

PARTNERSHIP PROJECT FOR GIRLS AND YOUNG WOMEN

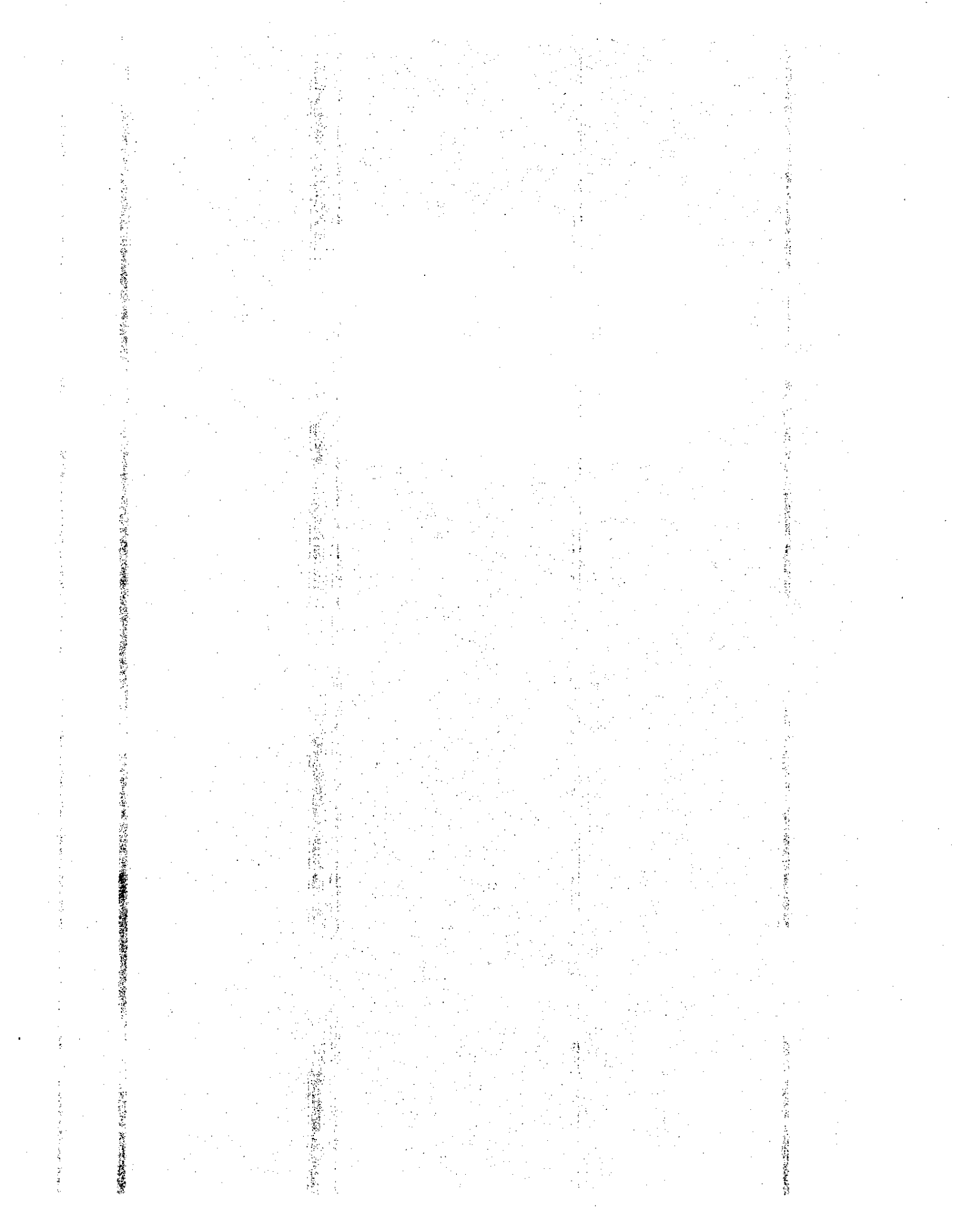
NEEDS ASSESSMENT REPORT

EGYPT

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The Centre For Development and Population Activities

