Project Evaluation Report

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Country	Ethiopia
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Notes:

Some annexes listed in the contents page of this document have not been included because of challenges with capturing them as an A4 PDF document or because they are documents intended for programme purposes only. If you would like access to any of these annexes, please enquire about their availability by emailing uk_girls_education_challenge@pwc.com.

Biruh Tesfa for All (BTA) Ethiopia:

A Project of Girls Education Challenge (GEC) Leave No Girl Behind (LNGB)

External baseline evaluation report

September 2021

Addis Ababa

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ACRONYMS

ABE	Adult Basic Education
ALP	Accelerated Learning Plan
BTA	Biruh Tesfa for All
CFM	Child Functioning Module
EGMA	Early Grade Mathematics Assessment
EGRA	Early Grade Reading Assessment
FCDO	The Foreign, Commonwealth and Development Office of the United Kingdom
GEC	Girls' Education Challenge
GwD	Girls with Disabilities
HI	Humanity & Inclusion
IDI	In-depth Interview
KII	Key Informant Interview
LNGB	Leave No Girl Behind
MoE	Ministry of Education
OOS	Out of School
PI	Plan International
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
REB	Regional Education Bureau
SD	Standard Deviation
SNNPR	Southern Nations Nationality Peoples' Region
ToC	Theory of Change
WCYA	Women, Children and Youth Affairs
WEO	Woreda Education Office
WGQ	Washington Group Question

GLOSSARY OF TERMS

ABE	A program developed for out-of-school children by the Ministry of Education of Ethiopia.
ALP	An educational program that advances to Grade 4 faster than normal primary school.
Cohort study	A cohort study takes place over multiple phases with the same participants sampled for each phase through tracking and recontacting.
Difficulty	An area that some individuals find more challenging to navigate than most – for example in areas of speech, communication, or concentration. Not all difficulties are disabilities, but all disabilities have elements of difficulties within them.
Disability	A condition that makes individuals more likely to experience difficulties in some areas.
Domestic worker	A person employed in a household to perform different activities to serve one or more members of the household at home.
Employer	The adult responsible for an employed child – in some cases, such an adult could also be responsible for the entire household and be the Head of Household.
Female-headed household	A household under the responsibility of a woman who lives with the household all or some of the time.
Head of household	An adult that lives with the household all or some of the time, is considered primarily responsible and has a close connection with other members of the household.
Household	A house in which occupants are considered as one unit. It usually consists of one or several persons living under the same roof.
Male-headed household	A household under the responsibility of a man who lives with the household all or some of the time.
Paid worker	An employee that works and receives money in return.
Primary Caregiver	The adult responsible for caring for a child. In some cases, this adult may also be responsible for the entire household – and also be the head of household.
Rural-urban migrants	People who moved from rural areas to live in cities.
Unemployed	Out of work or with no job; those with a job that are not paid are classified as 'employed'. Employment status has been ascertained through self-identification.
Unpaid worker	An employee that does payable work without receiving any money in return.

1   EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Through the Girls' Education Challenge/Leave No Girl Behind (GEC-LNGB) fund, the United Kingdom Foreign Commonwealth and Development Office (FCDO) has financed Biruh Tesfa for All (BTA) in Ethiopia for most marginalized, out-of-school (OOS) girls. This project, taking place from 2019-2022, is implemented by Population Council (PC), Humanity & Inclusion (HI) and Plan International (PI) in collaboration with Regional Education Bureaus (REBs). It aims to provide safe spaces and positive transitions into formal education and/or safer employment among urban girls, including recent migrants, child domestic workers, and girls with disabilities (GwDs) in four cities. Girls receive support, mentorship, and training on literacy, numeracy, financial management and entrepreneurship. Improving attitudes at institutional and community levels will promote sustainability and drive impact beyond the project lifespan.

This baseline evaluation collected and analyzed primary data to provide a benchmark from which to assess BTA over time. Surveys and learning assessments were administered to a cohort of 824 girls aged 10-19 years across the four project intervention cities. Their heads of households and primary caregivers (PCGs)/ employers were also surveyed. In-depth interviews (IDIs) were held with 36 girls and their PCGs/ employers. Representatives from schools and project centers were interviewed across 26 sites, as well as 14 from Woreda Education Offices (WEOs) and Women, Children and Youth Affairs (WCYA) Offices.

The charts below show the average ages and characteristics of girls in the four project intervention cities.
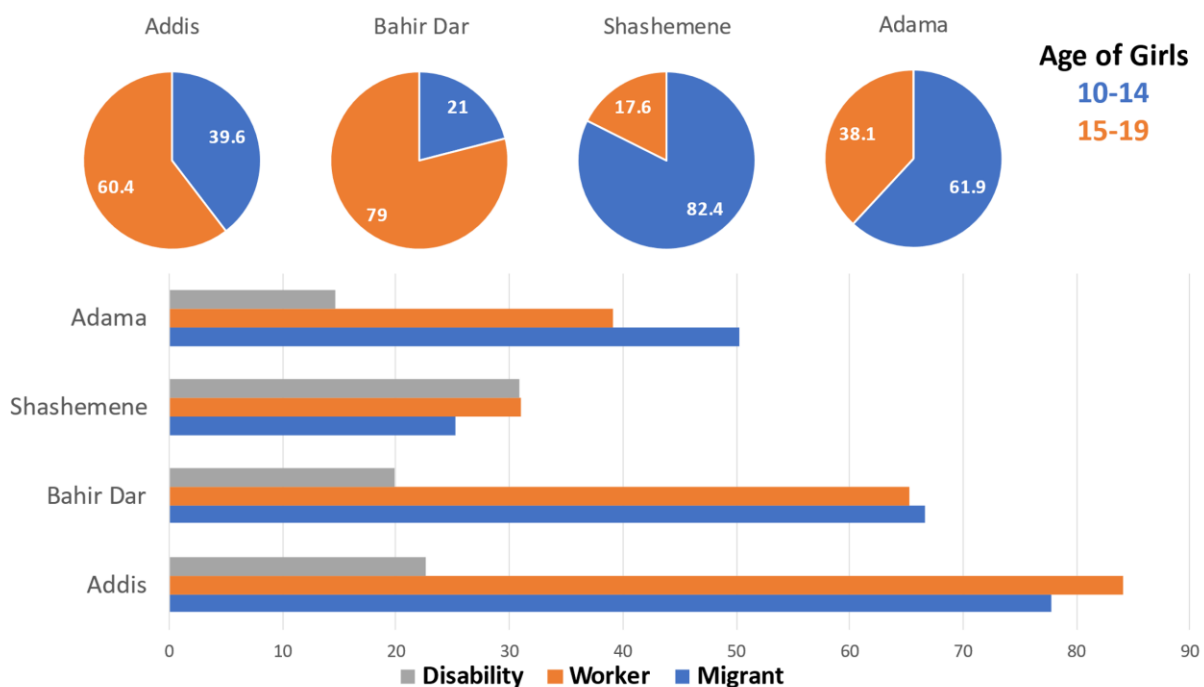
Surveyed girls from Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar, the larger cities, tended to share common characteristics and educational barriers, while those in Shashemene and Adama were also similar to one another in terms of barriers to education girls had previously experienced.

Across cities, financial difficulty was the predominant reason girls were OOS. Other common reasons girls had previously dropped out were language barriers, absence of water and sanitation facilities, and safety-related issues – which were particularly prevalent among girls in Shashemene and Adama, where most girls

were more likely to report facing transport issues or have nobody to accompany them. A lack of Kebele ID cards and school certificates from previous institutions was described as a key factor in migrant girls being OOS, as they cannot enroll or re-enroll without the necessary documentation.

Reasons Girls are Out Of School
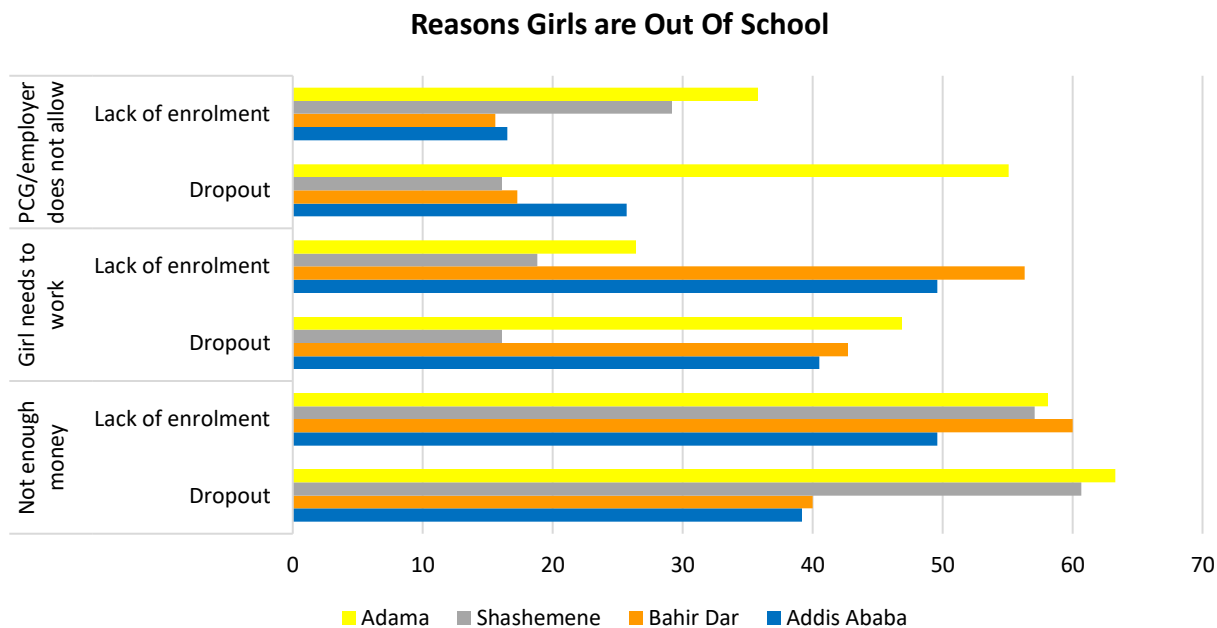
Although 55% of girls are migrants, mostly having moved to work and/or pursue education, those that migrated to work are largely trapped in poverty: 66% of employed girls are unpaid, while 65% of those that are paid receive insufficient income. Almost all surveyed households are low-income with 95% of PCGs/employers unable to meet basic needs or only just able to afford essentials. The invisibility and vulnerability of marginalized groups, especially rural-urban migrants, is acute, and is demonstrated and sustained by community attitudes. It was widely agreed that rural-urban migrants and domestic workers are at higher risk of sexual and verbal harassment.

Overall, sampled girls' average numeracy scores from the Early Grade Mathematical Assessment (EGMA) were relatively similar across all cities, ranging from 54.5 in Shashemene to 58.6 in Bahir Dar. Wider variation was seen on literacy tests in the Early Grade Reading Assessments (EGRA) scores, from 34.4 in Shashemene to 56.0 in Bahir Dar. Generally, the test results indicate that most girls are more familiar with numbers than letters. Girls that had been to school and had not been to school performed relatively similarly in Shashemene but a much wider level of variation was seen in other cities. Domestic workers scored lower than non-domestic workers on both literacy and numeracy scores in all cities except Shashemene. While not much difference was seen between the scores of girls with disabilities and without, overall, girls with seeing, hearing and concentrating difficulties performed lower in their literacy tests and those with learning difficulties scored better. Regarding numeracy scores, those with hearing and concentrating difficulty performed worse than girls with other disabilities**.**

The recommendations for the BTA project and conclusions of this study largely center on the status of domestic workers and GwDs as not visible to society, as many of these girls lack access to opportunities because they are not able or allowed to go out in public to the same degree as other children. Because of this invisibility, it is important to recruit and reach out to target project participants in innovative but locally-

appropriate ways – such as inviting them to special coffee ceremonies or by providing small incentives to PCGs/employers that attend community meetings with their domestic worker girls or resident GwDs. Taking special efforts to reach out to rural-urban migrants and include them in formal structures is particularly important, given that study participants agreed this group is particularly marginalized – for example through a lack of ID cards, which excludes them from key services and opportunities.

It is essential to change minds and attitudes of communities regarding the rights of all children to pursue education. Eighty-five percent of PCGs/employers surveyed shower positive attitudes towards education of GwDs and domestic workers and qualitative techniques revealed that the vast majority believe it is important for such girls to go to school; however, their own girls are not enrolled. Sensitizing whole communities on the rights of girls to attend school should be a focus of this project, as without the buy-in of PCGs and employers it is unlikely that girls will be able to stay enrolled. Furthermore, strengthening the enabling environment for girls' education is deemed to be a vital component of improving the enrollment and attendance of vulnerable girls in formal education structures. Although supporting the institutional environment is not part of the BTA project's activities, the positive transition of girls is one of the project's intended outcomes. As such, it is recommended that the legal structures that hold people to account when girls' rights are violated are strengthened and that communities are aware of the legal framework that underpins child rights. This must be done through engaging, appropriate means that communities will take seriously and in a non-threatening manner – for example by liaising with religious institutions.

2 BACKGROUND OF THE PROJECT

2.1 PROJECT CONTEXT AND TARGET BENEFICIARY GROUPS

The majority of rural-urban migrants in Ethiopia are adolescent girls and young women. Migrating during adolescence and frequently escaping early forced marriage or poverty, girls arrive in low-income urban areas, armed with little in the way of education or preparation for city life. Most enter employment through domestic work, a form of modern-day slavery. These girls share characteristics with girls with disabilities; they are isolated, confined to the home and out of the public eye. Both categories of girls have negligible prospects for an education or safe and positive livelihoods.

The Population Council (PC) and partners, Handicap International and Plan, are implementing an initiative, Biruh Tesfa for All (BTA), in Ethiopia that provides these girls new skills and opportunities to help them re-enter school, improve their literary and numeracy, and prepare for future employment. Biruh Tesfa for All has reached 8,475 girls in modern slavery and with disabilities in four Ethiopian cities. Eligibility criteria for participation include being female, aged 10-19 and out-of-school, and for some, having a disability. Through household-level recruitment, BTA mobilized the most marginalised and destitute girls including those in child domestic work and with disabilities. One cohort of beneficiary girls was mobilized once, at the beginning of the project.

Once safe spaces groups were formed, a combination of mentors and parttime teachers provide literacy/numeracy, using the government curriculum for alternative basic education (ABE), life skills, financial literacy and entrepreneurship skills training. Guidance and counselling plans devised between

mentors/teachers and beneficiaries set out goals for each girl. Some girls who are able will transition to the formal schooling system after completion of the program will receive ABE certification and assistance with school registration and support with school supplies and uniforms. Girls whose circumstances do not allow them to enter school will be supported to transition to continued ABE or safer forms of paid employment, including self-employment. Improvements in girls' educational and livelihoods status are reinforced by strengthened community-based child protection systems and community conversations that change social norms and attitudes about girls' education and employment and about girls with disabilities.

Table 1: Summary of direct beneficiaries

Direct beneficiary numbers	Total figures
Total number of girls reached in cohort 1	8,475
Total number of girls reached by end of project	8,475
Education level	**Percent of direct beneficiaries (%)**
Never been to school	41%
Been to school but dropped out.	59%
Age category	**Percent of direct beneficiaries (%)**
10 to 14	55%
15 to 19	45%

Table 2: Intervention Pathways

Inter-vention pathway	Which girls follow this pathway?	No. of girls	No. of months	No. of cohorts	What are L&N levels at entry?	What is success in learning?	What is success for transition?
ABE /ALP and Life Skills	Girls below 15 and below first cycle level of education	4634	17-18 months	One	Grade 0-4 ABE Literacy and Numeracy	Literacy and Numeracy Competencies for first cycle of basic education. Life skill competencies	Receive Certification for completion equivalent with first cycle basic education Girls enroll back into formal school Girls continue ABE/ALP Girls transition to safer forms of work
ABE /ALP and Life Skills, Financial Literacy, Entrepreneurship training	Older girls with low literacy and numeracy skills and' aspiration to pursue other livelihood opportunities as well as continuation of education	2212	17-18	One	Grade 0-4 ABE Literacy and Numeracy	Literacy and Numeracy Competencies for first cycle of basic education. Life skill competencies Basic financial literacy skills	Receive Certification for completion equivalent with first cycle basic education Girls ABE/ALP at night schools Girls transition to safer forms of work
ABE/ALP and Life Skills, Financial Literacy, Entrepreneurship training	Older girls with few years basic education, aspiration to pursue other livelihood opportunities and limited support to continue formal education	1604	17-18	One	Grade 0-4 years basic education	Competencies for first cycle of basic education. Life skill competencies Basic financial literacy skills	Receive Certification for completion equivalent with first cycle basic education Girls transition to safer forms of work

Table 3: Indirect beneficiary groups

Group	Interventions received	Number reached
Community based mentors	· 13 weeks training in teaching and learning (including remote training) · Three sessions continuous professional development · Two weeks training in inclusive education, · 40-days sign language (two hours per day) · Training in community resources and referral systems	176
Part-time teachers	· Two week training in BTA ABE Safe Space T&L approach · Training of Child Protection and Safeguarding	51
Community members	Community conversations twice per month	546 males 982 females 1,528 total

2.2   ENVIRONMENT AND CONTEXT

Here, the project intervention cities – Addis Ababa, Bahir Dar, Shashemene, and Adama are briefly introduced. Population statistics varied by such a large degree (30% each way, as reported by different sources) that the numbers indicated below should be taken as estimates based on data from the World Bank, the most recent census of Ethiopia (conducted in 2011) and projections from academics and statisticians.

Across all cities, poverty and limited or fluctuating incomes are a feature of most people's lives. Although the national poverty rate dropped from 30% in 2011 to 24% in 2016, according to the most recent Ethiopia Poverty Assessment,[1] the income of the poorest 10% did not grow at all between 2005 and 2016. Given inflation and rising living costs, this means that many people are worse off now than they were in the past decade. A lack of sufficient income to afford basic living costs was indicated by most participants of this study (at the household or community level) – which was one of the unifying features across all four cities.

Another common characteristic across cities was gender inequality that limits the ability of women and girls to enjoy the same opportunities as men and boys. As noted in sections regarding barriers to education, families that have economic challenges in sending their children to school often prioritize male children over female children – sustaining the lower status and potential of women in the country.

Map 1: Project intervention cities

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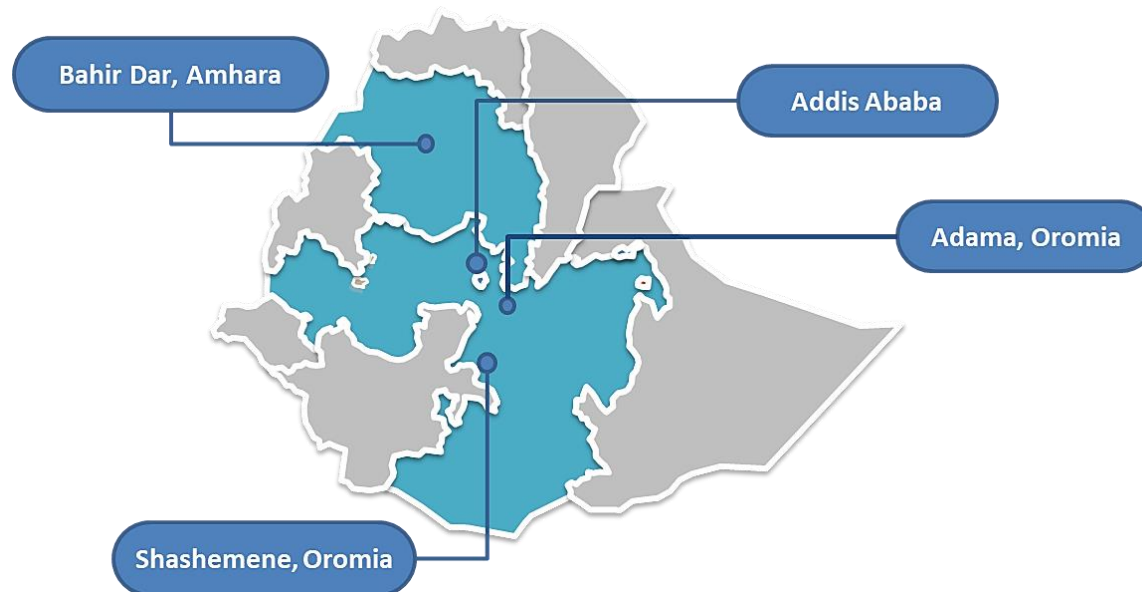
[1] Bundervoet, T.; Finn, A. J.; Nakamura, S.; Beyene, B. M.; Paci, P.; Mylenko, N.; Turk, C. (2020). Ethiopia Poverty Assessment - Harnessing Continued Growth for Accelerated Poverty Reduction (English). Washington, D.C.: World Bank Group.
http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/992661585805283077/Ethiopia-Poverty-Assessment-Harnessing-Continued-Growth-for-Accelerated-Poverty-Reduction

Baseline Evaluation report - BTA

Addis Ababa

Addis Ababa is the capital and largest city of Ethiopia, home to an estimated 5.5 million people. The city's urbanization has been extensive over the past decades, driven by high rural-urban migration of young people in particular. It is estimated that 37% of the city's current inhabitants were born in other places of the country.[2] As a central hub, Addis Ababa is home to a range of ethnic groups, with Amharic, Afan Oromo and Gurage all widely spoken. Ninety-one percent of households sampled in this research indicated that the main language spoken at home is Amharic. The language of instruction for all girls in the BTA project in Addis Ababa is Amharic.

Bahir Dar

Bahir Dar is the capital of the Amhara region and one of the largest cities in the country, with a population of about 250,000 – many of whom are rural-urban migrants.[3] Amharic is by far the predominant language and the language of instruction for all girls in the BTA project in Addis Ababa is Amharic. The city is known as a leading tourist destination and so was hit hard by the economic consequences of Covid-19, given that many residents rely on income from hotels, tour operations and other tourist services/facilities. This was noted by some household heads who previously used to earn a decent income by making and selling traditional leather chairs but are now unable to make ends meet because of a drop in demand. Many interview participants stated there is currently a 'shortage' of domestic workers in the city, meaning domestic workers can be more selective over working conditions and opportunities. This is an important aspect in assessing perceptions of domestic workers and comparing attitudes across cities.

Adama

Adama, also known as 'Nazereth', is located 85km southwest of Addis Ababa along the road that connects Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa. Although some estimates put Adama's current population at 240,000, most sources agree that the city is among the largest in Ethiopia – meaning there could be as many as half a million people living there. The two main languages are Oromifa and Amharic, which are spoken by 53% and 46% of sampled households respondents, respectively. The main language of instruction of the BTA project in Adama is Oromifa – 67% of students sampled in this research learn in Oromifa and 33% learn in Amharic. Adama has been the center of destination for many internal migrants from different parts of the country that fled their homes due to conflict, poverty and threats of trafficking.[4] Additionally, many interviewed households resettled in the area following displacement from the Somali region in the past decade. As noted by project facilitators interviewed:

> *"Most of the community that lives around this school are poor as they live here after migrating to this area from the Somali region due to the conflicts that occurred some years ago. Currently, the majority of them don't have jobs. Previously, they worked as daily laborers, but now they lost their job because of the impact of the virus. The aids that were previously given to them have also stopped. These families face problems to send their children to schools as they don't have money to buy teaching materials like uniforms."* – Project facilitator in Adama.

[2] Carson, S. (2019) DHP P207, GIS for International Applications, May 2019. Available at: https://sites.tufts.edu/gis/files/2019/05/Carson-Sarah-D._DHPp207_Sp2019.pdf
[3] Zewdu, A. A. (2020) 'Impacts of Urban Growth on Bahir Dar City' in Canadian Social Science, Vol.16, No. 8. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.3968/11831
[4] Easton-Calabraia, E.et al.(2018). Responses to Urban IDPs in Adama, Ethiopia: A case study. University of Oxford – Refugee studies center.

Shashemene

Shashemene is in the West Arisi Zone of the Oromia region, 250km south of Addis Ababa, in Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Region (SNNPR). Shashamane's population has steadily increased over the past decade, mostly due to rural-urban migrants settling from different regions of the country, and now has around 150,000 inhabitants.[5] As such, although Afan Oromo is the official language of the city and is the main language in the household of 71% of survey respondents, many individuals use Amharic, Wolayatta or local languages from SNNPR.

The main language of instruction of the BTA project in Shashemene is Oromifa – 96% of students sampled in this research learn in Oromifa and just 4% learn in Amharic.

Two project mentors stated that the relatively populous Gurage community tend not to promote girls' education – meaning that most get married by Grade 10. Shashemene is also home to thousands from the 'Rastafarian Community.'[6] As with other cities, residents of Shashemene indicated economic losses from Covid-19, for example caused by a reduction in daily labor opportunities.

3 BASELINE EVALUATION APPROACH AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 EVALUATION PURPOSE AND EVALUATION QUESTIONS

The baseline evaluation is conducted with the purpose of collecting a comprehensive set of data from different sources to provide benchmarks against which progress of the BTA project can be measured. The findings of the baseline evaluation will be used to guide program staff, partners and beneficiaries (both direct and indirect) in the process of achieving the program's stated objectives. The findings will provide valuable information that can be used to fine-tune the BTA project approach, strategy and activities in the four cities – Addis Ababa, Bahir Dar, Shashemene and Adama.

Baseline data relating to beneficiary girls' education was collected on learning outcomes and other relevant indicators. The knowledge, attitudes and practices of the wider community members in relation to girls' education are also assessed, and benchmarks set to facilitate tracking of broader trends and changes in perspectives. The baseline also assesses and presents the current institutional undertakings of WEOs and schools to help promote sustainability of the project activities and outputs following project completion.

3.2 OVERALL EVALUATION DESIGN

The overall evaluation methodology integrates both quantitative and qualitative research. Such data is collected to inform the baseline and final project evaluation. This data will be synthesized with regular process monitoring of output indicators (as reflected in the project log-frame). Quantitative, qualitative and process data (data on intermediary project outcomes) collected will each contribute to a VfM analysis. The

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[5] Bonnacci, G. (2020, December 19). Shashemene Timeline. World Religions and Spirituality Project. Retrieved from Shashemene – WRSP (wrldrels.org)
6 Rastafarian – is a religious movement of Jamaican origin.

VfM analysis will be conducted based on the data obtained corresponding to the major indicators for the 4Es – Economy, Efficiency, Effectiveness and Equity.

Assessment of the existing levels and quality of government support for girls' education was made using qualitative tools. This was done by asking education officers and other stakeholders whether girls' education agenda has been officially raised in forums, and whether stakeholders' meetings are conducted by the local communities and lower-level education offices' representatives. Similar questions will also check whether the project created strengthened partnerships with government and other key actors to influence national level policy, systems, and practice. At the endline assessment, an indicator will be included to generate a more robust understanding of the level and nature of Government support, potentially to be measured through a review of recent acts and declarations, Government strategies and policies, and potentially funding allocated. Where these cannot be accessed, relevant questions will be posed in key informant interviews.

3.3 BASELINE QUANTITATIVE EVALUATION METHODOLOGY

The original groups of girls for the BTA project were recruited in early 2020 and activities initially began in February 2020. However, Covid-19 restrictions caused the closure of learning centers and prevented groups of more than four people from meeting between March and September 2020. Following this, when restrictions eased and project activities could safely be resumed, it was found that many of the girls that had been initially recruited were uncontactable. As such, re-recruitment of girls was conducted in October 2020, including new enrollees that had moved into the area as well as some that had previously been recruited earlier in the year. Activities were then rescheduled to start at the end of 2020 (although, in practice, there were some delays due to difficulties liaising with PCGs/employers and contacting girls). As there had already been a significant delay to project activities caused by Covid-19 and a full program of activities was scheduled over the course of three and a half years, Population Council were eager to begin activities as soon after recruitment as possible in order to maintain momentum and interest.

Collection of data for the baseline evaluation took place from February to April 2021, which was after girls had initially started some project activities, reflecting an overlap of project activities and baseline data collection. This was unavoidable, given the need to begin programming and, meanwhile, some difficulties faced in contacting some of the sampled girls and PCGs/employers – which somewhat delayed the data collection process. The fact that baseline data was collected after project activities had commenced might have had an impact on girls' learning outcomes at the baseline level. However, this is not certain and cannot be measured comprehensively. It should be noted that many initial project activities were introductory, such as distribution of materials, issuing project ID cards and getting girls acquainted with the institutional learning structures, rather than intensive language and numeracy teaching. Therefore, if learning outcomes were impacted, this is likely to have been to a relatively minor degree.

Across the four project cities, field teams of enumerators and supervisors were deployed to collect quantitative data using household surveys conducted among the cohort of girls aged 10 to 19, their PCGs/employers and their household heads for the baseline evaluation. The quantitative data was collected from a representative sample of project participants. Enumerators also conducted learning assessments (literacy and numeracy tests) using adapted versions of the EGRA and EGMA assessment tools among the primary target group (OOS girls aged 10 – 19). Two additional tools were used to ascertain the number of GwDs, the Washington Group Questionnaire on Disability (WGQ), using the Child Functioning Module (CFM) – ages 5-17 and the Patient Health Questionnaire on depression (PHQ-9).[7] Although girls had also been asked to self-report whether they experience depression or anxiety, PHQ-9 is widely recognized as a more reliable tool that detects depression.

Table 1: Quantitative evaluation tools

Tool name	Relevant indicator(s)	Actions taken following piloting of tools
GEC Step change Window Household survey (see Annex)	Outcome Indicator 1	No major issues identified in piloting stage.
EGRA and EGMA assessments (see Annex)	Outcome Indicator 1	Sampled girls were disaggregated by their current language of instruction (in the project) and tests were administered in the same language

3.3.1 Enumerators and Supervisors

Two categories of quantitative data collectors were recruited to administer surveys and learning assessments in the target cities: data enumerators, who carry out direct data collection, and data supervisors, who are responsible for managing enumerators and promoting the quality, reliability and completeness of data. Only female data collectors local to the four cities were recruited to create an interview environment in which study participants would feel comfortable in responding freely.

Five days of training was provided to enumerators and supervisors. The training consisted of classroom-based learning and field-based revision. It covered every aspect of what the teams needed to be aware of to conduct the surveys effectively and efficiently. The training was also used for pre-testing and fine-tuning the tools and for testing whether the questions were adequately understood by respondents. Thorough discussions were held with enumerators and supervisors about the translation of the questionnaires into the vernacular of the local languages to increase the usability and transferability of the tools across the cities.

3.3.2 Quantitative Data Collection, Cleaning, Storage and Analysis

Questionnaires were administered using personal digital assistants (PDAs) – electronic data collection instruments. These were programmed with all questionnaires to be administered, including the correct skip patterns and type of data to be entered (e.g. numerical, non-numerical, single from a selection, multiple choice from a selection). This ensured that data enumerators carried out the surveys consistently and precisely according to survey design. Using PDAs reduces the likelihood of human error that comes from

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[7] The Washington Group/UNICEF Child Functioning Module (CFM) – ages 5-17. (2020). Washington Group Disability Statistics, retrieved from: *Question Sets - The Washington Group on Disability Statistics (washingtongroup-disability.com)*

administering paper surveys, as completed surveys can be uploaded directly into a database, thus saving time and resources. After enumerators had completed a household survey, including the head of household, PCG/employer (if different to the household head) and the girl, they handed the PDA with the completed questionnaire to their supervisor for checking, and then moved onto the next household using a new PDA.

Survey results were uploaded onto supervisors' laptops each day before being sent to the Data Manager in Addis Ababa via email each weekly. JaRco used a local server for storage to maintain the security and confidentiality of the surveys. Data analysis entailed a rigorous process in which quantitative and qualitative analysis strategies were connected to determine and understand key findings and conclusions. The data management team entered all quantitative data collected into tabulations. With reference to the core indicators, quantitative data was then interpreted and conclusions were drawn. The learning results were analyzed using SPSS.

The WGQ comprised of questions on functioning in core domains (vision, hearing, communication, mobility, cognition, and self-care) plus additional psychosocial function questions on anxiety, depression, making friends, and accepting change. A girl can have difficulty hearing sounds or making friends. When such difficulties reach to a point where she is at risk of ability limitation to participate in society, she is considered to have a disability. Therefore, girls included in the disability subgroup are those who are identified as having a *'a lot of difficulty'* or those who opted *'cannot do at all'* for one or more of the function disability questions. The calculation of the percentages of girls with functional difficulties was conducted as per the guidance and criteria provided in the LNGB reporting template.

Analysis of the PHQ-9 was conducted according to standard measurements which involved tallying the frequency of which girls experienced different symptoms of depression over the past two weeks to produce a total score between 0 and 27. Standard categories (No depression/mild depression/moderate depression/moderately severe depression/ severe depression) were assigned, with results presented in three categories – no depression, mild/moderate depression, and severely moderate/severe depression.

3.3.3 Quantitative Sample sizes

Since baseline indicator is not available, a conservative estimate of 50% (with a corresponding formulaic value of 0.5) is typically applied to reduce the risk of sampling error. Subsequently, a rate of change of 10% between each study was set to produce P1 and P2 indicators (see below). As projection indicator information was not available, this figure was set as a typical figure for a change indicator for this type of project. These are adjusted accordingly to produce P1 and P2 values for the end line study, reflecting expected change across the project lifespan.

Figure 1: Sampling procedures and formula

$$n = D [(Z\alpha)2 * ((P1 (1 - P1) + P2 (1 - P2)) /(P2 - P1)2]$$

Where,

n = required minimum sample size per survey round i.e. for each watershed;

D = design effect (assumed in this case 2 – for two stage sampling, as this sampling strategy involves one stratum – selecting girls randomly from the girls list obtained from the centre);

P1 = the estimated level of an indicator measured as a proportion at the time of the first survey. With no **baseline** indicator data available, this was set at the maximum of 50% (0.5) to reduce risk of sampling error. As the projection indicator (P2) was set at +10%, the p1 value for the **baseline** and **endline** studies were calculated at 50% (0.5), 60% (0.6), and 70% (0.7), respectively.

P2 = the expected level of the indicator either at some future date or for the project area such that the quantity (P2 - P1) is the size of the magnitude of change it is desired to be able to detect, in this cases the magnitude of change is 10% or 0.1; this can be adjusted in consultation with Population Council if desired. Accordingly, this produces P2 values for the **baseline** and **endline** studies of 60% (0.6), 70% (0.7), and 80% (0.8), accordingly.

Zα = the z-score corresponding to the degree of confidence with which it is desired to be able to conclude that an observed change of size (P2 - P1) would not have occurred by chance (α - the level of statistical significance). For a 95 percent of degree of confidence which is typical for surveys of this type, the corresponding tabular value of Zα will be 1.96.

3.3.3.1 Sampling procedures

The preliminary sample sizes for each phase of the study were calculated as follows:

Table 2: Calculated Sample Size

	P1	P2	Non-response/lost to track (40%)	Zα	D	Preliminary number of households
Baseline	0.5	0.6	0.4	1.96	2	847
Endline	0.7	0.8	0.4	1.96	2	640

For the baseline evaluation, therefore, 847 households were planned to be surveyed from the four project areas - Addis Ababa, Shashemene, Adama, and Bahir Dar proportionately – 212 households per each city.

3.3.3.2 Quantitative Sample selection and size

Samples for this baseline study were randomly selected from the final version of beneficiary lists Population Council provided prior to data collection. At first, the project shared coded beneficiary master lists with JaRco and random sampling was conducted from the shared lists. Randomly selected coded lists were then sent back to the project for replacement with the uncoded version. The project then finally sent back the sampled lists with details of participants for data collection. Selection of samples continued in this way until the total number size was complete.

From the 847 sample size agreed, 824 were sampled. Even though the full agreed sample size was surveyed, 23 household heads and PCG/employer surveys were missed and considered as a non-response.

3.3.4 Challenges in baseline quantitative data collection

Many of the challenges faced during quantitative data collection common to all cities. Particularly severe challenges in Addis Ababa were related to relocation of sampled girls, often due to changing household due to challenges related to Covid-19 or having to leave their employer and move back with their parents in their home communities. Due to the highly mobile nature of many rural-urban migrants, most sampled girls, especially in Addis Ababa, were difficult to trace due to their changed addresses. Although they had provided a household phone number, some of these numbers were disconnected upon recontacting. As a result, 192 replacements were made which caused a delay in the data collection timeline.

3.4 COHORT TRACKING AND NEXT EVALUATION POINT

Initially, a mix of cohort and cross-sectional study designs were to be used for baseline and endline evaluations. Accordingly, a cohort was selected for this baseline and mechanisms for tracking the intervention cohort were developed in line with evaluation mechanisms for this 3 ½ -year program – which included identifying names and addresses and updating them regularly, in collaboration with project staff.

However, given the highly mobile nature of the target population and the challenges already faced in contacting the sampled individuals, longitudinal follow-up of girls is not appropriate for their circumstances as so many girls do not want to be traced for various reasons (e.g. running away from home or employers). This is not a reflection of the project's ability but, rather, the mobile nature of girls that do not necessarily want to be contactable. The names, addresses and identification details of the initial cohort of girls recruited for participation in February 2020 were noted but many were either uncontactable in October/November 2020, when the project re-started after the first Covid-19 wave. As such, it is deemed that it will be highly challenging to recontact the same cohort again – meaning random sampling will be done from those involved in the project intervention group for the endline assessment, with attention paid to gathering a statistically significant level of data from intervention cities.

3.5 BASELINE QUALITATIVE EVALUATION METHODOLOGY

3.5.1 Qualitative data collection tools

Key informant interviews (KIIs) were conducted with school leaders, WEOs, Woreda WCYA officials, and mentors or project facilitators to further explore key evaluation questions and the Theory of Change (ToC), answering the 'why' questions. IDIs were conducted with purposively selected girls and their PCGs/employers.

Table 3: Qualitative evaluation tools used for the baseline

Tool name	Relevant indicator(s)	Who developed the tool?	Was tool piloted?	Were piloting findings acted on?	Fund Manager feedback?
IDIs with girls	OI 1 / OI 2.1	JaRco & Project	No	N/A	Yes
IDIs with PCGs/employers	OI 1 / OI 2.1	JaRco & Project	No	N/A	Yes
KIIs with Woreda Education Officers	OI 1 / OI 2.1 / OI 4.1	JaRco & Project	No	N/A	Yes
KIIs with Woreda WCYA Officers	OI 1 / OI 2.1 / OI 4.1	JaRco & Project	No	N/A	Yes
KIIs with school leaders	OI 1 / OI 2.1 / OI 4.1	JaRco & Project	No	N/A	Yes
KIIs with project mentors / facilitators	OI 1 / OI 2.1 / OI 4.1	JaRco & Project	No	N/A	Yes

3.5.2   Qualitative sample selection and sample sizes for IDIs

A total of 148 IDIs and KIIs were conducted for the baseline evaluation at project implementation areas. Five different sub-groups or categories of girls were identified with the intention of interviewing at least three girls and PCGs/employers for each category. This strategy was adopted to ensure that the viewpoints of differently positioned individuals with a range of abilities and challenges had the opportunity to give input into the project and have their views heard. These are:

1. Girl with motor disability
2. Girl with other disability
3. Rural-urban migrant – not working
4. Rural-urban migrant – working (domestic worker)
5. Girls living with their parents

These groups are not entirely mutually exclusive, as a girl might have a motor disability AND be a rural-urban migrant AND be living with her parents (i.e. groups 1, 3 and 5). In theory, girls could also be rural-urban migrant domestic worker AND live with her parents (i.e. groups 3 and 5).

As reflected in the table below, 9 girls and their PCGs/employers were sampled in each city for IDIs. While 6 school leaders and project facilitators were sampled in each city for KIIs, the number of WEOs and WCYA Officers sampled in each city varied: 6 of each category were sampled in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar. Meanwhile, in Shashemene and Adama, education officers and WCYA Officers are available at a city-level – meaning that only one of each of these individuals was interviewed in these cities.

Table 4: Qualitative sample distribution by city

Interviewee	Addis Ababa[8] IDI/KII*	Bahir Dar[9] IDI/KII	Shashemene[10] IDI/KII	Adama[11] IDI/KII	Total
Girls 10-19	9	9	9	9	**36**
PCGs/ Employers	9	9	9	9	**36**
WEO	6	6	1	1	**14**
WCYA Office	6	6	1	1	**14**
School Leaders	6	6	6	6	**24**
Project Facilitators	6	6	6	6	**24**
Total	**42**	**42**	**32**	**32**	148

Girls 10-19 and their PCGs/employers received IDIs while institutional-level stakeholders received KIIs.

3.5.3   Qualitative field researchers

Eight qualitative researchers, two for each city, were assigned to conduct IDIs and KIIs. All experts received eight hours of online training on the data collection tools and other relevant data collection procedures. This helped to acquaint researchers with the nature of the project and necessary protocols to follow – especially the Covid-19 mitigation plan.

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[8] Addis Ababa – there are 11 sub-cities, each with 10-14 woredas. Education and WCYA officers are available at woreda level.
[9] Bahir Dar – there are 6 sub-cities, with kebeles in each sub-city. Education and WCYA officers are available at sub-city level.
[10] Shashemene – there are 8 kebeles (no sub-city structure). Education and WCYA officers are only at a city administration level.
[11] Adama – there are 10 kebeles (no sub-city structure). Education and WCYA officers are only at a city administration level.

3.5.4 Qualitative data collection

Qualitative data collection took place following the completion of the quantitative data collection. Experts conducted the IDIs and KIIs using discussion guides provided by JaRco. After completing discussions, they prepared expanded field notes – not verbatim transcriptions – and handed those to the evaluation team leader together with the recorded audio files.

3.5.5 Qualitative data handling and analysis

Manual thematic analysis was conducted in MS Excel and Word to identify the salient themes, recurring ideas, and patterns of belief that linked and differentiated the project settings and contexts. The qualitative data analysis mainly indicated interviewees' perceptions, attitudes, and feelings on the key evaluation areas. Since the primary purpose of collecting the qualitative data was for triangulation with the outcome of the quantitative data, the qualitative data was used to further explore key evaluation questions for the baseline.

3.5.6 Challenges during baseline qualitative data collection

During qualitative data collection, the following challenges were faced and steps taken to mitigate their impact on the quality, reliability and completeness of the data:

- To maintain confidentiality, remove group bias and gather reliable data, all sampled respondents were surveyed and/or interviewed individually, away from others in the household. However, most employers were uncomfortable with domestic workers being interviewed alone. Many initially wanted to sit close to girls and be a part of the discussion or else frequently entered the interview room to interrupt conversations. This was particularly common in Bahir Dar and Addis Ababa. This challenge would have had a significant impact on the reliability of the data received from girls had it not been well-managed, as confidentiality and privacy were essential in creating safe spaces in which girls could speak freely about their experiences. Without being reassured of the privacy of the interview and being sure that their employers were not listening in, girls would not have been willing to give honest responses. To prevent this obstacle from impacting data quality, data collectors did not carry out surveys or interviews while employers were present and tried to convince employers to allow them to individually interview the girls. This was done through informing them that girls' genuine and unbiased insights into and knowledge of the topic was crucial for the success of the project (which affects both their girls and other participants), and that discussions were mainly about education. As all employees eventually allowed interviews and surveys to take place in private, this challenge did not affect the eventual data quality or reliability.

- Due to Covid-19, many household heads, especially those in Addis Ababa, were unwilling to let qualitative experts enter their compounds. As a result, most of the IDIs conducted in Addis Ababa were done outdoors where there were disturbing noises and/or interruptions of other people which challenged the attention of respondents. This did not significantly reduce the data reliability as all discussions were conducted in spaces where no other individuals could listen overhear, such as quiet cafes and school compounds. The interruptions created a challenge in terms of maintaining the attention of respondents throughout discussions but did not cause any significant reduction in data quality – merely a challenge in terms of management of the process and minor time delays, as discussions took longer than anticipated due to such distractions.

- Scheduling interviews with Woreda officials was not easy in all the cities, especially in Bahir Dar and Addis Ababa due to election-related busy schedules of Woreda officials at the time. Researchers had to make repeated phone calls and visits to their offices to get hold of them for the interviews.

3.6 EVALUATION ETHICS

All required ethical considerations were closely followed during qualitative and quantitative data collection, especially with girls and vulnerable people. A certificate of protocol approval was issued to JaRco by the Ethiopian Society of Sociologists Social Workers and Anthropologists Institutional Review Board as part of permissions for conducting the baseline research.

In addition, all members of the evaluation team strictly followed JaRco's Child Safeguarding Policy (available as an Annex), which is also in line with PC's policy, as well as GEC and FCDO safeguarding protocols. All members of the study team received safeguarding training. In the case of minors, consent was obtained from the parent and assent was obtained from child. For minors who live independently of their parents or guardian as domestic workers, consent was obtained from the girls only, as they are considered 'emancipated minors'.

Since the study was conducted during the Covid-19 pandemic, the evaluation team was trained on the contents and importance of Covid-19 Mitigation Plans (see Annex). Face masks and sanitizers were distributed to each enumerator, supervisor and study participant along with physical distancing.

4 KEY CHARACTERISTICS SUBGROUPS AND BARRIERS

4.1 SUBGROUP CHARACTERISTICS

This section of the report presents information about baseline respondents, subgroup characteristics and barriers that result in education marginalization. The subgroups of girls aged 10 to 19 are outlined in the table below. The subgroups are not wholly discrete, meaning girls can fall into more than one subgroup in some cases (for example a rural-urban migrant might also be a paid domestic worker). Subgroups are defined in the glossary of terms.

As shown in the table below, 453 of the 824 girls surveyed (55%) are rural-urban migrants. Four hundred and fifty-three girls are domestic workers, some of whom might be rural-urban migrants as well. As a proportion of the sample in each city, more girls in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar are rural-urban migrants than in Shashemene and Adama. Forty-four percent of girls are not employed, with the highest proportions of unemployed girls in Shashemene (68%) and Adama (60%), compared with the much lower figures of 16% in Addis Ababa and 34% in Bahir Dar. Qualitative analysis on this area is presented under the section on girls' work status. Twenty-one percent of girls are living with a disability.

