be uncertain about whether children were attending a STAGES class or a government school. Furthermore, the household survey is not sensitive to girls' participation in *madrassa* education, which may partially contribute to changes within intervention communities. Because this is key information in identifying the impact of STAGES activities, it is recommended that the questionnaire be adapted to more effectively identify which children are attending classes and which type of classes they are attending. This might include adding questioning about *madrassa* education to the household survey, and triangulating data to identify which schools cohort girls are attending. Although this

second method can be partially conducted by examining the names of cohort girls' schools (provided by female carers in the household survey), in the absence of names of actual intervention schools, verification is difficult. Hence, names of intervention schools should be obtained from project partners and enrolment lists may be consulted. If non-intervention schools and *madrassa* classes can be identified in future waves of data collection, it is possible to compare cohort girls enrolled in STAGES intervention classes with those attending other types of schools, creating control groups to test the intervention group against.

Although output indicators refer to the measurement of ECD, CBE, ALP and formal classes, the baseline data is not able to reliably disaggregate data according to these four types of classes/schools due to lack of ALP sampled communities, and lack of a reliable measure of girls' enrolment in ECD classes except for age.

After the first phase of data collection, a number of methodological challenges were identified and these should be addressed in the second phase of baseline data collection and/or in subsequent midline and endline testing. These include the following.

- The school survey instrument should be revised in accordance with gaps found in the output indicators, including the addition of some additional questioning to better capture data on active shuras and school student associations, and women's participation in school shuras.
- Translation and skipping errors identified in the first phase of baseline data collection must be corrected.
- An oversampling of CBE early communities in the first phase of data collection should be addressed in the second phase by purposefully sampling late starting communities in the second year of STAGES implementation.
- The community sampling from the first phase of the baseline should be analysed to identify those provinces where winter and security challenges impeded representative sampling, and clusters within these regions should be purposefully sampled to increase province-level representative data.
- The household survey, which is divided into male head of household, female carer and cohort girl sections, should be revised in order to collect more complete and accurate data that is currently missing or limited. This includes questioning about household income and contact information that should be transferred to the male head of household survey.
- At phase 2 of baseline, fieldwork procedures need to be established to mitigate some of the challenges specific to the Afghan context that can interfere with data collection and sampling techniques. These challenges include local ethnic and tribal conflicts and gate keeping from local traditional leaders, both which can interfere with random sampling.
- At midline and endline phases, fieldwork procedures must be implemented to increase the accuracy of cohort girl tracking and identification, giving the 'sharing' of household girls and differing names given to the same cohort girl by different household members.