مركز التنمية والنشاطات السكانية



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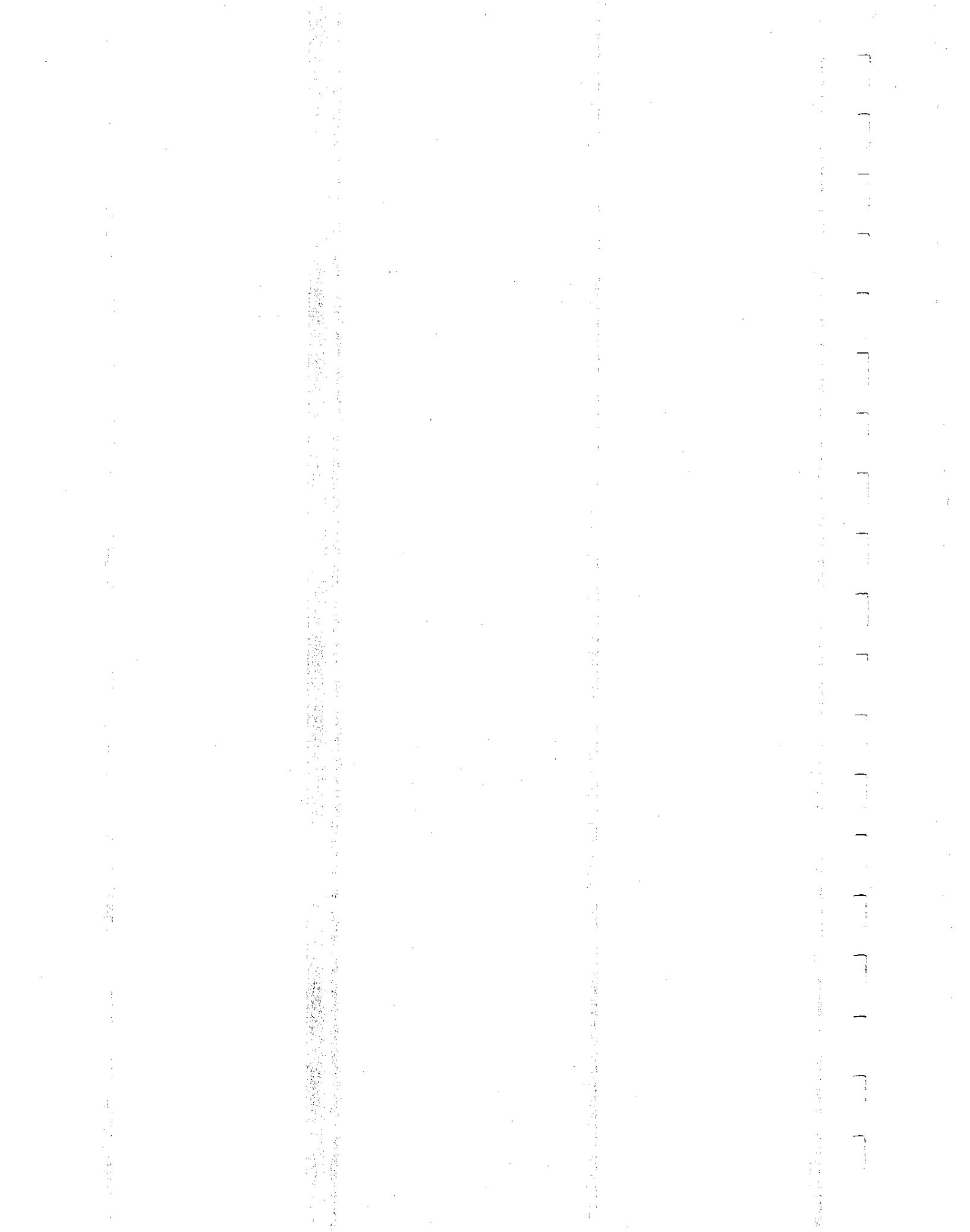