Table 5: Background characteristics of respondents by city in percent

	Addis Ababa (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
Age range					
10-14	39.6	21.0	82.4	61.9	51.1
15-19	60.4	79.0	17.6	38.1	48.9
Key characteristics					
Rural-urban migrants	77.8	66.7	25.2	50.3	55.0
Domestic workers	84.1	65.2	31.0	39.1	55.0
Unemployed Girls	15.9	34.3	67.1	59.9	44.2
Girls with **at least** one disability	22.6	19.9	30.9	14.7	21.7
Girls with **only** one disability	13.9	7.5	16.4	4.0	10.8
Main reason for migration	(n=161)	(n=140)	(n=53)	(n=99)	(n=453)
To work	44.7	71.4	13.2	20.2	43.9
To stay with relatives	36.6	15.7	41.5	9.1	23.0
To learn/for education	15.5	7.9	45.3	34.3	20.8
Other[12]	2.5	5.0	0.0	29.3	10.6
Don't know	0.6	0.0	0.0	7.1	1.8
Mother tongue language					
Amharic	52.2	98.6	26.7	41.6	55.0
Oromifa	24.6	0.5	67.6	51.3	35.8
Wolayitegn	3.9	0.5	3.8	4.6	3.2
Guragigna	10.1	0.0	0.5	0.5	2.8
Other[13]	9.2	0.5	1.4	2.0	3.3
Domains of disability					
Anxiety	9.7	11.0	18.1	13.2	13.0
Depression	9.2	8.6	18.1	11.2	11.8
Walking	6.8	4.8	3.8	0.5	4.0
Making friends	1.4	4.3	1.0	1.0	1.9
Remembering	3.9	2.4	0.0	0.5	1.7
Communication	2.9	2.4	0.5	0.5	1.6
Learning	1.9	3.8	0.0	0.5	1.6
Concentrating	2.4	3.3	0.0	0.5	1.6
Controlling behavior	2.9	2.9	0.0	0.5	1.6
Seeing	1.0	2.9	1.4	0.0	1.3
Self-care	1.9	2.4	0.0	0.5	1.2
Accepting change	1.4	2.4	0.0	0.5	1.1
Hearing	0.5	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.6

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[12] The most common 'other' reason for migration in Adama was conflict. Note that many girls sampled in Adama for this research are from the Somali region of Ethiopia and moved to the city after being displaced from their home areas.
[13] The other eleven languages indicated are included in an Annex of girls' characteristics.

The age ranges of the quantitative samples indicate that in Shashemene and Adama, the two smaller cities, the majority of the sampled girls are under 15 years old while for Bahir Dar and Addis Ababa, the majority are above 15 years of age. Eighty two percent (82%) of Shashemene's sample and 62% of Adama's sample are below 15 years while 60% of those in Addis and 79% of those in Bahir Dar are above 15 years old. This age difference between groups brought noticeable patterns of findings in the study, particularly on the work and migration status of the girls, which are discussed in depth later in this chapter.

The main reason identified for migration is to secure work. Overall, 44% of girls migrated to work and hence earn an income, which is one of the major barriers to education indicated. A further 23% girls migrated to stay with relatives, which is usually related to working for their relatives' household and/or pursuing educational opportunities, as girls that move to stay with relatives typically relocate from more rural to more urban areas, where access to schools is better (meaning that migrating 'to stay with relatives' can largely be seen as migrating for work or education opportunities.). Twenty-one percent of girls migrated for education-related reasons. Migrant girls to Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar were far more likely than those in Adama and Shashemene to state that they moved to the cities in order to work, which correlates with the younger ages of sampled girls in these latter cities and the fact that fewer are domestic workers than in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar.

IDIs revealed additional reasons for migration including family problems, conflict and environmental issues. Some households relocated from conflict-prone regions to more secure areas – particularly in Bahir Dar and Adama. For example, one of the sampled Kebeles in Adama is home to a community of former internally displaced people from the Somali region that settled there "*many years ago*" but who continue to face economic challenges as a result of their minority ethnicity. Other girls indicated diverse reasons, including being sent by their parents to live with extended family, deciding to migrate after the death of their parents or to escape forced marriage.

According to the Washington Group disability questions administered, some sampled girls stated they have more than one domain of difficulty- meaning that, for instance, one girl could have learning, remembering, or hearing difficulty at the same time. Across all cities, 23% of girls indicated they are living with a disability: 31% in Shashemene, 23% in Addis, 20% in Bahir Dar and 15% in Adama. Anxiety and depression are the two most reported difficulties sampled girls face across the cities. 13% of the girls sampled for this study stated that they feel anxious, nervous or worried on a daily basis while 12% indicated that they are sad and depressed every day. This could be related to the current COVID-19 crisis or linked to girls' socio-economic status and living environments. The proportion of girls that experience anxiety or worries every day is higher in Adama and Shashemene than other cities: 36% and 39% of the disability girls face in Shashemene is anxiety and depression while in Adama the proportion is 24% and 23% respectively. The next most common disability is walking, which is experienced by 4% of sampled girls across all cities and is highest in Addis Ababa (7%).

4.1.1 Assistive device availability and efficiency

None of the 11 girls with seeing difficulties and the 5 girls with hearing difficulties have assistive devices to help them overcome the obstacles created by their disabilities. Of the 33 girls that stated they have walking disabilities, only 5 girls or 15% of those with walking difficulties have helpful walking equipment, which 19 do not have any equipment to support them and 14 have equipment but it is not helpful (not functional), reflecting that many girls are struggling to move around their cities.

4.1.2 Girls' Depression symptom (PHQ analysis)

Since the major disability type identified in this study is depression, understanding girls' severity of depression was crucial. In order to understand the level and extent of deprecation among the study participants (PHQ-9) was administered to all 824 participants, not just the disability group, in order to compare results with self-reporting and because it is widely considered as a more reliable tool to detect depression.

Table 6: Percentage of girls with symptoms of depression by city according to PHQ-9

	Addis Ababa (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
No depression	95.7	89.5	99.0	99.0	95.8
Moderate depression	4.3	10.0	1.0	0.0	3.9
Severe depression	0.0	0.5	0.0	1.0	0.4
Any depression	**4.3**	**10.5**	**1.0**	**1.0**	**4.2**

According to the PHQ-9, most girls (96%) are not currently experiencing symptoms of depression. A total of 11% of girls in Bahir Dar and 4% in Addis Ababa experience moderate or severe depression, while only 1% of girls in Shashemene and Adama experience depression. This finding indicates that girls in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar are more prone to depression than girls in Shashemene and Adama, which is perhaps related to fact that more girls in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar are migrants and domestic workers than in Shashemene and Adama. However, this is at odds with the results presented in the earlier table on characteristics, which shows that 18% in Shashemene and 13% in Adama experience depression difficulties, compared with 10% in Addis Ababa and 11% in Bahir Dar – indicating that the reverse is true.

The CFM depression result in Shashemene and Adama shows that more girls self-identified as experiencing depression and anxiety. Meanwhile, the PHQ-9 showed that more girls from Addis and Bahir Dar experience moderate depression. The different results obtained from the two tools on the prevalence of depression among girls can be understood by a reader in different ways. For example, a girl can be depressed, sad, nervous, anxious, or worried on a daily or weekly basis (the CFM indicator for depression) for several reasons without necessarily experiencing the symptoms in the PHQ-9 set of questions that collective give a 'depression' score. Furthermore, a girl might self-identify as not being depressed (according to the CFM module; as in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar) but actually be experiencing symptoms of depression as per the PHQ-9. She could also think she is depressed but not be experiencing such a state at all, as defined by PHQ-9, such as in Adama and Shashemene.

4.2 BASELINE PARTICIPANTS' HOUSEHOLD DEMOGRAPHY

This section provides context to girls' working and living conditions. Across all four cities, 51% of households are male-headed while 49% are female-headed.[14] In Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar, higher number

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[14] To disaggregate categories of male/female-headed households, enumerators listed the gender of the household head – male or female. The following guidance was included in the questionnaire: "The respondent's view of the head of household should be accepted, with the focus on being responsible for the household. The head of household may live elsewhere some or most of the time (e.g. for work, or if they have multiple wives or husbands). However, they must have a close connection with the members of the household - they should not be selected simply because they are the senior person in a village or clan."

of households are headed by females, while in Shashemene and Adama, more households are headed by males.

Table 7: Household Characteristics in percent

	Addis Ababa (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	All (n=824)
Gender of head of household					
Male	42.0	29.5	74.3	58.9	51.1
Female	58.0	70.5	25.7	41.1	48.9
Economic status					
Can afford some non-essentials	1.9	2.4	6.2	3.6	3.5
Can only meet basic needs	56.5	43.3	29.7	31.5	40.3
Cannot meet basic needs	41.5	53.8	62.7	64.5	55.5
Access to services and amenities					
Electricity	94.2	88.1	77.0	78.2	84.4
Potable water	67.1	63.8	49.8	54.8	58.9
Phone	96.1	83.3	84.7	87.3	87.8
Internet	7.7	0.0	1.4	2.0	2.8

The household head survey reflected generally low levels of education. By and large, education levels were lowest in Bahir Dar, followed by Adama and Shashemene, and highest in Addis Ababa, where more than half of respondents stated they had at least attended upper primary school (compared with less than 35% in Bahir Dar).

Table 8: Head of Household's level of education and employment status by type of relationship with girls

Level of education (highest attended/completed)	Addis Ababa			Bahir Dar			Shashemene			Adama			
	Parent (n=71)	Relative (n=86)	Employer (n=50)	Parent (n=75)	Relative (n=62)	Employer (n=73)	Parent (n=182)	Relative (n=22)	Employer (n=6)	Parent (n=154)	Relative (n=39)	Employer (n=4)	All (n=824)
None	46.5	23.3	22.0	50.7	48.4	31.5	21.4	22.7	0.0	33.8	15.4	0.0	31.2
Lower primary (Grade 1-4)	12.7	9.3	22.0	22.7	21.0	21.9	23.1	13.6	50.0	17.5	30.8	50.0	19.8
Upper primary (Grade 5-8)	18.3	40.7	22.0	14.7	16.1	17.8	35.7	22.7	33.3	27.3	43.6	50.0	27.4
Secondary (Grade 9-12)	19.7	18.6	20.0	9.3	12.9	15.1	17.6	31.8	16.7	20.1	10.3	0.0	17.1
Higher education/ Univ.	2.8	8.1	14.0	2.7	1.6	13.7	2.2	9.1	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	4.5
Employment status													
Have paid job	21.1	40.7	44.0	28.0	45.2	41.1	17.6	36.4	0.0	12.3	10.3	50.0	26.2
Self-employed	36.6	33.7	26.0	41.3	35.5	37.0	43.4	40.9	16.7	37.7	35.9	50.0	37.8
Unemployed	42.3	25.6	30.0	30.7	19.4	21.9	39.0	22.7	83.3	50.0	53.8	0.0	36.0

The household head survey reflected generally low levels of education. The data presented in the table above is disaggregated according to the type of head of household girls reside with. Relatively, education levels of parents and relatives were lower across the cities. Particularly acute in Bahir Dar, half of the parents and 48% of relatives in this city have never had any education while few others made it to secondary levels. Overall, more than half of respondents stated they had at least attended upper primary school. High number of employers, however, seem to have had university level education in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar while a small number of parents and relatives across all the cities attended education at such level.

The employment status of household heads varied considerably. The majority are either self-employed with unreliable source of income or are unemployed at all - reflecting a phenomenon in terms of how unstable the households' income is, as only those who are with 'paid job' can be sure of monthly income especially during the current economic distress caused by Covid 19. Across the cities, more parents are unemployed than relatives and employers. However, high proportion of employers, especially in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar (the two cities with high number of sampled domestic workers) have paid jobs – somehow indicating as to how more households in these cities can afford to employ domestic workers. A comprehensive breakdown of the types of occupation of household heads is not presented because of the enormous variety of jobs and tasks that respondents reported having. About a quarter of respondents can be classified as 'unskilled workers' such as cleaners, domestic helpers or shoe cleaners, while a further 30% work as retailers in shops, service workers or salespersons.

Ninety-six percent of households in this study are either unable to meet basic needs or are only able to meet basic needs, with those in Shashemene and Adama particularly struggling. In parallel with quantitative results presented above, IDIs relayed how people are particularly struggling in Shashemene and Adama, meaning that children have had to drop out of school due to the household's inability to afford supplies. As well as preventing girls from accessing education, this has a considerable impact on the overall morale and mental health of PCGs/caregivers. One father of an OOS girl noted: *"Problems related to having similar school equipment like uniform might occur. This had occurred in my girls. When such scenarios occur in my girls, I feel sad as all these things occurred because of my poorness."*

Although economic status is a highly gendered issue, analysis of household and girls' economic status based on gender of PCGs/employers and/or household heads did not yield reliable or transferrable results because of the difficulty of accounting for Covid-19, which created significant economic challenges for all. In the IDIs with PCGs/employers, it was implied that for example, many men have earned less money over the previous 18 months due to the closure of construction and daily labor sites, which tend to provide income for males. In parallel, women that make a living by selling coffee lost much income because of lower footfall – particularly in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar, where there was a lockdown. However, more men are employed in government offices than women, which continued paying regular salaries even when offices were closed. Overall, it is beyond the scope of this assessment to decisively state the main factors that contribute to low household income, given Covid-19 and other factors.

More than 80% of sampled households across all cities have access to electricity and phones. A much lower proportion of households have access to clean running tap water (just under 60%) and almost none have Internet access. Although access to Internet is not typically considered a living essential, given that Covid-19 forced schools to close and education was only delivered online, the lack of connectivity also reflects a barrier to education.

Furthermore, the availability of a household phone is important, given this is the way in which girls are communicated with for the BTA project delivery – particularly during the pandemic. To further understand whether phone access was a limitation to project implementation, PCGs/employers were asked if girls were allowed to use the household phone in the house. Results showed that 64% of girls have access to phones in the household, while 16% of girls can use the phone if they ask for permission and a further 20% are not allowed to use the phone at all – particularly in Adama and Shashemene.

4.3   KEY IDENTIFIED BARRIERS TO SCHOOL ENROLMENT AND ATTAINMENT

The data below shows the barriers to school enrolment as obtained through the survey conducted with girls, as it is deemed that those who live away from home (i.e. with employers or non-parent PCGs) have more accurate, reliable knowledge of their school experience than their caregivers or household heads. Although parents may have had a higher level of knowledge of school enrolment and challenges faced of their children that live with them, it was important to main consistency over who each question was directed to; hence, all of the quantitative data presented in this section came from girls, with information triangulated using interviews from PCs/employers and key informants, where relevant.

Table 9: Percentage of girls' Formal school-related data

	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama	All
Prior school enrolment	(n=207)	(n=210)	(n=210)	(n=197)	(n=824)
Attended school	64.3	64.3	73.3	75.1	69.2
Not attended school	35.7	35.7	26.7	24.9	30.8
Reasons for lack of school enrolment among those that have never attended school[15]	(n= 74)	(n= 75)	(n= 56)	(n= 49)	(n=254)
Not enough money	39.2	40.0	60.7	63.3	48.8
Girl needs to work	40.5	42.7	16.1	46.9	37.0
PCG/employer does not allow	25.7	17.3	16.1	55.1	26.8
Unsafe to travel to school	2.7	1.3	30.4	46.9	16.9
School is too far away	6.8	5.3	30.4	26.5	15.4
Inadequate transportation	1.4	10.7	26.8	18.4	13.0
Teachers treated girl badly	0.5	0.5	21.9	22.3	11.2
Unsafe for girl in school	0.0	0.0	10.7	42.9	10.6
Language barrier	0.0	0.0	19.6	26.5	9.4
Reasons for lack of enrolment among dropouts	(n= 133)	(n= 135)	(n= 154)	(n= 148)	(n=570)
Not enough money	49.6	60.0	57.1	58.1	56.3
Girl needs to work	49.6	56.3	18.8	26.4	36.8
PCG/employer does not allow	16.5	15.6	29.2	35.8	24.7
School is too far away	7.5	6.7	26.0	16.2	14.6

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15 Girls were read 28 possible reasons for being OOS and asked which ones applied to them, in turn, with only the most commonly-selected responses are presented in the table.

	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama	All
School lacks program[16]	3.0	3.0	18.2	30.4	14.2
Need special service[17]	3.8	3.0	15.6	24.3	12.1
Language barrier	0.8	0.7	20.1	24.3	12.1
No one to travel with	2.3	4.4	19.5	12.8	10.2
Previous accompaniment on school journey	(n= 133)	(n= 135)	(n= 154)	(n= 148)	(n=570)
Always	54.9	63.7	29.2	48.0	48.2
Sometimes	33.8	20.0	16.2	14.2	20.7
Never	11.3	16.3	54.5	37.2	30.9
Access to WASH facilities at previous school	(n= 133)	(n= 135)	(n= 154)	(n= 148)	(n=570)
Water access – always	33.1	40.7	25.3	50.7	37.4
Water access – sometimes	26.3	25.9	27.9	33.8	28.6
Water access – never	39.8	33.3	46.1	13.5	33.2
Toilet access – always	74.4	51.1	85.7	75.0	72.1
Toilet access – sometimes	14.3	29.6	12.3	23.6	19.8
Toilet access – never	11.3	19.3	1.3	0.0	7.5
Grade of drop out	(n= 133)	(n= 135)	(n= 154)	(n= 148)	(n=570)
Grade 1	15.0	8.9	27.9	16.2	17.4
Grade 2	16.5	9.6	19.5	14.9	15.3
Grade 3	21.1	17.0	24.7	10.1	18.2
Grade 4	18.0	21.5	11.7	27.7	19.6
Grades 5-6	12.8	31.9	9.3	18.9	18.2
Grades 7-8	13.6	8.9	4.5	8.8	8.8
Grades 9-11	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8
Don't know	2.3	1.5	0.6	2.7	1.8
Total	23.3	23.7	27.0	26.0	100.0

Across all cities, 69% of girls were previously enrolled in a formal school. A higher proportion of girls in Adama and Shashemene were enrolled than in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar, perhaps because more girls in the former cities live with their parents. This data only indicates girls' formal school enrolment status, not any non-formal education girls might have had, which provides background to better understand the learning outcome analysis (where there was little difference between the EGRA/EGMA results of schooled

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[16] School did not have a program for students' learning needs (i.e., social, learning, cognitive, emotional, or mental health issues.)
[17] Special services or assistance - such as speech therapist, support worker, sign language interpretation that are not available to attend school.

and non-schooled girls). As noted in the table above, most girl left school at a young age, with more than three quarters of those formerly enrolled dropping out before Grade 5.

The 254 girls that had never been to school were asked why they had never enrolled. Financial constraint was the major barrier faced, especially in Shashemene and Adama. According to qualitative interviews, these constraints amounted to not being able to afford fees for a private school (this was suggested by many parents who stated local government schools were very poor, which meant that their children did not want to attend to these schools) or not being able to afford the books, pens, uniforms and shoes needed for government schools. The second most common response was girls needing to work, which is linked to low economic status. Qualitative interviews with girls that had never been enrolled in school reflected that some girls used to support their families' businesses instead of attending school, for example by selling fruit and vegetables on the road. An average of 43% girls in Addis Ababa, Bahir Dar and Adama implied that they had previously needed to earn money rather than go to school (which was much lower in Shashemene). More information on why the domestic workers surveyed in this research currently work is detailed in the next section on girls' working status.

Caregivers being reluctant to send girls to school was a critical barrier to education, especially in Adama, where 55% of girls indicated their PGCs had been unwilling to send them to school. Additional barriers to enrolment were particularly acute in Shashemene and Adama. In these cities, safety issues concerning the journey to and environment at school were raised by far higher proportions than in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar. Schools being far and, relatedly, inadequate transportation were also common.

For girls who have been to formal school but dropped out, similar factors were at play. Among drop-outs, 56% gave lack of money as a major reason for drop out, while 37% stated the need to work was a main reason for dropping out, this being particularly high in Addis Ababa (50%) and Bahir Dar (56%) – the two cities with higher proportions of rural-migrants and domestic workers in this study.

The fact that economic challenges are the key factor in girls not being able to pursue an education is exemplified by the fact that many parents of OOS girls interviewed described how they simply could not get the money together to pay for schooling costs at the beginning of the school year, meaning their children had to drop out. Although Government schools are free of charge to attend, children still need essential supplies such as uniforms, shoes, transport money, a daily lunchbox, exercise books and pens – costs that quickly add up. School directors from all cities stated that school management often covers the costs for some especially vulnerable children to attend school but there is insufficient funding for the needs of all. For example, according to one interviewee, the Government allocates school management 24 ETB per child enrolled, but this amount is insufficient to cover the needs of their enrolled pupils.[18]

The discussion below characterizes further reasons for drop-out experienced by previously-enrolled girls. However, this discussion and data should only be taken as indicative of the current reasons girls are still not enrolled, as many reasons may no longer apply because of changing situations. For example, safety issues might have changed since girls were previously enrolled. Furthermore, as the sampled population is

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[18] Many additional costs required to ensure that children can access and enjoy education come from social pressures rather than direct costs. For example, many of the PCGs interviewed in this study described an expectation from other the school community that they contribute to a PTA fund to support school improvements, while others noted that without new uniforms and shoes, their children would not be able to keep learning.

a relatively mobile group, it is likely that many of the girls have moved since they dropped out of school (particularly given that so many dropped out at low grade levels). As such, issues including a lack of WASH facilities at local schools or the distance of schools from their homes may no longer apply. Overall, the below discussion serves to contextualize the barriers and challenges that are common to many girls currently living in the cities under study. Even if some of these barriers are no longer as relevant or unlikely to be acutely faced should girls re-enroll, they nonetheless constitute important aspects of education that were previously lacking.

The additional barriers to education noted were particularly prevalent in Shashemene and Adama, where higher proportions of girls indicated challenges related to safety, transportation and distance of the school from their homes, as well as a lack of special education services for students in need and not speaking the languages of instruction. The issues surrounding safety and distance are particularly notable: 30% of formerly enrolled girls in Shashemene and 47% in Adama gave safety on the journey as a reason for dropout, while 10% and 43% of girls in these cities stated that it had been unsafe in school – much higher than in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar. While safety was more of an issue in Adama, distance to school and transportation was a particularly acute challenge in Shashemene, where 30% of schools were considered to be far and 27% cited transportation as inadequate, closely followed by Adama, at 27% and 18% for these indicators respectively.

Interview participants in Adama and Shashemene reflected more on experiences of conflict or violence in their lives than those in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar – the two larger and (very generally) more stable cities. Some participants in Adama and Shashemene are migrants to these cities from other regions of the country that had previously witnessed instability. Twenty-nine percent of rural-urban migrants in Adama stated they moved due to conflict, which is linked to the fact that one of the sampled kebeles in this city is home to those from the Somali region that resettled in the area approximately a decade ago. Many of the girls from these families dropped out of their former schools due to safety areas. Others in Adama and Shashemene noted that there had been regional instability due to ethnic or religious differences, although reflected that their current areas are now peaceful.

To further explore the issues related to distance and safety across cities, girls that had previously been enrolled were asked how long it had taken to get to school and whether they had previously had someone to accompany them. On average, girls in Bahir Dar and Addis Ababa spent just over half an hour travelling to school, while those in Adama and Shashemene took just under half an hour, suggesting that the location of previous schools had not been an issue. However, absence of a person to travel with girls to school was a reason for dropout in 20% of cases in Shashemene and 13% in Adama, compared with less than 4% in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar. That girls in Shashemene and Adama were far likely to have been accompanied on the way to school than in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar is surprising and presents a critical barrier to schooling in these cities.

The data on the length of girls' journeys to school should be understood in the context of migration. Many girls no longer reside in the village, town or city in which they went to school in – meaning that the above data should not be taken as indicative of the accessibility of schools in each of the cities under study.

The above questions regarding accompaniment on the way to school and average journey time relate closely to harassment and safety on the school journey. In KIIs, many school directors stated that boys and men wait outside school gates and harass girls on their way home, affecting girls' morale and motivation to continue in their education. As noted by a school director in Bahir Dar, *"We reported the case to police*

officers and they are following it. But the situation is not yet resolved yet. I saw these groups yesterday outside the school. They come when students are released home."

Although most individuals stated that journeys to school were safe, most participants felt that returning after dark was an issue and might discourage girls from re-enrolling after having dropped out previously, as they do not feel the situation has improved and become safer. One interviewed girl stated she used to travel to school with a friend but one day, her friend did not show up at their meeting point. Later, she found her friend "dead on the road". No more was discussed on this topic, but the girl in question's parents were interviewed and noted that safety was a prevalent issue to be addressed. According to participants interviewed in all cities, although experiencing sexual and physical assault on the way to and from school is a rare occurrence, it does occasionally happen – forcing PCGs/employers to make the agonizing choice between promoting girls' education and risking their safety, or not sending them to school but limiting their potential in other ways.

Related to the above safety issues, which make girls feel unsafe in pursuing education and weaken their motivation to continue their studies, is the behavior of boys. The quantitative indicators that relate to this issue did not show a great difference between cities: when asked whether being mistreated or bullied by other children at school had been a factor in dropout, only one girl in Addis Abba, none in Bahir Dar and four in Shashemene reported it had, while ten in Adama – just over 5% of those that had previously been enrolled there – indicated that the behavior of other students had been a factor in dropping out.[19]

Interviewees noted that teasing of girls by other students is not usually significant enough to make girls dropout, but that the behavior of boys, in particular, certainly constitutes a barrier to education in terms of concentration and morale. Participants stated that girls tend to be less disruptive, concentrate better and, because of this, often have higher scores than boys, although they are absent more often due to having to work at home. Mostly, it was agreed that such harassment from boys and needing to carry out household tasks (to create a better living environment for other household members including male relatives) are just some of the barriers girls must face if they want to continue learning – reflecting an acceptance and/or a reluctance to change traditionally entrenched beliefs that "boys will be boys."

An additional safety-related reason is the mistreatment of girls in school, which was described as a reason for dropout by 22.1% of girls in Shashemene and Bahir Dar – nearly a quarter of girls in these cities – compared only one girl in each of the other cities. To further explore how this mistreatment was experienced by girls in practice, analysis was conducted on girls' interactions with teachers while at school. An average of 89.6% of girls across all cities agreed (either a lot or little) that their teachers had 'made them feel welcome in the classroom', while about 6% were neutral and 4% disagreed. Respondents from Bahir Dar were less likely than those from other cities to agree that teachers had made them feel welcome: 83% agreed, 9% were neutral and 7.4% disagreed with the statement.

To ascertain whether there had been differences in treatment between girls and boys, girls were asked of their level of agreement with the statement 'teachers treat boys better than girls in the classroom'. Thirty-

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[19] Some of the girls in interviews from across all locations stated that they had previously been teased at school, often for having learning disabilities, but similar numbers of girls interviewed stated this had not been the case – making it difficult to contextualize this finding too much.

seven percent of children agreed with this statement across all cities, with girls in Shashemene and Adama more highly represented in this proportion than those in other cities.[20] A final finding regarding safety-related information relates to the use of physical punishment on children. When asked how often their teacher had used physical punishment on children, most girls (78.2%) stated never – with more girls in Adama and Shashemene giving this option than in other cities. The option of 'once or twice' was given by 31% in Addis Ababa, 19% in Bahir Dar, 14% in Shashemene and 9% in Adama. Furthermore, less than 5% of girls in Shashemene and Adama said that their teacher had used physical punishment on them, personally, in a week – which was fewer than those in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar. These results indicate that corporal punishment was not what was meant when girls in Shashemene and Adama gave safety issues as a main reason for dropout, but the relatively significant proportions of girls that reported physical punishment is nonetheless problematic for learning, although it is not outlawed in Ethiopian schools.[21]

Previously enrolled girls were asked whether they had had access to water and sanitation in their previous schools to explore whether this might have been a reason for dropout and to present the infrastructural challenges faced by girls – particularly those with mobility or access requirements. While most girls had access to sanitation facilities, fewer girls had access to clean water, particularly in Addis Ababa and Shashemene. This is a critical barrier to education given girls' menstrual hygiene needs.

Those who stated that they did not have access to water and sanitation facilities were asked why. The majority responded that it was due to a lack of infrastructure: either the facilities did not exist or were unusable due to dilapidation or limited accessibility. Although not directly stated as a reason for drop out during IDIs with formerly schooled girls, many girls noted problems with the WASH facilities in their former schools, making it more challenging for them to stay in school. The PCG of one girl with a physical disability described how household members used to come to the school every day to physically assist the girl in using the toilets and handwashing facilities, which meant the girl felt different and affected her morale and motivation to continue education.

An additional barrier to girls' education that arose during qualitative techniques is not having local ID cards. Although those under 18 years are not issued with their own cards, their caregivers must have IDs in order to enroll their children in schools (and when a child turns 18, their documented caregiver must accompany them to the kebele administration office to help them obtain one.) However, if families move house outside their kebele, their IDs are no longer valid, as ID cards are tied to the local area. The process of getting a new ID card administered in another kebele can be lengthy and require additional payments and proof of residence. It is necessary to show the former ID card to get a new one with any degree of ease. As such, if a household has lost their ID cards, for example if they have had to leave their former region suddenly to flee conflict and did not manage to bring the documents or if their house has burned down or been looted, it can take months to gain new ones – even if the correct procedures are followed.

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[20] This data and additional indicators on the treatment of girls by teachers is presented in the annex of characteristics of girls.

[21] The data on corporal punishment of children in schools is included in the annex of characteristics of girls. For more information on the impact of physical violence on children, please see: Pankhurst, A. N. Negussie and E. Mulugeta (2016). Understanding Children's Experiences of Violence in Ethiopia: Evidence fromYoung Lives, Innocenti Working Paper 2016-25, UNICEF Office of Research, Florence.

As such, according to qualitative data, the reason that many girls and their families do not have ID cards is that they have moved house to somewhere in a different kebele or region. In addition to hampering school enrolment, not having an ID card also makes it more difficult to access other services in the community, and undocumented households are considered as 'temporary' residents and so are not invited to meetings. One mother, who moved to Bahir Dar with her daughter following conflict in their home region stated:

> *"Since we don't have a kebele ID card, we couldn't get a support letter that would have been written to the school from the Kebele officials to enroll her without payment. But we couldn't get the Kebele ID because we are migrants. We are expected to bring a release letter from our previous residence. This is unthinkable by itself. The Oromia leaders don't want to write this kind of release letter. Now we have Oromia's ID, which is valueless here. I've tried to get a new ID by taking my house renter as a guarantor but the Kebele officials couldn't give me. After all these trials, we decided to enroll her for the ALP program."*

This problem was mostly indicated in Bahir Dar, whereas in other cities only one or two IDI participants noted that not having ID would present a challenge in accessing services. It represents a particular challenge for domestic workers, who often change their location in order to work.

Children that want or need to change schools also need to get a school leaving certificate that specifies which Grade they reached. However, this can be very difficult in practice. Some individuals stated that schools had accidentally issued the wrong certificates. One domestic worker that completed Grade 4 had to start at Grade 1 again because she had not known about needing a leaving certificate when changing schools. Other people had been asked for money for such certificates, for example in Adama, where one parent could not help her child progress beyond Grade 5. She noted, "*the school requested me to pay fees for sending her transcript to another nearby school. I do not have the money to pay for that. Because of this, she is now out of school. This is because of my poor living standard.*" The ID card and leaving certificate issues are particular barriers for migrants and domestic workers.

The results of this study cannot be used to explain the nature of language barriers experience and how these contributed to dropout or enrollment because it is not clear when these were an issue in the girls' lives. In other words, even though around 20% of girls in Adama and Shashemene reported that language barriers had led to them not being enrolled or dropping out, this study cannot specify when this issue was experienced and if it is still an issue today. Information from the project team reflects that girls may migrate across Ethiopia and, as a result, not speak the local language of the area they reside in. Therefore, in places like Adama and Shashamene, they may have dropped out because they do not speak the language of instruction in former school and there was no support for them in the learning environment

4.3.1   Cultural and traditional barriers

In IDIs and KIIs, dropping out to get married was mostly described as "a thing of the past" and participants generally agreed that girls' education is considered as valuable. However, there were still many references to girls under 18 getting married and dropping out of school. According to an OOS girl participant from Shashemene, "*after girls reach 15 years of age the family does not want to see them in the house.*" The caregiver of this girl stated: "*Most of the time, the age of the bride-to be is not considered, but the age of 14 and more is a good time for a girl to be married and have a child.*" These participants agreed that girls' education is only supported by the community until they reach Grade 8.

One employer of a domestic worker in Bahir Dar agreed that some girls are still pressured to marry young instead of continuing their education – particularly in rural communities. She described how her domestic worker's family is currently encouraging her to stop working and get married. However, the employer is *"advising her at least to get to know herself and decide on her own future life. Her parents are pushing her to go out of my house and marry. She is only 15 and I'm strongly advising her not to marry at this age."*

Related to the cultural expectation of getting married and starting a family, often at a young age, is the common attitude that girls are expected to work on household tasks to a greater degree than boys. It was universally agreed that girls work more than boys at home – even if they are not officially employed or paid at all. This is due to socially and culturally ascribed traditions under which women and girls are responsible for household tasks. Furthermore, most participants agreed that the way to overcome the issue is for girls to work slightly less (but keep working) or for affirmative action to be taken that would support these individuals in transitioning through grades and up to secondary school despite such challenges.

4.3.2   Girls' Work Status

Fifty-five percent of the girls surveyed for this study are domestic workers: 84% of girls in Addis Ababa, 65% of girls in Bahir Dar, 31% of girls in Shashemene and 39% of girls in Adama. Across all cities, employed girls work for an average of 11 months per year, although they tend to work more in Addis Ababa (all year round without a break) and less in Bahir Dar. Most work 41–45 hours a week, roughly 6 to 9 hours a day, depending on their employer and if they are given Sundays off. Most girls (70% across all cities) work in order to support their families, while 14% work to attend school, which was particularly highly indicated in Addis Ababa and Shashemene. Nine percent of girls work to open a business – especially in Addis Ababa, where 15% of girls gave this option.

Of the 433 domestic workers, 66% are not paid for the work they do. Qualitative data revealed several reasons for this lack of payment, the most common one being financial challenges and low income of the household. Interviewees noted that these challenges had been exacerbated by Covid-19; as described in a later section on the impact of the pandemic, a large proportion of household heads reported that they or someone else in the home had lost their job, while a considerable number of households faced increased pressure on their household finances. Another reason that some employers do not pay their domestic workers is that they take their services for granted – particularly if they are extended family members. As reflected in interviews, it is relatively common for girls from rural areas of Ethiopia to be sent to stay with their relatives in towns, especially if money is short at home and there are limited economic opportunities available. Some employers believe that they do not need to pay girls because they are providing them with accommodation and food, while others believe they are helping these girls to move away from more challenging living situations.

Although most girls in Adama and Shashemene do not work, the vast majority of those that do are not paid in these cities, representing a huge barrier for girls who remain in a vicious circle of poverty despite their migration to work, earn money and/or pursue education. Qualitative findings revealed several reasons girls might remain in employment even if they are not paid. Firstly, it should be noted that domestic workers' perspectives and experiences are relatively narrow in the sense that many have never or rarely travelled outside of their regions or even hometowns. Many have limited understanding of the world outside their immediate experience which is, for many, their very local area. Indeed – many are unable even to leave their households other than to go to the shops or to church, with the permission of their employer.

Therefore, even though some institutional-level interviewees such as woreda officials and school directors stated there was a shortage of domestic workers in Bahir Dar and Addis Ababa, which means that domestic workers will simply leave if their working conditions are not adequate, it is likely that some domestic workers are not aware of this potential opportunity. Most domestic workers feel that there are simply no other options available to them.

Many domestic workers live with an employer that is a relative but that does not pay them. This is because their immediate families send them from more rural areas to be looked after by their wealthier extended families due to financial burdens and limited opportunities for future education and/or employment in smaller villages. It is expected that girls will stay with their town-dwelling relatives, even if they experience poor conditions in their households (such as working long hours without payment) due to social pressure from both sides of their family.

Although all of the domestic workers interviewed were OOS prior to the start of the BTA program, some girls nonetheless stay with employers because they wish to get an education (as 14% of domestic workers responded that they work in order to receive an education). Some of the employers interviewed described how they believe education is very important for domestic workers; for example, one stated:

> *"An educated girl will become free from dependency. Our mothers were dependent on their husbands. That is just becoming a domestic worker. The whole life will be doing household activities and child rearing. I don't wish such kinds of life for any girl."*

This employer and her domestic worker have a very positive relationship. Even though the girl described her salary as insufficient, she also stated that she admires her employer and thinks she is treated well. Although this girl is paid, the quotation and interview data reflects that some girls who are underpaid may stay with employers despite this because they enjoy living with their employers. Another employer of a girl in Bahir Dar (who is paid 400 ETB a month) described how the domestic worker's parents are pushing their daughter to leave the employer's household and get married, even though the girl is 15 years old and does not want to marry. The girl may well be staying with her employer in order to avoid having to get married and have children at such a young age.

Table 10: Domestic workers' work-related data in percent

	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama	All
Domestic working conditions	(n=174)	(n=137)	(n=65)	(n=77)	(n=453)
Paid	35.1	60.6	10.9	5.2	34.2
Unpaid workers	64.9	39.4	89.1	94.8	65.8
Months a year girls work (Mean)	11.5	10	11	11.5	11
Monthly hours girls work (Mean)	40.5	44	47.5	44.5	43.5
Reasons girls work					
To support family	60.3	78.1	70.8	76.6	70.0
To attend school	21.8	5.8	15.4	11.7	14.3
To open a business	14.9	7.3	1.5	3.9	8.8
Other[22]	1.1	8.8	6.2	5.2	4.9
Don't know	1.7	0.0	6.2	2.6	2.0
Harmful conditions experienced at work					
None	81.0	35.0	80.0	88.3	68.2
Always work late at night	13.2	22.6	9.2	5.2	14.1
Always lift heavy things	9.8	24.1	15.4	3.9	13.9
Always exposed to fire/oven	3.4	26.3	6.2	2.6	10.6
Always uses toxic chemical/sharp knives	0.6	10.2	3.1	0.0	3.8
Expose to a lot of sunlight	0.0	0.7	0.0	2.6	0.7
Payment information	(n= 61)	(n= 83)	(n= 7)*	(n= 4)**	(n=155)
Mean monthly pay among paid workers	964 ETB 21 USD	867 ETB 19 USD	521 ETB 11 USD	587 ETB 13 USD	735 ETB 16 USD
Sufficiency of payment to cover basic needs					
Sufficient	49.2	18.1	0.0	25.0	29.7
Neutral / don't know	3.3	4.8	28.6	0.0	5.2
Insufficient	47.5	77.1	71.4	75.0	65.2
Savings of paid domestic workers					
Girl saves	42.6	16.9	0.0	50.0	27.1
Girl does not save	57.4	83.1	100.0	50.0	72.9
Way in which girls save money					
Don't know	37.7	34.9	28.6	0.0	34.8
Bank account	39.3	20.5	14.3	50.0	28.4
At home/in my bag	4.9	8.4	42.9	50.0	9.7
Send money to family	16.4	2.4	14.3	25.0	9.0
Through a savings club 'equib'	0.0	7.2	0.0	25.0	4.5

***Note that only 7 girls in Shashemene and 4 girls in Adama are paid, meaning that the average payment, sufficiency of payment information and savings information/methods should be taken as only mildly indicative of the current situation due to such low numbers.

Most girls that are paid for their work face payment insufficiency issues, which sustains the barriers to education faced. On average, girls who are paid for their work receive 735 ETB per month (16 USD), which ranges from 964 ETB/month in Addis Ababa to 521 ETB in Shashemene. Although 49% of girls in Addis Ababa stated their payment was sufficient to meet their needs, far fewer girls said they were able to meet their needs using their salaries – adding to the barriers such girls face, as they migrated to cities with aspirations to make a living out of their work.

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[22] Four other reasons were suggested: to be self-sufficient (10 girls, all in Bahir Dar), to be happy (7 girls), to make a living (3 girls) and to go to Arab countries (2 girls, both in Addis Ababa).

Most workers do not save because their salaries are too low to save, as stated by 88% girls that do not save. Very few girls save in banks, especially in Shashemene and Adama, and qualitative techniques revealed that most lack knowledge of saving methods and mechanisms. For example, in Shashemene, two different domestic workers said they send their entire earnings to their families instead of using any of it on their own needs. This is relatively unsurprising given that most girls who become domestic workers do so in order to support their families and that most domestic workers live in the household of their employer, who is usually responsible for providing their food and basic needs. As such, many paid domestic workers can send all of their salaries to their families. However, if the girls have not discussed whether their family is saving the money for them or using it for their own needs, girls may not be sure exactly how the saving mechanism works (as it may be in a bank, in the house or simply being spent, and not saved at all).

A common response from domestic workers interviewed, particularly in Bahir Dar and Adama, described how their employers are saving on their behalf. One girl stated she earns 400 ETB/month but that her employer has kept all of her salary to date in order to save it for her and give it to her when she really needs it – perhaps to open a business in the future or in case of emergency. However, this girl noted that she does not actually know how much she has saved up so far and is not sure where and how the employer saves it. Given this girl has no formal education beyond the BTA program, it is unlikely she can calculate how much is in her savings – which explains why the girl likely responded 'do not know' to the question of how she saves her money. Fortunately, this employer confirmed that she is saving up the girl's money and will give it to her when asked, but this accountability issue threatens the future income of many other girls that do not know how much they have earned and must rely on their employers' honesty.

A further reason that girls may have stated they do not know how they save is that they do not count their money and so are unsure how much they have or whether the amount is substantial enough to be counted as 'savings'. Perhaps they use multiple methods of saving and so are unaware how much they have saved. Although those domestic workers that were asked how they save had previously responded that they do save, most of the sampled girls have a low level of financial literacy (as noted from the attitudes towards money given in interviews). This lack of knowledge may have led to them considering themselves as not saving, despite the screening question, which accounts for a 'do not know' response.

When asked whether they believe that the time spent working was a reason for them not being enrolled in school, 59% of domestic workers stated that it was not, while 15% said it was partly a reason and just over a quarter agreed it was the main reason they were not enrolled. Results varied across cities – with 53% of girls in Bahir Dar stated that having to work was the main reason they were not enrolled in school, while compared with 20% in Addis Ababa, 11% in Shashemene and only 1 girl out of 77 in Adama.

Although it might be posited that enrolment in school would lead to a domestic worker having less time to their job or result in them working reduced hours (which would then explain why they are not enrolled in school) the participants in this research almost universally understood 'school for domestic workers' as referring to night school classes, as this is the only form of schooling that a domestic worker would, realistically, enroll in. Employers of domestic workers want them to work during the daytime – often when they are out of the house, meaning they need someone to look after their children – so it is seen as relatively self-evident and uncontroversial that being a domestic worker means a girl cannot go to regular school in the daytime.

During qualitative interviews with girls, they were asked whether it was likely that school would interfere with their domestic work (or vice versa). Most girls tended to agree that pursuing education would not interfere with domestic work because they will study after finishing their household tasks. Others noted that, on some rare occasions, they would not be able to attend a class if their household requires them to do extra evening work – for example during a holiday in which special meals are prepared or guests are invited – but that this is not likely to occur often. During interviews, several educators and school directors described how some domestic workers are so overworked at home that they arrive at night school tired and unable to focus on their work. However, only one or two girls mentioned that this had happened to them.

Similar patterns were seen among PCGs/employers: 45% of respondents stated that having to work at home was a reason for not being previously enrolled, while 15% in Addis Ababa, 1% in Shashemene and only 2 PCGs in Adama stated that this was the reason for girls not being enrolled. This question was asked to all adult respondents – not just employers/PCGs of domestic workers – indicating that having to work is a key educational barrier for all girls. Many employers repeatedly associated 'domestic worker's education' with night school – reflecting an interpretation of appropriate schooling of domestic workers as being outside of their working hours, which should be a first priority, and demonstrating that school would not even be permitted to interfere with work.

As per the working environment of girls and the safety of their working conditions, 68% of all girls said that they do not experience any of the suggested hazards, which included working near fires, working late at night, having to lift heavy things or using toxic chemicals. However, this average mask the fact that girls in Bahir Dar were particularly at risk of each of the hazards listed, with each hazard experienced by a quarter of girls and only 35% stating that they experience no hazards at all.

To further explore the challenges related to working environments, specifically with regard to those faced by rural-urban migrants, all girls were asked how far they agree with the following statements:

1. Rural-urban migrant girls live their lives like those of other girls who are not migrants.
2. Rural-urban migrant girls are exposed to a lot of work.
3. Rural-urban migrant girls are exposed to sexual abuse.

Girls tended to agree with the first statement – fewer than 20% in any city disagreed to any degree. Conversely, girls agreed significantly with the second statement, reflecting that they believe rural-urban migrants are disproportionately exposed to work. Overall, 63% of domestic worker girls and 74% of non-domestic worker girls agreed with this statement, especially in Bahir Dar, Shashemene and Adama. Agreement with the third statement was especially strong, with most girls agreeing that rural-urban migrants are exposed to sexual abuse. This was high rural-urban migrants, 43% of whom agreed strongly and 27% agreed a little that rural-urban migrants are more exposed to sexual abuse than non-rural-urban migrants.

These levels of agreement show the perceptions of how sampled girls believe rural-urban migrant girls live their lives and the incidence of sexual abuse they face, rather than these girls' actual experiences. Qualitative information provided additional information on how, where and when rural-urban migrants face sexual abuse and reflected that the incidence does seem to be higher among this group than other girls in practice.

Interviewees from WCYA officers, especially in Bahir Dar, described why rural-urban migrants are especially vulnerable to abuse. Often these girls arrive in towns without ID cards or proper documentation, without which they cannot rent accommodation or get a job in the formal economy. As such, they have limited options: if they do not have family or friends in the town they arrive in, they will be unable even to get a room for the first night in many cases. As such, in areas of high migration, brokers congregate around bus stations to meet new migrants off the bus when they arrive from their villages. Although some brokers help girls to find work in a safe, legal manner, others are engaged in trafficking, physical and sexual abuse, forced labor and other illegal practices. In Bahir Dar and Addis Ababa, especially, brokers were described as highly influential in pushing migrant girls into unsafe employment practices. Engaging such individuals is made even more challenging by the fact that most operate in secret.