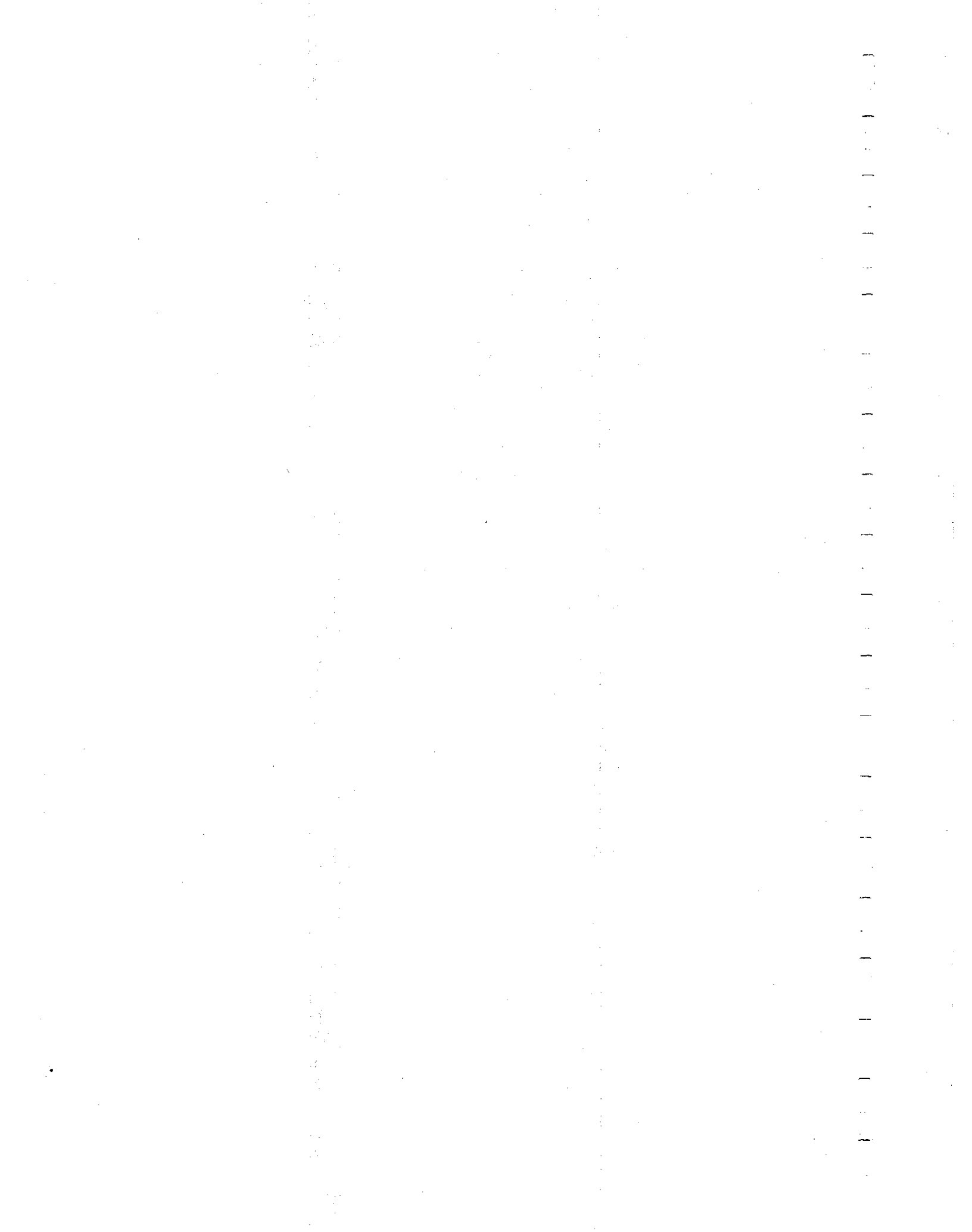
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In 1995, CEDPA was provided a five year grant to improve the education, health, literacy and life skills of disadvantaged girls and young women in rural, mainly Upper Egyptian, governorates through implementation of a Partnership Projects for Girls and Young Women. One of the first activities of the project was to determine girls' needs for skills and training. Representatives of collaborating NGOs met for a week-long workshop in Cairo to identify sources of and ways to systematically collect information on rural girls' needs. This report summarizes the findings of the various data collections conducted as a result. While the main intent is to identify needs of rural girls for education and training, a secondary purpose is to understand the circumstances which have affected girls' participation in training programs in the past. The findings shown be seen as reflecting the sample group which because it was purposively selected is not necessarily representative of rural Egyptian girls in general.

The main findings (details are elaborated in the text) are:

- Only a quarter of the girls in the 180 households completed primary school compared to 40% of the boys.
- The younger generation had considerably increased rates of participation in formal schooling over parents, but few continued to levels where they were functionally literate.
- The main reasons reported for non-participation of children were "poverty" and "tradition".
- The higher the economic level the more likely the child was to have completed primary school and the less likely to have had no formal education at all. There was little difference in participation of boys and girls of similar economic background when the factor of "tradition" (the consistent tendency to send fewer girls) was removed.
- Parents estimated annual primary pupil cost at ²⁵⁰~~183~~ LE.
- "Tradition" was reported less frequently in younger as compared to older generations though a gap between boys and girls still remained. Girls said it was primarily fathers who prevented them from going to school for this reason.
- Tradition was expressed in terms of protecting a girl's reputation before marriage, of her special role not enhanced by schooling, and of a need to conform to perceived norms that conflict with schooling.
- There were basic gaps in girls' knowledge of first aid, hygiene, nutrition and health and though parents articulated "correct" theory about preventive and reproductive health they often did not practice what they preached.
- The circumcision of girls was an almost universally approved practice by parents.
- Few girls had satisfactory competency levels in literacy; none had them in numeracy.
- Girls from poor families had considerably lower scores in literacy than girls from other backgrounds; but their scores were not significantly different in numeracy.
- Number of years of schooling correlated positively with literacy and numeracy scores.
- While males were the main earners of income, females also contributed in a variety of ways to family income.

- Girls did far more household work than their brothers and their contribution was more significant in a number of ways.
- Rural households purchased a wide variety of products that could be produced at home.

Recommendations for training programs

Program interventions (within the scope of this project) should address three needs: for information, for skills and for advocacy.

Information. Topics should include, among others to be identified by the field workers:

- **The girl herself:** as an individual, in relation to her family and community, her needs, her rights, her responsibilities
- **Hygiene and health:** basic household cleanliness, spread of diseases common to the village and ways of preventing them, health hazards, ways of addressing simple health problems such as diarrhea and colds.
- **Nutrition:** balanced diets, the part different food groups play in contributing to general health, nutrition needs for different groups: infants, children, adolescents, pregnant and lactating women; cheap ways to vary the diet.
- **Basic first aid:** what to do for simple problems such as cuts and abrasions, and for more complicated problems such as broken bones and burns before consulting a doctor.
- **Reproductive health** (a sensitive issue in some communities that needs to be considered on a case by case basis): the girls' body and its changes with puberty; circumcision, reproduction, family planning, early marriage, family size

Skills. While girls have numerous skills related to household work, there are many areas where skill development would open options to them. The main areas are:

- **Literacy and numeracy.** It will be important that training be conducted with systematic instructional materials tested for learning results, so the course does not recreate the frustrating experiences of the formal system.
- **Income generation.** Training is more likely to prove effective if it a) concentrates in areas where women have already demonstrated successful income generation, b) relates to women's current roles so as not to conflict with their on-going responsibilities at home, and c) seeks out non-traditional skills that build on the strengths of women's networks, such as small home and appliance repairs, and simple building skills, etc.
- **Resource saving.** A number of skills could be usefully learned in the areas of a) home production of items which are now frequently bought by households, b) time saving, which though not perceived as a valued resource in villages, might lead to increased participation of girls in education and training programs; c) fuel saving which is one of the most costly items in household consumption in terms of financial costs and energy expended in fuel collection.
- **Work saving.** Females are the most hard-working members of rural families. Adding additional work through skill development only makes sense if means are found to compensate them with work saving devices or better organization of their daily activities. This may entail cooperative purchases or methods of sharing the work more efficiently.