4.3.3   Girls' Social networks

The extent of girls' social networks was assessed by asking them whether they have female friends or relatives to talk to if they need. Overall, 64% of domestic workers across all four cities have female friends, relatives or other people they can reach out to when they need support, although a higher proportion of domestic worker girls in Addis Ababa lack such social networks than in other cities (52% compared with 18-34% in other cities). However, when it comes to non-domestic workers in Addis Ababa, the vast majority (85%) have friends or relatives – a much greater percentage than in other cities. Although in Bahir Dar, a high proportion of both domestic workers and non-domestic workers have friends and relatives they can reach out to, non-domestic workers in Shashemene and Adama (who make up a substantial proportion of the sampled girls in these cities), do not have social networks to rely on.

Table 11: Percentage of girls with friendship network status

Percentage of girls who have a female friend or relative they can seek out in need	Domestic workers	Non-domestic workers
Addis Ababa	48.3	84.8
Bahir Dar	66.4	70.8
Shashemene	81.5	49.6
Adama	80.5	34.7
All	**64.0**	**52.2**

4.3.4   Availability of community and institutional support

High numbers of domestic girls stated that nothing is being done in their community to support domestic girls, with non-workers slightly more likely to state that some initiatives were being done. Particularly high proportions of girls in Addis Ababa (54%) and Adama (53%) stated that nothing at all is being done to support them.

4.3.4.1   Attitudes towards girls' education

According to quantitative survey results, both PCGs/employers and girls have positive attitudes towards education of girls and believe rural-urban migrants and domestic workers should have access to education.

Responses of PCGs/employers regarding attitudes towards such individuals and whether they support or believe in their equal rights with other girls and the majority agreed that:

- Domestic workers are as important as other girls (94%)
- Domestic workers can do things the same as most other people (88%)
- Domestic workers lead their lives like girls who are neither migrants nor domestic workers (74%)

Although PCGs/employers held such attitudes according to survey results, most indicated that domestic workers cannot do the same things as other girls because they need to work, in IDIs and KIIs. Many domestic workers are not allowed to go out of the house to church or even to the shop, let alone enroll in night school. Although some PCGs/employers stated they treat their domestic workers the same as their other children, it is nonetheless the case that their other children were in school, while the domestic worker stayed at home, prior to the BTA project inception.

Moreover, the strength of PCGs' agreement with the above three statements is challenged by qualitative data from WEOs, WCYA officials, school leaders and mentors, who stated that although communities are gradually changing their attitudes, most do not support domestic workers' education in practice, even though they support the initiative in theory. Broadly, three attitudes were discernable.

> **Some employers do not support sending domestic workers to school because they believe there is little value in educating domestic workers and/or that sending them to school would leave the housework incomplete and/or domestic workers might learn about other opportunities from brokers or other domestic workers and then leave their employers. Therefore, these individuals do not send domestic workers to school.**

Most people do not educate their domestic workers because they are expected to work at home - which is why they were hired. As noted by an institutional-level representative in Bahir Dar: *"Community members, as well as schoolteachers, do not believe that it is important for children from these groups to go to school for the sake of being independent after completion of their education."* The main reason for this is that many families hope or believe domestic workers will remain in this job for the rest of their lives. As such, they do not see the purpose their education. Other community-level individuals in Shashemene said people tend to believe that education of domestic workers *"is enough if they learn to write their name"*. Although nobody directly stated this way their personal opinion, most indicated it is a commonly held belief.

> **Many employers who verbally support the idea of educating domestic workers but, in practice, do not send their girls to school. Qualitative techniques revealed three reasons this might be the case: low income, lack of knowledge of education-related issues or a deeper lack of real agreement with sending such girls to work because of the reasons described above.**

Some individuals stated they support domestic worker education in principle but have not actually enrolled their own domestic workers. An example of this is through a woman who works for a Woreda WCYA Office, focussing on education of domestic workers, but she had never sent her domestic worker to school. Once her colleagues found out about this, she was essentially forced into enrolling the worker in school. This woman would have told people that she supports the idea of educating domestic workers; indeed, her job is to persuade others of the value of such education. However, the fact that she did not enrol her own worker reflects that, deep down, she did not really want to.

Some do not support the idea of education of domestic workers, perhaps due to one of the reasons described above; however, they enrol domestic workers in school in fear of losing them. This would happen because, particularly in areas with a shortage of domestic workers, some girls consider staying in school as a prerequisite for working.

One PCG/employer of a domestic worker in Bahir Dar stated that some domestic workers have left their employers because they will not enroll them. She stated, *"Relatives bring family members from rural areas by promising to teach them at the beginning and then they don't want to let them go to school."* However, although people described this might happen, no actual cases were described. Quantitative data showed that girls in Bahir Dar are exposed to the most hazardous working environment of any domestic workers surveyed, perhaps meaning they are less picky over their working conditions than many people believe.

Those in Adama described how a shortage of domestic workers has given workers the collective bargaining power to demand their rights. One PCG characterized the issue as follows: *"Currently, as there is a shortage of domestic worker girls, most of them are now living in the community in a good condition. They have a good salary. All the things that they want would be done for her as the employer family thinks we may lose her. So, they are in a good condition. In addition to these, most of them are attending their classes in the night program. Of course, that much work had not been done by the community. However, these workers themselves protected their rights."* Although this individual is, mistaken, as quantitative data revealed that domestic workers are often not paid in Adama and many are still out of school, the fact that these perceptions are prevalent across the community is encouraging.

It should be noted that education of domestic worker girls has been enshrined in Ethiopia's legal system and education laws (for example the GTP-I and GTP-II of 2010-2015 and 2016-2021). Indeed, one institutional-level representative from Adama stated: *"When a domestic worker girl is hired in a household, they sign a kind of contract agreement that contains an article saying the employer has the obligation to send her to school. Therefore, if the employer does not let her go to school, she will leave the household. This is the experience in the kebele/sub-city."* It was only institutional-level individuals that described how laws will actually motivate people to send their domestic workers to school.

4.3.4.2   Institutional Support Availability by City

Institutional and community support for girls' education took various forms, according to IDIs and KIIs:

- Community support to schools, for example through fundraising activities or other initiatives organized by parent-teacher associations (PTAs)
- Community support for education, in a general sense, driven through community meetings and other public forums
- School support to encourage communities to attend school, for example through funds for poorer students or initiatives to encourage enrolment
- Government support for girls' education (i.e. to schools or the community) through partnerships between different government bodies to encourage enrolment or strengthen school services/facilities
- NGO support to girls' education – directly to schools or to communities in to encourage them to send children to school, especially those from marginalized or vulnerable groups

Such support varied in strength and manifestation between cities – with many initiatives described in Bahir Dar but only few in Shashemene and Adama. Some support was described as being targeted towards helping certain sub-groups attend school (e.g. poorer students, girls in general, domestic workers or GwDs). The following sections give an overview of the different types of support available in each city.

Bahir Dar

Most community-level participants did not generally understand the education system, as evidenced by a lack of knowledge of activities at the school-level and/or mismatches between reports support available between key informants, PCGs and girls. A wide variation of types and levels of support was seen across the city. For example, some PTAs appear well-integrated with the community in making key decisions about overall school activities, while others were described as "not impactful", as they only get involved in small-scale fundraising for school improvements. As such, these associations rarely focus on increasing enrolment of minority or vulnerable groups. However, in some instances, fundraising is considerable: in one school, 238,000 ETB was raised to construct improved WASH facilities, including a water tank.

Several school directors described social support clubs for vulnerable students – for example breakfast clubs and charity initiatives for poorer children and very vulnerable individuals like daily laborers, who are looked after by a housemother. In one school, low-income students are provided 350 ETB/month in support, although this not universally available. Meanwhile, another school described how they used to have a 'Women's Fund' to support girls' education, but this was ineffective due to corruption.

The local Government has taken steps to raise awareness of the importance of girls' education – especially domestic workers and GwDs – for example through house-to-house visits in partnership with a local NGO named 'CBM'. Many NGOs were described in IDIs/KIIs in Bahir Dar including Humanity & Inclusion, Cheshire Ethiopia, JaCDO, Mahirere Hibot, Mekaneyesus, OPRIFS and Jerusalem's Children. These organizations work in various capacities with most support described as helpful but limited in scope and scale. Two associations for domestic workers were described: New Day (*'Addis Q'en'*) and Temsalet, although some girls face resistance from employers when they try to get involved in activities. Recently, local authorities have recently supported the creation of association for children with disabilities but, according to an Expert on Adult Basic Education (ABE) interviewed, who coincidentally has a disability, it would be more powerful if people with disabilities were given awareness training and empowered to create an association themselves.

Addis Ababa

PTAs, girls' clubs, house-to house awareness raising campaigns, and School Feeding Programs are the major institutional undertakings outlined by Woreda officials and school leaders in Addis Ababa: *"There are gender clubs in [formal] schools which provide women sanitation materials to girls. Feeding programs are also run by voluntary groups in schools.* However, almost all the outlined initiatives are reported to have been inadequate and ineffective in addressing issues of the most marginalized girls in the city – rural-urban migrants and domestic workers in particular. The initiatives either focus on 'Girls' education' in general or only students in 'day-time' formal schools in particular. One Woreda Education expert is quoted implying what was commonly agreed: *"In our office, the issue of girls' education is raised in our meeting and the agenda is discussed well. For instance, on March 8 we discussed the issue of girls' education and how to minimize gender-based violence. Apart from visiting and supporting economically (celebrating holidays together with the poor families and giving them food items), we have advised the families about changing the situation of girls in the community and educating them well. But there is no specific house-to-house counseling or meeting on educating domestic workers that were done in this community."*

Shashemene

Generally, less community or institutional support was described in Shashemene than in Bahir Dar and Addis. Most participants stated that, although education of girls has been raised in community meetings,

little action has been taken. Even fewer individuals suggested anything had been done to promote the inclusion of GwDs or domestic workers in formal education structures. Regarding GwDs, one individual commented: *"I don't think that the community has played a constructive role in opening different opportunities for such girls. This might be because of the poor thinking given to them by the community."* As such, little has been done because the community does not actively prioritize education of such groups.

PTAs were described as existing in all surveyed schools in Shashemene, with most people agreeing that they have a reasonable level of engagement with topics such as enrolment and retainment in school in general, but not specifically with reference to girls from minority groups. According to a school director, two different types of community meeting address challenges faced in community education:

> *"First, we have a family group; we have discussions with the family about students' dropouts and performance by sending letters home with students to access the families. Secondly, we have around 30-60 family members from families, and we will discuss with them about students' conditions… Domestic workers and daily laborers did not fully take part since they concentrate on their work."*

Some level of school support for girls' education was described, for example through the provision and distribution of sanitary materials, while others have waived the fees for low-income children. Another school has provided wheelchairs. Generally, schools are doing what they can but, in practice, this is limited.

Many participants stated activities to support education of domestic workers have begun but have not been driven to fruition due to a lack of community uptake. One school director stated that their school community is working hard to encourage enrolment through house-to-house visits and regularly communicates with families of domestic workers: *"Even when people want domestic workers to stay at home and do not let them go to school, they communicate with the school and tell their specific concern and convince the school. In this way we can discuss with the teachers and the families as well. We are having community involvement in our part and level."* This school director stated community leaders, kebele officials and school communities were all involved, but there is still a lack of awareness at a household level.

Regarding GwDs, there were two schools in which considerable support is available but generally, according to a project mentor: *"There is no satisfactory thing currently being done in this community to improve disabled girls' opportunities in life. The main reason problem is the way this community see those girls with disability. They think that girls with disability never reach anywhere."*

Adama

Generally, it was agreed that the issue of education of domestic workers and GwDs is described in community meetings and that some schools have conducted awareness-raising activities to encourage enrolment. However, communities have been reluctant to enroll all GwDs and domestic workers in practice. A degree of government support for education of girls and vulnerable groups was described, but activities are limited in practice. According to school representatives, the local BoWCYA has created an association for GwDs but there is none for domestic worker girls.

4.3.4.3   Community meetings

Community gatherings to raise awareness among the community was not commonly available across the cities. Eighty-five percent of PCGs/employers never participate in such meetings others participate only rarely – just one or two days a year. The same is true for girls, the vast majority of whom do not participate

in community conversations, which implies that girls' education, particularly among domestic workers, is largely overlooked in their communities.

IDIs also raised the topics of community meetings and prevailing attitudes that reflect attitude-based barriers toward the education of women and girls, people with disabilities and domestic workers. Generally, it seems that community meetings are only attended by 'normal' people – i.e. those with no disabilities, non-migrants and non-domestic workers. This is not necessarily due to judgement of or stigma (although some participants did indeed state that they are less likely to be invited); it is more a case of such groups lacking practical or logistical access to attend meetings. For example, those with disabilities were described as welcome to attend but unable to physically get there, while those with hearing difficulties may struggle to follow the content or participate meaningfully. Moreover, especially in Bahir Dar, it was described that people with disabilities have their own associations; as such, they "don't need" to attend regular community meetings because they can discuss issues related to disability within the confines of such dedicated groups.

Furthermore, many migrant members of the community are seen as temporary residents, meaning they are not considered as able or worthy to offer insight into local matters. This is exacerbated by the fact that rural-urban migrants are not given identification cards and so are not considered as 'real' members of the community. Even if they were to attend, their views would not be taken as seriously as locals. This reflects the less-visible nature of minority groups: they are not always stigmatized on purpose but because they are more hidden from society by virtue of their minority status they are simply not seen as genuine participants.

Indeed, poorer people do not attend community meetings because they do not have time. One low-income seller of *'Tella*[23]*'* indicated that her family *"is poor and our life will be miserable if we miss a day not working our tasks. I prefer to sell my 'Tella' rather than attend a meeting."* Additionally, as noted in a KII with the local administration in Bahir Dar, *"people do not want to participate in meetings if payment is not arranged. Participants are more attracted by money than the knowledge and skills they will receive from the meetings."* This quotation reflects how money is the primary concern for most individuals, while expressing themselves and communicating their challenges is only a priority insofar as their financial needs are met. Conversely, rich people do not attend community meetings because they don't need to: they have sufficient income to afford basic goods and do not require the support offered by community structures.

Meanwhile, domestic workers do not attend meetings – mostly because they have to work, but also because many are rural-urban migrants (as described above). Furthermore, most are seen as an extension of their employer, and only one household representative needs to attend. The stigma faced by domestic workers was also reflected in responses to this question: one participant noted that even if such girls attended meetings, they would not be listened to because they are not well-respected. Finally, a parallel can be drawn domestic workers not attendings meetings and not being enrolled in school: employers do not want their domestic staff to become acquainted with their rights due to the fear they will either demand more payment or else will leave them for improved opportunities in other households.

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[23] Traditional Ethiopian beer

4.4 COVID-19

The vast majority (97%) of sampled girls are aware of Covid-19 and its prevention methods, most of whom (87%) heard about the pandemic from the television, radio or newspaper. However, 22 of the sampled girls and are not aware of the existence of Covid-19, most commonly in Shashemene, where 15 girls had never heard about the pandemic. All sampled girls for IDIs had a relatively good knowledge of the symptoms, transmission and prevention methods of Covid-19 – often showing better knowledge than PCGs/employers.

To ascertain the level of engagement with and access to Population Council's Covid-19 awareness creation activities, sampled girls were asked whether they have seen a banner about Covid around where they live and learn. An average of 49% had seen a banner about Covid-19, which was lowest in Bahir Dar, where only 24% of girls stated they had seen such information.

Promoting sanitation by making girls wear facemasks (89%) and wash their hands (84%) are the most commonly used mechanisms PCGs/employers use to protect the household from Covid. Many indicated that they do not let girls leave the to keep everyone safe, particularly in Adama, where 65% of PCGs prevent girls from going outside – which is positive is halting the spread of the virus but highly damaging to social networks, communication skills and education access.

4.4.1 Impact of Covid-19

Leaving school and having a reduced income are the two most widely indicated impacts of the pandemic in all cities. Overall, 41% of girls had to leave school, presumably BTA classes since all sample girls were already out of formal school before Covid. As many as the 67% respondents reporting this impact were in Shashemene. This was for two main reasons: firstly, all schools were closed for six months, meaning many children got out of the habit of attending and eventually dropped out; and secondly, many PCGs prevented girls from going to schools when they reopened in fear of them contracting the virus.

Additionally, 26% of girls stated they feel scared or are lonely and depressed because of the pandemic. While this could be associated with the general depression and anxiety disorders, it is worth noting that IDIs with girls revealed nearly all are not permitted to go out and play, see their friends or visit relatives. This isolation was also felt by domestic workers: as described by one domestic worker in Shashemene: *'It affected me, especially in my social life. We could not study together. Life is too expensive. It is upsetting me since my life is affected a lot."* Not only is this girl affected by the fact that she can no longer continue her social life in the way she used to, but she also finds it difficult to study on her own and has noted an increase in prices. The pandemic's effects were acutely felt in Addis Ababa, where more Covid-19 cases were detected and announced than anywhere else, and where more social/physical distancing measures were taken. A lockdown in Bahir Dar for several weeks also forced everyone to stay at home for some time.

A further 23% of girls indicated they now have less food to eat at home, which is closely linked to household income (as almost all indicated that they can only afford basic needs, if that).

Some girls faced sexual violence because of school and office closures that increased their vulnerability to abuse. As noted by a WCYA Officer in Bahr Dar: *"Domestic violence increased abruptly, and many girls faced sexual harassment that leads to psychosocial problems. Many girls were raped and reported to our office."* This was prevalent among domestic workers across cities, but most commonly reported in Bahir Dar and Addis Ababa, perhaps because there are more domestic workers in these cities than in others.

The notion that domestic workers were overburdened with housework more than ever due to Covid-19 because most household members were stuck at home, was countered by information from this study. Only 5% of girls stated they work more hours than before, while 82% of domestic workers in Addis Ababa, 70% in Adama, 63% in Shashemene and 58% in Bahir Dar reported no change in their working hours from Covid-19. However, qualitative data revealed more mixed responses, with some girls stating they were overburdened because of more family members are at home, while others said they have less work to do.

Covid-19 has also had a negative impact at household level. As noted, most sampled households cannot meet their basic needs unless supported by charity. Since the onset of the pandemic, 44% of PCGs/employers lost their jobs while 37% indicated that other household members lost their income. This was proportionately higher in Shashemene and Adama, where an average of 62% and 45% stated Covid had put pressure on their household financial statuses, respectively, compared with 28% on average in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar.

Overall, participants agreed that the effects of Covid-19 have exacerbated inequality between richer and poorer people. This is exemplified in education, as only children from households with internet connectivity could continue online learning. Spending more time at home increased some social problems, which were easier to hide from the community – such as child marriage, sexual assault, and female genital cutting/mutilation. Although the government offered a certain degree of support in order to counter at least the financial challenges of Covid-19, providing grain and oil to those facing acute financial hardship, these measures did not go far enough to prevent the impacts from being felt by most participants of IDIs.

The effects of Covid-19 were summarised by one father in Adama as follows: *"Corona has significantly changed the lives of our community. People had stopped working. We are simply sitting in our home because of the virus. Five of my family members are fit to work. But, due to the absence of work, only my wife is currently doing a job at mill house. So, we all are simply sitting. This makes me anxious. Also, people, to some extent, have stopped participating in different ceremonies like marriage, burial ceremony, meetings, etc. For the future also, I wish the virus vanishes so we can go and work."* This sense of hopelessness and anxiety created by the pandemic is acutely felt and likely to be shared across communities, given the highly social and communal nature of Ethiopian societies.

5   LEARNING OUTCOME

5.1   INTRODUCTION

This section of the report presents the achievements of sampled girls on the EGRA and EGMA tests at baseline. These instruments were composed of a variety of subtasks designed to assess foundational reading and numeracy skills of surveyed girls.

It is noted that girls join the BTA project with a different level of literacy and numeracy skills. Accordingly, there are 107 learning classrooms in the 58 safe spaces across all cities in order to accommodate diverse learner groups. Availability of up to three rooms within a single safe space gives the option for mentors and teachers to be flexible in adapting the curriculum and meeting girls' diverse learning needs. The details of minimum learning competencies and syllabubs for numeracy and other subjects are provided by project for mentors and teachers. Through regular supervisions, respective education project officers support mentors

in lesson preparation using the detailed syllabus for different groups. It supplements the flexible teaching and learning approach to meet different level numeracy competency need of the girls.

As noted in the discussion of girls' characteristics, the most common first languages of girls are Amharic (55% of all girls, ranging from 27% in Shashemene to 99% in Bahir Dar) and Oromifa (36% of all girls, from 0.5% in Bahir Dar to 67.6% in Shashemene). Other common first languages are Wolayitegn, and Guragigna – each of which are spoken by less than 5% of girls, although the latter is the first language of 10% of girls in Addis Ababa.

As part of the project intervention's curriculum language of instruction, girls across the four cities receive education in two languages – Amharic and Oromifa. The project languages of instruction follow the respective region's ABE/ALP curriculum. Accordingly, in Bahir Dar (Amhara region) and Addis Ababa, Amharic is used across all spaces. Girls with mother tongue languages other than Amharic in these cities will start learning from the first level of the ABE/ALP curriculum. In Adama and Shashemene (both Oromia region), both languages of instruction are used in order to help girls to develop skills in their mother tongue languages, as the curriculum allows for Amharic language of instruction for native Amharic speakers. The BTA programs are arranged to accommodate both languages of instruction, as per the registration data. girls with native Amharic language are identified and the programs are arranged to accommodate both Amharic and Oromifa curriculum instruction.

In Adama there are eight safe spaces and in Shashemene there are eighteen safe spaces. There are a total of 59 classrooms (41 in Shashemene and 18 in Adama) across these 26 safe spaces. Each safe space has two to three classrooms to accommodate different learning groups, including diversity in language of instruction. In Adama, seven classrooms in four safe spaces have learning groups that teach in Amharic and eleven classrooms in six safe spaces arranged for Oromifa. In Shashemene, three classrooms in three safe spaces are used for Amharic and thirty eight Oromifa classrooms are available in all 18 safe spaces. Mentors and part-time teachers that can proficiently speak and teach in the language of instruction are arranged for the 59 learning classrooms. In Adama, eleven of the sixteen part time teachers can interchangeably instruct in both languages as a reflection of the high proportion of girls that speak both languages. The project has developed an MIS database to identify the profiles of mentors and teachers to supplement teaching to different learning groups.

In close consultation with BTA Program Officers, the languages of instruction for each of the intervention areas were identified to ensure that girls took the EGRA and EGMA tests in the language they receive classes in the project. Accordingly, in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar, EGRA/EGMA tests were administered in Amharic. In Shashemene, where both Amharic and Oromifa languages are used as language of instruction, 96% took the tests in Oromifa while 4% took tests in Amharic. In Adama, 67% took Oromifa tests while 33% took the test in Amharic.

Standard timed EGRA/EGMA tests are usually administered with 60 seconds given for each timed sub-task. For this particular study, 60 more seconds were added to give sufficient time, considering that the majority of girls are out of school and have either never been enrolled at all or dropped out at an early grade level. For all timed exercises in this report, therefore, two different analyses are made - one for how much the girls scored in the first 60 seconds (1 minute) and another for the whole 120 seconds (2 minutes). For untimed subtasks, only one round of analysis is conducted.

While administering the tests, enumerators utilized procedures to ensure the quality of test results. The following points were major requirements of the tests that enumerators had strictly followed:

- For all the timed exercises, enumerators started their timers to run for 120 seconds. After 60 seconds, enumerators registered how much of the subtask the girls had completed in this first minute without the consciousness of the girls. Those girls who did not finish doing the tasks within the remaining 60 seconds (2 minutes in total) were told to stop and move on to the next exercise.

- Tasks were discontinued for those girls who made four or five consecutive errors in a row categorizing them in the 'non-learner' band for scoring 0% - which is the 'early stop rule'.

- For every subtask, enumerators were asked to make sure the girls understood what they were expected to do before starting. Enumerators read out examples and practically demonstrated the tasks before asking the girls to do them.

- Prepared booklets were given to the girls when enumerators read out instructions for every subtask.

The analysis for EGRA and EGMA is conducted separately with sub-sections for each subtask of the tests. For a diagnosis of the gaps in literacy and numeracy skills, the subtask scores are cut into bands of achievements as follows for the subtask analysis:

- Non-learner: 0% of items.
- Emergent learner: 1%-40% of items.
- Established learner: 41%-80% of items.
- Proficient learner: 81%-100% of items.

For the oral reading fluency score (wpm or words-per-2-minutes for this study), the following four learning categories were used:

- Non-reader: 0-5 wpm.
- Emergent reader: 6-44 wpm.
- Established reader: 45-80 wpm.
- Proficient reader: 80+ wpm.

To arrive at the aggregate learning scores, the following approaches were adopted:

1. For each individual subtask, the total numbers of correct answers were divided by the total number of questions for the subtask to arrive at the average %.

2. All subtasks were weighed equally. For example, if the literacy test was composed of four subtasks then each subtask counted for ¼ of the total.

3. The average score was taken across all subtasks (e.g. if subtask 1 =50%, subtask 2 = 40%, subtask 3 = 80% and subtask 4 = 20% then the calculation was (50+40+80+20)/4 = 47.5%.

The table below shows all of the subtasks and the procedures applied.

Subtask	Details	Timed/Untimed
EGRA 1	Letter/symbol identification	Timed
EGRA 2	Familiar word reading	Timed
EGRA 3	Invented words reading	Timed
EGRA 4 (a)	Passage reading	Timed
EGRA 4 (b)	Reading comprehension	Untimed
EGRA 5	Listening comprehension	Untimed
EGMA 6	Number identification	Timed
EGMA 7	Quantity discrimination	Untimed
EGMA 8	Missing number	Untimed
EGMA 9	Addition	Timed
EGMA 10	Subtraction	Timed
EGMA 11	Written exercise	Untimed
EGMA 12	Word problems	Untimed

The calculation conducted for each subtask was solely based on the steps provided on the reporting template. For each individual subtask, the total number of correct answers were divided by the total number of questions for the subtask to arrive at the average %. The only exception to this was the words per minute subtask. To convert this to a %, any WPM scores at 100 or higher received 100%. For every WPM under 100, the standardized score out of 100 was discounted by 1 mark (i.e. 75 WPM = 75/100).

5.2 SUBTASK ANALYSIS

5.2.1 EGRA

Subtask one: Letter/symbol identification- timed

This subtask assessed the girls' alphabet knowledge. The girls were asked to provide the sounds of the letters differentiating each letter from the groups.

Table 12: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask One - 60 & 120 sec

Subtask 1 – Letter Identification		AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
60 sec	Non-reader 0%	28.5	16.7	40.0	45.2	32.4
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	38.6	29.0	21.9	10.7	25.2
	Established reader 41%-80%	26.1	37.6	28.6	17.8	27.7
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	6.8	16.7	9.5	26.4	14.7
120 sec	Non- reader 0%	28.5	16.7	40.0	45.2	32.4
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	18.8	14.8	7.1	0.5	10.4
	Established reader 41%-80%	22.7	21.4	12.4	6.6	15.9
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	30.0	47.1	40.5	47.7	41.3

Different level of scores were captured for this sub-task with the highest proportions of girls being categorized as non-readers. Thirty two percent (32%) of the girls, most of them in Shashemene and Adama read 0% of the letters given. However, there were also other girls in all the cities (25%) who performed

slightly better in the task achieving the emergent band score. The rest, 21% on average, did very well and managed to read more than 41% of the letters per minute with accuracy.

The proportion of 'non-readers' did not change due to the additional time. However, the other girls in the remaining band-scores managed to read more letters in the second 60 seconds given with accuracy, demonstrating that these girls have knowledge of alphabet to a higher level than non-readers. Fifteen percent (15%) of girls who read less than 40% of the letters and 12% of those who only read 41 to 80% of the letters progressed through the band scores. Proportionately, higher number of girls (41%) with 26% difference, now read 80% plus of the words with a proficiency level.

Subtask two: familiar word reading – timed

For this subtask, girls were asked to read aloud frequently used words. They were not allowed to individually say the phonetic spellings but were asked to read them at once. This subtask assessed the girls' level of word recognition. The girls were required to read randomly ordered words but frequently used words in their language.

Table 13: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask Two - 60 & 120 sec

Subtask 2 – Familiar word reading		AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
60 sec	Non-reader 0%	38.6	26.2	64.8	60.4	47.3
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	6.8	9.0	8.1	4.1	7.0
	Established reader 41%-80%	15.9	11.4	11.0	5.6	11.0
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	38.6	53.3	16.2	29.9	34.6
120 sec	Non-reader 0%	38.6	26.2	64.8	60.4	47.3
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	4.3	5.7	4.3	2.0	4.1
	Established reader 41%-80%	14.0	9.0	7.6	4.6	8.9
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	43.0	59.0	23.3	33.0	39.7

The number of girls who could not read has higher proportion in this task: 47% of the girls (390 of the 824) did not read any of the words in the first minute. Girls from Shashemene and Adama were highly represented in this band score, with 65% girls in Shashemene and 60% in Adama being categorized as non-readers. A total of 35% of girls proficiently read the words, indicating that the sampled girls' level of word recognition is bound majorly in the two extreme band scores – either exceptionally low or proficient.

As with other results received, most 'non-readers' scored the same after their initial minute given, while only 5% of scored better and read more than 80% of the words using the additional time provided.

Subtask three: invented words reading – timed

In this exercise, girls were asked to read made up words that gave no meaning. As with the previous task, girls were asked not to individually spell the letters but read the words as a whole, so that this task could adequately assess girls' decoding skills. The girls made letter-sounds (grapheme-phoneme correspondence) through reading the nonsense words.

Table 14: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask Three - 60 & 120 sec

Subtask 3 – Invented word reading		AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
60 sec	Non-reader 0%	51.2	34.3	65.2	64.5	53.6
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	12.6	7.1	4.3	0.5	6.2
	Established reader 41%-80%	19.8	27.1	11.4	7.6	16.6
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	16.4	31.4	19.0	27.4	23.5
120 sec	Non-reader 0%	51.2	34.3	65.2	64.5	53.6
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	6.8	5.2	1.4	0.5	3.5
	Established reader 41%-80%	14.5	19.5	5.7	3.0	10.8
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	27.5	41.0	27.6	32.0	32.0

Reading the nonsense words was more challenging for many of the girls than reading the familiar words; that is, 54% of girls were unable to read any of the words, with higher percentages of non-readers in Adama and Shashemene. On average, 65% of the girls in these two cities scored 0%. This high proportion of non-readers in Adama and Shashemene is not widely different from the proportion of the girls in that same band score in Addis Ababa. Still, a considerably high percentage of the girls in Addis (that is 106 of the 207, or 51%) of girls are labeled as non-readers for this sub-task. But relatively higher proportion of girls in Bahir Dar, that is 31% of the 210 sampled, did very well in this task and were able to read over 80% of the invented words more quickly and accurately than most others.

With the majority being non-readers, very few girls managed to make progress through the band scores and perform better. Around 8% girls used the additional time to read more than 80% of the nonsense words and demonstrated that they have a proficiency level of decoding skills.

Subtask four (a): passage reading – timed

This subtask required girls to read short stories. Before they started reading, girls were told they would be asked different questions about the story they were going to read. Then, they were asked to read aloud, quickly and carefully, to assess their oral reading fluency. The girls were evaluated whether they could read a text with accuracy, with little effort and at a sufficient rate.

Table 15: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask four (a) - 60 & 120 sec

Subtask 4a – Passage Reading		AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
60 sec	Non-reader 0%	46.9	32.9	56.7	58.4	48.5
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	13.0	5.7	7.1	8.1	8.5
	Established reader 41%-80%	15.9	8.6	10.0	8.6	10.8
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	24.2	52.9	26.2	24.9	32.2
120 sec	Non- reader 0%	46.9	32.9	56.7	58.4	48.5
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	5.3	5.7	3.3	7.6	5.5
	Established reader 41%-80%	11.6	8.6	2.9	0.5	5.9
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	36.2	52.9	37.1	33.5	40.0

A considerably high proportion of girls (48%) scored 0% and could not read any of the words of the passage in the first 60 seconds provided. A high proportion of the girls emerged as non-readers in this category, except for in Bahir Dar. On the other hand, less than 10% of the girls on average managed to read better and scored 1-80%, while a much larger proportion of girls (32%) were proficient enough to read more than 80% of the words. Higher proportion of girls in Bahir Dar performed well, with 53% of girls from this city achieving the band 'proficient learner'.

The 'non-readers' remained in the same band score while around 8% girls in all cities except Bahir Dar made use of the additional seconds to read more words of the passage with accuracy. None of the girls in Bahir Dar made progress using the additional time. 37% of the girls in Addis, Shashemene, and Adama read the passage with a proficient level accuracy.

Subtask four (b): reading comprehension – untimed

Table 16: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask four (b)

Subtask 4b – Reading Comprehension	AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
Non-learner 0%	53.1	41.0	73.3	64.0	57.8
Emergent learner 1-40%	16.9	13.3	5.7	4.1	10.1
Established learner 41-80%	23.7	34.3	10.5	9.1	19.5
Proficient learner 81-100%	6.3	11.4	10.5	22.8	12.6

In the previous subtasks, girls were assessed on their ability to read and sound out words and individual letters. However, this sub-task was an extension of the previous task. The story the girls read was given to them if they wanted to review it. Then, different questions were posed to the girls about the story to assess their reading comprehension levels. Girls were assessed on whether they could respond to the different types of questions posed to them, which included comprehension and inferential questions.

Despite this subtask not being timed for girls to answer questions with care and flexibility, 58% of the girls were unable to reply to the comprehension questions and scored 0%. This could be related to the fact that girls needed to read and comprehend the passage to answer the questions, but many had already demonstrated that they are unable to properly sound out the words – let alone synthesize and understand what they had read. Across all cities, the highest proportion of girls are found in this non-learner band score, scoring 0% - while this proportion is higher in Adama and Shashemene, indicating that even those who managed to proficiently read were unable to comprehend what they were reading.

Subtask five: listening comprehension – untimed

Table 17: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask Five

Subtask 5 – Listening comprehension	AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
Non-learner 0%	17.9	18.1	43.3	36.0	28.8
Emergent learner 1-40%	12.6	17.1	15.2	12.7	14.4
Established learner 41-80%	33.3	31.9	16.7	21.8	26.0
Proficient learner 81-100%	36.2	32.9	24.8	29.4	30.8

For this task, enumerators read aloud a passage slowly (about 1 word per second) only once. The girls were asked to listen to the passage carefully and answer the questions that followed it. It assessed the girls' oral language skill - their listening comprehension of oral language. The girls were assessed if they could respond to literal and inferential questions after listening.

A variety of different scores were achieved for this subtask. The highest proportion of girls (31%) were able to answer 81-100% of the answers, while 29% scored 0% and were unable to answer the listening questions posed. Many of the girls from Shashemene and Adama, that is 43.3% for Shashemene and 36% for Adama, are amongst these girls who achieved a 0 score in this subtask. There are, of course, emergent and established learners who were in between these two band scores. Twenty six percent (26%) of the girls answered 41-80% of the questions. This indicates that most girls' oral language is better than their literacy level even though there were still quite a considerable number of girls in Adama and Shashemene whose oral language level is exceptionally low.

5.2.2 EGMA

Subtask six: number identification- timed

For this exercise, girls were given a set of individual numbers on a booklet and were asked to point out and say the numbers to the enumerators. It assessed the girls' numerical knowledge in terms of reading and speaking.

Table 18: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask Six – 60 & 120 sec

Subtask 6 – Number Identification		AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
60 sec	Non-reader 0%	14.0	13.8	23.3	27.4	19.5
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	4.8	4.8	10.0	3.6	5.8
	Established reader 41%-80%	13.0	16.2	23.8	14.7	17.0
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	68.1	65.2	42.9	54.3	57.6
120 sec	Non-reader 0%	14.0	13.8	23.3	27.4	19.5
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	3.4	4.8	6.2	3.0	4.4
	Established reader 41%-80%	13.0	13.8	25.2	13.7	16.5
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	69.6	67.6	45.2	55.8	59.6

Identifying numbers was not as challenging as identifying letters for most of the girls. Within the first 60 seconds, most of the girls (58% in total), proficiently identified the numbers. Around 19% scored 0%, with those from Adama and Shashemene particularly represented in this proportion. This shows that most of the girls as have a better knowledge of identifying numbers than letters.

The level of most girls' number knowledge was revealed during the first minute given, as only a small proportion of girls used the additional time to identify more numbers. Less than 2% girls managed to progress through the band scores and identify at least 81% of the numbers accurately.

Subtask Seven: quantity discrimination- untimed

Table 19: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask Seven

Subtask 7 – Quantity Discrimination	A.A (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
Non-learner 0%	13.5	18.1	24.8	26.9	20.8
Emergent learner 1-40%	10.1	11.0	17.1	10.7	12.3
Established learner 41-80%	18.8	18.1	17.1	14.7	17.2
Proficient learner 81-100%	57.5	52.9	41.0	47.7	49.8

Here, the girls were given pairs of numbers to identify the larger ones from the pairs. It assessed girls' ability to compare numbers. Exactly half of the girls did very well with this subtask, achieving the proficient level score while 17% performed a bit lower and identified 41-80% of the larger numbers correctly. However, 16% of the girls on average were unable to score more than 40% in the subtask.

Subtask Eight: missing number- untimed

This exercise contained rows of four numbers with one missing number in the middle. The girls were asked which number goes in the empty space to complete the pattern, thereby assessing their ability to identify number patterns.

Table 20: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask Eight

Subtask 8 – Missing Numbers	AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
Non-learner 0%	15.0	28.6	24.3	28.4	24.0
Emergent learner 1-40%	25.6	42.4	31.0	20.3	30.0
Established learner 41-80%	38.6	27.1	31.9	27.4	31.3
Proficient learner 81-100%	20.8	1.9	12.9	23.9	14.7

This exercise demanded more critical thinking than previous tasks. The majority of girls were unable to go beyond providing 80% of the correct numbers that completed the patterns. 30% accurately completed less than 41% of the subtask, while 31% performed better and provided 41-80% of the correct answers. The two extreme sides are those who scored 0% and those who scored over 81% in the task. Twenty four percent (24%) of girls were totally unable to correctly complete the patterns and scored 0%, while 15% were proficient. Looking at specific results in each city, proportionately more girls in Bahir Dar struggled with this subtask in that 71% could not identify more than 40% of the number patterns, while just 2% of the other girls managed to score the proficiency level of score.

Subtask Nine: Addition- timed

For this exercise, girls were given addition problems to solve to assess the girls' knowledge and confidence of basic addition. They mentally solved addition problems with sums of less than 20.

Table 21: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask Nine – 60 & 120sec

Subtask 9 – Addition		AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
60 sec	Non-reader 0%	21.7	22.4	35.7	42.6	30.5
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	19.8	16.2	15.7	6.1	14.6
	Established reader 41%-80%	44.9	32.4	30.5	23.4	32.9
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	13.5	29.0	18.1	27.9	22.1
120 sec	Non- reader 0%	21.7	22.4	35.7	42.6	30.5
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	9.2	11.0	7.6	4.1	8.0
	Established reader 41%-80%	34.3	24.8	18.6	11.2	22.3
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	34.8	41.9	38.1	42.1	39.2

Different levels of scores were captured for this subtask during the first 60 sec. The two higher proportions are of the girls who solved 41-80% of the addition problems and those who scored 0% for providing no correct answer. On average, 30% of the girls did well in this subtask and managed to score 41%-100%, while 30% scored 0% and were unable to provide a single answer.

Those who scored 0% remained with the same score, as was expected given the consistency seen in other tasks, while around 17% of the girls managed to progress through the band scores and solved more than 80% of the addition problems proficiently.

Subtask Ten: Subtraction- timed

Like the previous exercise, girls were provided with subtraction problems. They were asked to solve the problems and say the answer. It assessed the girls' knowledge on basic subtraction facts. They mentally solved subtraction problems with differences less than 20.

Table 22: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask Ten – 60 & 120sec

Subtask 10 – Subtraction		AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
60 sec	Non-reader 0%	24.2	22.9	41.9	44.7	33.3
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	26.1	16.7	20.5	9.6	18.3
	Established reader 41%-80%	36.7	30.5	21.4	17.8	26.7
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	13.0	30.0	16.2	27.9	21.7
120 sec	Non- reader 0%	24.2	22.9	41.9	44.7	33.3
	Emergent reader 1%-40%	16.9	16.7	10.0	8.1	13.0
	Established reader 41%-80%	33.8	30.5	18.1	13.2	24.0
	Proficient reader 81%-100%	25.1	30.0	30.0	34.0	29.7

Still, different levels of scores were captured for this subtask. 33% of girls were unable to solve a single subtraction problem, among which girls in Adama and Shashemene contributed the high proportion. 18% of girls were emergent learners, while 27% achieved the established learner band score. Twenty two percent (22%) proficiently solved the subtraction problems.

Except for girls in Bahir Dar, around 8% of the girls in the other cities used the additional time to score higher and achieved the proficient learner band score for providing more than 80% of the solutions to the

problems. Girls in Bahir Dar did not make any progress through their band scores in the additional time and remained in the same band scores.

Subtask Eleven: Written exercise- untimed

This exercise was only completed by girls who had correctly solved five or more addition or subtraction items in the previous two subtasks. Those who did not achieve this moved straight onto Exercise 12. For this exercise, white papers were given to girls to write their answers on with a pencil. Basic mathematical exercises were included for the girls to calculate. The questions included addition, subtraction, multiplication and division, with sums of a range of difficulty given. It assessed girls' ability to apply procedural addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division knowledge.

Table 23: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask Eleven

Subtask 11 – Written exercise	AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
Non-learner 0%	38.6	33.8	46.2	48.7	41.7
Emergent learner 1-40%	25.6	10.5	8.1	10.7	13.7
Established learner 41-80%	16.4	22.9	21.4	17.3	19.5
Proficient learner 81-100%	19.3	32.9	24.3	23.4	25.0

Out of the 824 sampled girls, 562 took this subtask having successfully solved five or more addition or subtraction subtasks. This indicates that 32% of the sampled girls for this study do not have basic addition and subtraction mathematical knowledge. These individuals have been included in the 'non learner' bracket.

The results obtained for this subtask are still quite dispersed along the band scores. A total of 25% managed to proficiently provide the correct answers to more than 80% of the questions provided. However, there were 42% of girls who were unable to provide a single correct answer (of which some had already been classified as non-learners and so did not take the test). Fourteen percent could not provide more than 40% of the answers to the mathematical questions.

Subtask Twelve: Word problems- untimed

For this specific exercise, counters were provided to the girls to help with the tasks. The girls were told to use the counters if only they needed to. It assessed the girls' skills in interpreting a situation, planning and problem solving. Girls solved problems presented orally using any strategy they wanted, including the use of paper or counters.

Table 24: Percent of respondents in different band score categories for subtask Twelve

Subtask 12 – Word problems	A.A (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
Non-learner 0%	10.6	15.2	24.3	27.9	19.4
Emergent learner 1-40%	6.8	16.2	18.1	10.2	12.9
Established learner 41-80%	30.4	32.4	21.4	21.8	26.6
Proficient learner 81-100%	52.2	36.2	36.2	40.1	41.1

Relatively more girls did well in this subtask compared with previous subtasks. This task has perhaps a common feature with the oral language subtask in the EGRA test, high proportions of proficient and

established learner band scores were achieved. In these two tasks, girls made use of oral communication skills, using attentive listening and comprehension capabilities. For this particular subtask, 41% of girls proficiently solved the problems presented by providing more than 80% of correct answers. Higher percentages of girls from Adama and Addis Ababa are in this band: 40% in Adama and 52% in Addis Ababa gave more than 80% of the correct answers to the problem-solving questions posed. Overall, 27% of girls provided 41-80% of the correct answers to the questions, which was a much better result than the 13% who solved less than 41% of the problems and those who were at all unable to solve a single problem scoring 0% in this subtask.

5.3 Previous Schooling Experience, Language and Learning Outcomes

Across all cities, 69% of girls have previously been enrolled in a formal school, around 74% in Adama and Shashemene, and 64% in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar. Overall, three-quarters of girls that were formerly enrolled dropped out before Grade 5, with especially low number of school years achieved in Shashemene and a relatively higher number in Bahir Dar. The table below presents EGRA/EGMA scores by whether girls had previously been enrolled in school – regardless of the grade at which they dropped out (which is presented in the section on sampled girls' characteristics.

Table 25: EGRA/EGMA aggregate score by previous formal school enrollment status

Literacy aggregate score by status of previous formal school enrollment status									
	Addis Ababa		Bahir Dar		Shashemene		Adama		All	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Been to school	46.7	36.2	49.6	31.5	44.2	36.1	46.6	37.9	46.8	35.4
Never been to school	31.1	33.4	32.2	34.6	43.3	37.7	33.9	34.1	35.1	35.0
Numeracy aggregate score by status of previous formal school prior enrollment status									
Been to school	61.0	26.6	58.8	28.9	59.7	28.0	60.7	29.8	60.1	28.3
Never been to school	44.4	30.4	42.8	29.2	55.0	29.1	52.3	28.3	48.6	29.3

Girls that had never been to school had a mean literacy aggregate score of 35, compared with 47 for those that had been to school, while the numeracy scores were 61 for girls that had been to school and 49 for those that had not. In Shashemene, the difference in scores was much smaller than in other areas, which is perhaps related to the fact that girls in this town tended to have dropped out at lower grades. In other cities, the differences were much more pronounced. Although these differences are reasonably substantial, they are not as widely different as might have been expected from comparing uneducated girls with those that had attended school. As well as relating to the limited amount of schooling achieved by those that had formerly been enrolled, it is worth noting two possible backgrounds of girls. Firstly, girls may have had some non-formal education that may have contributed to them having numerical and/or literacy skills, which was not explored during this research. Secondly, some of the comprehension-related testing can be answered through a common sense understanding of oral language.