Advocacy. At the village level there is an important need for advocacy activities directed at parents and especially at fathers. Without these efforts, girls may be prevented from taking full advantage of training programs. Consciousness raising is required about:

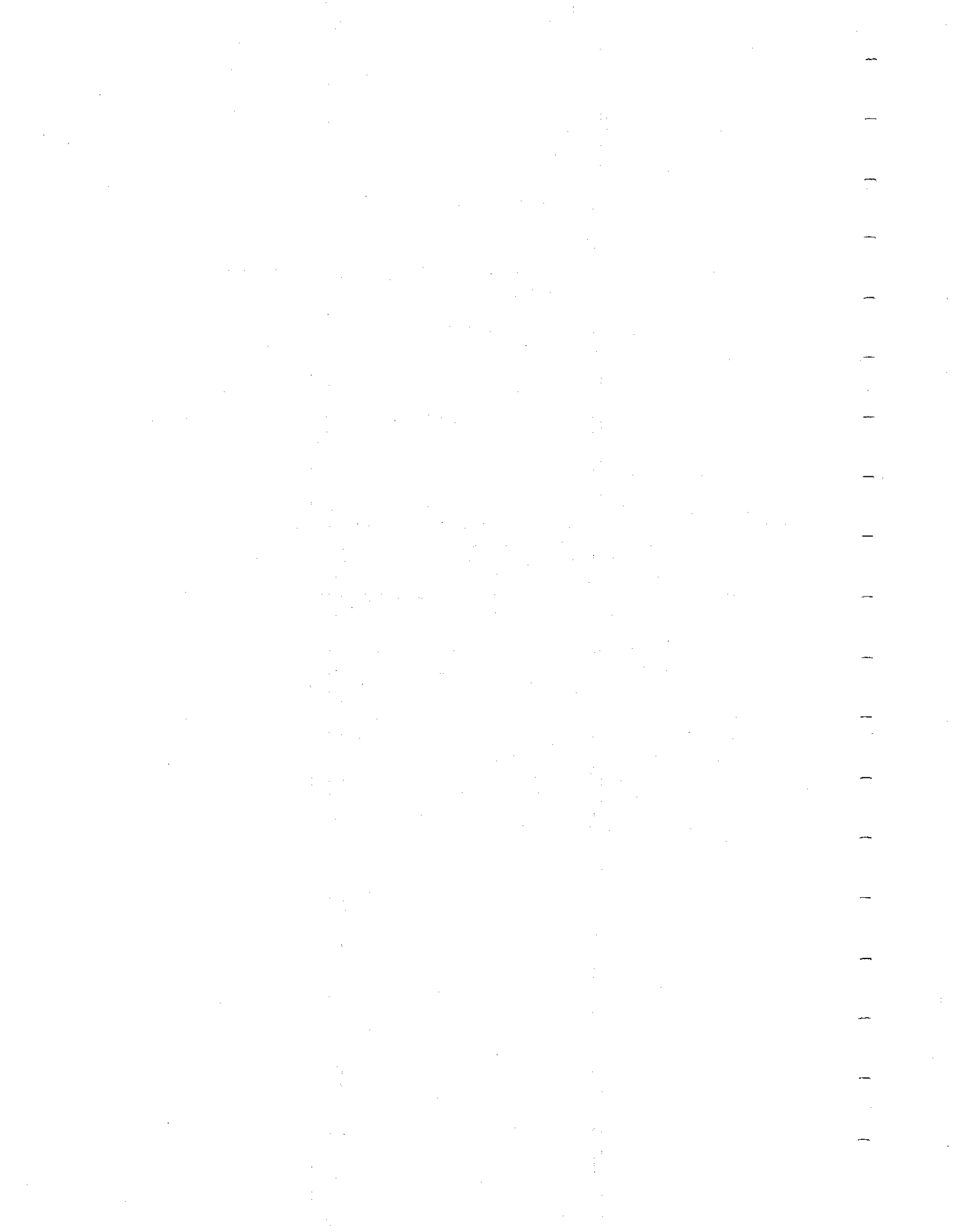
- The rights of girls to the equivalent benefits of boys: education, food, medical care, etc.
- The importance for a girl of enrolling in and completing basic education in the formal system
- The importance of enrolling in and completing literacy courses as an alternative if the girl is not eligible for the formal system or has dropped out
- The importance of girls' contributions to household production
- The awareness of how girls' contributions to the family can be qualitatively and quantitatively improved through training
- The health and well-being problems connected with girls' circumcision, early marriage, frequent pregnancies, and excessive family size

Conditions for participation and impact

Programs for girls in rural areas of Egypt require certain conditions to make them attractive to parents and daughters. The environment should be a protected one. Fees should be kept low, or free. Timings should not conflict with times when girls are busy with their work around the house. There should be a clear resource-saving, female role-enhancing, or income-generating benefit from the training. The training format should provide opportunities for the girl to make choices herself about her own development, and should allow her to contribute in meaningful and visible ways to better family production, so that she can gain greater status in the eyes of her parents and siblings.