During the piloting phase of this study in Addis Ababa, girls who were literate in their own mother tongue were observed failing to do well in the tests administered in Amharic, as it was not their native language. Such girls faced a lot of difficulty even in identifying alphabets in the first EGMA subtask. However, these girls had attended education in their mother tongue – not Amharic. This indicates a focus area that should be considered during the learning outcome analysis of sampled girls across project evaluation phases.

Baseline Evaluation report - BTA

Out of the 824 girls tested, 27% took tests in their non-native language: 48% in Addis, 30% in Shashemene, 27% in Adama and 1% in Bahir Dar.

Figure 2: Chart showing proportion of girls per city that took tests in a non-native language
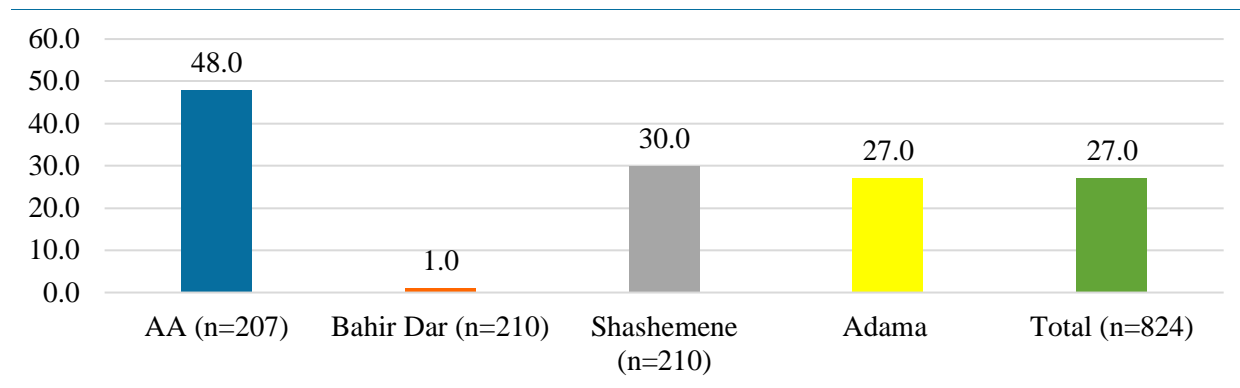
To ascertain whether there might have been a link between girls scoring zero and not taking the tests in their native language, it was instructive to look at the languages of girls in non-reader/learner and proficient band scores (since most girls are clustered in these two band scores) alongside whether they had been to school for purposively selected subtasks and, if so, what grade they had dropped out at.[24] There could have been two possibilities for girls' low performance in the subtasks: either they scored 0% because of their low literacy level, which could have had nothing to do with the language in which they took the tests, or girls struggled with the second language in which they took the test. In the graphs below, 'language match' refers to those girls that took the test in their native language, while 'language mismatch' refers to those girls that took the test in their non-native language. Non-readers refers to those that scored zero percent while 'proficient readers' refers to those that scored more than 80%.
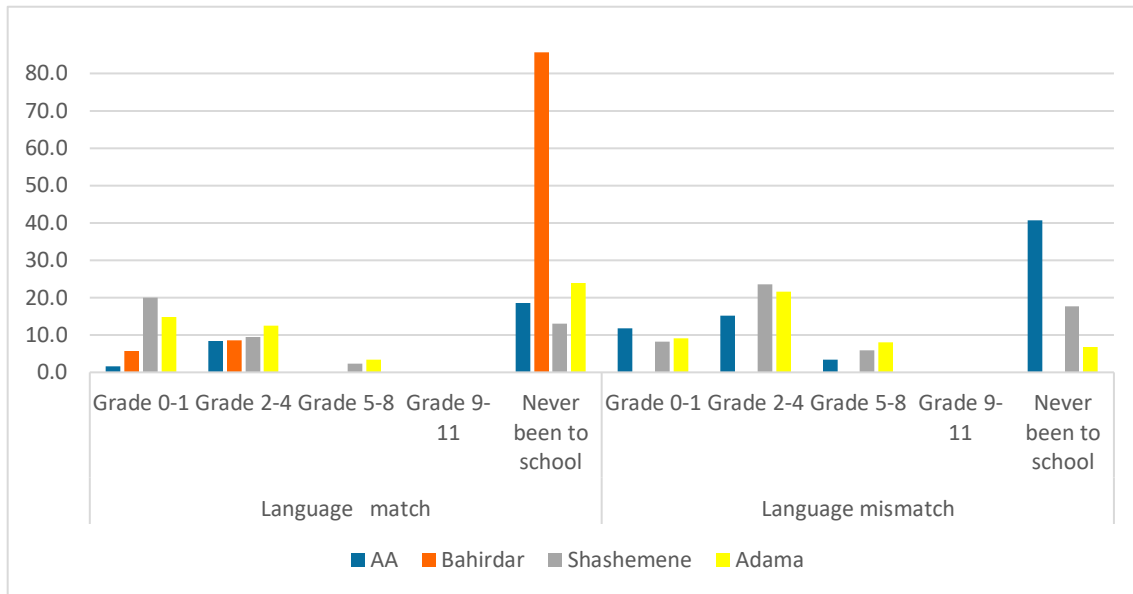
Subtask One

Of the 267 of girls that scored zero-percent in the letter identification subtask, 56% have been to school while 44% have not. Those non-learners that dropped out in Grade 1 are not likely to have achieved a great deal of learning during their time at school, meaning that comparing their results by language match or language mismatch presents no meaningful findings (i.e. 2% of non-readers in Addis Ababa dropped out in Grade 1 and took the test in their own language; while 12% of non-readers in Addis Ababa dropped out in Grade one and did not take the test in their own language). However, it is relevant to note that a slightly greater proportion of non-readers in Addis Ababa, Shashemene and Adama that dropped in grades 2-4 and 5-8 had a language mismatch (right hand-side of graph) than those that did not have a language mismatch.

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[24] Subtasks such as 4b, 5 and 11 do not necessarily require a certain level of literacy and numeracy competencies and can be easily answered by common sense (oral fluency). These subtasks are, therefore, not included in the further sub-task language and other subgroups analysis conducted in this section while the rest are.

Figure 3: Proportion of non-readers in sub-task one (letter ID) by previous schooling status and language

Out of the 41% who proficiently read the provided letters in subtask one, 83% have been to school while 17% have not but still achieved a proficient band score.

Figure 4: Proportion of proficient readers on sub-task one (letter ID) by previous schooling status and language
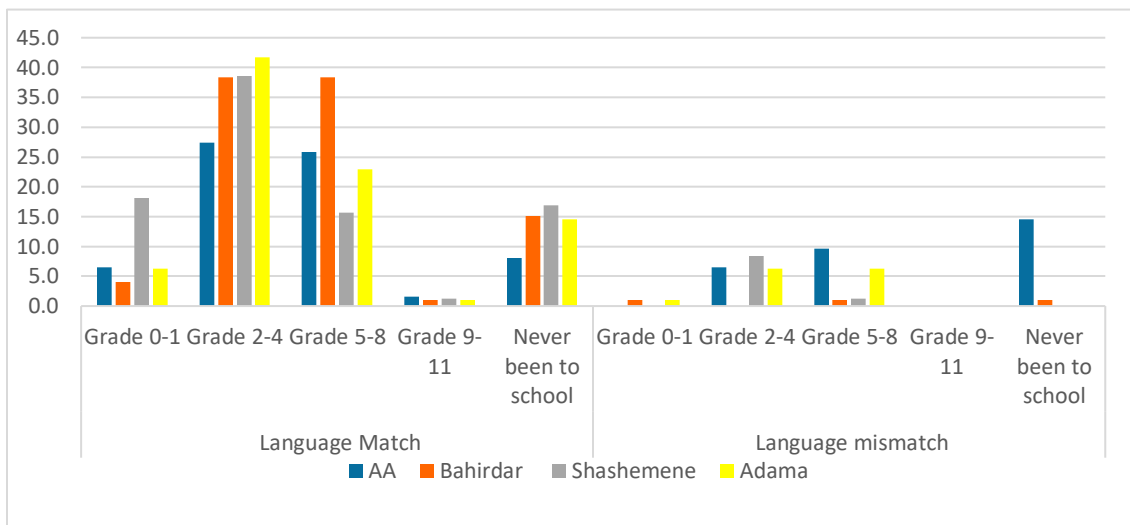
A Pearson chi-square was conducted for the aggregate EGRA and EGMA scores to ascertain. The p-value (0.000) is less than 0.05. Hence, there is an association between girls previous school enrollment status and their letter identification scores.

Girls' scores on subtask one (letter identification) by schooling status		Non-learner 0%	Emergent learner 1-40%	Established learner 41-80%	Proficient learner 81-100%	Total	Pearson Chi-Sq. Test Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Been to School	**No.**	149	49	90	282	570	**0.000**
	%	26.1	8.6	15.8	49.5	100	
Not been to school	**No.**	118	37	41	58	254	
	%	46.5	14.6	16.1	22.8	100	

Subtask Two

It is expected not especially surprising that out of the 390 non-readers in this subtask, 43% have never been to school. However, the data indicates that 18% of the girls who dropped in Grades 2-8 took the test in their non-native language, which could have a correlation with their low performance in the task.

Of the 327 proficient readers, the vast majority (85%) had been in a formal school. Of these girls that had been to school, most (76%) took the test in their own language.

Figure 5: Proportion of non-readers on sub-task two (familiar word reading) by previous schooling status and language
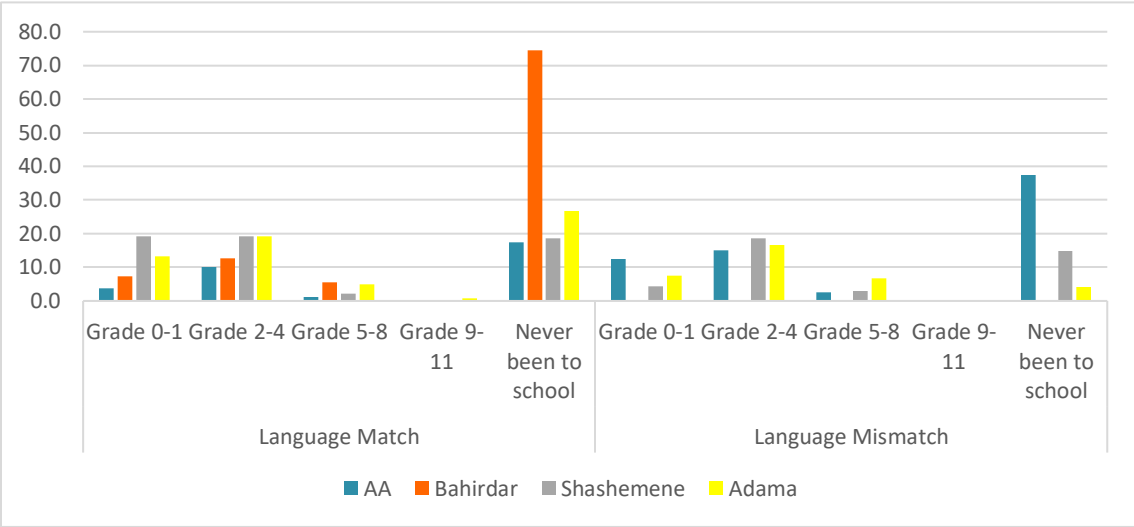
Figure 6: Proportion of proficient readers on sub-task two (familiar words reading) by previous schooling status and language
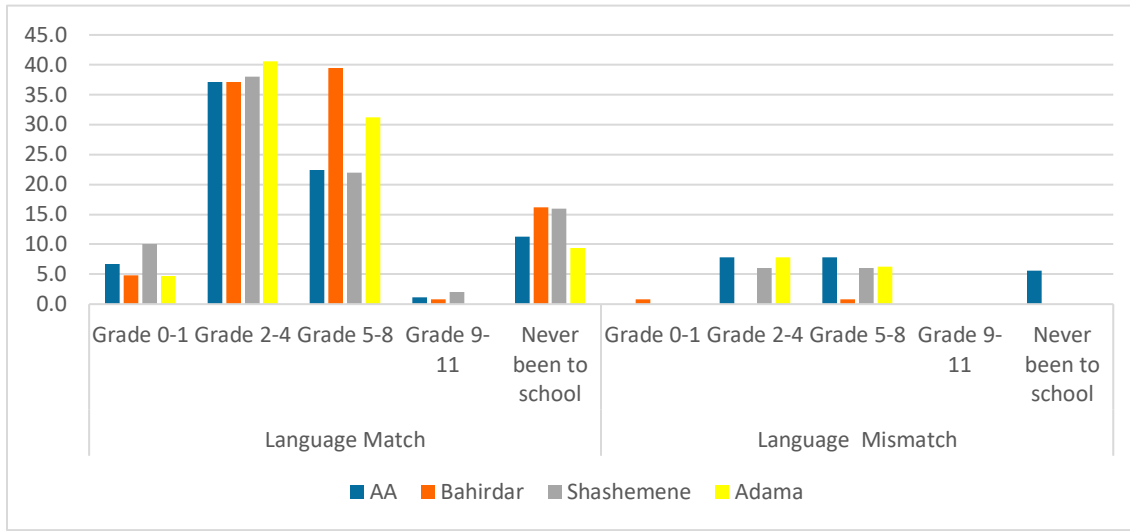
Subtask Three

Of the 442 girls who scored 0% in this task, 42% have never had any formal education while 58% have. Of those who had been to school, 86% dropped out an early grade (Grade 2 and below). Within these girls who dropped out early, 36% did not take the test in their first language.

In the proficiency band score, the proportion of girls who have been to school (84%) is much larger than those that have not (16%).

Figure 7: Proportion of non-readers on sub-task three (invented word-reading) by previous schooling status and language
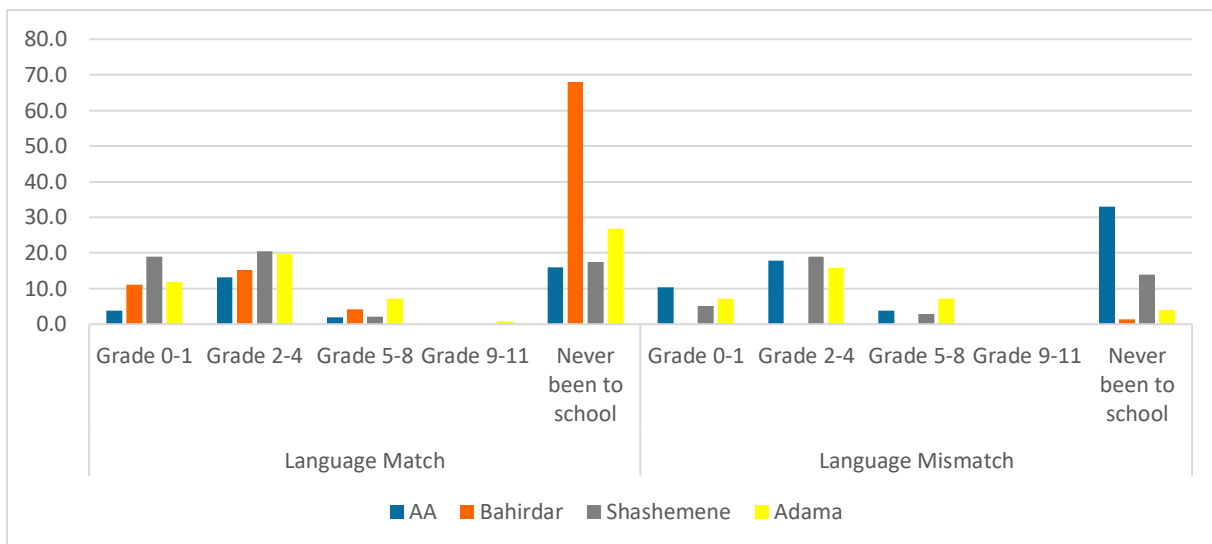
Figure 8: Proportion of proficient readers on sub-task three (invented word-reading) by previous schooling status and language
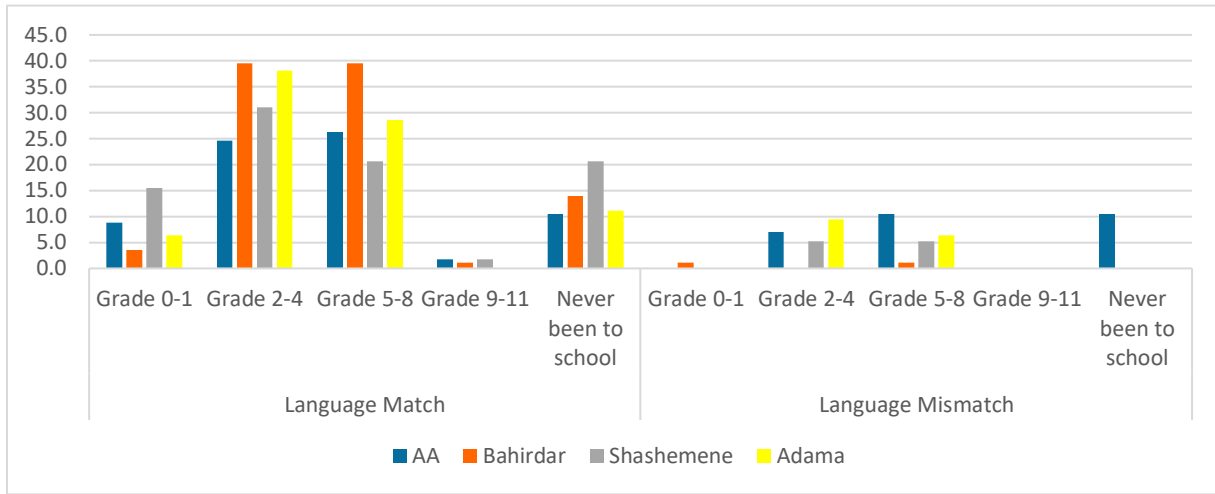
The Pearson chi-square p-value (0.000) is less than 0.05. Hence, it indicted that there was a statistically significant association between girl' previous school enrollment statuses with invented word reading.

Girls' scores on subtask three (invented word reading) by schooling status		Non-learner 0%	Emergent learner 1-40%	Established learner 41-80%	Proficient learner 81-100%	Total	Pearson Chi-Square Test Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Been to School	No.	258	34	110	168	570	**0.000**
	%	45.3%	6.0%	19.3%	29.5%	100.0%	
Not been to school	No.	184	17	27	26	254	
	%	72.4%	6.7%	10.6%	10.2%	100.0%	

Subtask Four (a)

Among the 400 girls who scored zero-percent, 60% had been enrolled in a formal school. However, the vast majority (86%) dropped out at early grades (Grade 2 and below). As in with previous subtasks, the majority (72%) of girls that achieved a proficient level of reading, according to this task, have been to school and their first language matches the language of test.

Figure 9: Proportion of non-readers on subtask four (a) (passage reading) by previous schooling status and language
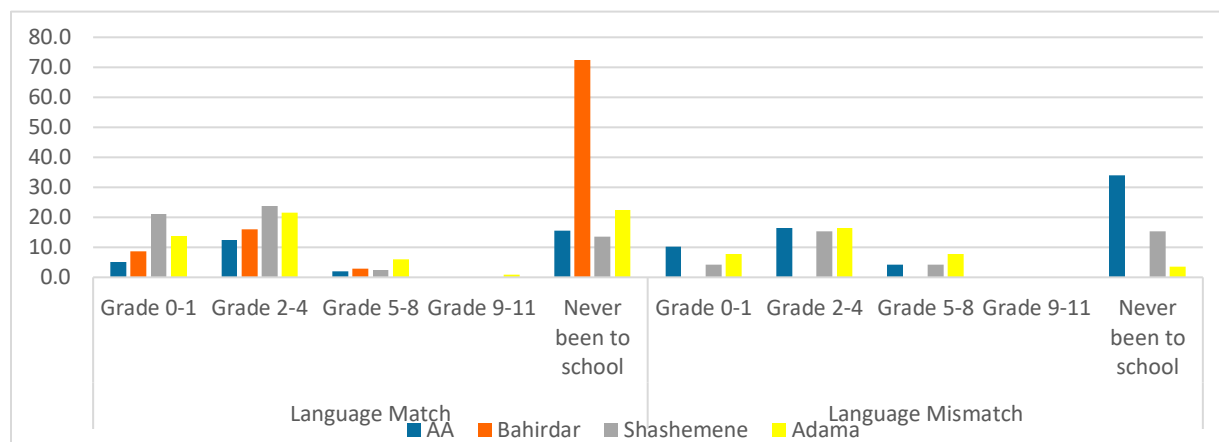

Figure 10: Proportion of proficient readers on subtask four (a) (passage reading) by previous schooling status and language
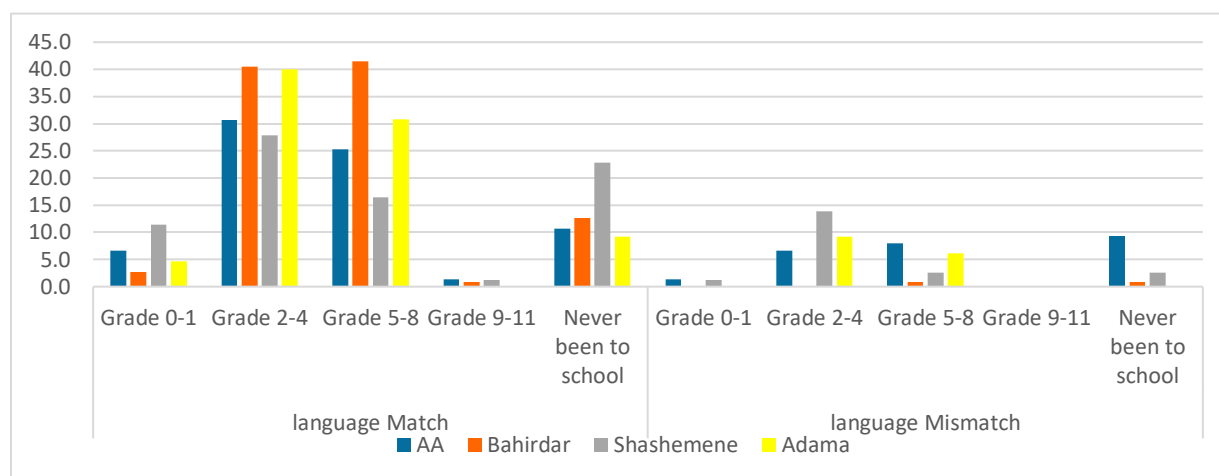
The Pearson chi-square p-value (0.000) is less than 0.05. Hence, it indicted that there was a statistically significant association between girls' previous school enrollment statuses with oral passage reading.

Girls' scores on subtask four (passage reading) by schooling status		Non-learner 0%	Emergent learner 1-40%	Established learner 41-80%	Proficient learner 81-100%	Total	Pearson Chi-Square Test Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Been to School	**No.**	238	19	39	274	570	**0.000**
	%	41.8	3.3	6.8	48.1	100	
Not been to school	**No.**	162	26	10	56	254	
	%	63.8	10.2	3.9	22.0	100	

Subtask Eleven

One hundred and sixty one girls could not identify any of the numbers in this subtask. Among these, 55% have been to school, but the majority dropped out early (in Grade 2 or below). Of the 491 girls that proficiently identified the numbers, the majority (79%) have been to formal schools.

Figure 11: Proportion of non-learners on sub-task six (number identification) by previous schooling status and language

Figure 12: Proportion of proficient learners on sub-task six (number identification) by previous schooling status and language
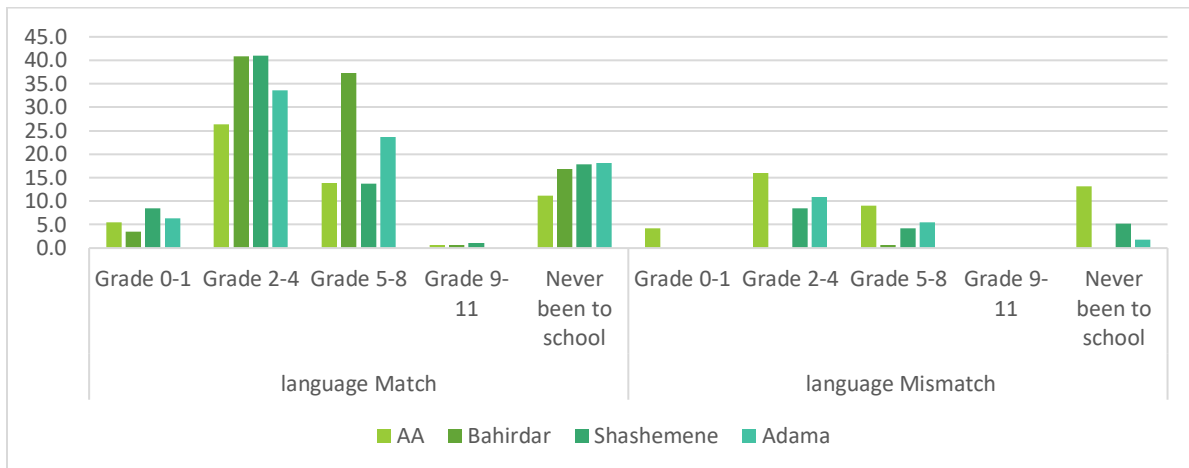
The Pearson chi-square p-value (0.000) is less than 0.05. Hence, it indicted that there was a statistically significant association between girls' previous school enrollment statuses with number identification.

Girls' scores on subtask one (number identification) by schooling status		Non-learner 0%	Emergent learner 1-40%	Established learner 41-80%	Proficient learner 81-100%	Total	Pearson Chi-Square Test Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Been to School	**No.**	89	28	73	380	570	**0.000**
	%	15.6%	4.9%	12.8%	66.7%	100.0%	
Not been to school	**No.**	89	28	73	380	570	
	%	15.6%	4.9%	12.8%	66.7%	100.0%	

Subtask Seven

Of the 171 who scored zero-percent, 60% had been enrolled in a formal school, while the rest never been to school. Of those that had previously been enrolled, the majority (78%) did not attend more than Grade 2 level of education. Out of the 410 proficient band scorers on this task, 75% had attended school up to somewhere between Grades 2 and 8.

Figure 13: Proportion of non-learners on sub-task seven (quantity discrimination) by previous schooling status and language
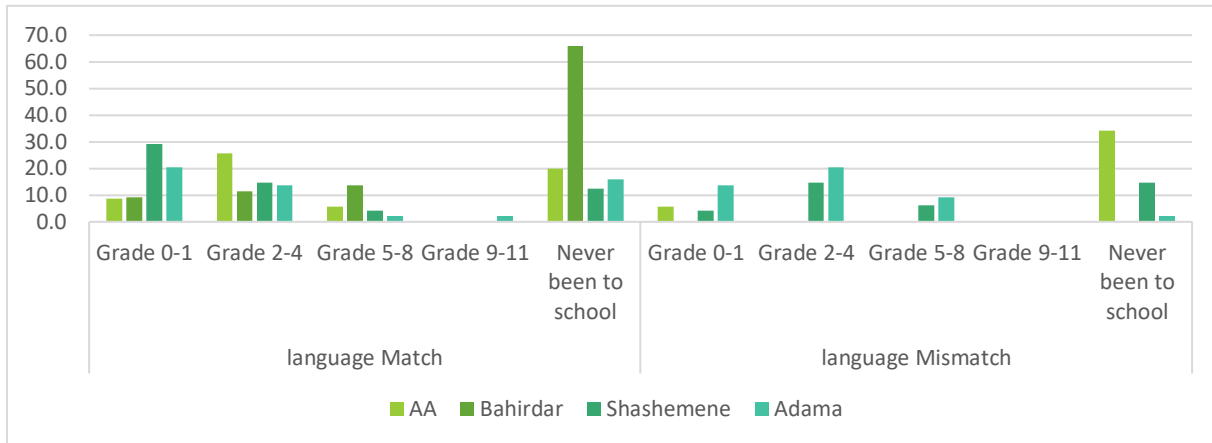
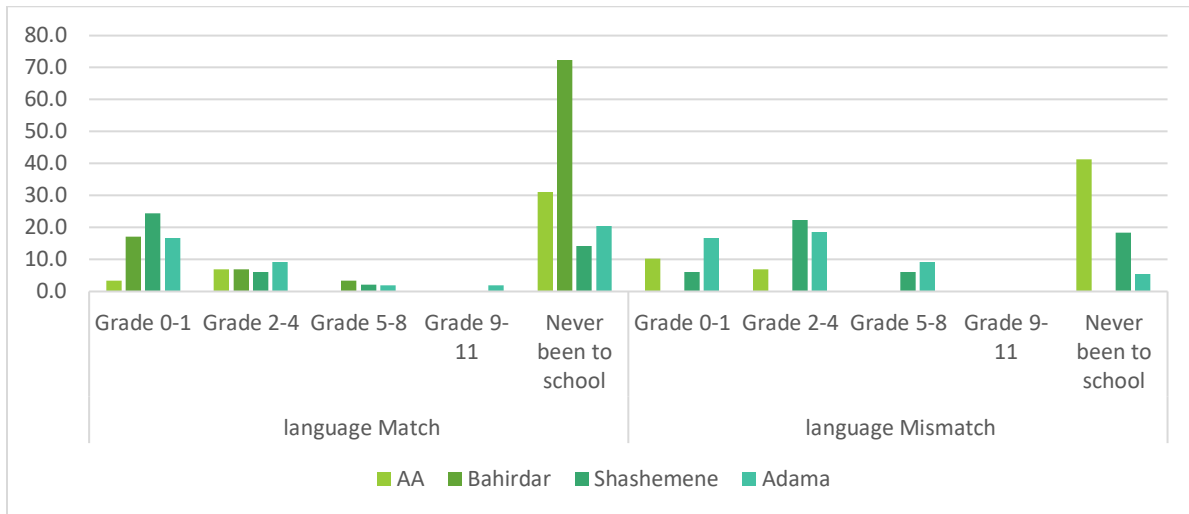*Figure 14: Proportion of proficient learners on sub-task seven (quantity discrimination) by previous schooling status and language*
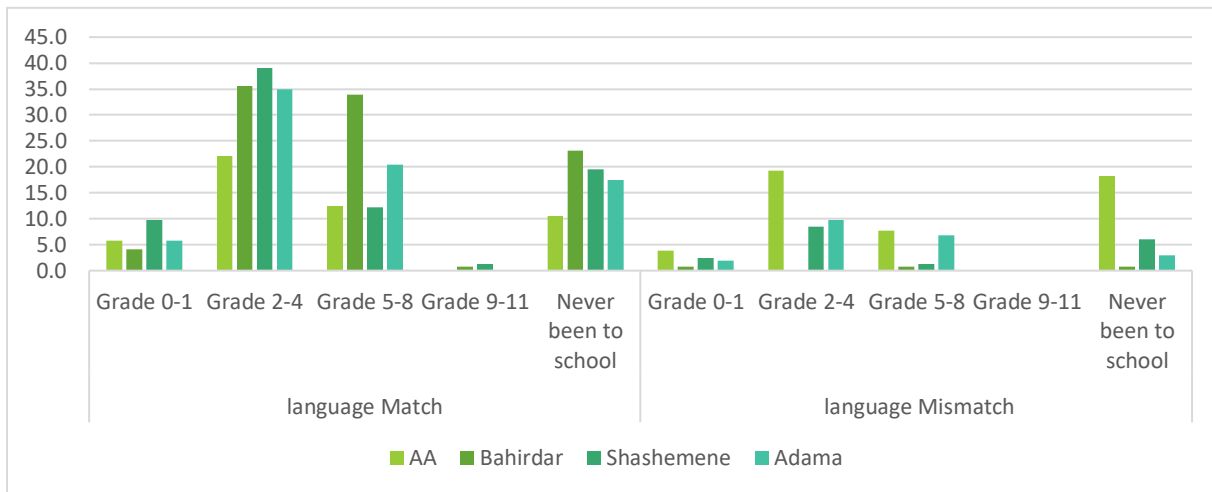
The chi-square test result p-values obtained was greater than 0.05. It implied that there is no statistical association between Girl previous school enrollment statuses with their missing number subtask scores.

Girls' scores on subtask six (quantity discrimination) by schooling status		Non-learner 0%	Emergent learner 1-40%	Established learner 41-80%	Proficient learner 81-100%	Total	Pearson Chi-Square Test Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Been to School	No.	122	139	209	100	570	0.060
	%	21.4%	24.4%	36.7%	17.5%	100.0%	
Not been to school	No.	76	59	78	41	254	
	%	29.9%	23.2%	30.7%	16.1%	100.0%	

Subtask Eight

Out of the 198 non-learners in this task, 62% have been enrolled in a formal school. However, the vast majority (84%) of these non-learners did not receive education to a higher level than Grade 2. Out of the 141 girls that received a proficient learner band in this task, 71% had previously been to formal school.

Figure 15: Proportion of non-learners on subtask eight (missing numbers) by previous schooling status and language
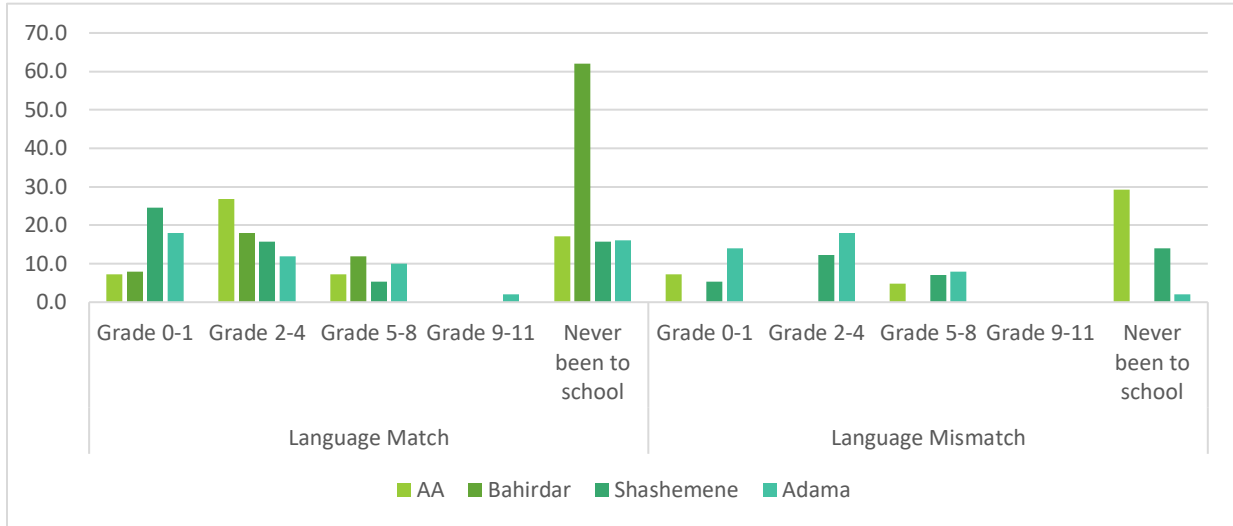
Figure 16: Proportion of non-learners on missing number sub-task by previous schooling status and language
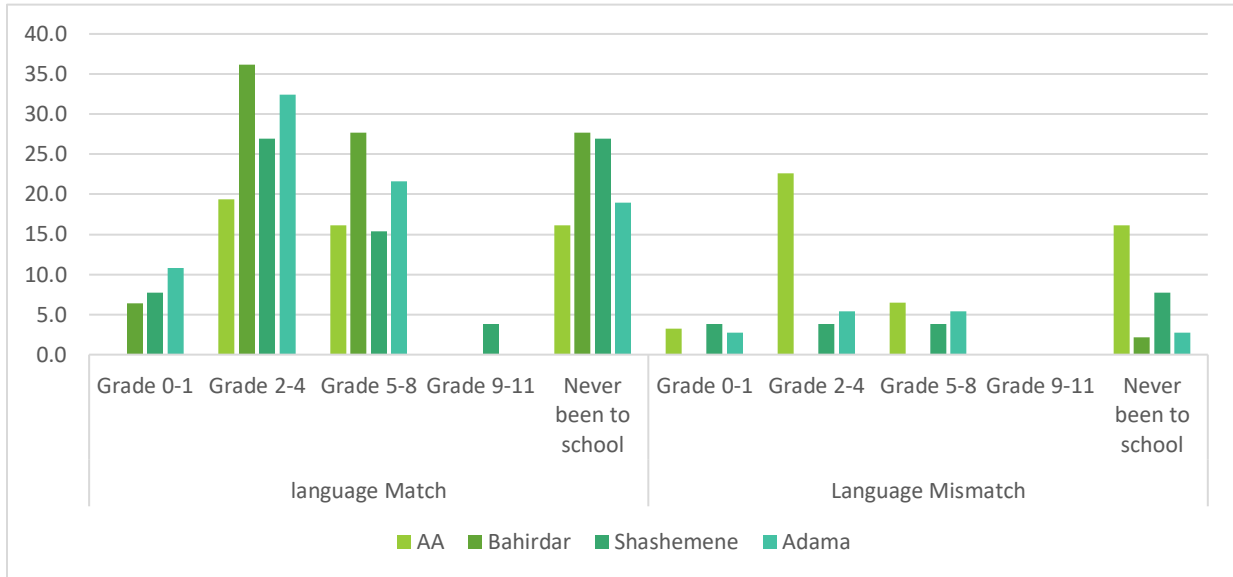
Subtask Nine

Of the 251 zero-scorers in this task, 56% had been to a formal school. However, the vast majority of these girls (86%) did not receive education higher than Grade 2. On the other hand, 323 girls achieved the proficiency band score, of whom 80% had been previously enrolled in formal education.

Figure 17: Proportion of non-learners on sub-task nine (addition) by previous schooling status and language

Figure 18: Proportion of non-learners on sub-task nine (addition) by previous schooling status and language

Subtask Ten

Out of the 274 girls that scored zero on all of the subtraction problems, 57% had gone to formal school. Among these girls, 88% dropped out before reaching grade 3. Of the 245 girls that achieved a proficient band score in subtask ten, 84% had been enrolled in formal school.

Figure 19: Proportion of non-learners on sub-task ten (subtraction) by previous schooling status and language

Figure 20: Proportion of proficient learners on sub-task ten (subtraction) by previous schooling status and language

Subtask Eleven

As with many of the previously described subtasks, most (72%) of those that scored zero in subtask eleven had previously been to school. However, 78% of these girls dropped out at Grade 2 or below. In this task, 206 girls achieved the proficiency band score. Among these girls, 78% had previously enrolled in school.

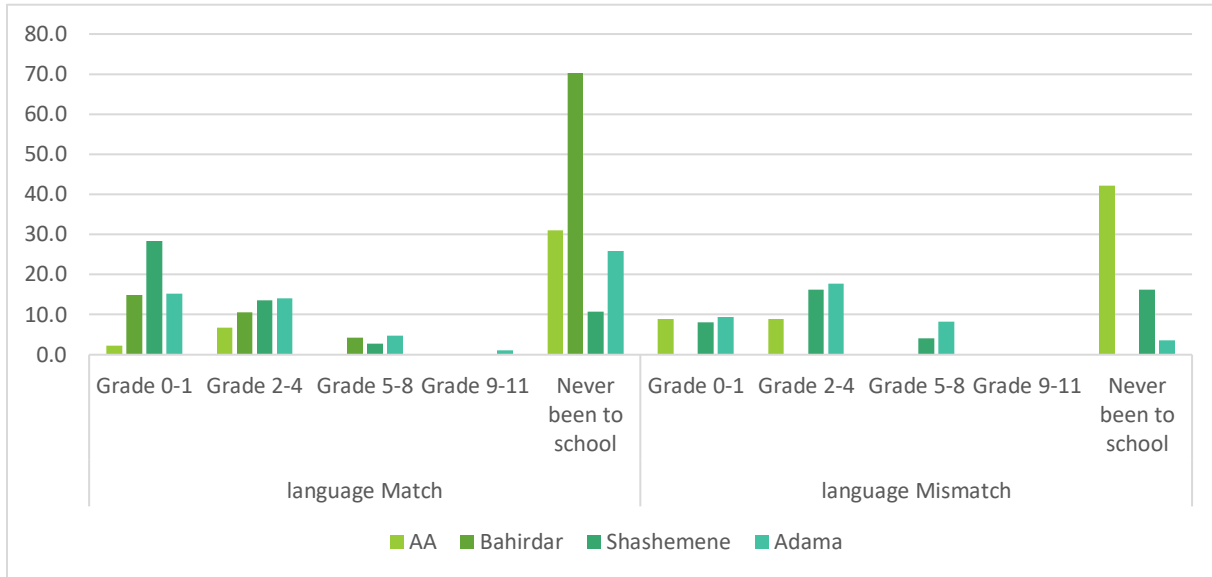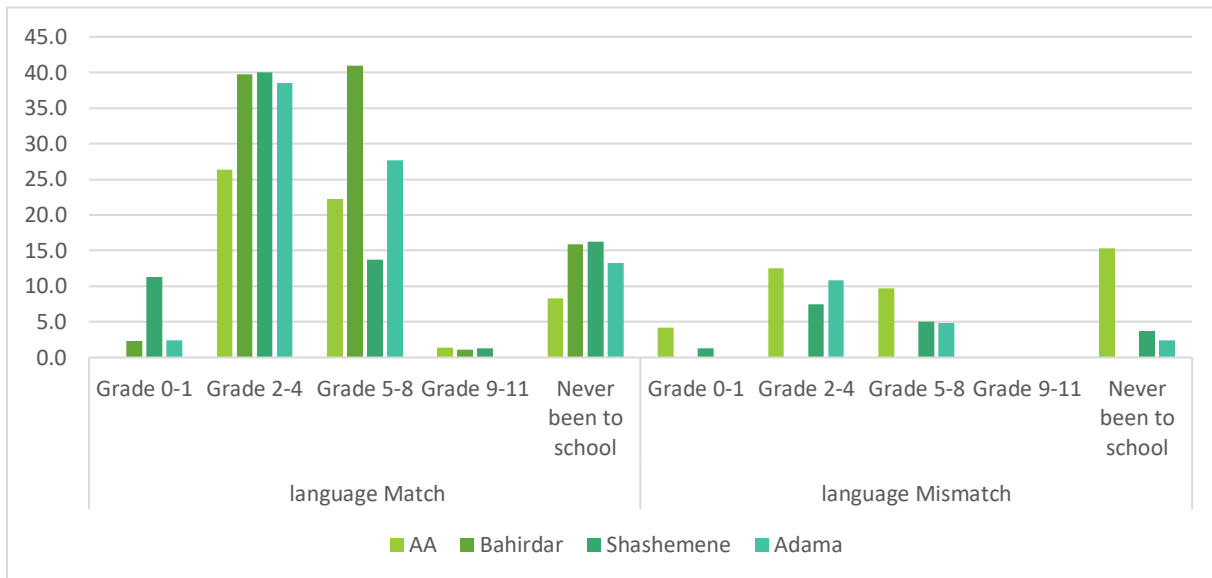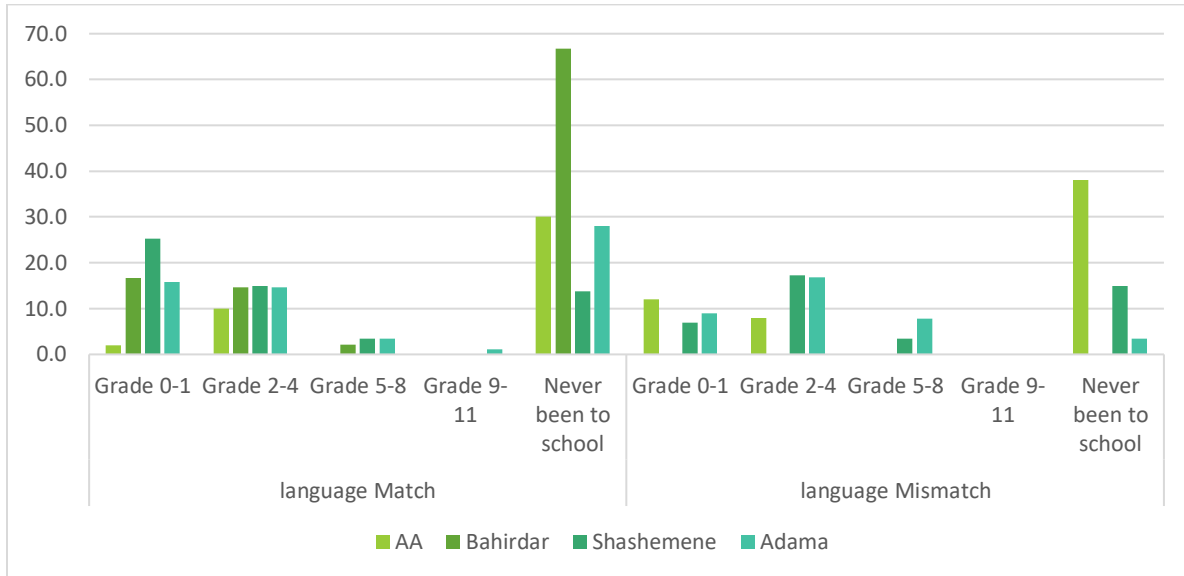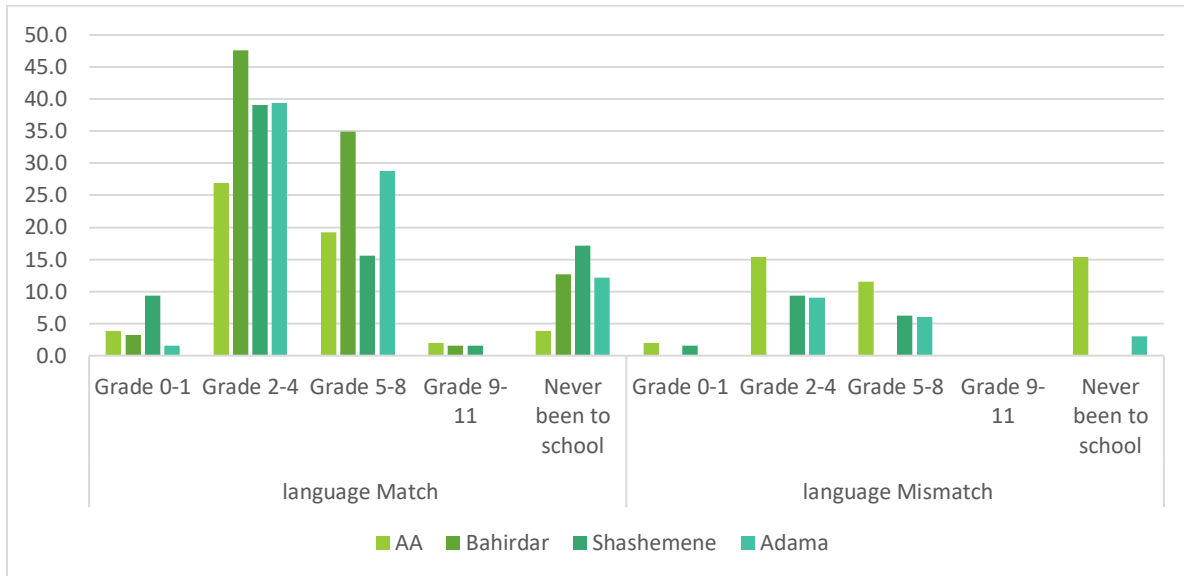*Figure 21: Proportion of non-learners on sub-task eleven (written) by previous schooling status and language*
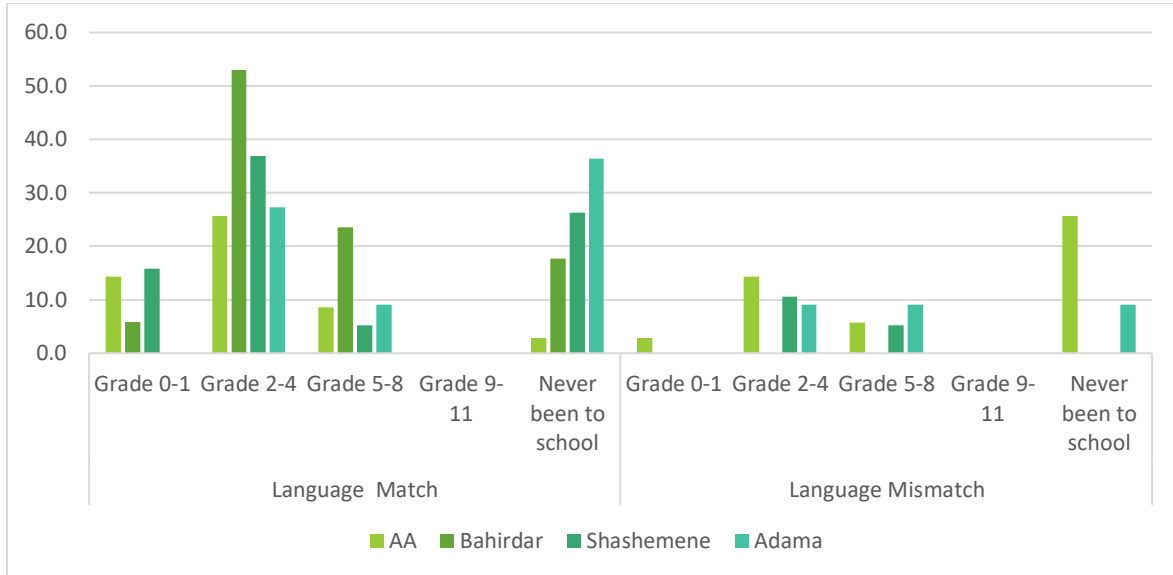
Figure 22: Proportion of proficient learners on sub-task eleven (written) by previous schooling status and language
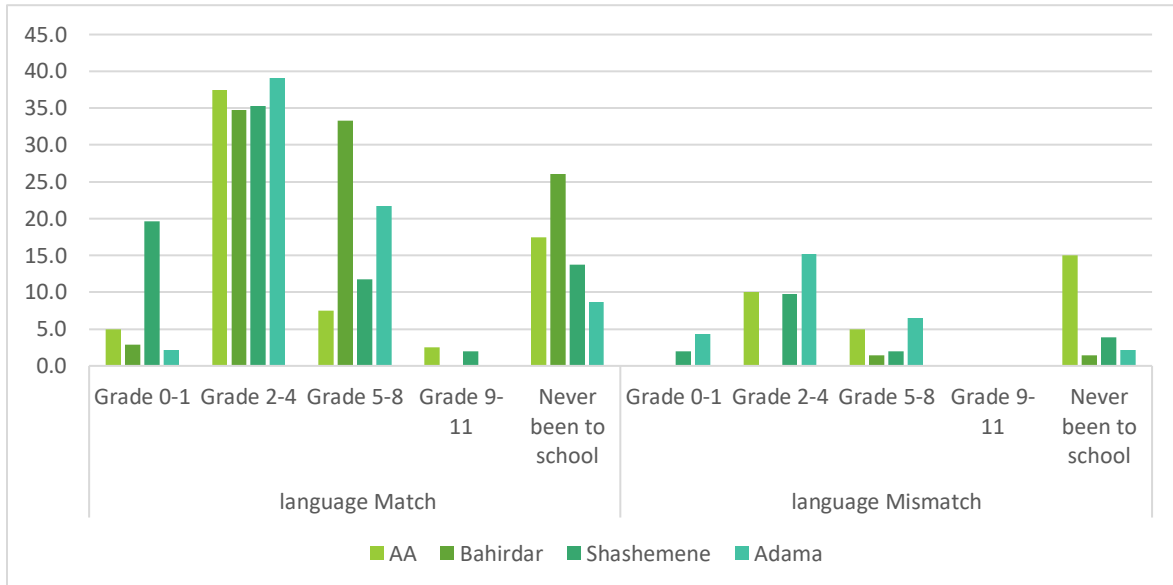
5.4 LEARNING OUTCOME: CHARACTERISTIC SUBGROUP ANALYSIS

Here, baseline learning levels of sample girls by their characteristic subgroups are presented. Since not relevant at this baseline level, tests of significance will be conducted during endline survey for such similar analysis. Standard deviation (SD) is also presented.