Communities differ in the extent to which they may need various types of training. Training programs need to be packaged in units which can be combined to form the correct mix of topics or courses for each individual community.

Girls cannot be expected to make changes in their lives if they are not given the practical tools to do so. Many training units require practical applications of the learning such as, agricultural activities that increase the variety of foods available to the families, building a simple solar stove to conserve on fuel, etc. At a minimum, girls should be asked to practice what they learn (such as first aid procedures) or to provide some evidence that they have attempted changes (like a checklist of cleanliness behaviors a girl has engaged in). The weakest link in any training program occurs in making the transformation from learned knowledge into behavioral change.



PARTNERSHIP PROJECT FOR GIRLS AND YOUNG WOMEN

NEEDS ASSESSMENT REPORT

1 Background

In 1995, CEDPA was given a five year grant to improve the education, health, literacy and life skills of disadvantaged girls and young women in rural, mainly Upper Egyptian, governorates through implementation of a Partnership Projects for Girls and Young Women. In collaboration with Egyptian NGOs, the project combines national level advocacy, with community level education and action programs. The CEDPA group of NGOs is expected to establish pilot projects and expand replicable models, increase the education and literacy levels of girls and young women, and improve their health and reproductive health practices.

One of the first activities of the participating NGOs was to determine the needs for skills and training of the young women. Representatives of the NGOs—mostly fieldworkers working in rural villages, met for a week-long workshop in Cairo supervised by CEDPA consultants, Drs. Mona Habib and Andrea Rugh. The participants were asked to identify sources of information that would provide an understanding of rural girls' needs. They identified the following:

- Reports from "experts" working in the field
- Reports and observations of behaviors, practices, and attitudes of family members
- Tests of rural girls' knowledge and skills
- Discussions with girls and their parents

The workshop was devoted to developing systematic ways—through preparation of data collection instruments and focused interviews, to collect information from these sources. First, the participating fieldworker "experts" described their assessments of the needs and conditions of rural girls, and these assessments were analytically sorted into intervention categories. Second, they developed a household questionnaire to collect information on families' histories (past behavior and practices) and attitudes. Third, they adapted already existing life skills/basic competency tests to use in determining the extent of girls' knowledge and skills. And finally they practiced "focal group" techniques they would use to elicit attitudes about the educational needs of girls from fathers, mothers, boys and girls.

2 The purpose and scope of this report

The purpose of this paper is to report the findings of the various data collections conducted under this project. The main intent is to identify the needs of young rural girls for training programs, while a secondary purpose is to develop an understanding of the circumstances which have surrounded this issue in the past and which are likely to affect CEDPA programs in the future.

There are three sections to the report beyond this introduction. The first describes the procedures used in selecting the sample and conducting the study. The second reports the findings of the study. These findings are divided into two parts: one that identifies conditions and circumstances affecting girls' participation in existing formal education programs, and a second which determines training needs in the context of their present lives. The third section summarizes the main points and recommends areas for training and for the conditions which are required if the training is to be effective.

3 Study procedures

3.1 Sample

The sample was a purposive one, consisting of the universe of girls targeted for initial project interventions and their families. Participants in the CEDPA workshop first prepared brief descriptions of the villages in which they expected to try out new training packages. They were asked to include details of the estimated number of households at each economic level, the kinds of occupations found in the community, available services within five kilometers, and utilities. From these reports and from visits to the field, twenty-one villages were identified where either the workshop participants were working or where other NGOs who would join the group in future training were working.