Table 26: EGRA/EGMA aggregate score by city

	Average Literacy Score		Average Numeracy Score	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Addis Ababa	45.2	34.1	58.4	28.1
Bahir Dar	56.0	34.0	58.6	28.1
Shashemene	34.4	33.1	54.5	29.4
Adama	38.8	40.3	56.0	31.2
All	43.6	35.4	56.9	29.2

As per the aggregate average scores of the numeracy and literacy tests, most of the girls in all four cities performed better on numeracy tests than the literacy ones. During the sub-task analysis, most girls did relatively better in identifying numbers than letters, which indicates that girls are more familiar with numbers than letters in their respective livelihoods. Average numeracy scores of girls in Bahir Dar and Addis Ababa are 59% and 58% respectively, while on average girls in Adama scored 56% and those in Shashemene scored 54%. However, the average literacy scores of girls in Adama and Shashemene are much lower than the average scores of girls in Bahir Dar and Addis. Most girls in Bahir Dar scored more than 50% in literacy subtasks, indicating that the literacy level of most students in this city is at an established band score level. In addition, the numeracy average scores of girls in all cities do not vary much, while their literacy scores show a variety of percentages. The extent of the Standard Deviations presented below describe how far the test scores are spread out from the Mean.

Table 27: EGRA/EGMA aggregate score by age and city

		10-14				
		AA	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama	All
Average Literacy Score	Mean	36.9	34.8	39	37.3	37
	SD	36.1	34.7	35	37.1	35.7
Average Numeracy score	Mean	48.6	48.2	55.5	54	51.6
	SD	28.9	30	28.8	31.2	29.7
		15-19				
Average Literacy Score	Mean	47.2	53	51.7	51.2	50.8
	SD	35.3	34.3	37.4	36.7	35.9
Average Numeracy score	Mean	62.2	60.4	62.8	64.4	62.5
	SD	27.3	27.8	28.4	27.1	27.7

Unsurprisingly, girls aged 15-19 achieved better results than those aged 10-14 girls in the literacy and the numeracy tests. Only minor variation was seen across cities: the mean average literacy score for girls aged 10-14, for example, ranged between 35 in Bahir Dar and 39 in Shashemene – just four points. For girls aged

15-19, it ranged from 47 in Addis Ababa to 53 in Bahir Dar – a range of five points. A similar degree of variation was seen for the average numeracy scores. No discernable patterns emerge from this table in terms of girls from one city clearly outperforming another, although girls in Adama and Shashemene performed slightly better overall than those in Addis Ababa and Bahir Dar to a very minor degree.

Table 28: EGRA/EGMA aggregate score by work status and city

		Average Literacy Score		Average Numeracy Score	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Addis Ababa	Domestic worker	41.0	36.0	55.2	28.6
	Non-domestic worker	49.3	35.2	58.7	30.2
Bahir Dar	Domestic worker	41.1	34.3	53.4	29.6
	Non-domestic worker	49.4	37.8	56.1	29.5
Shashemene	Domestic worker	45.9	36.1	62.0	26.8
	Non-domestic worker	43.0	36.5	56.4	29.7
Adama	Domestic worker	35.3	33.3	53.9	30.5
	Non-domestic worker	49.5	39.2	62.0	29.2
All	Domestic worker	40.8	34.9	56.1	28.9
	Non-domestic worker	47.8	37.2	58.3	29.7

No notable difference pattern of scores were identified according to worker or non-worker status. The above table shows that, regardless of the girls' work status, all girls scored below 50% on the literacy test and scored above 50% but still less than 65% in the numeracy test. This could mean that girls who are or are not workers currently have similar level of literacy and numeracy levels despite their differences in living statuses. At the end line evaluation, more meaningful conclusions can be drawn to observe whether girls managed to make similar progress to one another as a result of the project intervention or not.

Table 29: EGRA/EGMA aggregate score by disability status and city

	Average Literacy Score		Average Numeracy Score	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Girls with disabilities	42.6	36.2	54.9	29.2
Non-disabled girls	44.0	36.4	57.5	29.2
Seeing difficulty	28.2	31.3	46.9	29.5
Hearing Difficulty	36.4	42.9	33.1	25.4
Walking Difficulty	46.0	34.8	52.4	30.4
Selfcare difficulty	43.3	38.9	43.2	32.1
Communication Difficulty	49.5	39.8	52.8	36.2
Learning Difficulty	50.3	38.9	56.0	35.3
Remembering Difficulty	45.2	36.9	52.1	35.3

Concentrating Difficulty	30.2	32.1	37.0	32.3
Accepting Change	38.8	35.2	47.0	34.1
Controlling Behaviors Difficulty	45.4	37.2	50.1	32.3
Difficulty on Making Friends	34.8	33.2	43.4	32.0
Anxiety	41.2	35.8	54.1	30.0
Depression	42.3	37.4	55.7	29.9

The final sub-group analysis conducted is the learning outcome aggregate scores of GwDs. The first comparison made was between the overall average scores of those who are disabled and non-disabled. No noticeable difference can be observed between the scores of girls with and without disabilities, as both scored less than 50% in their literacy tests and more than 50% in their numeracy test.

While looking at the detailed analysis per each disability type, girls with seeing, hearing, and concentrating difficulties performed lower in their literacy tests, while the others, especially those who are identified as being with learning difficulties, scored better. This could indicate that girls' self-perception and actual capacities might be different, which is considerable affected by self-esteem. When coming to the numeracy score, those with hearing and concentrating difficulty performed worse than girls with other disabilities.

5.5 TRANSITION OUTCOME

Table 30: Status at Baseline (n=824)

Status	Intervention (%)
Never been to school (%)	**25.2**
Been to school, but dropped out	**69.2**
Currently enrolled in formal school	**0.0**
Currently employed	**55.0**

5.5.1 Girls' Aspirations

All 824 sampled girls were asked what level of education they aspire to complete. Overall, 67% of the girls want to attend education in college or University while 19% wish to complete upper secondary education.

Table 31: Education level girls aspire to reach in percent

	AA (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n-210)	Total (n=824)
None	1.0	0.5	3.3	1.0	1.1
Primary	5.8	10.0	2.9	1.0	5.0
Lower secondary	7.2	17.1	3.8	2.5	7.8
Upper secondary	24.2	20.0	12.9	17.3	18.6
College or university	61.8	52.4	77.1	78.2	67.2

No major discrepancies were observed in the data across the cities except for a slightly larger number of respondents in Bahir Dar (10%) who aspire to attend only primary level education.

The career aspirations of domestic workers were explored through a question posed on what the girls would like to achieve in the future.[25]

Table 32: What domestic girls aspire to achieve in the future in percent.

	AA (n=174)	Bahir Dar (n=137)	Shashemene (n=65)	Adama (n=77)	Total (n=453)
Get better education	71.3	61.3	83.1	92.2	73.5
Get better employment	66.1	71.5	61.5	77.9	69.1
Run own business	28.7	58.4	40.0	31.2	39.7
Go abroad	4.6	6.6	16.9	32.5	11.7

The data in the table above is obtained from a multiple response question. Widely opted responses are presented here. For the majority of domestic worker girls in all cities, getting better education (73%) and/or better employment (69%) is a priority. Owning a business was chosen by 40% of girls, with relatively higher proportions in Bahir Dar (58%) and Shashemene (40%) selecting this response. Some girls would also like to go abroad in the future. Particularly, higher proportion of girls in Adama (32%) and in Shashemene (17%) indicated going abroad as something they would like to achieve in the future.

Many girls during IDIs stated that they do not know which kind of occupation or career interests them. When asked about the value of education and what their future aspirations, many interviewed girls replied that they simply want to have a job, any job, in any location. Meanwhile, others did not understand how education in a certain subject does not necessarily translate to being able to find a job in that area. For example, one girl in Adama said that she was good in her education and so will be a doctor when she is older; then she will start a family once she has completed her education and secured a job – "around the age of 25." Without experience of how long it takes to complete the medical training to become a doctor (7+ years of higher education, after completing high school at the age of around 19), this girl and many others have unrealistic ambitions of the world of work. Generally, girls had little understanding of the nature of employment, which is likely due to a lack of contact with those with full-time, stable professions. This, in turn, may affect their opportunities in terms of preventing them from developing ambitions, feeling motivated to continue in their education and/or understanding the realities of the challenges surrounding securing employment.

It is therefore deemed important that the project address girls' limited understanding of future career options in order to ensure that the appropriate structures are in place to help them develop the skills and knowledge needed for them to pursue the futures they want. It is also advised that information be provided on how much education is needed for certain careers to help girls understand the options available to them and what will be needed for them to achieve their goals. These kinds of lessons can be incorporated into sessions on financial literacy and entrepreneurship training.

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[25] During tool development, it was planned that this question would be asked to all girls. The PDAs were programmed with an incorrect skip pattern that meant only domestic workers were asked the question, which is a limitation of this study. Qualitative information on the kind of aspirations non-domestic workers are included to mitigate this limitation.

6 KEY INTERMEDIATE OUTCOME FINDINGS

IO	IO indicator	Sampling and measuring technique used	Who collected the data?	Baseline level	Target for next evaluation point	Will IO indicator be used for next evaluation point? (Y/N)
2. Increased social capital and networks available for marginalized girls' learning & development	*2.1* Percent of girls reporting expanded social capital (friendship network or supportive adults)	Girls' survey	External evaluator	58.3%		Y
	2.2 Percent of girls utilizing social entitlements such as health services, law enforcement, and social services	Girls' survey	External evaluator	29.7%		Y
5. Change in communities' perception about the role of marginalized girls	*5.1* Number of community members with improved attitudes about the role and status of girls, including CDW, rural-urban migrants and GwDs	Primary caregivers/ employers' survey	External evaluator	85.4%		Y

7 CONCLUSIONS

7.1 OUTCOME FINDINGS

7.1.1 Learning Findings

Overall, the sampled girls' average numeracy scores were relatively similar across all cities, ranging from 54.5 in Shashemene to 58.6 in Bahir Dar, while wider variation was seen on literacy, from 34.4 in Shashemene to 56.0 in Bahir Dar.

Analysis of scores by sub-groups revealed differences in some areas. Girls that had been to school and had not been to school performed relatively similarly in Shashemene but a much wider level of variation was seen in other cities. Unsurprisingly, younger girls scored lower that older girls, on average, although not much difference was seen across cities by each age group – only a range of about 5 points. A difference in the scores of domestic workers and non-domestic workers was noted in all cities: in Addis Ababa, Bahir Dar and Adama, domestic workers scored lower than non-domestic workers on both literacy and numeracy scores, with a slightly greater difference seen on the literacy scores. However, in Shashemene, the reverse was seen: domestic workers performed better than non-domestic workers on literacy and, to an even greater degree, on numeracy scores. It should be noted that domestic workers tend to be older than non-domestic workers and that the sample of girls in Shashemene were, on average, much younger than in other cities.

When looking at the difference between girls that with and without disabilities, not much difference was seen. However, when comparing results from girls with different disability types, it can be seen that girls with seeing, hearing, and concentrating difficulties performed lower in their literacy tests, while others, especially those with learning difficulties, scored better. This might indicate that girls' self-perception and actual capacities might be different, which is related to their self-esteem. Regarding numeracy scores, those with hearing and concentrating difficulty performed worse than girls with other disabilities**.**

The majority of the girls are clustered under non-reader/learner and proficient band scores, meaning the girls literacy and numeracy levels are diverse. This trend was particularly notable in the literacy test results. Previous school enrollment statuses of girls were highly associated with the score differences observed, as the majority of those who have never been enrolled in schools and those who have but dropped out at early grades (grade 2 and below) scored 0% in most of the subtasks while those who dropped out from Grade two and above were proficient band scorers – with few in between these scores. Girls who had never been to school but achieved the highest band scores are an exception to this, which might be associated with different factors such as the use of mobile phones – which involves acquiring certain competency majority in numeracy but also literacy. Though not significantly reflected in the data, test languages being different from girls' native languages was slightly associated with low scorers, especially those of the literacy tasks.

7.1.2 Transition Findings

At the baseline level, all girls were OOS and fell into subcategories or groups that make them 'most marginalized', as per the project aims and objectives. Across all cities, 55% are domestic workers, from 31% in Shashemene to 84% in Addis Ababa. A quarter of girls have never been to school and, among those that have been to school, 71% dropped out before completing early primary (Grade 1-4). Most of the girls surveyed aspire to receive better education (74%) and have better employment statuses (69%) – which could be better payment or working conditions, including hours worked.

During the endline survey, transition findings will be assessed through a comparison between learning outcomes (in order to assess whether girls have received better education) and indicators relating to their employment statuses and conditions – for example looking at number of hours worked, payment received and hazards faced. These findings will be triangulated with qualitative information in order to ascertain the level to which the BTA project drove such changes (rather than environmental and external factors).

7.1.3 Factors that Influence Sustainability

Factors that influence sustainability include those that promote longer-term change beyond the project duration. Information on a range of such factors was captured – for example the attitudes and perceptions of community members on the role of marginalized girls. At the baseline, 85% of PCGs/employers surveyed demonstrated improved attitudes about the role and status of girls' education, including GwDs, rural-urban migrants and domestic workers. This was measured through the quantitative survey and backed-up with information from qualitative interviews, during which almost all sampled adults at the household level had positive attitudes towards educating such girls, improving their lives and expanding their opportunities.

However, the results from this research also note that there is a gap in terms of translating reported attitudes and perceptions into practice. In order for the project to have impact beyond its lifetime, it will be essential to focus on embedding such positive attitudes such that PCGs/employers are motivated to keep educating their girls and are further inspired to share the message of the importance of girls' education beyond their households. Capitalizing on local networks for information-sharing, such as community meetings, coffee ceremonies and PTA meetings, will be crucial in this respect.

Another factor that will influence sustainability will be developing girls' knowledge of and confidence to use social entitlements, such as health, legal and social services. At the baseline, 30% of girls were reported to be using such services. Increasing this percentage will enhance their ability to and likelihood of achieving positive transitions. Furthermore, 58% of girls reported having friendship networks and/or a supporting adult in their lives they can talk with if they have issues. The BTA project activities are likely to be more sustainable if girls have improved opportunities to communicate with one another and a wider network of supportive people to embed their learning and soft skills developed, as well as have the change to compare their life statuses and opportunities. This is particularly important in the cases where girls might not realize they have alternative options available to them in their lives – for example those domestic workers that are not paid or that report experiencing hazards at work, despite a purported shortage of domestic workers in some areas. Furthermore, it will help them to develop improved understanding of their rights, which is an essential component in their ability to transition to improved opportunities and livelihoods.

7.2 CHARACTERISTIC SUBGROUPS AND BARRIERS FACED

The critical factors that affect girls' school enrollment and overall quality of life are primarily caused by financial constraints and environmental factors.

7.2.1 Financial Constraints

Almost all surveyed girls in this study aspire to continue their education as far as a higher level – the majority (89%) aiming to reach upper secondary and/or college or University. However, all these girls are not in formal or regular education due to a number of barriers faced – most commonly, financial constraints. Poor economic status of girls at a household or individual level is a key challenge of most surveyed girls in this study. Not having the financial means to cover schooling costs can potentially lead to needing to work so as to earn money and afford the costs of education or basic needs. However, the majority of girls are still

in a vicious circle of poverty, most (66%) of those that do work are not paid for what they do. Among the minority that are paid (34%), most earn insufficient income (65%).

7.2.2   Environmental factors

Community attitudes and perceptions towards girls' education, particularly of education of domestic workers, rural-urban migrants and GwDs, are the driving factors of marginalized girls' invisibility in the society. According to the survey outcome of this study, more than 80% of PCGs/employers strongly support the notion of educating or positively treating such girls. However, in practice, a considerable number of girls encounter serious multidimensional inequalities within the society, including child labor exploitation with no or little pay, safety issues, sexual/verbal harassment and not being permitted to pursue education. Some employers believe they have hired girls to do a job, rather than become educated – therefore they do not see it as their role to support their education. This was noted by participants who spoke about these individuals, rather than employers self-identifying as not wanting to educate domestic workers.

The proportion of girls affected by Covid-19 was relatively higher in Shashemene and Adama than other cities. Most of the girls in these cities had to leave school (BTA sessions) because of Covid-19, while many of their PCGs/employers lost their jobs due to the pandemic, reducing their household ability to meet basic needs. One of the widely used prevention mechanisms PCGs/employers use to protect girls from the disease in these cities, particularly in Adama, is to keep them in the house and never let them go out – which has considerable negative implication on their education and psychological wellbeing.

7.3   THEORY OF CHANGE

As Population Council is in the process of revising the ToC, it is not possible to comment on the links between the main barriers, activities, assumptions, outputs, intermediate outcomes and outcomes on the most up-to-date version. However, the following points are presently noted regarding the ToC.

Firstly, one of the assumptions in the top-left box states "rigorous house-to-house recruitment methods enable mentors to identify the most marginalized girls". During this research, it was found that these methods are not always successful in identifying such girls because, often, PCGs/employers will deliberately hide their girls – especially when they are young OOS domestic workers. Furthermore, GwDs tend to be very concealed from society because of pervasive stigma related to their disabilities – meaning it may be challenging to locate these girls.

In the top-right box, it states that "engaging with key federal ministries, REBs and local communities will result in increased visibility of marginalized girls and ensure protection of their rights, welfare and well-being." It is recommended that this be changed to "…will better promote their rights…" because such engagement cannot necessarily "ensure" anything. It is worth bearing in mind that child labor in Ethiopia is illegal under the age of 14 and hazardous work is illegal for those under 18. To "ensure promotion of rights…" will necessarily mean many of the girls involved in the BTA project need to leave their jobs. The impact of this terminology and what it translates to in girls' lives should be carefully considered.

Finally, it is recommended that the project ToC take into account to critical environmental factors affecting employment and economic status in Ethiopia: the Covid-19 and the very high inflation rates in the country. The ability of girls to move into positive employment and/or economic outcomes is likely to be hampered by the economic downturn created by the pandemic, as many people have lost their jobs and been unable to go out to work. Furthermore, Ethiopia is experiencing incredibly high inflation rates at a national level. The negative economic effects of this have been further exacerbated by rising living costs. While the project

may have positive effects on girls' futures by supporting them to develop improved entrepreneurial and financial skills, it is possible that the limited and declining job and economic opportunities in the country will hamper girls' ability to transition to positive outcomes.

7.4 GENDER EQUALITY, SOCIAL INCLUSION AND RISKS

From information obtained in this baseline study, it can be concluded that this project has been designed in a way that suitably addresses gender inequalities and social inclusion of marginalized people. At the project's heart is the objective to support positive transitions of adolescent OOS girls into formal schooling and/or employment. There are four sub-objectives: to improve literacy, numeracy and life skills; to address harmful gender and social norms; to test sustainable solutions including new partnerships with local organizations and governmental partners; and to evaluate the intervention to understand which activities work to include and support marginalized girls. As such, the design of the project has sustainable mechanisms to address gender inequalities at its core.

To ensure the inclusion of those from a range of marginalized and vulnerable backgrounds, recruitment of girls is designed to be conducted through reaching out to girls through door-to-door house visits. A risk of this strategy is that only those who are within households will be included – homeless girls or those that sleep on the streets are automatically excluded because they do not have households. Another risk of this strategy is that the recruitment of girls is dependent on their PCGs/employers answering the door at the moment they are visited and permitting their girls to join the project – as it is likely that those with child domestic workers who are OOS will not be willing to self-identify or self-implicate in this way. Recommendations in the following section have been devised in order to address such risks.

An additional way in which this risk can be mitigated and addressed is through ensuring that data on indicators relating to marginalized and vulnerable subgroups been collected. This has been done this baseline assessment, although if some subgroups are missing, this can be addressed in the next assessment – for example young mothers or married children.

8 RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 MONITORING, EVALUATION AND LEARNING OF THE PROJECT

The monitoring, evaluation and learning (MEL) of this project can be improved in several ways, following lessons learned from this study. Firstly, it should be noted that considerable challenges were faced relating to the relocation of sampled girls, who are a highly mobile population. Many girls were difficult to trace due to having changed addresses. Although they had provided a household phone number, some of these numbers were disconnected upon recontacting. It is recommended that the project ask participant girls to provide two contact numbers – one of a PCG/employer and one of a parent (if these are not the same) or of an additional household member such as another relative if the girl lives with her parents in case further follow-up questions relating to the study are needed. This will also help the project to keep track of girls. In the future, for any other cohort studies, girls should be made aware that they need to inform the project team if their living situation changes. Their PCG/employer should be made aware that they need to make the phone available to girls for project-related communication at certain times. If households do not have phones, girls should be asked to update the project team in person if their situation changes and should be provided with contact numbers in case they are able to borrow a phone to provide an update.

Secondly, one of the limitations of this study is that some subgroups of interest to the fund manager are missing – for example data on whether participants are young mothers, married and/or from minority ethnic or religious backgrounds. It is recommended that close attention is paid to the questions asked on categories or characteristics of girls during tool development to ensure relevant information is obtained.

Thirdly, the method for measuring existing levels and quality of government support for girls' education was asking participants whether the issues of girls' education generally and education of domestic workers and children with disabilities in particular have been raised in community meetings and, if so, whether any action has been taken. This was not found to be a comprehensive method for measuring existing levels and quality of government support. As such, it is recommended that a robust indicator be developed to generate a more robust understanding of the level and nature of Government support, potentially to be measured through a review of recent acts and declarations, Government strategies and policies, and potentially funding allocated. Where these cannot be accessed, relevant questions will be posed in KIIs.

Fourthly, although the questionnaire was carefully inputted into PDA devices for data collection, it is recommended that programming is double-checked even after pre-testing because an incorrectly programmed skip-pattern led to the question on future aspirations only being asked to domestic workers.

8.2   PROJECT DESIGN

This baseline study includes key findings on indicators relating to equality and inclusion of particularly vulnerable girls, including rural-urban migrants, domestic workers and GwDs. It is recommended that the project pay attention to the following critical areas in order to improve its relevance to girls – especially these especially marginalized groups.

8.2.1   Keep girls engaged through short-term expiring project ID cards

It is recommended that the project issue girls with short-term project ID cards that need to be renewed every six months. This is so that, when the cards expire, the girls will have to return to the project in order to get new ones. This will support those girls who initially do not have kebele ID cards (i.e. new rural-urban migrants and those underage) to be documented. It will also keep girls engaged in the project, as they will need to return to the BTA safe spaces and speak with mentors at least every six months in order to keep an in-date project ID card.

8.2.2   Use novel recruitment strategies to reach domestic worker girls and GwDs

One of the assumptions in the ToC is that "rigorous house-to-house recruitment methods enable mentors to identify the most marginalized girls." However, qualitative techniques revealed that these do not always work as many people deliberately conceal domestic workers or GwDs when project, school or administration representatives come to call – meaning some fall between the gaps. Using locally appropriate methods such as coffee ceremonies and community meetings with giveaways of household sanitation materials that are only accessible to employers/PCGs that come with their domestic workers are two potential strategies. Another would be capitalizing on the strength of the church and the mosque, as community members tended to agree that these are particularly influential structures on people's lives.

8.2.3   Promote the rights of migrant girls through practical steps

It is essential that girls or their PCGs/employers are issued with kebele ID cards because this is a key driver in their continued vulnerability. It is recommended that the project aim at facilitating issuing of such ID cards either by liaison with the Kebele office and/or through providing information on how to obtain such

documentation as part of developing girls' life skills. As noted across qualitative techniques, especially in Bahir Dar, those without documentation are not invited to community meetings and often struggle to access key services. In the words of one individual: *"nobody cares about them because they are not documented and so nobody knows they exist."* Issuing all people with proper documentation (even if just temporary if they are new arrivals or migrants to the city) would strengthen their access to services and strengthen their self-perception as being worthy of such services and facilities.

In areas of high migration, brokers often congregate around bus stations to meet new migrants off the bus. Although some help girls to find work in a safe, legal manner, others are engaged in trafficking, physical and sexual abuse, forced labor and other illegal practices. As brokers were described as highly influential in pushing migrant girls into unsafe employment practices, sensitizing them with information about the danger of their activities and the issues surrounding rural-urban migration – both from a legal standpoint and in terms of their ethical standing – will, ideally, reduce the likelihood that new migrants will be trafficked into unsafe working conditions. This will promote the sustainability of the project and increase its broader impact. It is noted that it will be challenging to engage such brokers, who will not self-identify but operate in secret, mostly. It is recommended that this be done by project mentors and/or local government officials.

8.2.4 Learning Recommendations

To help all girls attain high standards of learning, specific learning needs of students should be thoroughly assessed. Adapting instructions levels to each student's skills and needs is crucial for successful learning outcome. Furthermore, students benefit more from learning in their own language – which could be a language that they are already proficient at, not necessarily a mother tongue. Screening girls for their language of preference would add value to the better learning outcome of the project.

8.3 SUSTAINABILITY

According to the project design, sustainability will be measured at three levels: school, community and system. For the project to have prolonged success beyond its delivery period, it is essential that there are activities to drive long-term impact within each of these areas.

A school-level mechanism to promote long term impact of the project is the development and strengthening of PTAs. While these were described as existing across all cities, their management, activities and level of impact varied between different schools. Most individuals agreed that PTAs are not particularly impactful because of a lack of focus or sustained attention by both schools and parents. Furthermore, many PTAs lack sufficient funding to make meaningful changes. Although the approach to schooling of the BTA project is different to regular primary education and many of the participants do not live with their parents, it is recommended that caregiver-teacher-associations are established to involve PCGs/employers in girls' learning, as this might help to increase interest and enthusiasm for girls' education.

According to the MEL framework, at a community level, the project aims to train community members and conduct "proper handing over" so that "inputs and best practices of the project will be left behind for the community". Given the mismatch between positive attitudes towards education of domestic workers and girls with disabilities but low levels of practice, this evaluation recommends that sensitizing beneficiary girls' households and the wider community to advocate on behalf of marginalized and vulnerable girls is prioritized. GwDs are usually marginalized, often teased, or bullied, and generally are not given the same opportunities as other children because of their difficulties. As such, they usually lack the self-esteem and

morale to advocate for themselves. As one girl noted, she has nobody. She is hopeless and feels invisible. Her PCG noted that, because she doesn't go out of the house, she has no confidence to speak up in public. As such, an important element of supporting GwDs will be to encourage others to create an enabling environment in which girls feel empowered, for example through having community champions for GwDs and domestic workers, ensuring there are associations with trained adults to advocate on behalf of vulnerable children. Such advocacy is important in order to drive long-term attitudinal change regarding how people perceive these groups.

Furthermore, although in Bahir Dar, Addis Ababa, and Adama, it was described that there is a shortage of domestic workers and so these groups are somewhat able to demand access to education, the fact that many girls in these areas are not paid and work long hours under hazardous conditions (particularly in Bahir Dar) reflects the fact that they do not feel able to demand improvements in their working and living conditions from their employers. Therefore, for these girls' working conditions to improve, it is necessary that someone else (or some other entity) advocate on their behalf.

Indeed, the invisibility of such girls (many of whom are not allowed out of the house, cannot make friends, are undocumented and do not attend community meetings) means that many girls are unable to access education. Some girls have not left their households for as many as five years, according to some institutional-level informants. Giving girls the confidence to pursue education and provide them with knowledge of how to do this is important, given that a high proportion of girls have high educational aspirations. This is especially so in areas where there are no associations for domestic workers or for girls whose PCGs/employers do not let them attend such association activities. As such, although it is important to build the confidence and capacity of vulnerable girls for girls in encouraging their education, it is recommended that considerable focus is placed on employer and PCG awareness and activity to then enable girls to pursue their rights to education.

It is recommended that religious institutions are used in order to translate knowledge and attitudes into practice. In Ethiopian society, it is widely agreed that the church and the mosque have highly persuasive power in motivating communities to act upon their purported beliefs, as some individuals state they hold certain attitudes but do not translate them into practice. For example, one ABE expert in Bahir Dar noted: *"In our country a person who enrolls domestic worker girls is considered as a saint. Enrolling domestic worker girls is considered as a yardstick of sanctity. Even though this should be encouraged, it shows that educating domestic worker girls is a rare practice."* This individual recommended that the project work with local religious institutions and encourage the leaders to link specific religious teachings with the rights of marginal groups. This would enable communities to better understand the value of such education and feel more motivated to actually enroll girls.

Furthermore, it is recommended that the project increases awareness of PCGs/employers of the legal structures to protect the rights and education of children in Ethiopia. Child labor is illegal under the age of 14. Hazardous work is only permitted for those over the age of 18. Recourse to the legal framework is a potential strategy in improving working conditions for the many domestic workers (especially in Bahir Dar) that currently have hazardous working conditions. Although backlash against the community is a risk in terms of project implementation, one community education outreach officer interviewed stated while they were conducting house-to-house visits, they became aware of a child being prevented from accessing education and stated they would call the police if an employer did not enroll her young domestic worker in school. As a result, she enrolled the girl in ALP. This pathway is a positive transition, and this strategy was successful in this instance. Therefore, although the potential risks of community backlash are noted, it is

recommended that some strengthening of institutional and legal structures are conducted by the project team to build the capacity of existing structures that exist to support children in accessing education. In order to increase such awareness, it is recommended that the project create simple, accessible checklists that specify what laws and policies exist to protect GwDs, OOS girls and domestic workers, in particular. These should be very simple and straightforward so that all audiences can understand them without needing any educational background. Such checklists could be used during enrollment activities, rights-based exercises and in community meetings to underpin and strengthen the argument for educating domestic workers.

8.4 EVALUATION QUESTIONS

In light of the above findings, it is recommended that the question on community attitudes towards marginalized girls be changed from:

> *"Does Biruh Tesfa for All result in an improvement in community attitudes about marginalized girls, girls in modern slavery and girls with disabilities?"*

To:

> *"How effective was Biruh Tesfa for All in improving community attitudes about marginalized girls, girls in modern slavery and girls with disabilities, what were the most effective methods used and to what extent were these attitudes translated into practice?"*

This is recommended because of how community attitudes were evidently not being translated into practice during the baseline study. The vast majority of PCGs/employers held positive attitudes towards girls' education (including that of domestic workers and GwDs); however, their girls were nonetheless not enrolled at the project inception. As such, it will be instructive to learn about changes in the results or manifestations of these attitudes, rather than any changes in the attitudes themselves – which are already very positive regarding education.

While it does not necessitate actually changing the evaluation questions, is recommended that the impact of Covid-19 is taken into account while answering them, as it is likely that the pandemic had considerable effects on matters such as girls' social networks and opportunities for positive transitions – especially given the continued economic downturn caused by Covid-19.

Theory of Change

Outcomes	**Learning** — Literacy | Numeracy | Life skills	**Transition** — Formal education programmes | Paid employment or self-employment	**Sustainability** — Changes at the community, school/institution and system levels

Causal links, assumptions, and evidence

Learning

Causal links
- Girls' regular attendance at safe learning spaces supported by well-trained mentors increases their literacy and numeracy capabilities as well as their life skills

Assumptions
- Rigorous house-to-house recruitment methods enable mentors to identify the most marginalised girls
- Training, supervision and support will enable mentors to deliver high-quality sessions
- Building girls' social capital improves their learning and development prospects

Evidence
- *Evaluation of Health and Education Impacts of a Girls' Safe Spaces Programme in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (Erulkar and Medhin 2017)*
- *GEC: Supporting Marginalised Girls in Sierra Leone to Complete Basic Education with Improved Learning Outcomes (Plan International, 2016)*
- *Access to formal and informal literacy and life-skills programmes for persons with disabilities in 9 suburban areas of Maputo and Matola cities (Handicap International, 2015)*

Transition

Causal links
- ABE instruction, life skills training, financial literacy and entrepreneurial education facilitate girls' transition into formal education and/or safe employment
- Accompaniment of girls with disabilities and increased awareness of employers improve girls' access to safe employment

Assumptions
- Building girls' social capital and protective assets increases their prospects for a safe and more productive life
- EBDN expands into cities targeted by the project

Evidence
- *Ishraq: Bringing Marginalised Rural Girls into Safe Learning Spaces in Rural Upper Egypt (Selim et al. 2013)*
- *Enhancing Livelihood Opportunities for Young Women in Rural Upper Egypt (Ramadan et al. 2014)*

Sustainability

Causal links
- Engaging with key federal ministries, REBs and local communities will result in increased visibility of marginalised girls and ensure protection of their rights, welfare, and well-being

Assumptions
- Community engagement aims to achieve attitudinal change regarding the exploitation of children and the capabilities of those living with disability

Evidence
- *Empowering girls in Afghanistan through education: Focus on the Girls' Education Challenge programme (ACTED, 2016)*

Intermediate outcomes

1. Increased attendance rates of marginalised girls in informal education systems
2. Increased social capital and networks available for marginalised girls' learning & development
3. Increased opportunities for marginalised girls to exit unsafe forms of work through formal education and access to financial literacy and entrepreneurial skills
4. Strengthened systems for inclusive learning at all levels
5. Change in communities' perception about the role of marginalised girls

Outputs

1. Participation of marginalised girls in a safe learning environment
2. Establishment of networks to increase the social capital of marginalised girls
3. Participation of marginalised girls in formal education or safe employment, including self-employment
4. Development of mechanisms for inclusive teaching, facilities, and aids
5. Increased awareness of child exploitation, modern slavery, and rights of domestic workers, migrant girls, and girls with disabilities

Activities

Learning
- Supervise participatory nature of safe space groups and ensure quality of education
- Mobilize target girls into age-segmented, safe spaces within existing community facilities
- Conduct rigorous house-to-house recruitment with backup from DPOs to identify and support marginalised girls
- Train mentors/parttime teachers to: provide education on literacy & numeracy, life skills, financial literacy, and entrepreneurship; follow up with beneficiaries to ensure protection and well-being; and employ inclusive education methods
- Hold community conversations on the role and status of girls
- Renovate safe spaces to accommodate girls with disabilities
- Negotiate & engage with gatekeepers for girls' participation

Transition
- Conduct interactive & inclusive life skills, financial literacy, and entrepreneurship education, including communication, RH, HIV/AIDS, & menstruation management
- Provide MoE-issued ABE certificates and facilitate girls' transition to formal schooling
- Develop individual guidance and counseling plans to help girls identify transition goals
- Support linkages to job opportunities through internships and mentorships on self-employment
- Map community-based child protection mechanisms and support referrals
- Expand referral systems to financial institutions, EBDN, protective structures, and authorities who issue ID cards

Sustainability
- Engage the MoE from the initial stages of the project to plan and execute a sustainability plan, building the activities of mentors into their existing programmes
- Improve accessibility of schools and sustain provision of assistive aides & accommodation for GwD
- Develop a training guide for community-based child protection mechanisms
- Hold community conversations on the status and rights of girls with and without disabilities and raise awareness on the rights of domestic work
- Influence the Government to maintain mentorship structure and inclusion mechanisms and further disseminate guidelines and standards on education for girls and boys with disabilities

Inputs

Learning
- School material (e.g. textbooks, pens, pencils, book bags), sanitary napkins, and underwear
- Local women leaders, including those with disabilities, selected as mentors
- Partnership with DPOs for girls with disabilities
- Support, mobility aides and accompaniment for girls with disabilities
- MoE's ABE education and age-appropriate life skills curriculum

Transition
- School material (e.g. textbooks and school uniforms)
- Linkages with EBDN for girls with disabilities
- Partnership with REBs
- Financial literacy and entrepreneurship education

Sustainability
- Mentors'/ parttime teachers' remuneration consistent with government rates
- Training of mentor and teachers on SNE/IE (MoE)
- Sustainability plan in collaboration with MoE
- Use of existing government infrastructure as meeting spaces
- Project Advisory Committee

Barriers

Learning
- Access and safety issues in accessing educ. facilities
- Social isolation and attitudinal barriers
- Gatekeeper resistance and control
- Economic constaints
- Lack of ID cards
- Domestic work burden

Transition
- Low levels of education, financial literacy, and entrepreneurial skills
- Difficulties entering formal & non-formal education system (age restrictions, non-inclusive education, registration)
- Stigma against the capabilities of girls with and without disabilities

Sustainability
- Community attitudes regarding the value of girls' education and the potential of girls with disabilities
- Gender norms
- Lack of institutional capacity and resources
- Poor policy implementation

ABE: Alternative Basic Education | DPOs: Disabled People's Organizations | EBDN: Ethiopian Business and Disability Network | MoE: Ministry of Education | SNE/IE: Special Needs Education/Inclusive Education | REB: Regional Education Bureau

Annex 4: Beneficiaries table (sample data)

Table 1: Characteristic subgroups and barriers of sample for portfolio level aggregation and analysis

Characteristic/Barrier	Proportion of baseline sample (%)
Single orphans	NA
Double orphans	NA
Living without both parents	47.5%
Living in female headed household	48.9%
Married	NA
Mother under 18	NA
Mother under 16	NA
Difficult to afford for girl to go to school	54%
Household doesn't own land for themselves	NA
Material of the roof (material to be defined by evaluator)	Tin/Iron sheet 66% Roofing tiles 16.3% Mud 7.4% Wood 5.7% Other – below 3% each
Household unable to meet basic needs	55.5%
Gone to sleep hungry for many days in past year	7.3%
LoI different from mother tongue	27%
Girl doesn't speak LoI	NA
HoH has no education	28.8%
Primary caregiver has no education	NA
Didn't get support to stay in education and do well (%)	NA
Sufficient time to study: High chore burden (evaluator to specify threshold, %)	NA
Source: **Household Survey** (HH, girls, and PCG/Employer) **N = 824**	

Annex 9: Learning test pilot and calibration

- Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) and Early Grade Mathematics Assessment (EGMA) standard tools developed by the Research Triangle Institute (RTI) were adopted for this study. These assessments test the level of literacy and numeracy of sampled girls. EGRA and EGMA cover a range of sub-tests. The oral fluency section comprises a significant portion of EGRA. The test determines oral fluency by giving a value of words per minute (WPM). The WPM score measures and sets targets for the literacy component of learning under CHANGE project's intended outcomes. The EGMA, in turn, includes measures of both conceptual understanding and procedural fluency, such as number identification, addition and subtraction.

- JaRco conducted similar learning assessment for "Improving Access to Education in Ethiopia for Most Marginalized Girls Project (CHANGE)". CHANGE and BTA have resembling characteristics of beneficiaries which initiated the adoption of similar learning test calibration. These projects work with OOS marginalized adolescent girls. As a lesson learnt from CHANGE evaluation, the learning assessment tools of BTA were similarly modified or altered by increasing the time to 120 seconds. That means, additional 60 seconds were added to all the timed sub-tasks. JaRco's past testing of such OOS marginalized girls' literacy or numeracy levels in the CHANGE project suggest that girls sometimes perform poorly in exams because the testing situation creates anxiety that hinders their capability and/or the actual accuracy and numeracy levels of girls could be underexplored when limited with just 60 seconds. To avoid this, the time of the test was changed from 60 seconds to 120 seconds as in CHANGE project for the girls to have enough space to demonstrate their numeracy and literacy skills. This further explored the girls actual literacy and numeracy skills.

- For Exercise 2 **'Familiar Words'** and Exercise 3 **'Invented word reading', the number** of words were modified to 25 from 50. This change has been made in consultation and guidance of the FM (Fund Manager).

- The Endline tests will not be identical to those administered at the baseline as the cohort of girls participating are expected to not change. As a result, the contents of the tests will be calibrated differently to maintain the level of difficulty and scoring.

Learning Test Pilot

The learning tests were piloted after each enumerator and supervisors training in each project implementation cities (Addis Ababa, Bahirdar, Shashemene and Adama). The major outcome of the pre-test was the recognition of the enormous impact of different language of assessment and girls' first language on the result of the tests. Girls were observed facing difficulties with even understanding instructions of the tests due to the different language they were asked to take the tests. As a result, serious measures were taken to be strictly followed during data collection. The project was asked to send the EE lists of beneficiary girls for sampling disaggregated by girls' category of safe spaces' language in the project. That means, girls who are registered in the project to take classes in Amharic took the test in Amharic while those who take classes in Oromiffa took the test in Oromiffa. According to the lists provided by the project, only girls in Adama and Shashemene were given classes in either of the two languages while those in Addis Ababa and Bahirdar take monolingual classes (only in Amharic).

Endline learning test

- The Endline learning tests are already drafted during the baseline test preparation.
- Fine-tuning and finalization of the EGRA and EGMA test for the endline will take place during April 2022.
- The testing time will remain 120 seconds. That means, additional 60 seconds will be added to all the timed sub-tasks to equate the level of difficulty with the baseline test contents.
- Adjustments made on the number of words for the EGRA's Exercise2 and 3 will remain the same for the midline and endline tests. That means the sub sections will include 25 words rather than 50 as in the standard tools.
- The contents of the tests will be different during endline while in the meantime maintaining the similarity of the levels of difficulty with the baseline test.

JARCO CONSULTING

COVID-19 RISK MITIGATION STRATEGY DURING FIELD WORK

Activities that may generate risk	Action to be taken to mitigate risk	Responsible personnel	Frequency
Evaluation team while on the road – travel to and from project locations/ enumeration areas	▪ All evaluation team members will be provided transportation by JaRco to and from enumeration areas. ▪ The number of people in vehicle will not exceed the licensed number of passenger-carrying capacity. ▪ Prior to boarding the vehicles, the vehicle door handles will be disinfected with alcohol-based disinfectant by the responsible driver who are equipped with PPE. ▪ Enumerators will only be allowed to board vehicles if they are properly masked and hands are sanitized. ▪ Vehicle windows should be kept open to allow adequate ventilation during travel. ▪ Upon return from the project site at the end of day, the responsible driver will clean and sanitize the vehicle. ▪ Enumerators and supervisors will be advised to avoid going to crowded places.	Evaluation team and Driver	Daily routine
During interviews- Enumerators	▪ Enumerators will avoid hand-shake or other forms of greetings that involve physical touch. ▪ Face masks will be worn throughout the interview process ▪ Interviews will be held in open spaces to increase air circulation ▪ 2 meters distance (two arm lengths) between the interviewee and interviewer will be kept. ▪ Group discussions will be kept to four people (including the interviewer) with appropriate distances between all participants.	Enumerators and Supervisors	Daily routine
During interviews- study participants	▪ Study participants will be asked to cover their nose and mouth with any closing they have available. ▪ Hand sanitizers will be available onsite for participants to be used before interview. ▪ Pencils and counters to be provided for EGMA testing will be disinfected after each use. ▪ If needed, participants will be asked to sneeze and cough into their elbow.	Enumerators and supervisors	Daily routine
Hotline Toll free numbers if COVID Symptoms are developed: ▪ **ADDIS ABABA - 8335 OR 952** ▪ **OROMIA - 6955** ▪ **AMHARA - 6981**			

JaRco Consulting
Protection and Child Safeguarding Policy

25th September 2019

Policy Approved By: Tsegahun Tessema
Date Policy issued: 13th December 2013
Policy Updated: 25th September 2019
Location Policy Issued: Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Purpose of this policy

The purpose of this policy is focused on protecting all children and vulrable adults anywhere from harm caused by JaRco employees and affiliates as part of JaRco's involvement. In addition, to ensure that safety risks and cases of misconduct of JaRco employee and affiliates are identified, reported, and addressed in an appropriate and timely manner. This policy applies equally anywhere to all activities that JaRco involved.

Introduction

JaRco Consulting PLC is a privately owned Ethiopian International Development Consulting Firm established in 2007. JaRco's headquarter is located in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia and is a registered and licensed consulting firm under the license number 020/2/4920/2000, issued under Commercial Registration, with Business License Proclamation No. 686/2010 and Federal Regulation No. 13/1997 of the Government of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE).

JaRco's overarching mission is to ensure that programs aimed at improving the lives of the most vulnerable groups including children around the world are of the highest quality and meet the needs of the people for whom they are planned. In pursuit of this, we provide targeted technical assistance to multilateral and bilateral donor agencies, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), governments, universities and think-tanks. JaRco has the capacity to implement complex and comprehensive activities in the following area:

- Coordinating and administering large scale socio-economic and baseline surveys;
- Conducting mid-line and end-line evaluations of projects and programs using qualitative as well as quantitative research methods;
- Designing and implementing of Monitoring and Evaluation Systems for integrated and sector-specific projects and programs;
- Providing customized technical support including training and capacity building;
- Facilitating strategic planning workshops and support activities related to institutional development and capacity building;

- Providing technical support in food and livelihood security programming, productive safety nets and disaster risk management.

JaRco's work is focused on generating and providing evidence-base in support of development programs. This involves working with project/program beneficiaries of different organizations implementing the projects/programs. Hence, we are directly and indirectly in contact with children and adults. Moreover, JaRco is aware that many volunteers, temporary/short-term workers such as data collectors, enumerators, team leaders and personnel of other organizations it involves to provide programmatic and logistical support to its activities and other partners who collaborate with JaRco work directly or indirectly with children and adults.

JaRco is committed to respect the international and regional instruments as well as national laws that give protection for children. We oppose all forms of abuse (including physical, sexual, emotional, and intentional neglect), discrimination, exploitation, and manipulation of children as set out in international and regional child rights instruments that Ethiopia is party to, including the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC). Moreover, there are various provisions in the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia's Constitution, and other subsidiary laws that stipulate legal protection for Children. This policy draws from and is informed by the provisions and the principles enshrined in the UNCRC, the ACRWC, the FDRE's constitution and other subsidiary laws and policies of the country.

JaRco is committed to safeguarding children and adults, and has developed this policy in order to ensure its safeguarding commitment primarily to the children and adults (i.e. minimize the risk of children and adults from abuse and exploitation), and to its staff members, representatives, and its partners (making them aware of their roles and responsibilities to prevent harm to children and adults they interact with and reporting on as well as responding appropriately to child and adult safeguarding concerns and allegations). As a research focused organization it endeavours to ensure that data collection and research practices of the organization meet international standards for collecting information form children and adults and making sure that any individual who are in contact with organization are safeguarded at all stages of research tool development and implementation. This includes ensuring respect for privacy as well as confidentiality of information collected from them.

Definition of Key Terms

- A **child** is defined as anyone under the age of 18 years of age.

- **Child abuse** consists of anything which individuals, institutions or processes do or fail to do, intentionally or unintentionally, which harms a child or damages their well-being, dignity and prospect of safe and healthy development into adulthood. It includes all forms of physical abuse, emotional ill-treatment, sexual abuse and exploitation, neglect or negligent treatment, commercial or other exploitation of a child and includes any actions that result in actual or potential harm to a child.

- **Child Safeguarding** refers to the set of policies, procedures, practices, and activities that we employ to:
  - Minimize, to the fullest extent possible, the risks to children from any forms of harm;
  - Ensure individual children we work with are protected from violence, abuse, and exploitation and;
  - Respond appropriately to individual cases of abuse and exploitation when they occur (both internally or externally to the organization).

- **Sexual Exploitation** means any actual or attempted abuse of a position of vulnerability, differential power, or trust, for sexual purposes, including, but not limited to, profiting monetarily, socially or politically from the sexual exploitation of another[1]

- **Vulnerable Adults** – For the purpose of this policy, "vulnerable adult" refers to an adult who may be unable to take care of themselves or protect themselves from harm or exploitation. Such vulnerable adults may be at greater risk of abuse and exploitation due to a variety of risk factors, such as (without limitation) gender, gender identity or expression, health issues (including mental health), disabilities, age, sexual orientation, ethnic, geographic or national origin, family status, partnership status, race, religion or belief, economic background and particular trade or profession, or as a result of the impact of conflict and crisis.

- **Designated *person*** refers to staff appointed by the Director/executive for receiving all reports of concerns and manage incidents.

- **Staff** refers employee of who are engaged in full time, part time, international and national.

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[1] Secretary General's Bulletin Special Measures for Protection from Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse 2003 ST/SGB/2003/13

- **Representatives** refer to a range of paid and non-paid individuals who have committed to work with or support JaRco in carrying out its day-to-day and other strategic activities. It includes, among others, volunteers in all locations; interns, researchers, data collectors, enumerators, supervisors, drivers, team leaders, consultants and contractors, staff and/or representatives of partner organizations and local governments (when operating in partnership agreement with JaRco Consulting PLC).
- **Visitors** refers to a range of persons who are visiting our programs and activities may come into contact with children and adults through JaRco including journalists, media people, celebrities, board members, sponsors and donors.

Policy Statement

Safeguarding children as well as the vulnerable adults we come in contact is the foundation of all our activities. JaRco is fully committed to the safeguarding of children and adult who come into contact with JaRco from abuse and any form of exploitation. It seeks to ensure that every child and adult JaRco comes into contact with, either directly or indirectly through the work of JaRco partner organizations or representatives and visitors, will be treated with respect and dignity, and will be protected from harm, neglect or abuse. JaRco expects all employees and affiliates to maintain high integrity and standard of ethical conduct in all aspects of its activities.

JaRco will build its staff's, representatives' and visitors' existing knowledge, and awareness of the risks and consequences of child and vulnerable adults abuse and sexual exploitation to the highest level possible to enhance their abilities to protect children and adults with whom they work and come into contact within their daily lives. JaRco will take all suspicions and allegations of abuse and exploitation seriously and will take appropriate response as per the organization's internal disciplinary procedure. Its mandatory that all staff, representatives and visitors of the organization to demonstrate the highest standards of behaviour towards children and vulnerable adults both in their private and professional lives and to do everything in their capacity to prevent, report and respond appropriately to suspected or alleged cases of child and vulnerable adult abuse and exploitation.

JaRco has a zero-tolerance policy towards incidents of violence or abuse against children or against adult, including sexual exploitation or abuse, committed either by employees or others affiliated with our work.

Scope of the Policy

This policy applies to all JaRco staff, representatives and visitors who are employed by or working in association with JaRco.

The policy application covers instances of abuse and exploitation that occurs both professional and private life either witnessed or suspected by staff members, representatives, visitors, beneficiaries as well as community members.

Fundamental Principles

This policy is informed by a set of key principles enshrined in international instruments including that of the United Nations Convention on the Right of the Child (UNCRC), the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) as well as the constitution of the FDRE and other subsidiary laws. These principles include:

- All children and adults have equal rights to protection from abuse and exploitation.
- Each child has a fundamental right to life, survival and development.
- Adults and all children are equal irrespective of their age, race, color, sex, language, religious, political, or other opinion, national, ethnic, or social origin, property, disability, birth or other status.
- Children have the right to express their views freely in all matters affecting them and their opinion will be given due consideration according to their age and maturity.

Responsibilities

Everyone who works with and engages with JaRco has a responsibility to ensure that children and vulnerable adults are safeguarded and protected. JaRco Representatives are prohibited from engaging in any form of abuse or exploitation of children and/or vulnerable adults and are required to report all suspicions and allegations. The responsibilities detailed below are mandatory for those who fall within the scope of the policy.

JaRco Staff, representatives and visitors must:

1. Treat children and vulnerable adults in a manner which is respectful of their rights, integrity and dignity, considers their best interests and does not expose them to, or place them at risk of harm.

2. Never, behave or act in ways intended to shame, humiliate, belittle or degrade children or adult.

3. Never hit or otherwise physically assault or physically abuse children vulnerable adults.

4. Never engage in any sexual activity or have a sexual relationship, with anyone under 18 years of age, regardless the consent of the child.

5. Cooperate fully and confidentially in any investigation of concerns or allegations of child and adult abuse.

6. Do not touch adult or any children in an inappropriate way (e.g., fondle, massage, hold, kiss, or hug) or in a way that is inappropriate or sexually provocative.

7. Be sensitive to perception and appearance in observing local and regional norms of familiarity in language, conversation, actions, relationships, and physical intimacy.

8. STOP any interaction with a child or adult if a child or an adult says stop or if the child or the adult appears uncomfortable with the interaction.

9. Always ask permission from a child and parents/guardian if you wish to take a photograph of a child in relation to the JaRco's activities.

10. Do not communicate with a child via digital platforms, mobile technology, or online without consent and knowledge of his/her parents or guardian.

11. Do not touch sexual areas of the body and/or have sex with an adult beneficiary or a child.

12. Do not expose adult or children to sexual materials or otherwise abuse them through noncontact sexual activity.

13. Do not develop or seek a sexual relationship with any beneficiary of any age.

14. Never have a child/children with whom they are working to stay overnight at their home unsupervised unless exceptional circumstances apply and previous permission has been obtained from their line manager/supervisor.

15. Never sleep in the same bed or in the same room as a child with whom they are working or are responsible to care for; in case sleeping with a child in the same room is deemed necessary it should be agreed up on by managers that this is for the safety of the child.

16. Treat all children and vulnerable adults equally, indifferently from one to the other and avoid favouring particular children and vulnerable adults to the exclusion of others.

17. Never act as negotiator in or assist the process of financial settlement between the family of a child survivor of sexual abuse or exploitation and the perpetrator.

18. Never spend excessive time alone with children away from others.

19. Avoid putting themselves in a position where they are made vulnerable to allegations of misconduct.

Roles and Responsibilities of Senior Managers
JaRco Senior managers are accountable to:
- Ensure that the policy document is translated into relevant local language and user-friendly documents are developed for staff, representatives and partners/service providers' awareness and easy understanding.
- Train and support focal points and managers to implement the policy and ensure that all staff and representatives are clear what steps to take where concerns arise regarding the abuse or exploitation of children.
- Ensure that staff who have reported child safeguarding and adult protection concerns or are accused of child or adult abuse are given appropriate care, support and protection in dealing with all aspects of the case including any safety concerns and potential reprisals which may arise from the incident or from the reporting of such concerns.
- Ensure that this policy is in congruence with or is integrated in other policies/manuals including recruitment and data protection policy.
- Ensure that the policy implementation is incorporated into all management systems, standard operating procedures and processes that an environment is established where the rights of children and adults are respected.
- Ensure that resource needs are identified and met.
- Ensure that child-safeguarding and adult protection risks are periodically assessed and managed adequately.
- Ensure that issues and processes are fully documented so that appropriate action can be taken and lessons from experience drawn together at local and corporate levels.
- Ensure that lessons learnt in the general implementation of this Policy be used to review policy and develop best practices when appropriate.

Good Practice Guidance

All JaRco Staff should:
- Plan their field work well in advance and communicate their plans directly with the target groups (including adults and/or children and their parents/legal guardians that might be engaged in their work) to appropriately prepare them for what they're expected to do;
- Promote a culture of openness in relation to child and adult safeguarding issues, where any issues or concerns can be raised and discussed;
- Ensure that a sense of accountability exists between staff so that poor practice or potentially abusive behavior can be challenged;
- Talk to children and adults about their contact with staff or others and encourage them to raise any concerns;
- Empower child beneficiaries and vulnerable adults, and communicate to them their rights, what is acceptable and unacceptable, and what they can do if there is a problem;
- Communicate to child beneficiaries and their guardian as well as vulnerable adults what standards of professional practice they can expect of JaRco staff and what to do if they feel that JaRco staff are falling short of these standards;
- Report concerns that a child or Adult is a victim of abuse or sexual exploitation immediately to the designated protection and safeguarding person or management;
- Receive training on this policy which is relevant and appropriate to their position;
- Identify and avoid potential situations, which may lead to staff behaviour being misinterpreted.

Implementation, Monitoring and Review

The Director has the final responsibility for the implementation of this Policy within JaRco.

The policy is subject to review as necessary and the JaRco designated focal person and the executive/director should ensure mechanisms to document lessons learned, challenges faced and needs

highlighted to support the review of this policy. The policy is also subject to internal/external audits in a given time span.

The Director is responsible for developing appropriate procedures and guidelines and for assigning the designated focal person to oversee the day-to-day implementation of this policy. It will particularly undertake to review and, as appropriate and necessary, incorporate child-sensitive approaches and guidelines in its research, Monitoring and Evaluation as well as all other forms of surveys and assessment instruments it makes use of to ensure child and adult safeguarding and protection principles and practices are respected by all individuals using the tools.

Methods of reporting: JaRco employees or affiliates make reports in any of the following ways:

(a) Email to **protectionJaRco@jarco.info**

(b) Report to the immediate supervisor through direct phone: +251115577267 or email

c) If the person making the report does not believe that the incident or risk is being addressed by the immediate supervisor, or if person believes the immediate supervisor will not be able to receive or respond immediately to the report, or if the immediate supervisor is implicated, the reporter should report to: (i) his or her supervisor's immediate manager, their up-line management contact, (ii) a JaRco HR manager, or (iii) JaRco lawyer/ Legal Advisor. (IV). JaRco Director.

A. **SAFEGUARDING INCIDENTS WITH A CHILD/CHILD PROTECTION INCIDENTS** - **IMMEDIATE REPORTING**

Any JaRco employee, volunteer, contractor or intern shall report immediately, and no later than 24 hours, to the appropriate line of command as appropriate suspected child abuse or neglect that has occurred *connected to JaRco activities*.

- If the employee knows that neither JaRco Legal advisor, his/her supervisor, or HR has received the report within 48 hours, and child abuse or neglect has occurred, then the employee should report the facts to legal authorities or law enforcement.
- If the reporter is in the field where the child abuse or neglect has occurred connected with JaRco, the reporter should report immediately to the field operation manager, team leader, or HR manager within 24 hours.

- Most local law usually requires that the appropriate law enforcement agency should be notified of child abuse or neglect that has occurred as soon as possible. JaRco aspires to eliminate Child abuse and neglect and therefore urges every employee to immediately report directly to law enforcement whenever and wherever there are reasonable grounds of child abuse or neglect not connected to JaRco. Thereafter, provide a copy of any report made to authorities to JaRco Operation Manager, HR Manager or Team leader.

B. SAFEGUARDING INCIDENTS WITH AN ADULT- REPORTING WITHIN 24 HOURS

It is the responsibility of every employee, volunteer, intern or JaRco's affiliate to report within 24 hours of first notice:

(a) Any violation of this policy, which puts adult in direct or indirect risk of harm, even where no actual harm has occurred; or

(b) Any allegation or accusation of harm to or abuse of an adult by a JaRco employee or affiliate.

Consequences of Violations of This Policy

Breaches of this policy and failure to comply with these responsibilities may incur the following sanctions**:**

- For JaRco staff - disciplinary action leading to possible dismissal.
- For JaRco representatives or partners - up to and including termination of all relations including contractual and partnership agreements with JaRco.
- Where relevant - appropriate legal or other such actions as per the national laws applicable to all.

Where concerns exist about the conduct of JaRco Staff, JaRco Representatives and JaRco partners in relation to child and vulnerable adult Safeguarding and/or where there has been a breach of the Child and adult Safeguarding Protection Policy, this will be investigated under this policy by consideration of referral to statutory authorities for criminal investigation under the applicable laws of the FDRE; and/or by JaRco in accordance with disciplinary procedures.

Training

JaRco will provide training to all employees and affiliates to help them understand their duties and responsibilities under this Policy. This policy will be incorporated as part of the training materials for all data collection and supervision training manual. The Company's policy for child and vulnerable adult protection and safeguarding will also be communicated to all business partners at the outset of the business relationship with them and as appropriate thereafter.

Annex 14: Additional Characteristics of Girls

Intersectional characteristics	Addis Ababa		Bahir Dar		Shashemene		Adama		Total	
	10-14 N=82	15-19 N=125	10-14 N=44	15-19 N=166	10-14 N=173	15-19 N=37	10-14 N=122	15-19 N=75	10-14 N=421	15-19 N=403
Percentage of girls in each intersectional group by age and city*										
Migrant and domestic worker	58.5	72.8	27.3	50.6	6.9	27.0	13.1	34.7	20.9	52.4
Migrant and disabled	14.6	16.8	9.1	15.7	3.5	18.9	4.1	5.3	6.4	14.4
Domestic worker and disabled	14.6	18.4	9.1	13.9	5.8	10.8	0.8	6.7	6.4	13.6
Migrant, domestic worker and disabled	12.2	14.4	6.8	10.2	1.2	5.4	0.8	5.3	3.8	10.2
Number of girls in each intersectional group by age and city										
Migrant and domestic worker	48	91	12	84	12	10	16	26	88	211
Migrant and disability	12	21	4	26	6	7	5	4	27	58
Domestic worker and disability	12	23	4	23	10	4	1	5	27	55
Migrant, domestic worker and disabled	10	18	3	17	2	2	1	4	16	41
Percentage of girls with one or more disability										
Girls with one disability only	15.9	12.0	2.3	12.7	13.9	18.9	4.1	4.0	10.2	11.4
Girls with exactly two disabilities	3.7	5.6	9.1	5.4	11.6	16.2	9.8	10.7	9.3	7.4
Girls with three or more disabilities	2.4	5.6	6.8	3.0	1.2	0.0	0.8	0.0	1.9	3.0
Girls with one or more disabilities	22.0	23.2	18.2	21.7	26.6	35.1	14.8	14.7	21.4	22.1
Number of girls with one or more disability										
Girls with one disability only	13	15	1	21	24	7	5	3	43	46
Girls with exactly two disabilities	3	7	4	9	20	6	12	8	39	30
Girls with three or more disabilities	2	7	3	5	2	0	1	0	8	12
Girls with one or more disabilities	18	29	8	36	46	13	18	11	90	89

*I.e. Each percentage is the proportion of girls in the respective age group <u>and</u> city that belong to the categories listed. For example, 14.6% of the 82 girls aged 10-14 in Addis Ababa are migrants and disabled, while only 4.1% of the 122 girls aged 10-14 in Adama are migrants and disabled.

Age in years	Addis Ababa (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
10 to 14	**39.6**	**21.0**	**82.4**	**61.9**	**51.1**
10	6.3	2.4	23.8	24.4	14.1
11	4.3	3.3	17.1	6.1	7.8
12	4.3	5.2	11.9	8.6	7.5
13	11.1	5.2	17.6	15.2	12.3
14	13.5	4.8	11.9	7.6	9.5
15 to 19	**60.4**	**79.0**	**17.6**	**38.1**	**48.9**
15	5.8	6.7	6.2	7.6	6.6
16	10.1	3.8	3.8	4.1	5.5
17	8.7	8.6	1.4	5.1	5.9
18	10.6	23.3	3.3	11.2	12.1
19	25.1	36.7	2.9	10.2	18.8
Total	25.1	25.5	25.5	23.9	100

First Language	Addis Ababa (n=207)	Bahir Dar (n=210)	Shashemene (n=210)	Adama (n=197)	Total (n=824)
Amharic	52.2	98.6	26.7	41.6	55.0
Oromifa	24.6	0.5	67.6	51.3	35.8
Wolayitegn	3.9	0.5	3.8	4.6	3.2
Guragigna	10.1	0.0	0.5	0.5	2.8
Sidamgna	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6
Kembatigna	0.5	0.0	1.0	0.5	0.5
Siltigna	1.0	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.5
Gamogna	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4
Hadiyigna	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4
Agewigna	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.2
Kefigna	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
Aderigna	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.1
Kontagna	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
Somaligna	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.1
Tigrigna	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1

Girls' perceptions and experiences of teachers – among those that had formerly been enrolled in school

Level of agreement	Agree lot	Agree little	Neutral	Disagree little	Disagree lot	Don't Know
Percentage of girls that agreed with the statement: "My teachers/ facilitators treated boys better than girls in the classroom"						
Addis Ababa (n=114)	39.1	52.6	5.3	3.0	0.0	0.0
Bahir Dar (n=107)	40.7	42.2	8.9	3.0	4.4	0.7
Shashemene (n=126)	60.4	31.2	4.5	3.2	0.0	0.6
Adama (n=128)	37.2	54.7	4.7	0.7	2.7	0.0
Average (n=475)	44.7	44.9	5.8	2.5	1.8	0.4
Percentage of girls that agreed with the statement: "My teachers/ facilitators treated boys better than girls in the classroom"						
Addis Ababa (n=114)	6.0	18.0	6.0	10.5	59.4	0.0
Bahir Dar (n=107)	14.8	20.0	14.8	6.7	43.0	0.7
Shashemene (n=126)	16.2	22.7	8.4	9.1	42.2	1.3
Adama (n=128)	7.4	43.9	6.8	10.8	31.1	0.0
Average (n=475)	11.2	26.5	8.9	9.3	43.5	0.5

	Never	Once or twice	Almost Daily	Don't know
How often teachers/educators/facilitators used punishment on other students in the last week (you were at school) as a percentage				
Addis Ababa (n=114)	65.8	30.7	2.6	0.9
Bahir Dar (n=107)	74.8	18.7	0.0	6.5
Shashemene (n=126)	84.1	14.3	1.6	0.0
Adama (n=128)	88.3	8.6	0.8	2.3
Average (n=475)	78.2	18.1	1.3	2.4
How often teachers/educators/facilitators used punishment on you in the last week (you were at school) as a percentage				
Addis Ababa (n=114)	90.4	9.6	0.0	0.0
Bahir Dar (n=107)	87.9	7.5	0.0	4.7
Shashemene (n=126)	95.2	4.8	0.0	0.0
Adama (n=128)	94.5	4.7	0.0	0.8
Average (n=475)	92.0	6.6	0.0	1.4

Annex 15 – distribution of respondents' exercise scores by age

List of charts

- Exercise 1: Age 10-14
- Exercise 1: Age 15-19
- Exercise 2: Age 10-14
- Exercise 2: Age 15-19
- Exercise 3: Age 10-14
- Exercise 3: Age 15-19
- Exercise 4a: Age 10-14
- Exercise 4a: Age 15-19
- Exercise 4b: Age 10-14
- Exercise 4b: Age 15-19
- Exercise 6: Age 10-14
- Exercise 6: Age 15-19
- Exercise 8: Age 10-14
- Exercise 8: Age 15-19
- Exercise 9: Age 10-14
- Exercise 9: Age 15-19
- Exercise 11: Age 10-14
- Exercise 11: Age 15-19