The NGOs and their villages were selected on the basis of three criteria: that the NGO was actively involved in the community, that the targeted households would be of generally poor economic level, and that they would include girls in the specified age range from 9 to 20 years.¹ Though the focus of the work was the Upper Egyptian governorates of Minya, Bani Suef and Fayoum, which are known for the low literacy rates of girls, fieldworkers working in three poor communities in Cairo also joined the workshop, as well as participants working in villages in Sharkia and Kalubia. The aim was for each workshop participant to experiment with the training materials in one village where they worked.

Of the original 21 villages selected, one group representing two villages dropped out and data from two additional villages did not arrive in time for this analysis. The sample, on which this report is based, therefore includes:

	Villages	Families	Family Quest.	Skills Test	Focus Groups
Fayoum	3	30	30	30	12
Bani Suef	5	51	51	51	20
Cairo	5	40	40	40	12
Minya	4	39	39	39	16
Kalubia	1	9	9	10	4
Sharkia	1	10	10	10	4
Total	17	179	179	180	68

In sum, the sample consisted of the core group of families which would ultimately serve as an experimental group for the testing of CEDPA training packages. The testing was intended to ensure results from the training before broader dissemination to larger numbers of rural girls. The assumption was that other families in a village with girls in a similar age range would express similar ideas and have similar needs for training.

¹In general these criteria were met, although in some cases NGOs were newly setting up operations, and in a few (3) cases, households slipped into the survey which were considered well-off. The age range targeted for the project included girls 6 to 20, but in the survey the youngest girls selected were 9 years old because of the literacy/numeracy skills test.

fieldworkers complete one RD&E cycle, of which the needs assessment is an initial step, they should be able to replicate the process with a new problem and expand the program to more villages, more families and more girls. All the NGOs have the potential to spread the interventions widely once they have developed the training programs and know how to test and use

3.2 Data collection.

Data collection was conducted through three strategies: the administration of household questionnaires to parents and life skills competency tests to the target girls, and the convening of focal groups for discussion of education issues. The household interviews and competency tests were administered in each of roughly 10 households per village.² Information was collected on one family (consisting of father, mother, and their children whether resident or away from the parental home) in a household in which the targeted girl lived. The person responding to the household interview should be a parent of the girl, and the girl herself should answer the questions testing basic competencies. Individuals from the same families participated in focus group discussions about girls' education, its purposes, reasons for enrollment and dropout, and the potential areas for future training of the girls. The focal groups were segregated by family role into groups of fathers, mothers, sons and daughters. In short, the strategy was to provide layered sets of information on the girls and their backgrounds that would lead to an understanding of their training needs.

In developing the instruments, participants were cautioned to include only questions which would directly elicit information about need for training or skills, or which would provide greater understanding about the circumstances of the girls that might affect training. In administering the instruments they were asked to be careful about "coaching" parents and girls to give the "right" answers.³

The household proforma and the skills test⁴ were tested in two communities near Cairo. In addition, the workshop supervisors visited all the NGOs' governorates in April 1995 to watch the first efforts of data collection. During April and May 1995, the field workers collected the data and conducted the focus group discussions in the villages.

The data collection for the household surveys and skills tests took place during the last half of April and May 1995, and the completed forms were returned to the Cairo CEDPA office by the beginning of June. Amal Gamal from the CEDPA office checked the forms, and they were entered by employees of ABS who later prepared them in simple tables of percentages and correlations.

²The number was roughly equal to 10 to allow for variations in the girls available for the training. In some cases, there were not sufficient girls in the age range in the nearby area, and in other cases it was difficult to exclude a girl who wanted to be involved.

³During the testing of the questionnaires, the kind-hearted fieldworkers were seen to do everything but give the correct answers to those being interviewed, particularly in the case of the skills test that was administered to young girls.

⁴The test was adapted from one developed by the National Institute of Psychology of Qaidi Azam University in Islamabad, Pakistan. It consists of questions concerning health, first aid and cleanliness, as well as basic competencies of reading, writing, comprehension and simple arithmetic.

4. Findings

The study findings are reported below. They should only be taken as reflective of the sample group which, because it was purposively selected, is not necessarily representative of rural Egyptian girls and their families in general.