Distribution of respondents' exercise 1 score by age (10-14)
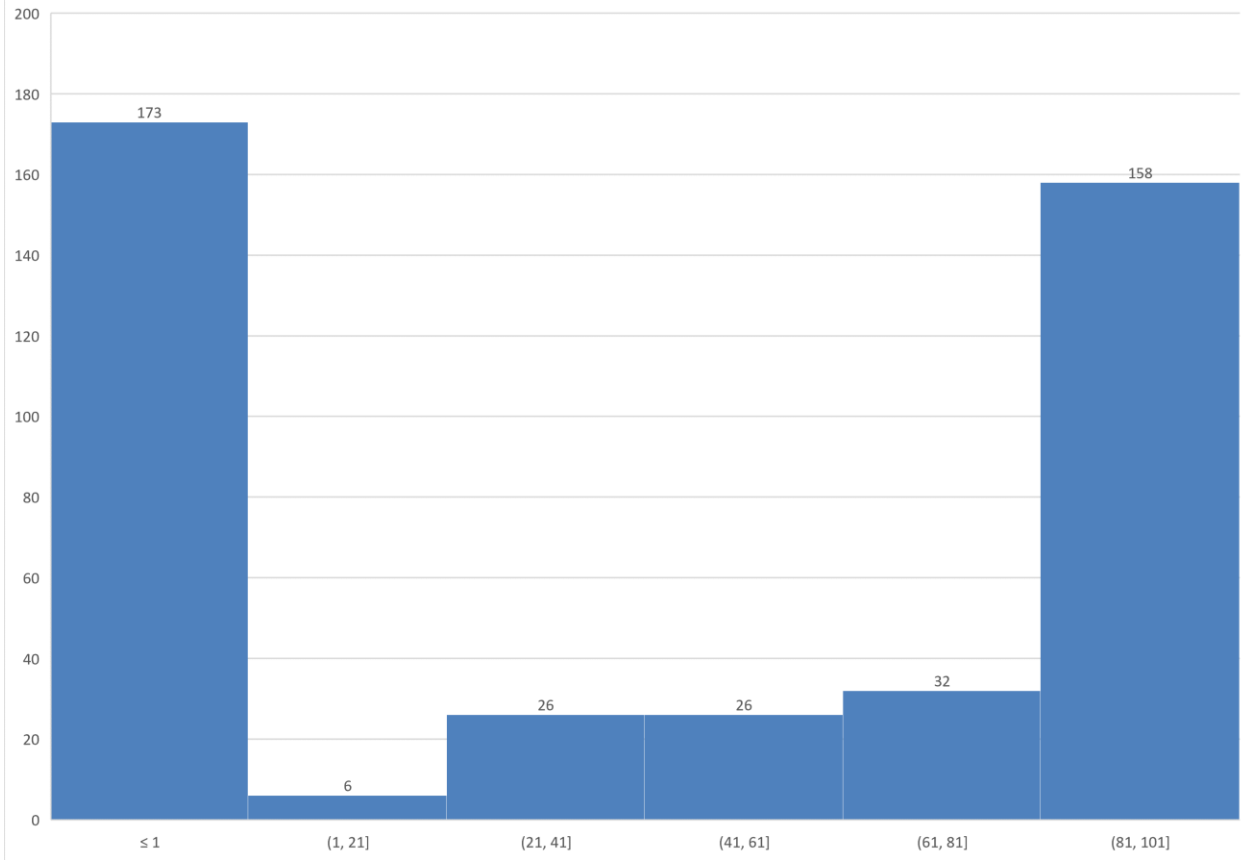
Distribution of respondents' exercise 1 score by age (15-19)
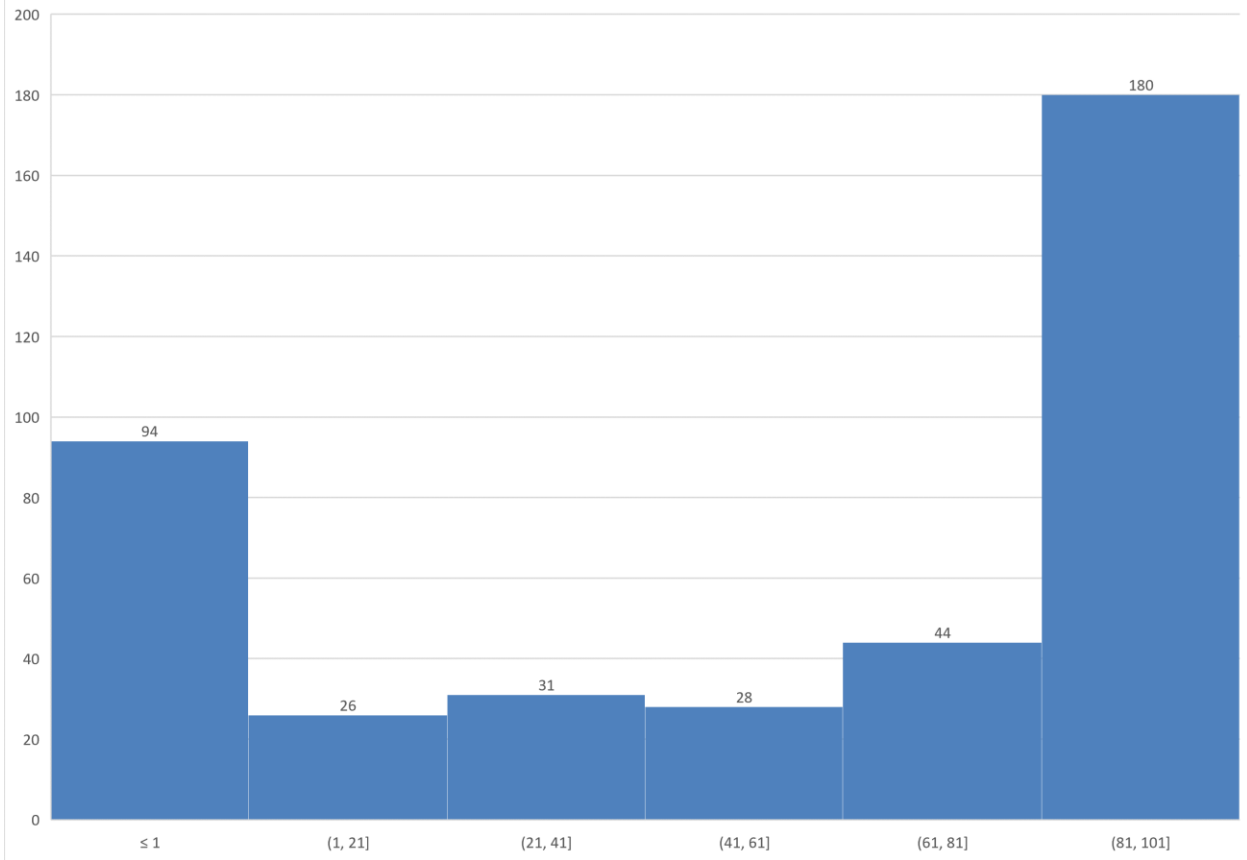
Distribution of respondents' exercise 2 score by age (10-14)
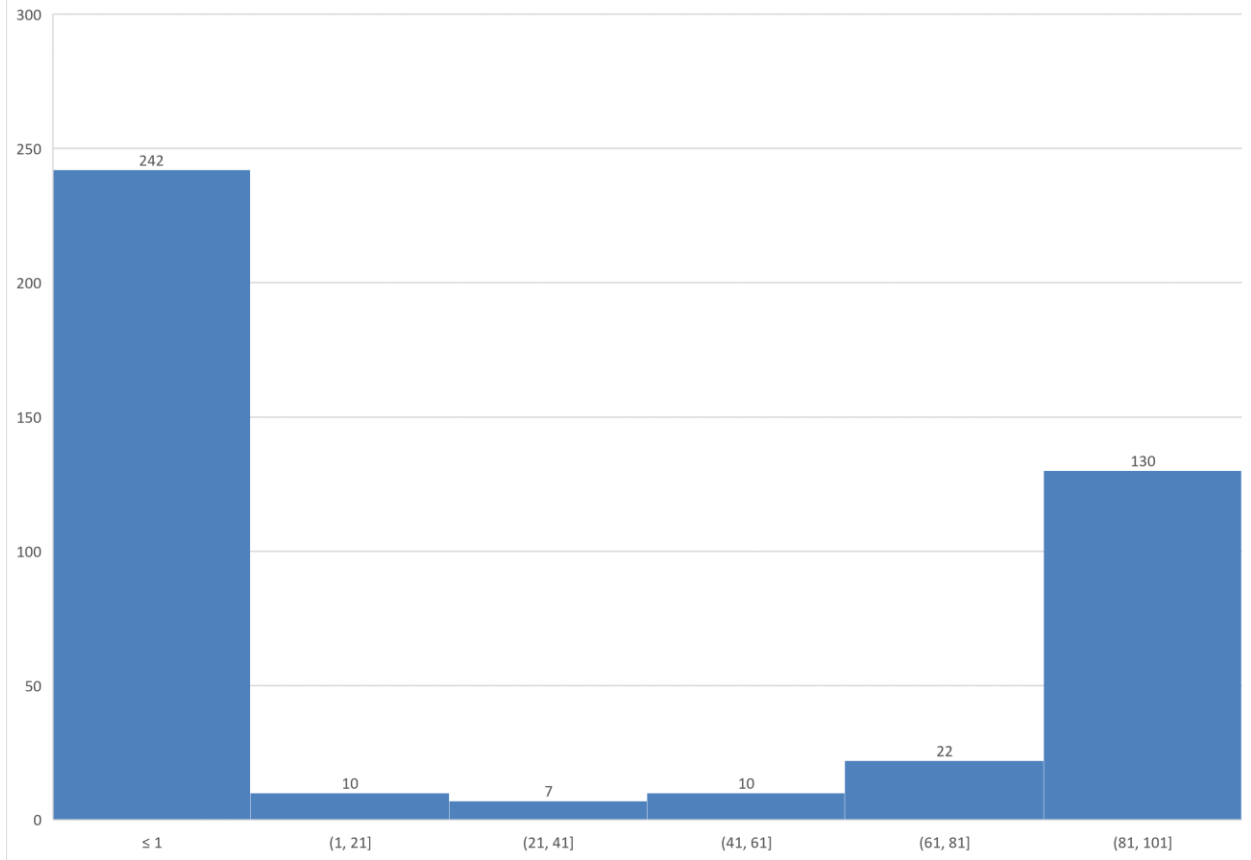
Distribution of respondents' exercise 2 score by age (15-19)
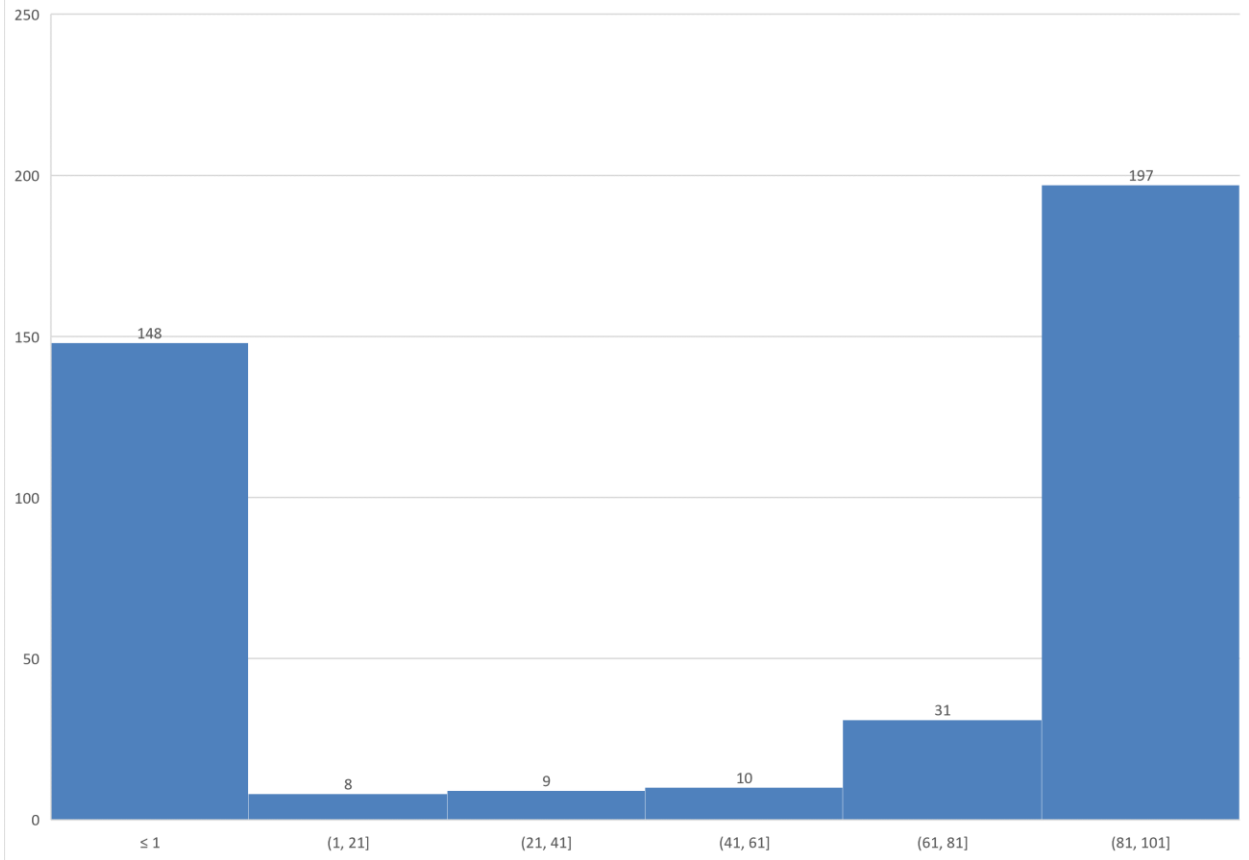
Distribution of respondents' exercise 3 score by age (10-14)
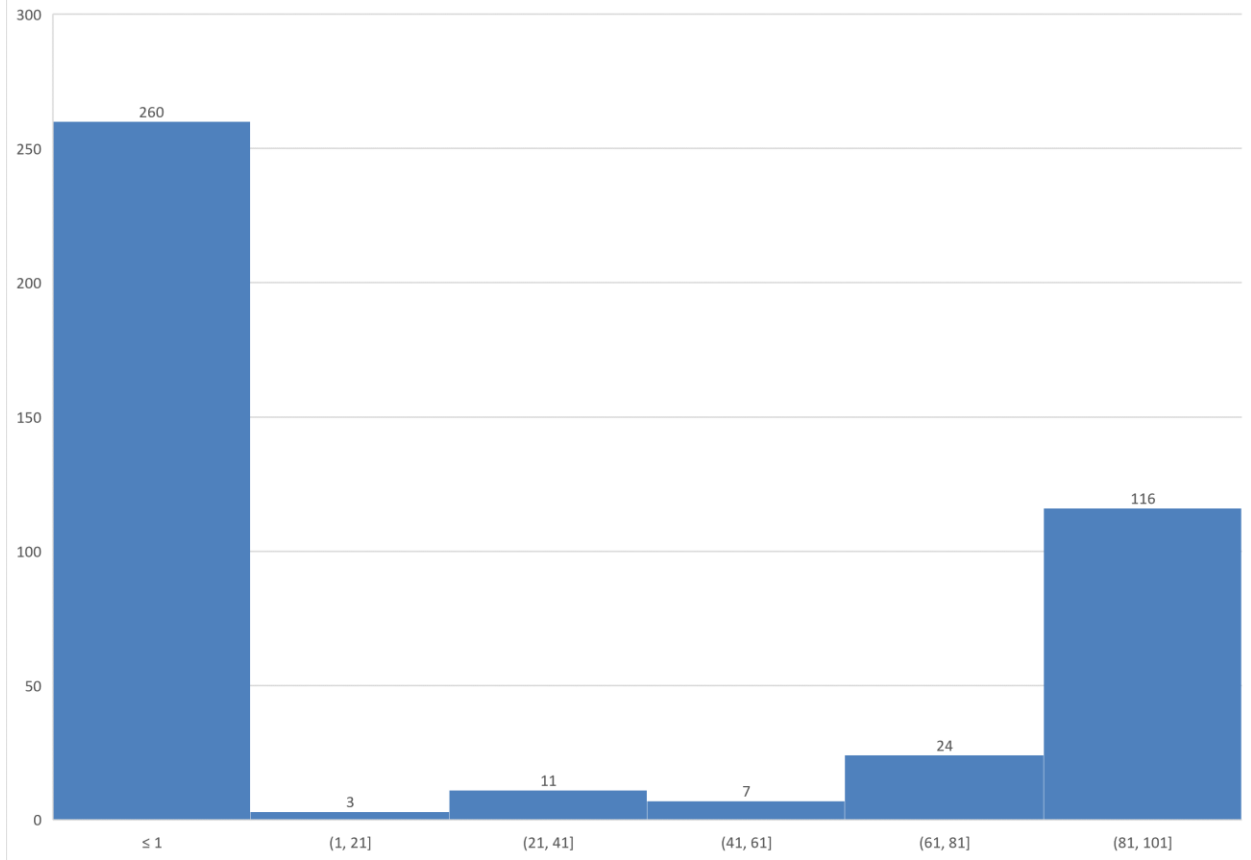
Distribution of respondents' exercise 3 score by age (15-19)
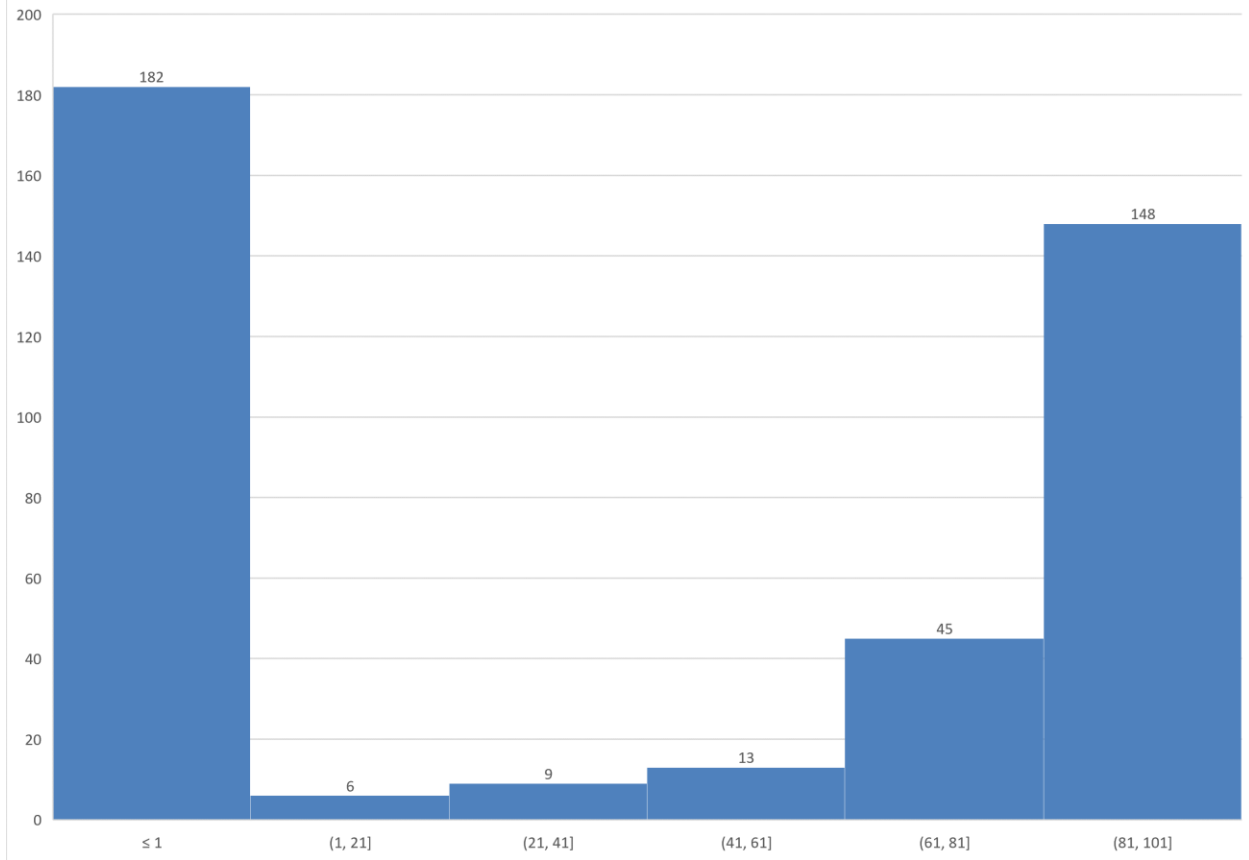
Distribution of respondents' exercise 4a score by age (10-14)
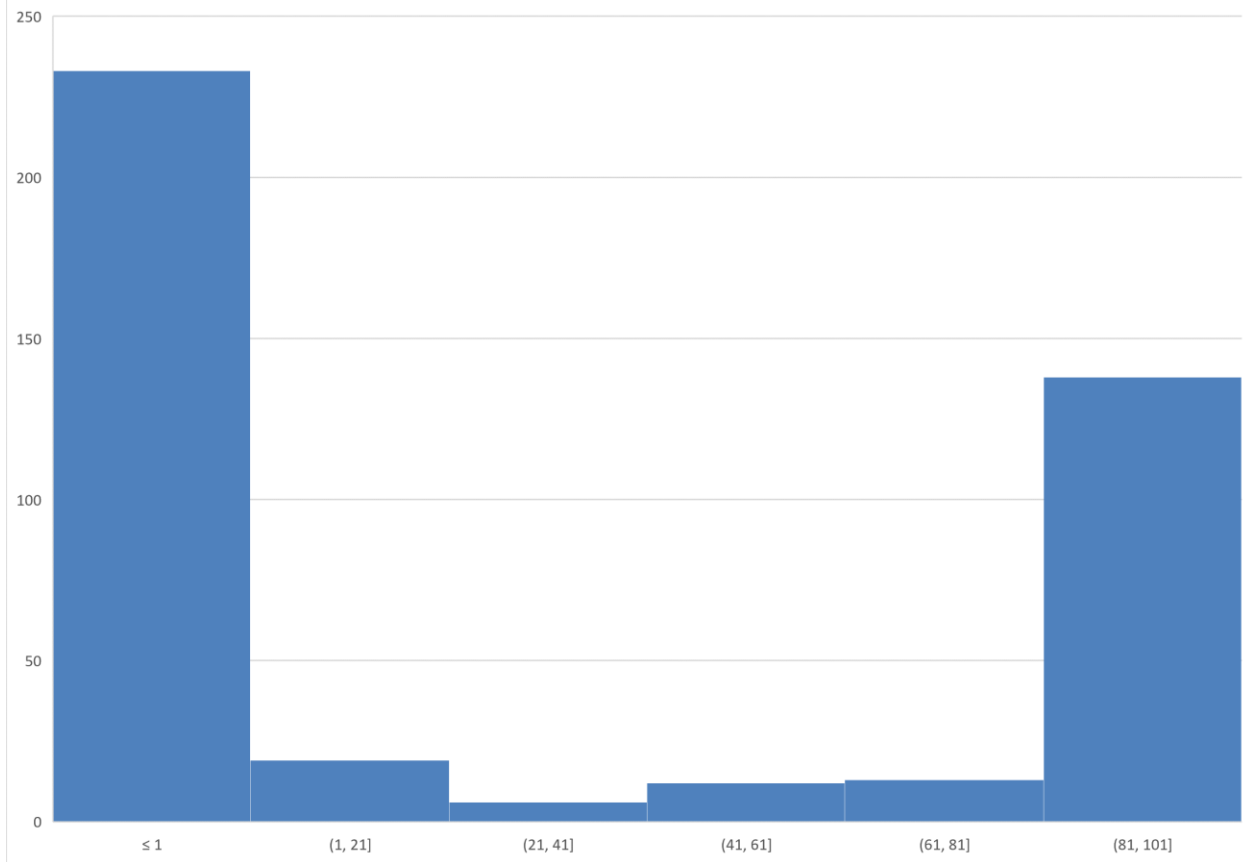
Distribution of respondents' exercise 4a score by age (15-19)
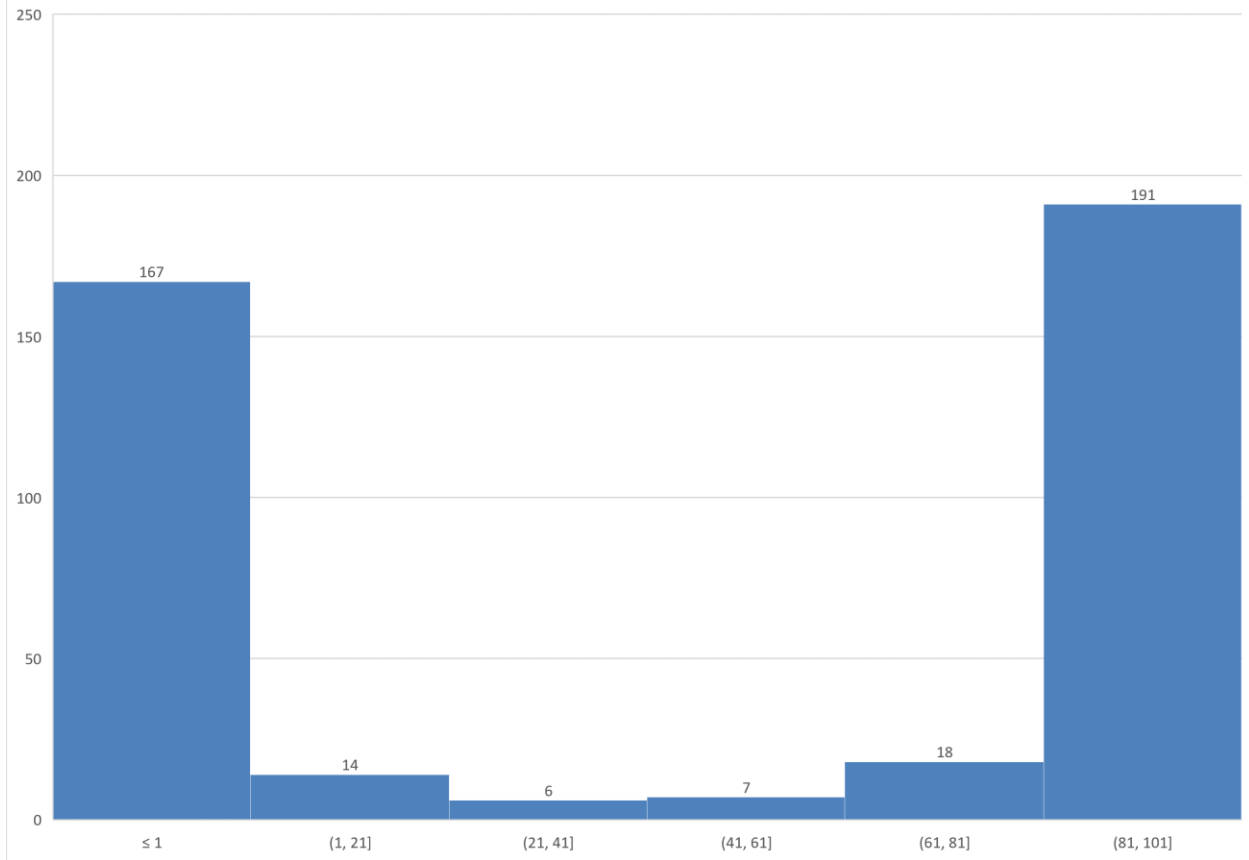
Distribution of respondents' exercise 4b score by age (10-14)
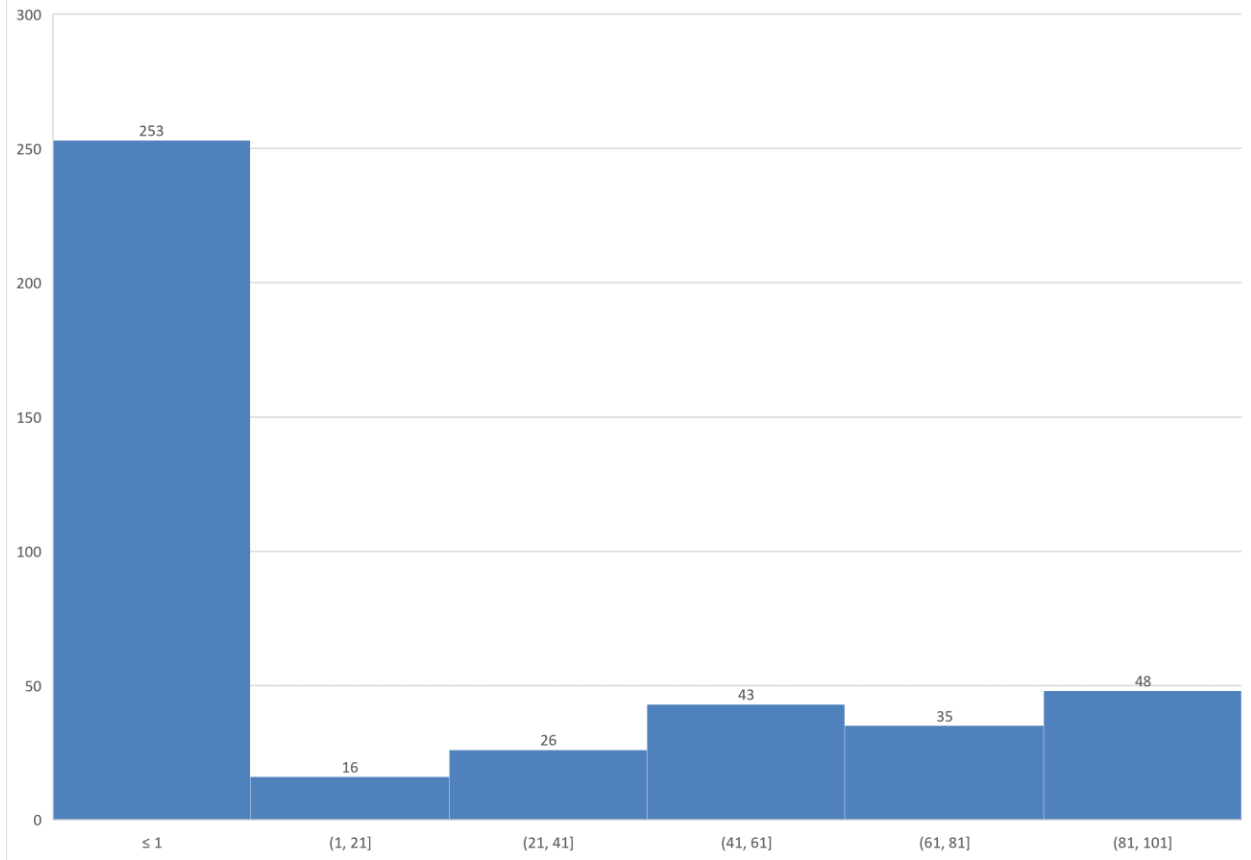
Distribution of respondents' exercise 4b score by age (15-19)
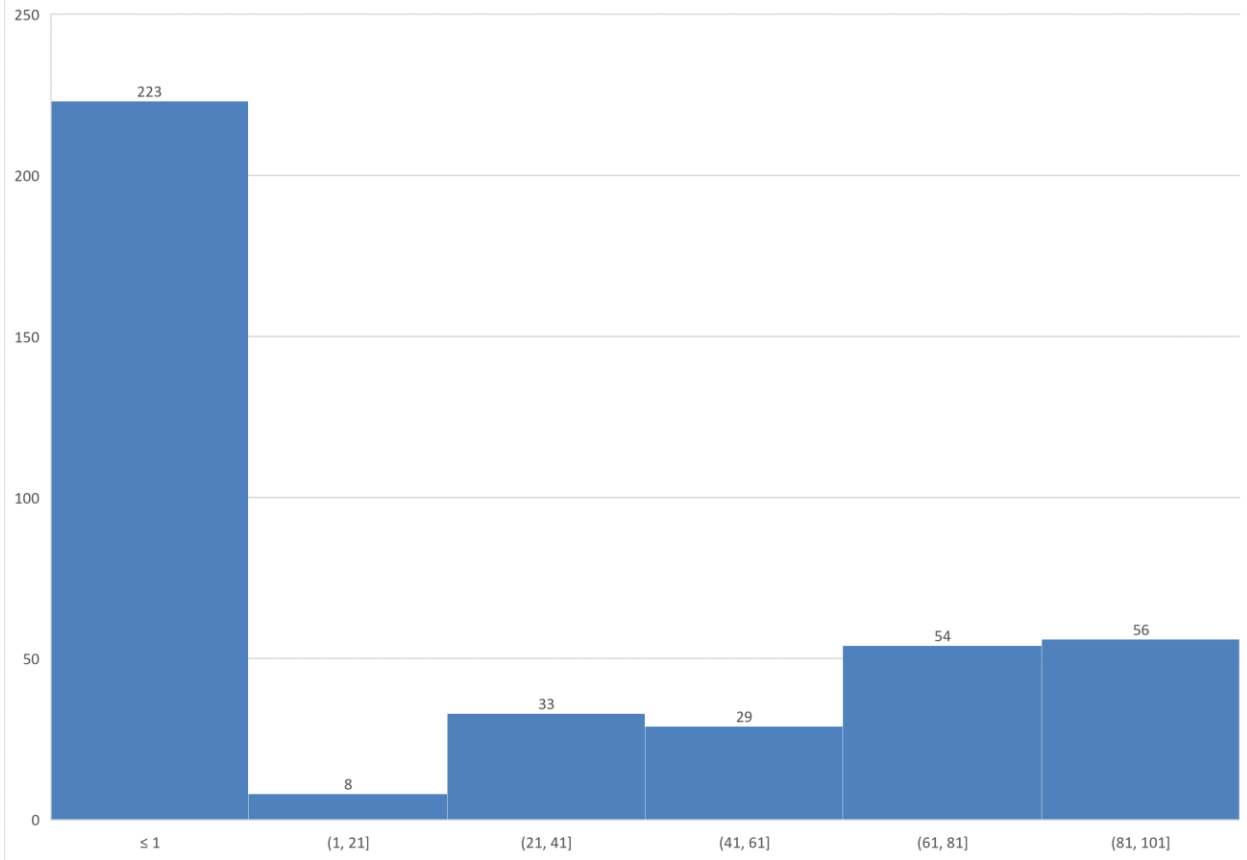
Distribution of respondents' exercise 6 score by age (10-14)
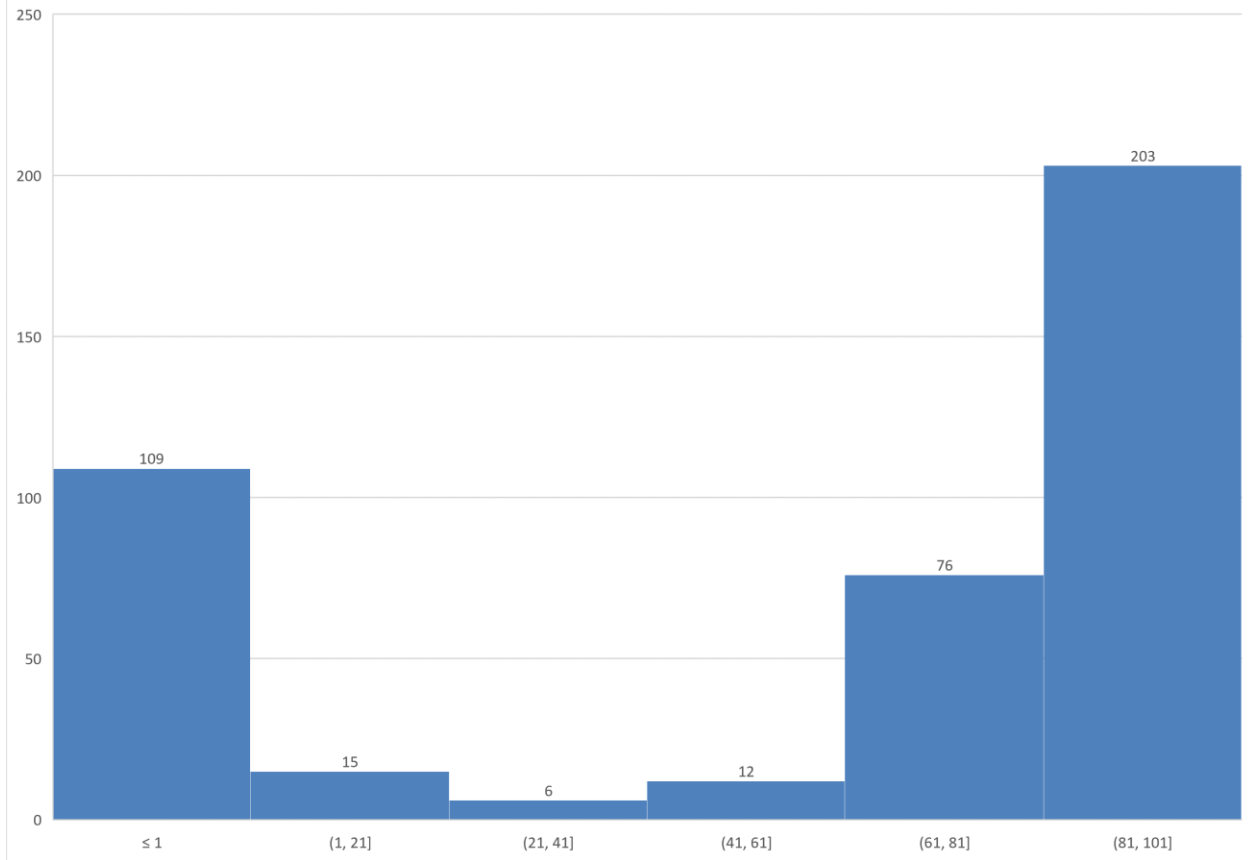
Distribution of respondents' exercise 6 score by age (15-19)
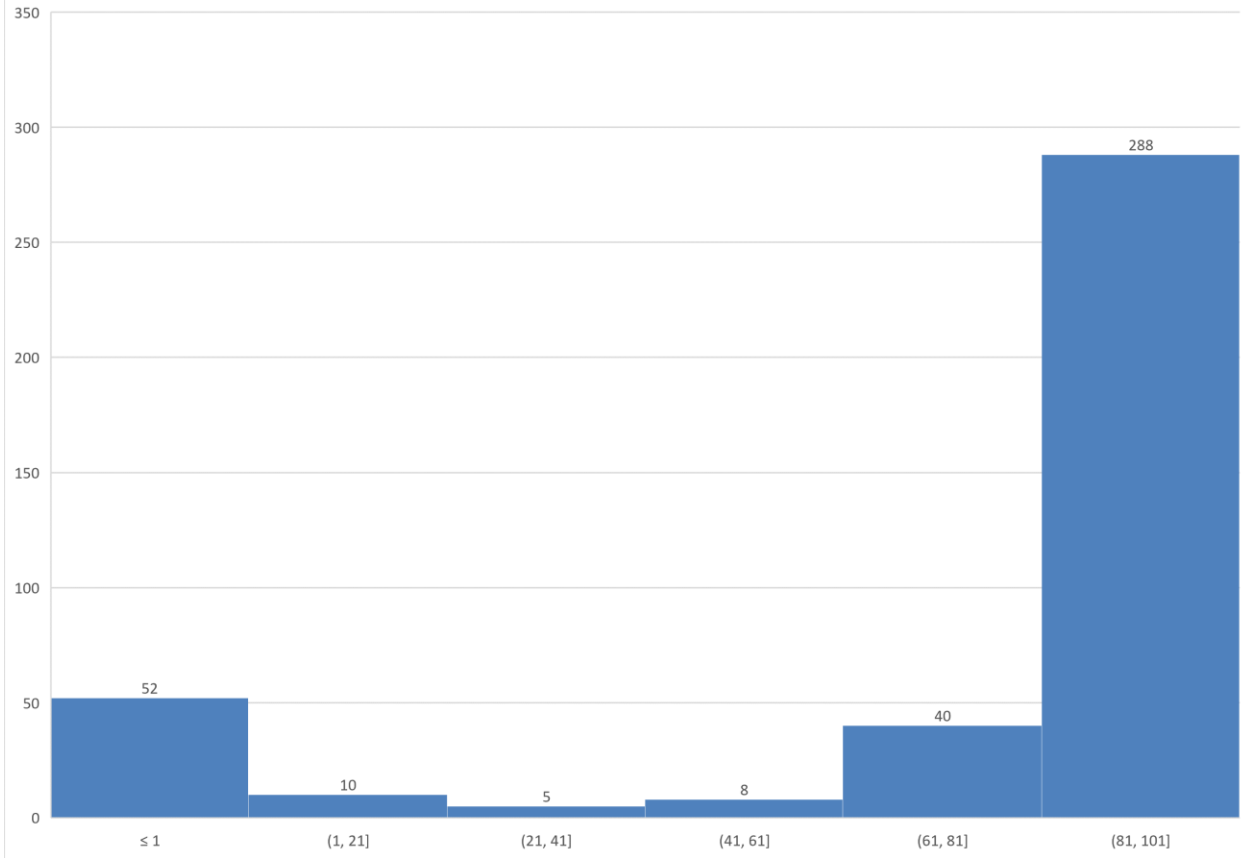
Distribution of respondents' exercise 8 score by age (10-14)
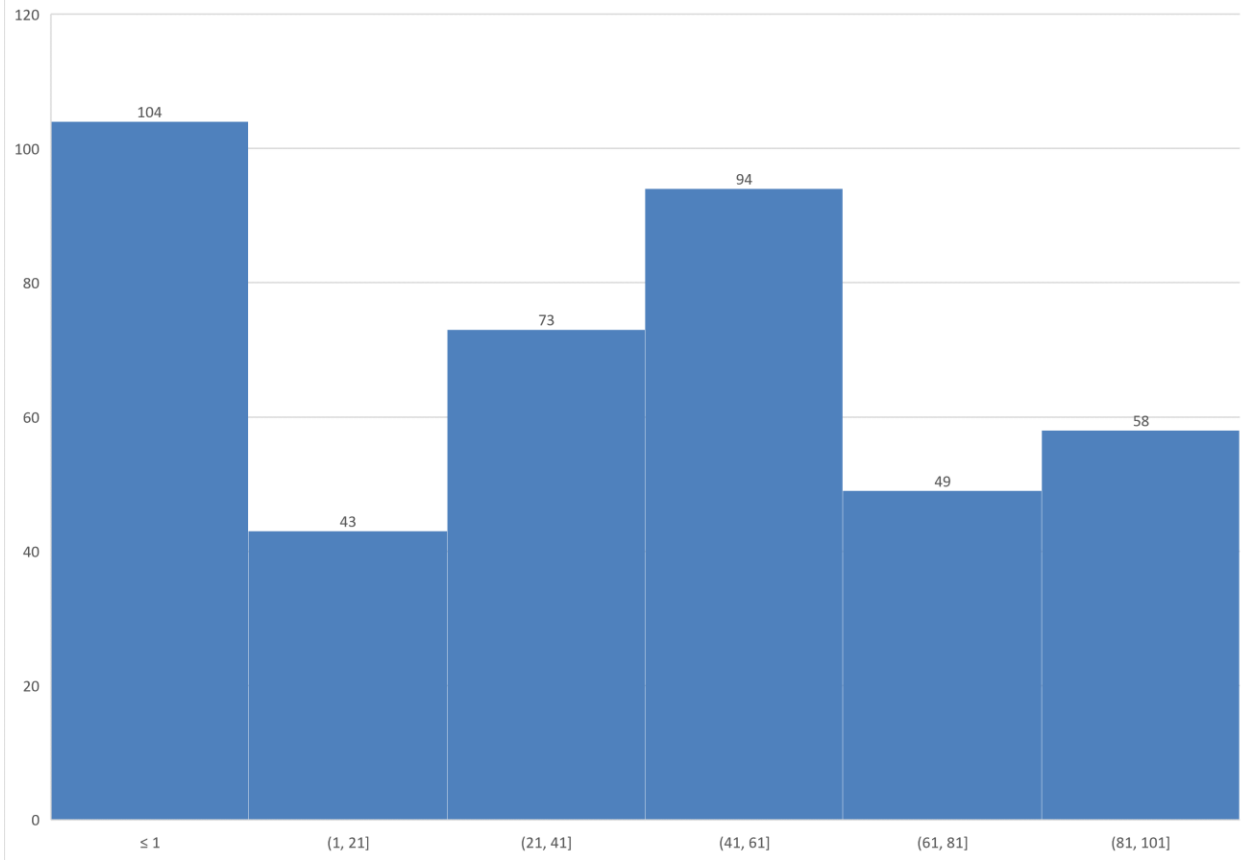
Distribution of respondents' exercise 8 score by age (15-19)
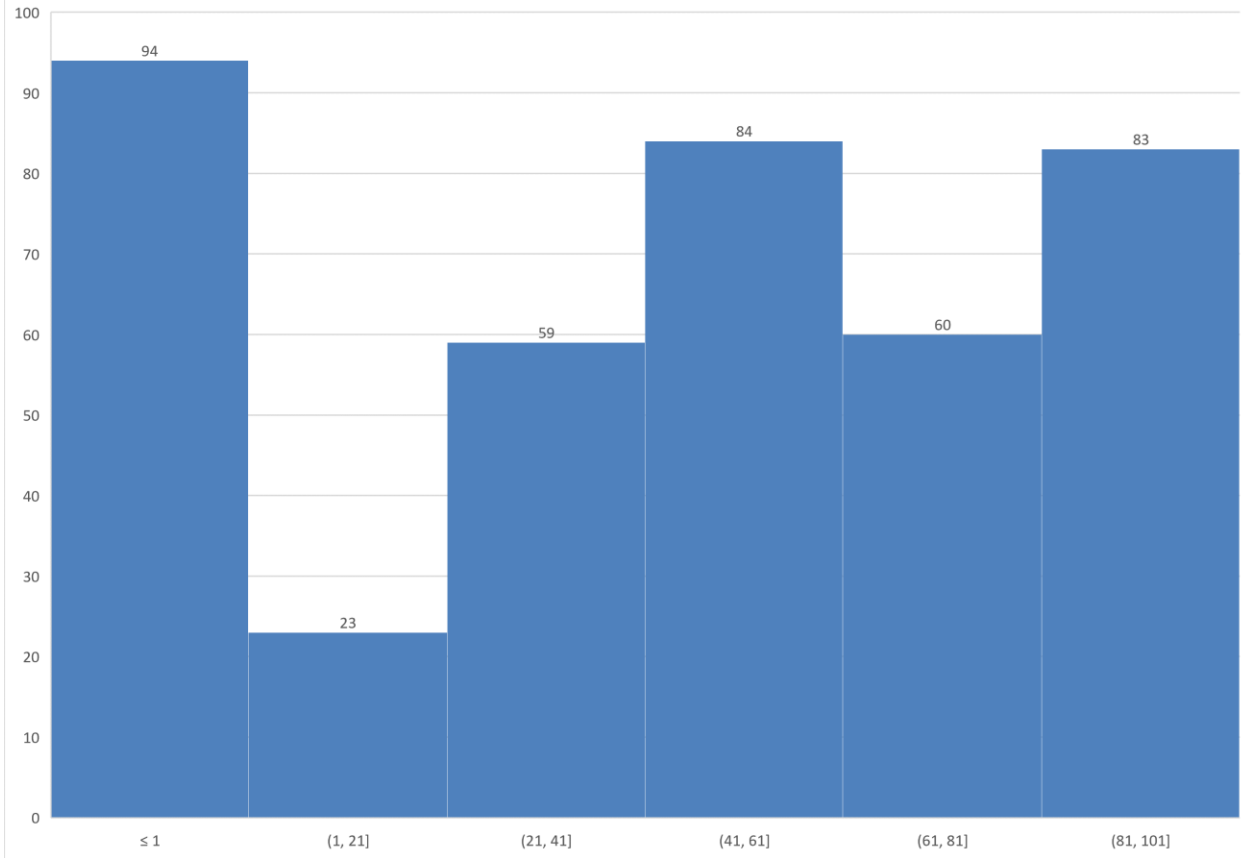
Distribution of respondents' exercise 9 score by age (10-14)
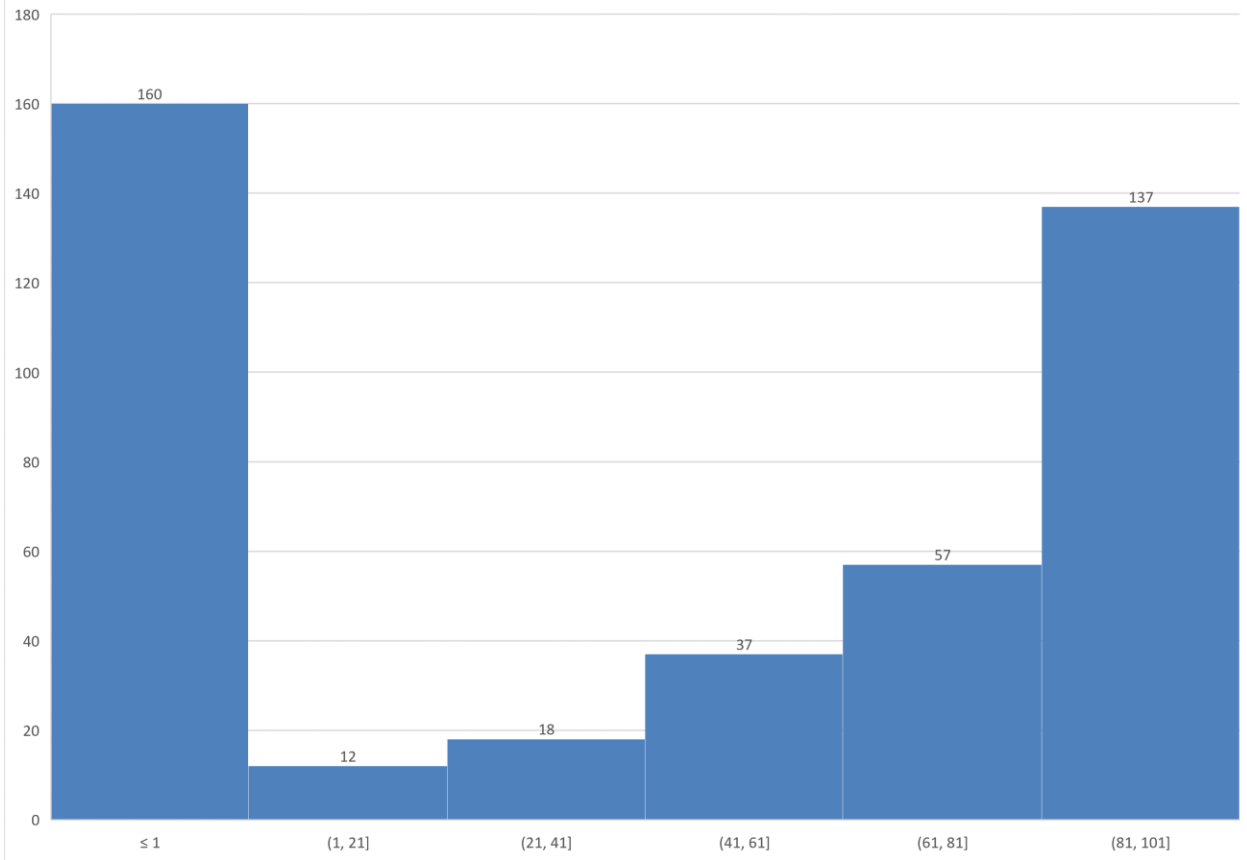
Distribution of respondents' exercise 9 score by age (15-19)
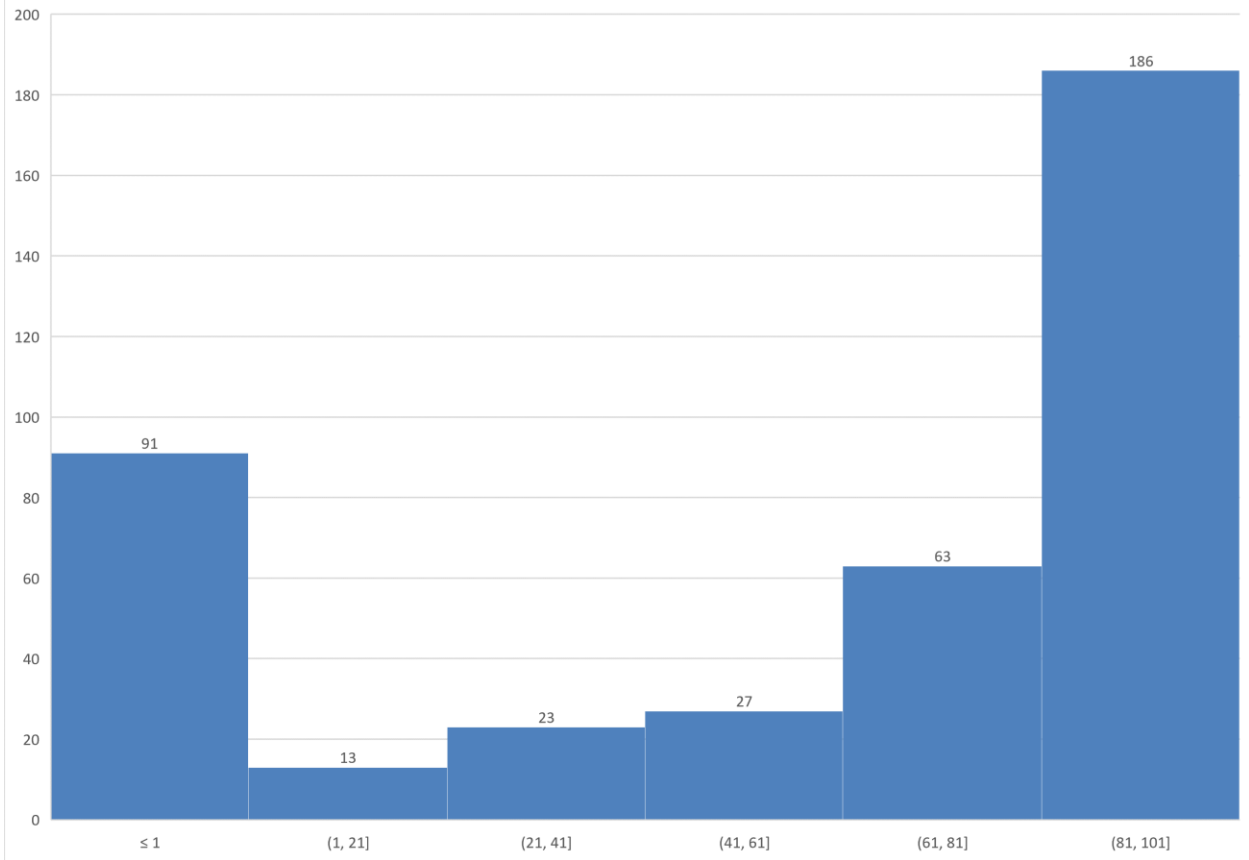
Distribution of respondents' exercise 11 score by age (10-14)
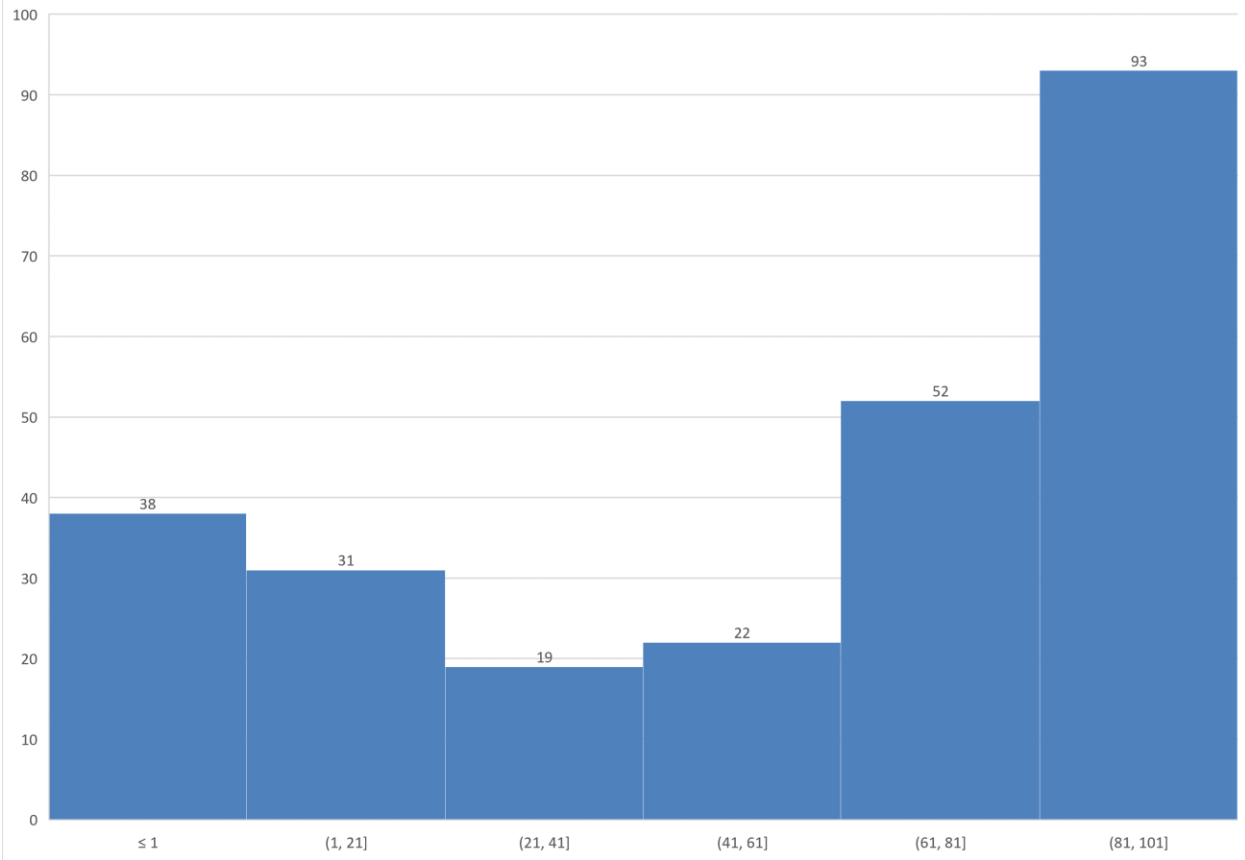
Distribution of respondents' exercise 11 score by age (15-19)
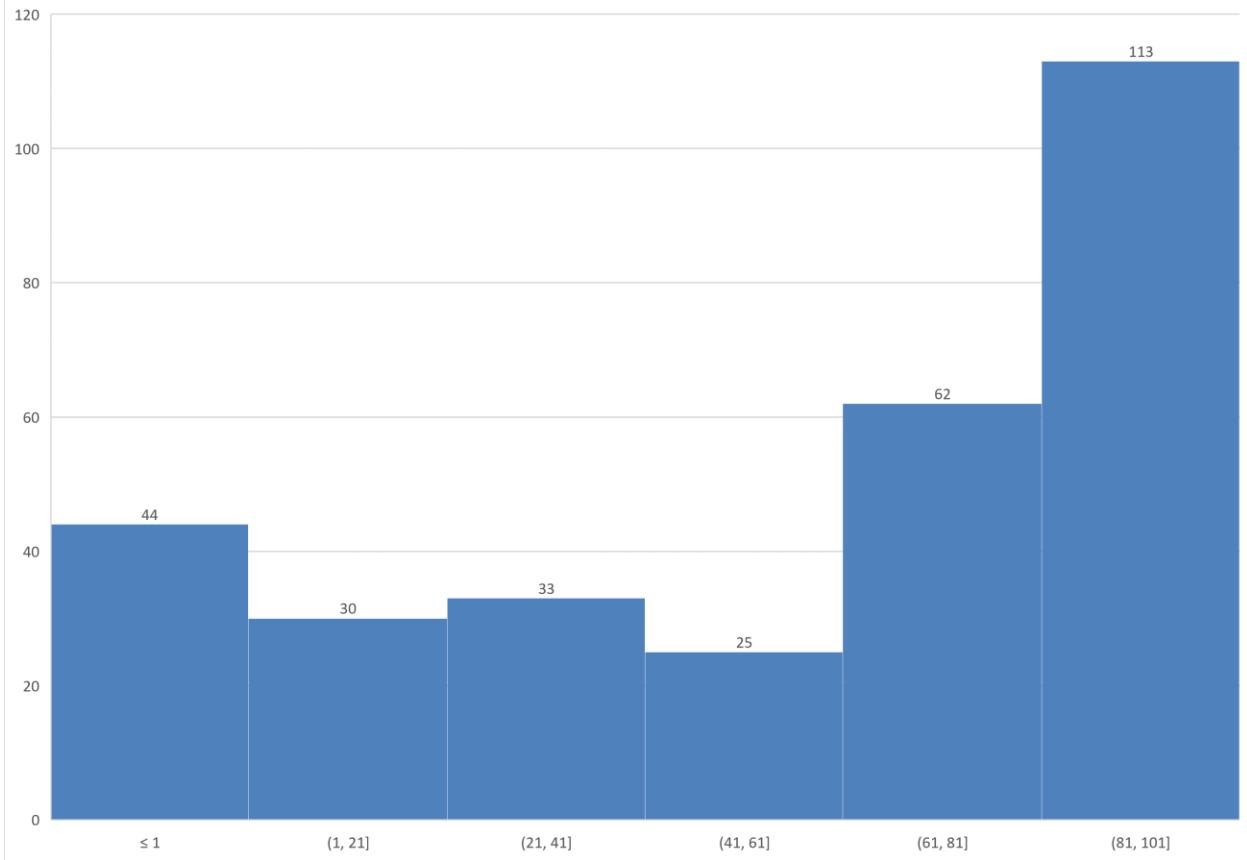
Annex 16: Distribution of respondents' exercise scores by school status (been to school or not)

List of charts

- Exercise 1: Never been to school
- Exercise 1: Been to school
- Exercise 2: Never been to school
- Exercise 2: Been to school
- Exercise 3: Never been to school
- Exercise 3: Been to school
- Exercise 4a: Never been to school
- Exercise 4a: Been to school
- Exercise 4b: Never been to school
- Exercise 4b: Been to school
- Exercise 6: Never been to school
- Exercise 6: Been to school
- Exercise 8: Never been to school
- Exercise 8: Been to school
- Exercise 9: Never been to school
- Exercise 9: Been to school
- Exercise 11: Never been to school
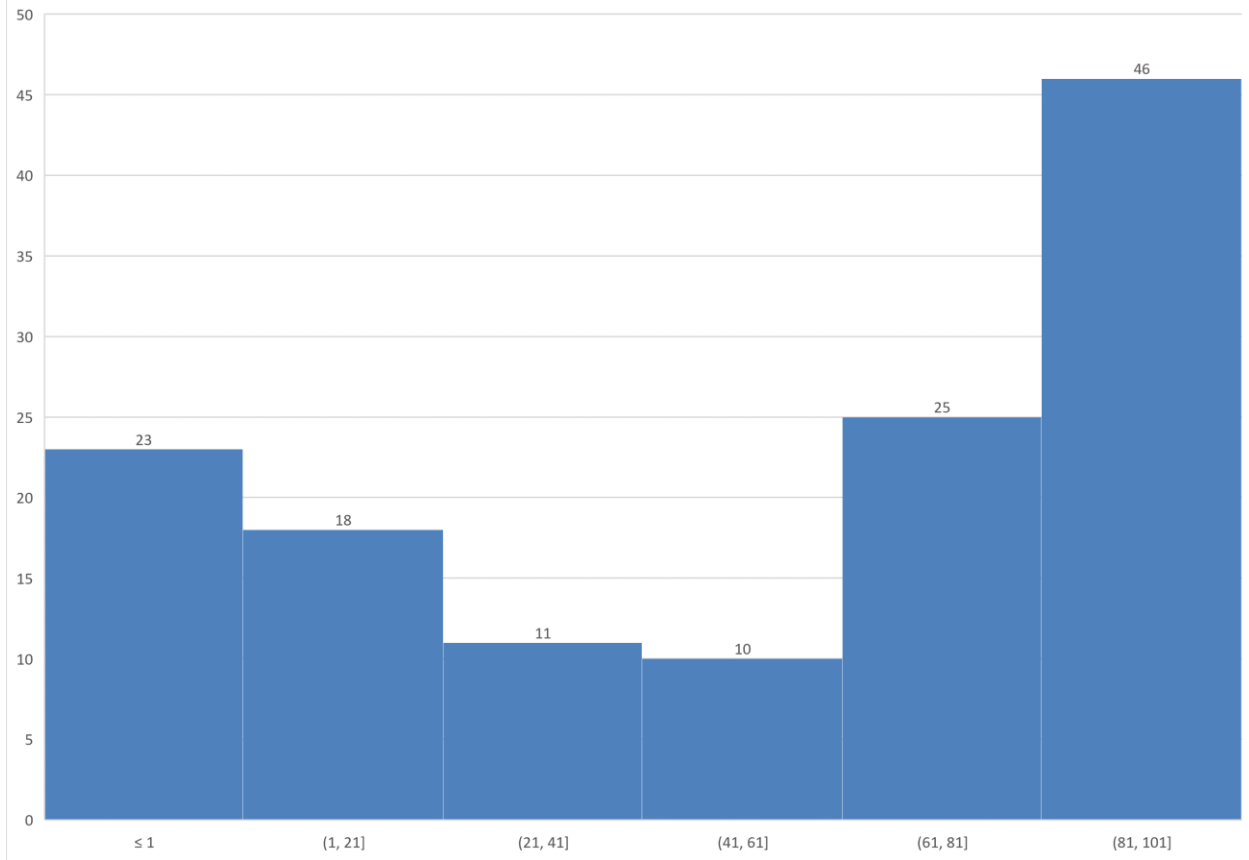- Exercise 11: Been to school

Distribution of respondents' exercise 1 score by school status (Never been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 1 score by school status (Been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 2 score by school status (Never been to school)
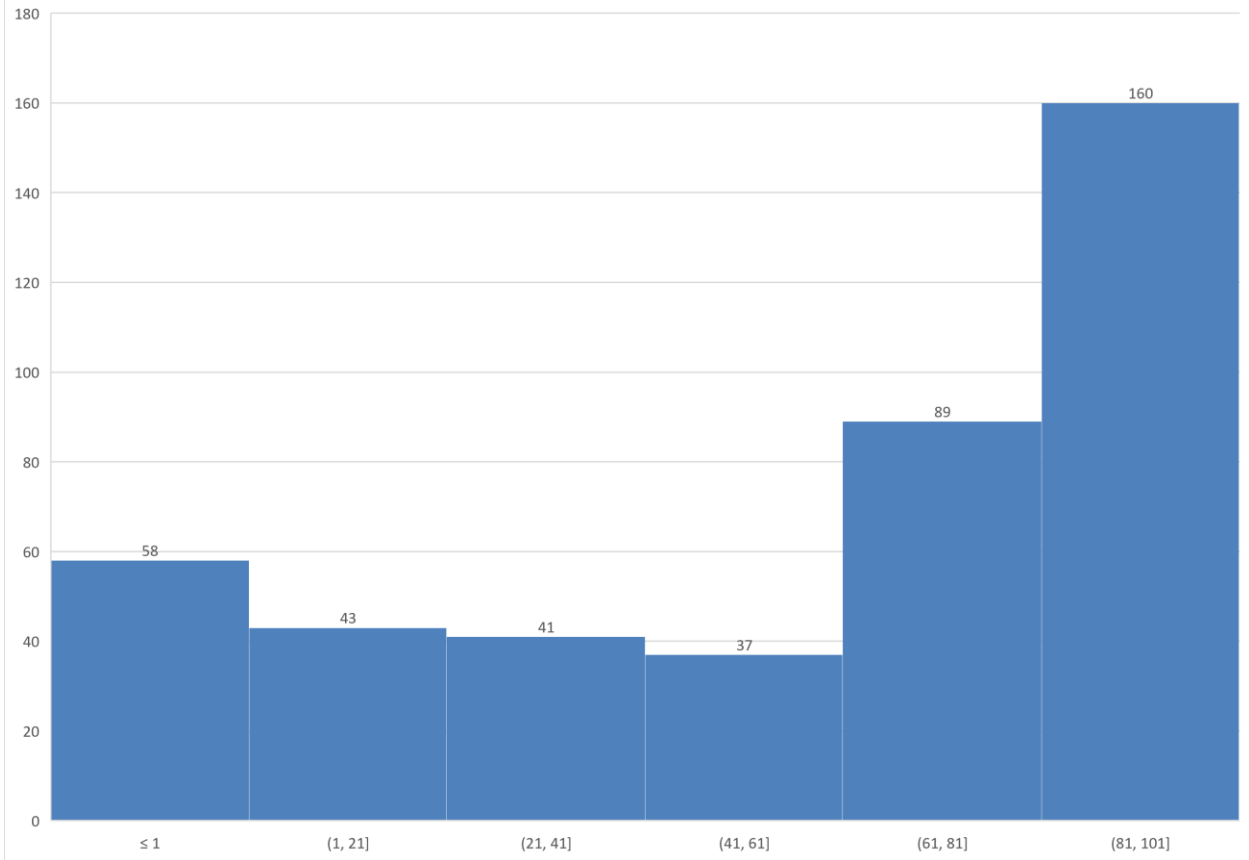
Distribution of respondents' exercise 2 score by school status (Been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 3 score by school status (Never been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 3 score by school status (Been to school)

Score range	Count
≤ 1	258
(1, 21]	4
(21, 41]	13
(41, 61]	12
(61, 81]	62
(81, 101]	221

Distribution of respondents' exercise 4a score by school status (Never been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 4a score by school status (Been to school)

238	13	6	16	23	274
≤ 1	(1, 21]	(21, 41]	(41, 61]	(61, 81]	(81, 101]

Distribution of respondents' exercise 4b score by school status (Never been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 4b score by school status (Been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 6 score by school status (Never been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 6 score by school status (Been to school)

Score	Count
≤ 1	89
(1, 21]	13
(21, 41]	7
(41, 61]	10
(61, 81]	63
(81, 101]	388

Distribution of respondents' exercise 8 score by school status (Never been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 8 score by school status (Been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 9 score by school status (Never been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 9 score by school status (Been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 11 score by school status (Never been to school)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 11 score by school status (Been to school)

Annex 17: Education level girls aspire to reach by age, city and domestic worker/non-domestic worker status as a percentage

	A.A (n=174)		Bahir Dar (n=137)		Shashemene (n=65)		Adama (n=77)		Total (n=453)	
Age	10-14	15-19	10-14	15-19	10-14	15-19	10-14	15-19	10-14	15-19
Domestic Workers	n= 64	n= 110	n= 18	n= 119	n= 49	n= 16	n= 39	n= 38	n= 170	n= 283
None	0.0	1.8	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1
Primary	4.7	4.5	5.6	13.4	8.2	6.3	0.0	2.6	4.7	8.1
Lower secondary	6.3	8.2	5.6	20.2	8.2	0.0	7.7	5.3	7.1	12.4
Upper secondary	15.6	29.1	22.2	26.1	16.3	31.3	20.5	18.4	17.6	26.5
College or university	73.4	56.4	66.7	39.5	67.3	62.5	71.8	73.7	70.6	51.9
Total	37.6	38.9	10.6	42.0	28.8	5.7	22.9	13.4	37.5	62.5
Non-domestic workers	n= 18	n= 15	n= 26	n= 47	n= 124	n= 21	n= 84	n= 36	n= 252	n= 119
None	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.8	4.8	1.2	2.8	2.8	1.7
Primary	16.7	6.7	3.8	6.4	0.8	0.0	1.2	0.0	2.4	3.4
Lower secondary	5.6	6.7	19.2	12.8	2.4	4.8	0.0	0.0	3.6	6.7
Upper secondary	11.1	40.0	0.0	14.9	9.7	9.5	11.9	25.0	9.5	20.2
College or university	66.7	46.7	76.9	66.0	82.3	81.0	85.7	72.2	81.7	68.1
Total	7.1	12.6	10.3	39.5	49.2	17.6	33.3	30.3	69.2	32.7

Annex 18: EGRA analysis by fluency

List of Tables

Exercise 1	60 Second				120 Second			
	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama
Non-learner 0%	59	35	85	88	59	35	85	88
Emergent learner 1%-40%	3	10	1	0	9	13	0	0
Established learner 41%-80%	33	20	22	2	45	32	19	4
Proficient learner 81%-100%	112	145	102	107	94	130	106	105

Exercise 2	60 Second				120 Second			
	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama
Non-learner 0%	80	55	135	120	80	55	135	120
Emergent learner 1%-40%	5	9	5	2	5	8	5	2
Established learner 4 1%-80%	27	22	19	9	32	23	17	9
Proficient learner 81%-100%	95	124	51	66	90	124	53	66

Exercise 3	60 Second				120 Second			
	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama
Non-learner 0%	106	72	137	127	106	72	137	127
Emergent learner 1%-40%	3	5	2	0	5	6	3	0

	60 Second				120 Second			
Established learner 4 1%-80%	33	35	11	4	36	45	12	6
Proficient learner 81%-100%	65	98	60	66	60	87	58	64

Exercise 4a	60 Second				120 Second			
	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama	Addis Ababa	Bahir Dar	Shashemene	Adama
Non-learner 0%	97	69	118	116	97	69	118	116
Emergent learner 1%-40%	3	3	2	0	1	3	1	0
Established learner 4 1%-80%	15	17	2	0	16	17	2	0
Proficient learner 81%-100%	92	121	88	81	93	121	89	81

Annex 19: Distribution of respondents' exercise scores by whether they took the test in their native language or not (language match or mismatch)

List of charts

- Exercise 1: Language match
- Exercise 1: Language mismatch
- Exercise 2: Language match
- Exercise 2: Language mismatch
- Exercise 3: Language match
- Exercise 3: Language mismatch
- Exercise 4a: Language match
- Exercise 4a: Language mismatch
- Exercise 4b: Language match
- Exercise 4b: Language mismatch
- Exercise 6: Language match
- Exercise 6: Language mismatch
- Exercise 8: Language match
- Exercise 8: Language mismatch
- Exercise 9: Language match
- Exercise 9: Language mismatch
- Exercise 11: Language match
- Exercise 11: Language mismatch

Distribution of respondents' exercise 1 score by language (Match)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 1 score by language (Mismatch)

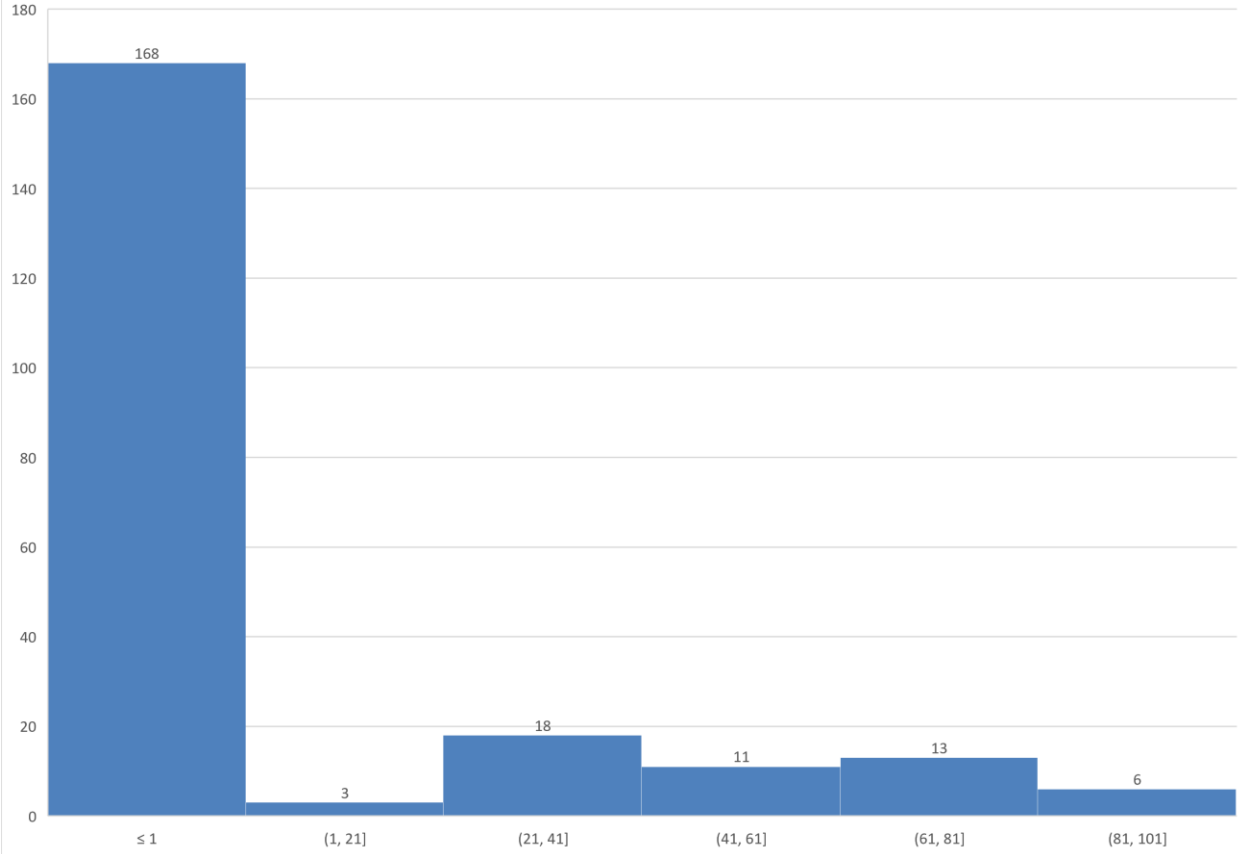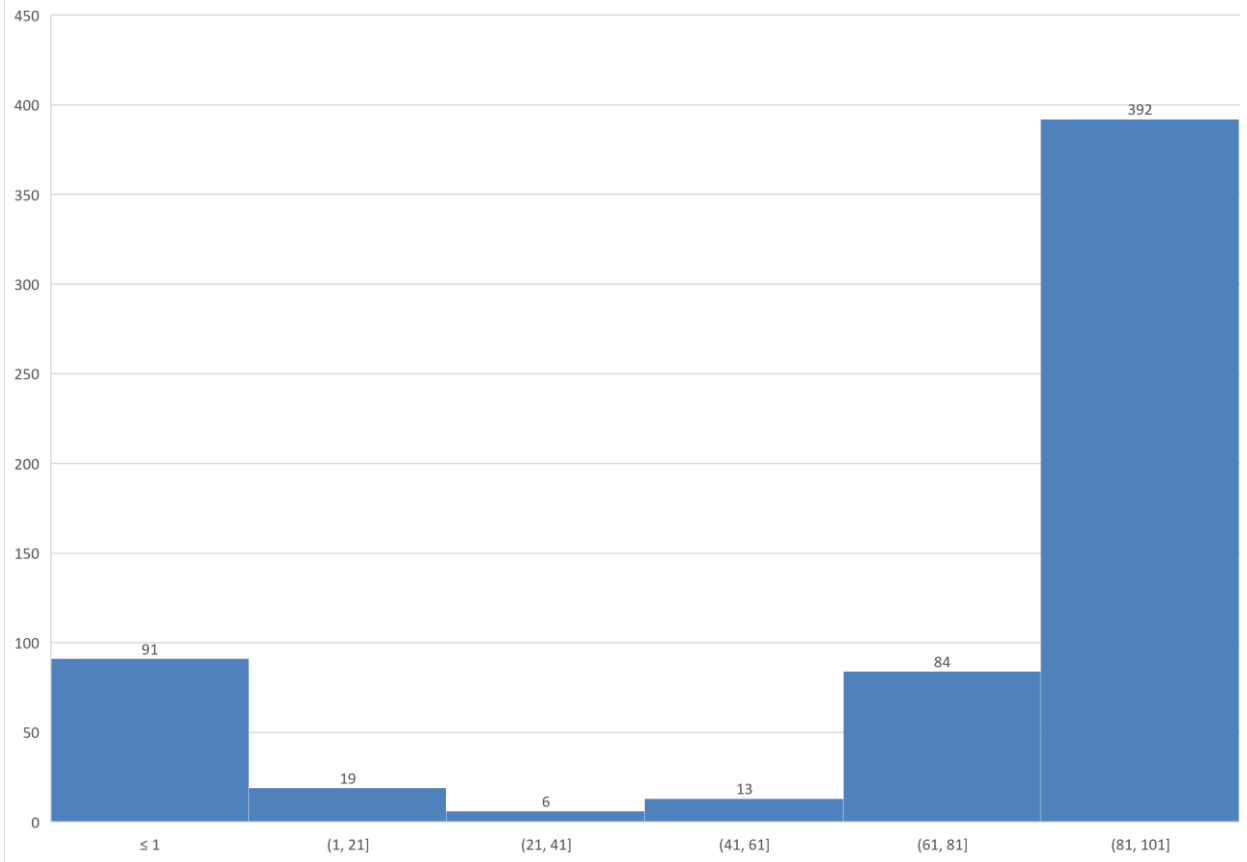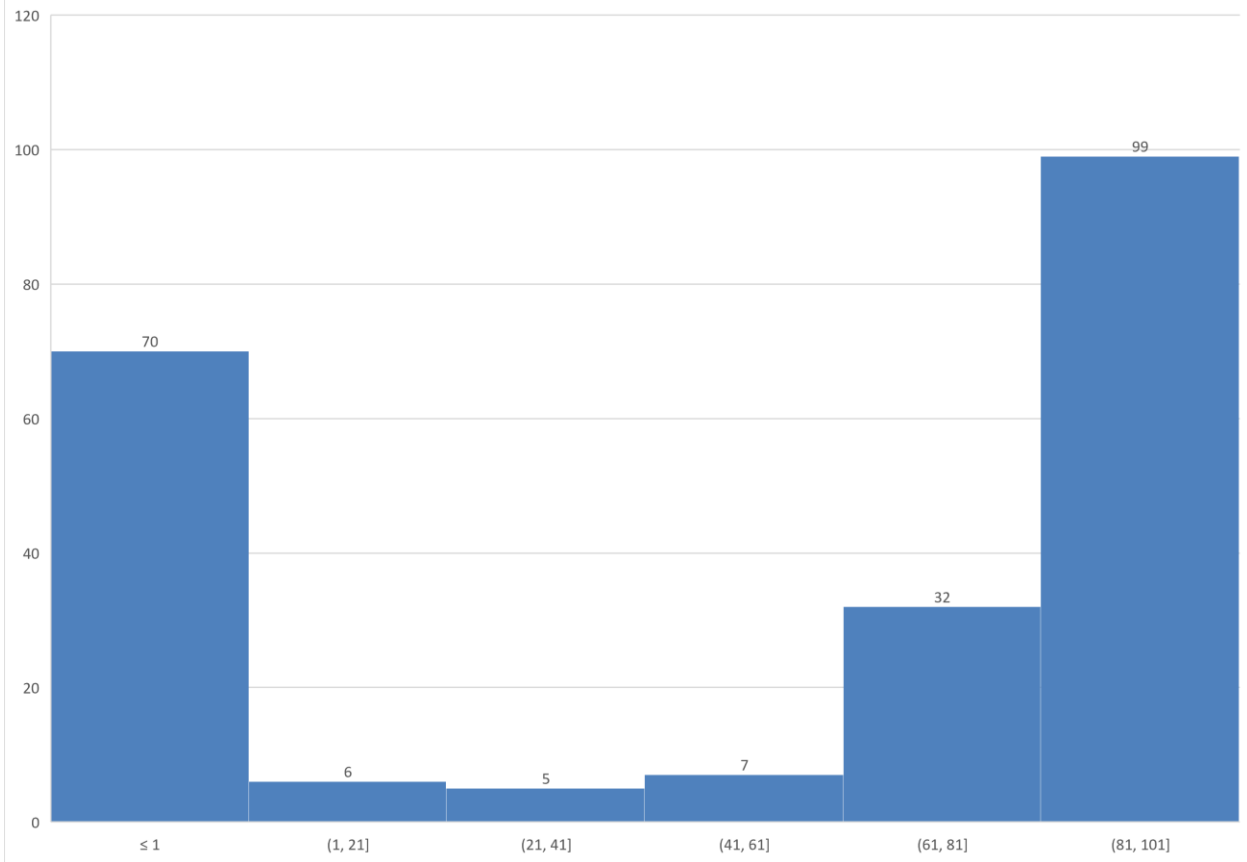# Distribution of respondents' exercise 2 score by language (Match)

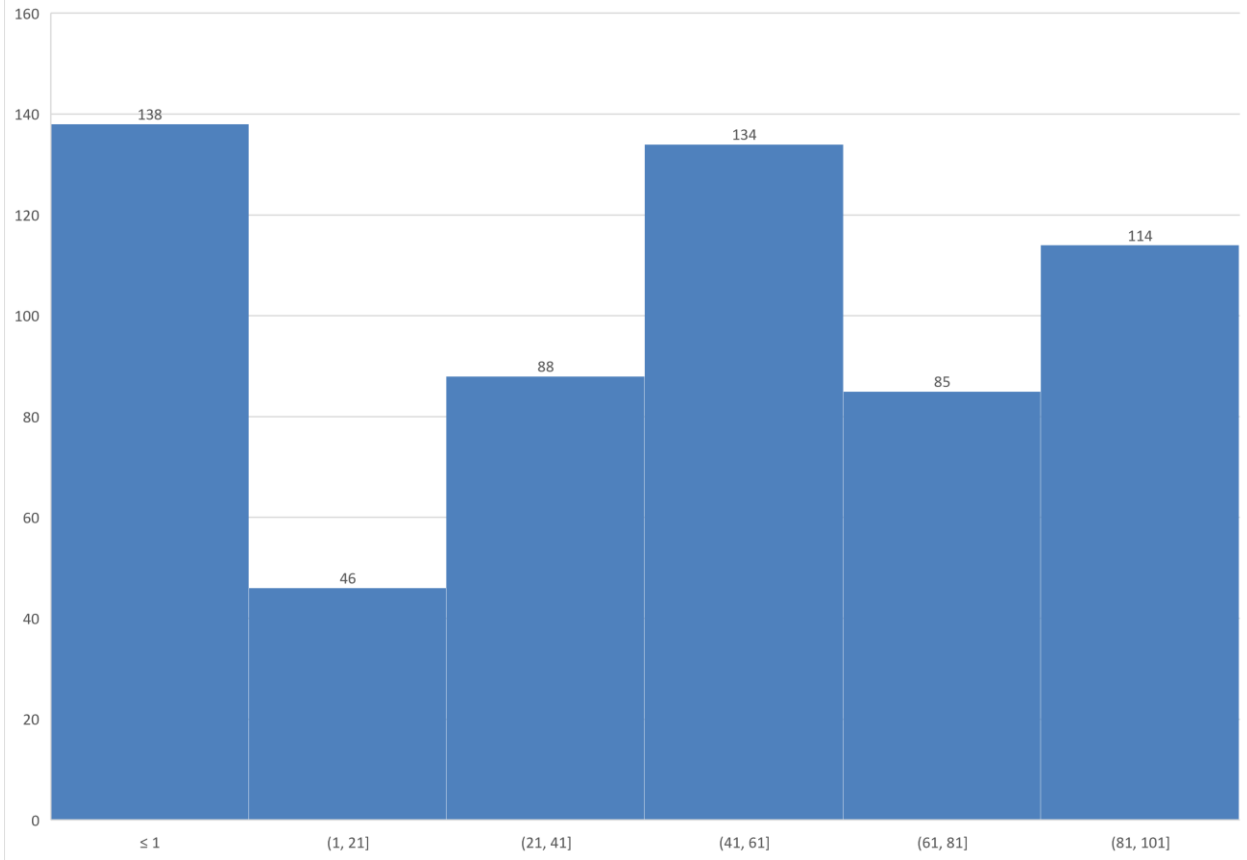|	≤ 1	(1, 21]	(21, 41]	(41, 61]	(61, 81]	(81, 101]
	239	15	11	11	38	291

Distribution of respondents' exercise 2 score by language (Mismatch)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 3 score by language (Match)

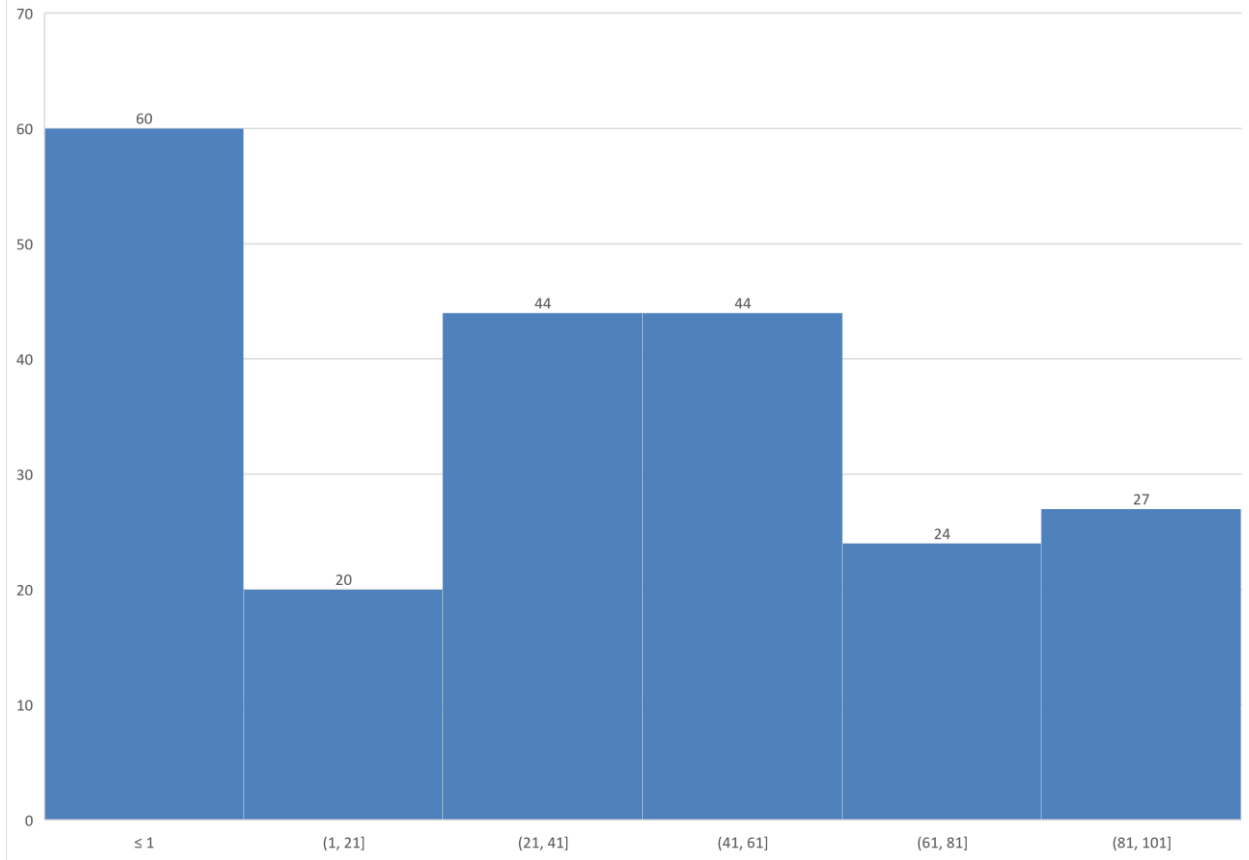Distribution of respondents' exercise 3 score by language (Mismatch)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 4a score by language (Match)

Score range	Count
≤ 1	250
(1, 21]	28
(21, 41]	5
(41, 61]	14
(61, 81]	26
(81, 101]	282

Distribution of respondents' exercise 4a score by language (Mismatch)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 4b score by language (Match)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 4b score by Language (Mismatch)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 6 score by language (Match)

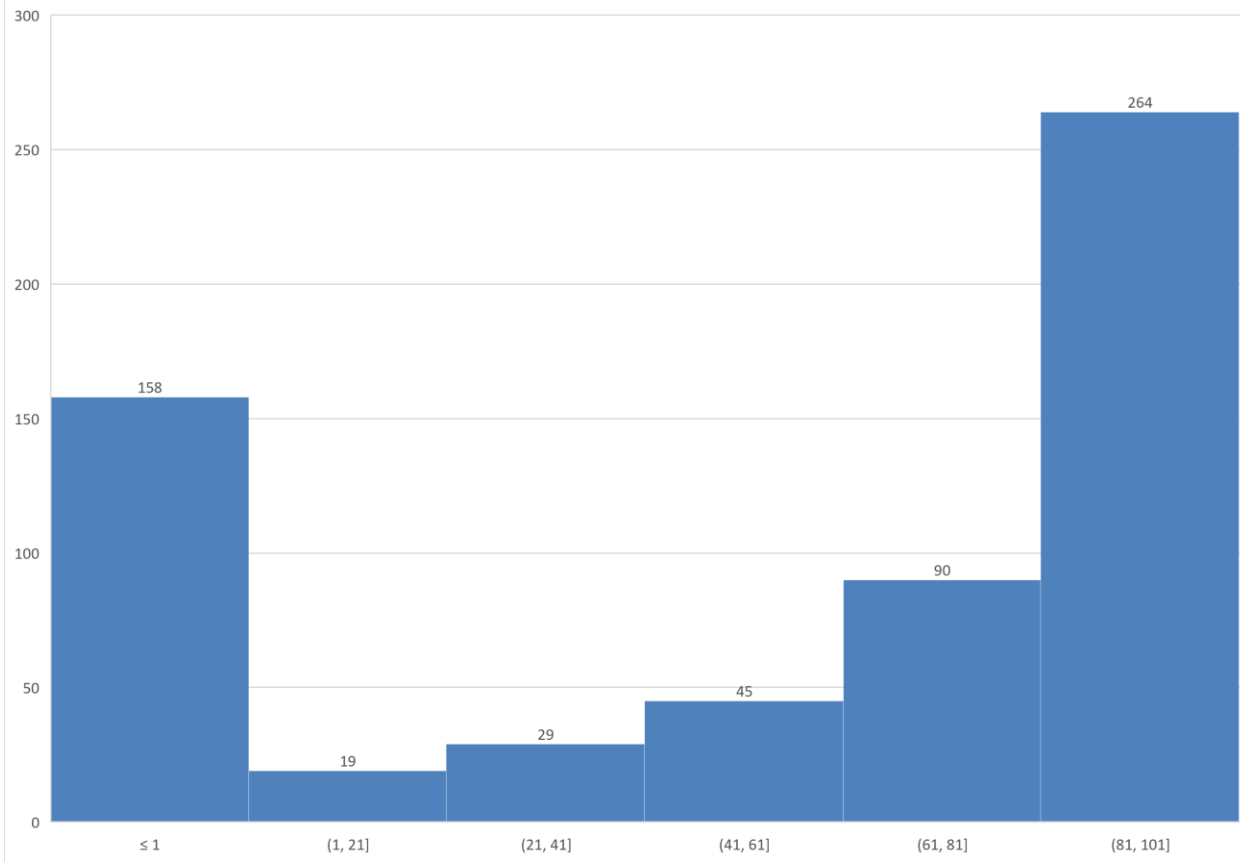Distribution of respondents' exercise 6 score by language (Mismatch)

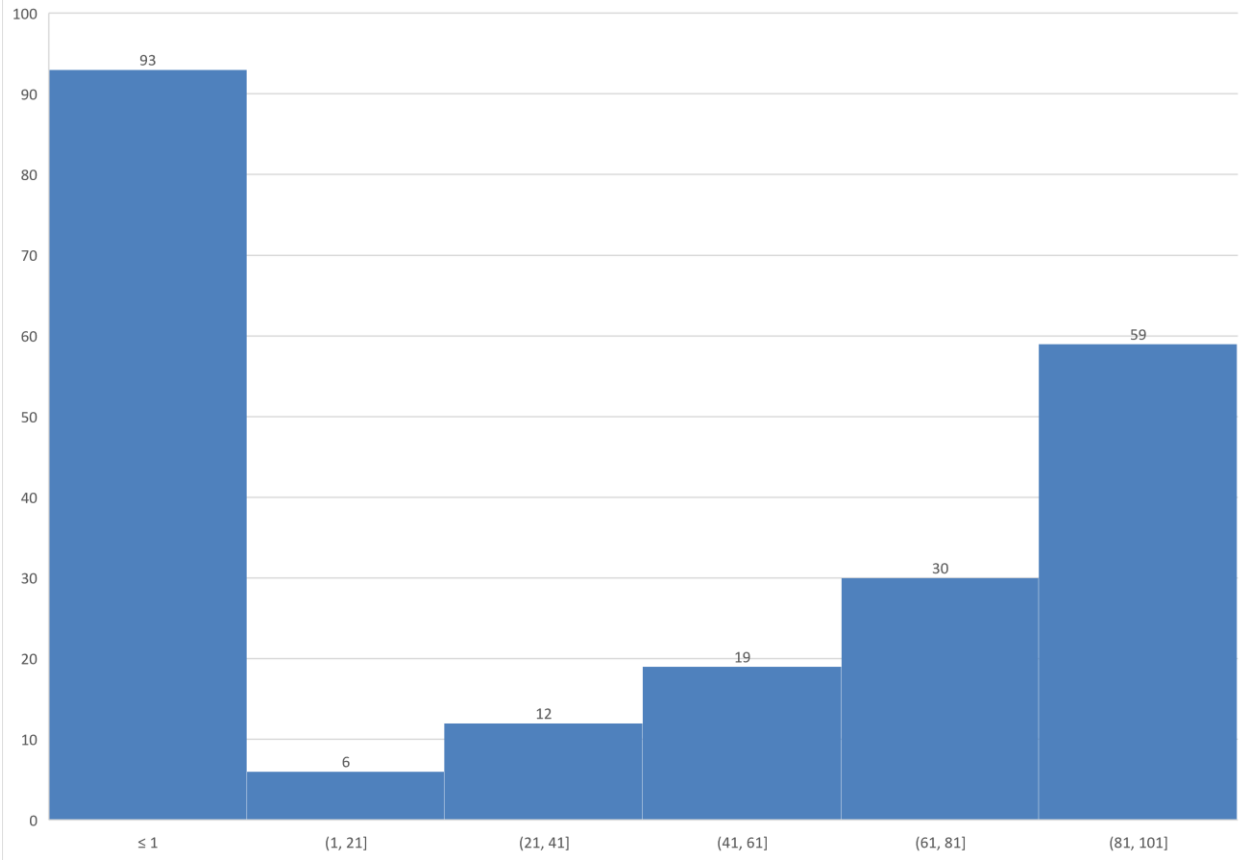Distribution of respondents' exercise 8 score by language (Match)

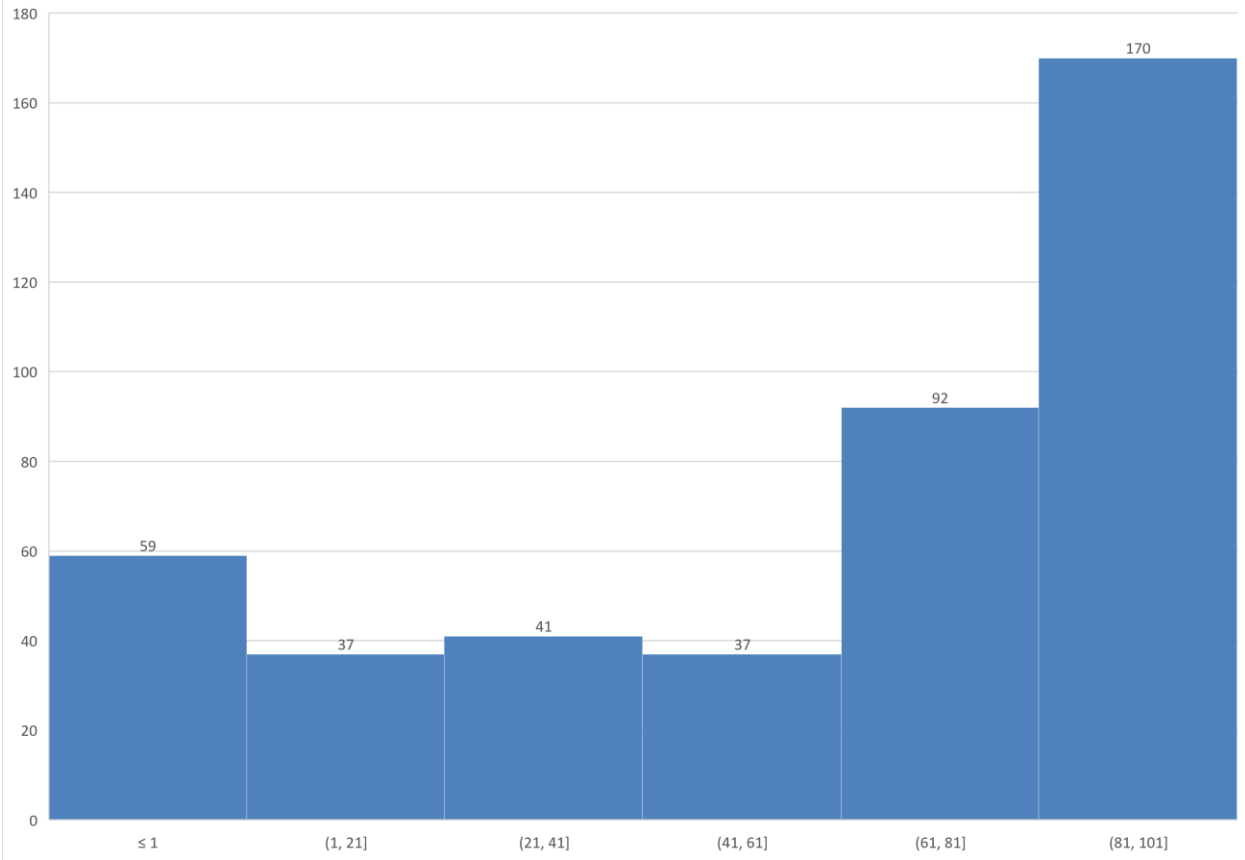Distribution of respondents' exercise 8 score by language (Mismatch)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 9 score by language (Match)
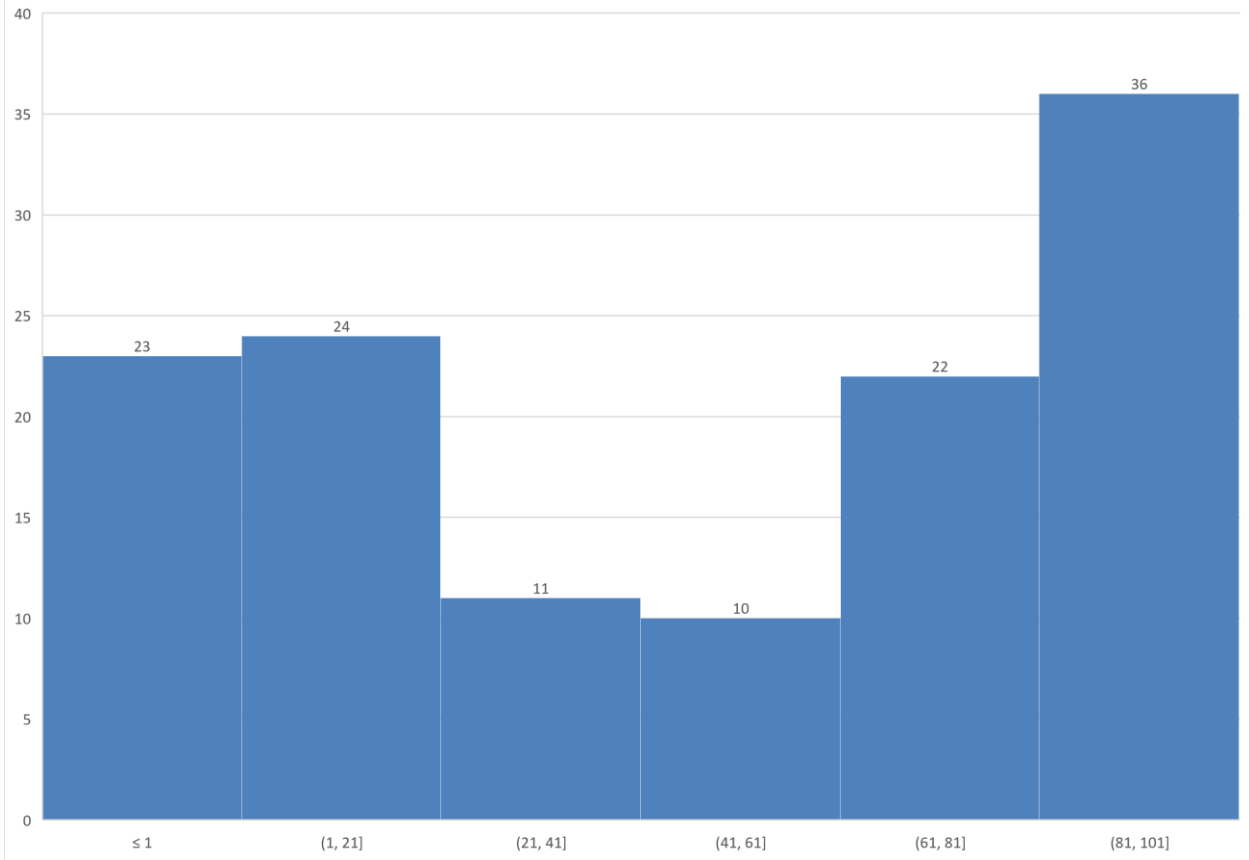
Distribution of respondents' exercise 9 score by language (Mismatch)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 11 score by language (Match)

Distribution of respondents' exercise 11 score by language (Mismatch)

Range	Count
≤ 1	23
(1, 21]	24
(21, 41]	11
(41, 61]	10
(61, 81]	22
(81, 101]	36

POPULATION COUNCIL RESPONSE TO:

Biruh Tesfa for All (BTA) Ethiopia:

A Project of Girls Education Challenge (GEC)/Leave No Girl Behind (LNGB)

Baseline Evaluation Report

External evaluation conducted by Jarco Consulting, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

October, 2021

Introduction

The Population Council – Ethiopia is pleased to offer this response to the Jarco's external baseline report for the Biruh Tesfa for All Program, entitled: *Biruh Tesfa for All (BTA) Ethiopia: A Project of Girls Education Challenge (GEC)/Leave No Girl Behind (LNGB): External Baseline Evaluation Report.* First and foremost, we would like to thank Jarco Consulting for the most informative and thorough report. The information contained within the report confirms previous research – including that of the Population Council – and provides insights into the lives and circumstances of beneficiaries of the Biruh Tesfa for All program, as well as the people around them that impact upon their lives. This document highlights our reaction not the baseline report as well as actions taken as a result of the research.

Theory of change

Jarco's results largely confirm previous findings of Population Council research and other research in Ethiopia, which were the basis for the design of the BTA program. Therefore, the theory of change (TOC) has not changed substantially. All the barriers to education described in the original TOC and/or proposal were highlighted in Jarco research. We are, however, adding the issue of ID cards, which are provided by the project, but not mentioned explicitly on the TOC.

We have removed two items from the TOC (not related to Jarco's report). These are renovation of 25 schools which is eliminated from the plan and the formation of girls' advisory groups.

Logframe

The project logframe will be updated to include the baseline estimates provided by Jarco. In addition, the timing of measurement of milestones will be corrected along with elimination of midterm assessments, given the timing of the project. Acknowledging the impact of COVID should be added to the document as a major factor impacting on progress in education.

Learning levels of girls

We appreciate the measurement of learning levels using EGRA and EGMA, which will form the basis of measure the progress in learning among BTA.

Our original proposal to Girls Education Challenges estimated that 40 percent of our anticipated beneficiaries would not be able to read Amharic words. This is quite consistent with the Jarco baseline as well as our own management information system (MIS) related to the project. In the Jarco baseline, 47%

of girls are non-readers of Amharic words at baseline. Likewise, the distribution of educational experience (those who attended grade 1-4 and those who attended 5 or more years of education) is consistent both with our proposal as well as with our MIS. Considering the low educational levels of beneficiaries, Jarco's findings confirm that the BTA project has been successful at reaching the most marginalized, and educationally disadvantaged girls.

Measurement of disability and mental health

Using the Washington Group of Questions (WGQ), the overall estimate of girls with disabilities was quite high (21%). On one of the dimensions measured – depression - the PHQ-9 set of questions reveals a somewhat lower level of depression compared to the self-reported depression in the WGQ. The authors of the baseline rightfully point out that self-reported depression through the WGQ may be over-reported due to girls' individual conceptions or comprehension of the question. Also, some of the domains measured in the WGQ may be a reflection of the girls' personal situation or status, rather than a true individual disability. For example, difficulty in making friends may be related to the fact that many domestic workers are confined to the home or many rural-urban migrants may be new to the area and may not speak the language of people where she resides. In such cases, her personal situation makes it difficult for her to make friends, which would not be due to a true disability/difficulty. Also, difficulty in making friends may simply be linked to an introverted personality, which we would not think can be interpreted as a disability. We recommend aggregating the cognitive measures to remove double counting of these difficulties.

Differential learning results, by subgroup

The learning levels did not differ significant between most subgroups of girls in the program, such as domestic workers versus non-domestic workers. However, differentials did arise based on two main dimensions: 1) girls whose mother tongue is different from the language of instruction and 2) having a vision or hearing difficulties. As a result, teachers and mentors are paying special attention to girls whose mother tongue differs from the language of instructions. In the context of vision and hearing difficulties, even before the baseline survey was undertaken, the Population Council observed low levels of corrective eyeglasses among girls in the program (<1% of girls had eyeglasses at intake). As such, the Population Council initiated vision and hearing screening for all girls in the program and free provision of eyeglasses and hearing aids for those who needed them. We believe that this adaptation will make a significant impact on learning levels. Further attention to girls with attention difficulties is also warranted. The project is currently undertaking further disability assessments, followed by necessary action for girls with disabilities (GwD).

Recommendations

Cohort tracking. The tracking of girls was discussed extensively at the time of contracting. The Council highlighted previous longitudinal research in the context of the program and challenges in tracking this particular category of girl, even when collecting multiple modes of contact and informing the girls of future follow-up. As discussed during the original design of the research, we agree that a cross-sectional approach to sampling is more advisable than a longitudinal sample. This is based on the high mobility of

the girls, even within a short period. A previous evaluation by the Council found 32 percent loss-to-follow in a one-year period.[1]

Research recommendations. We note the recommendations made regarding the research which we assume the external evaluator will address in subsequent research.

Project ID Cards. ID cards are currently issued as part of the project. To note, the evaluators alluded to our provision of such IDs in the report: '*It should be noted that many initial project activities were introductory, such as distribution of materials, issuing project ID cards and getting girls acquainted with the institutional learning structures, rather than intensive language and numeracy teaching'* (page 16). We note the recommendation to renew project ID cards every six months.

Recruitment methods. The concept of invisibility and inaccessibility of domestic workers has been highlighted in previous research, including that of the Council.[2] Likewise, the vulnerability of adolescent migrants has been highlighted in multiple research projects, including early research of the Population Council in Ethiopia.[3] The invisibility and inaccessibility of domestic workers led to the house-to-house recruitment method, which is one of the evidence-based innovations of this model. The sheer number of girls recruited through this method is a testament to its appropriateness and efficiency. The recommendation to provide incentives to employers would seem to incentivize use of underage workers and therefore would not be advisable.

Recommendations related to brokers and facilitating government ID cards are valid. While work with brokers has been initiated in other Council projects, these may not be within the timeframe or budgetary constraints of the current project. Furthermore, the project provides for linkage with legal services to beneficiaries.

We would like to thank Jarco for this most informative report, which provides a very nuanced picture of beneficiaries in the Biruh Tesfa for All program and forms a strong basis for measuring the impact of the BTA project.

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[1] Erulkar A, Medhin G. 2017. *Evaluation of a girls' safe spaces program to improve educational outcomes and health service utilization in Ethiopia,* Girlhood Studies 10, no. 1: 107-125.

[2] See, for example, Erulkar A, and Mekbib T. 2007. *"Invisible and vulnerable: Adolescent domestic workers in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia."* Vulnerable Child and Youth Studies, 2(3): 246-256. This paper led to the original design of the Biruh Tesfa program.

[3] Erulkar A, Mekbib T, Simie N, Gulema T. 2006 *"Migration and vulnerability among adolescents in slum areas of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia,"* Journal of Youth Studies Vol 9 (3) July 361-74.