4.1 Household sample characteristics

The sample represented 179 households distributed among 17 communities in 6 governorates (Minya, Bani Suef, Fayoum, Cairo, Katubia, and Sharkia). The families included more than 1300 individuals with an average of 5 children per family. Half the males in the household had no formal education while a third had experienced 5 or more years of schooling.⁵ The rest had completed from one to four years. Two-thirds of the females had no formal education and one fifth had completed 5 or more years. Thus males in the households were a third more likely to have significant levels of education than females.

When figures were disaggregated by generation, only a third of the sons had no formal education and almost 40% had completed significant levels of education (5 years or more); the remainder had completed one to four years of formal schooling. The daughters, like their mothers, lagged behind with just over half having no formal education and only a quarter having significant levels of schooling.

Because the sample represented the households of the targeted girls, it was weighted toward lower income levels. Almost 40% of the households were ranked poor by the field workers and almost the same percentage were below average; 21% were sufficient and 2% were considered well-off by rural standards. With regard to occupation, about a quarter of the males and a fifth of the females were reported to be economically nonproductive, that is either too young, too old or too handicapped to work. Another quarter of the males and 13% of the females were students. The remainder of the males worked as self-employed agricultural workers (12%); wage earners in the private sector (7%); self-employed others (5%); or wage earning civil servants (5%). Close to 60% of the remaining females (who were neither students nor nonproductive) reported that they were unpaid family workers. Less than 1% claimed other work.

4.2 Target girls' characteristics

One girl from each household was targeted for the training program. The average age of these girls was 14. Most (76%) were currently at home and not going to school. Of those who at one time went to school (124), the average number of years of schooling they received was four years. Of these girls with some schooling, approximately 40% of them dropped out before they had completed 3 years of schooling; another third before completing primary, a quarter before completing preparatory, and the final five percent after completing Class 8. Almost all went to government schools. A small number of girls in Minya attended a literacy class.

⁵Usually this means they have completed primary education, although because primary was changed from six to five years several years ago, it is not true in every case.

4.3 Factors affecting participation in education

Some skills useful to a young girl can presumably be obtained through formal schooling. For this reason, a number of the survey questions were concerned with the importance of education and the reasons girls and others in their families either attended or did not attend school.

Before describing the findings it is important to note the difficulty in determining reasons that critically affect the educational participation of children. Families are likely to base their decisions on a combination of reasons, or they may have no particular reason at all. What is true at one time can also sometimes change overnight when parents suddenly perceive that it is in their better interest to reverse a decision about schooling. Similarly, it has been demonstrated in past research that if several persons--a father, mother, teacher and student are asked to give their opinions about why a particular child dropped out of school, they are likely to give conflicting information. Even, for example, when a reason such as poverty is given for non-participation, it may not necessarily mean that a girl will go to school if costs are defrayed. For all these reasons, it is well to take reports of why child participate or do not participate in schooling programs as suggestive rather than accurate.

4.3.1 Reasons for educating girls. In the focus groups, fathers mothers, brothers, and target girls were asked separately about the importance of educating girls. Fathers emphasized the importance of education in teaching a girl to write her name, in teaching her cleanliness and how to organize her home and the life of her family. A few mentioned the importance of education in finding employment and in giving a woman a "weapon" to deal with her future. One father thought educated women were more interesting because they had "opinions" on all subjects.

Mothers provided a wider range of reasons. They said education secured the future of a girl--"it opens the world to her". By knowing how to read and write, she will be able to sign her own marriage certificate (rather than using a thumb print) and, on this and other documents, she will know what she is signing. She will be able to read street addresses when she travels and can write letters to absent family members. An educated girl is more likely to marry an educated "employee", and she will raise her children properly. Education will allow her to learn about family planning and other things she needs to know. She will be able to learn about her "rights". Educated girls are more responsible and can be allowed to go in public places without eliciting "talk".

The girls' brothers answered in terms that seemed to reflect their own aspirations. They said a girl needed to be educated for her own advancement--"to fulfill her dreams" and to lead a different life from a farm girl. From education also "she would be able to answer questions knowledgeably when asked".

The most interesting answers came from girls themselves who said a girl should be educated in order to know everything about the world. They felt an educated girl was more articulate than an uneducated one, that her mind is enlightened, that education is a weapon in her hand, earning her respect, allowing her to become employed, opening up options to her and keeping her from being cheated. In Bani Suef the girls said they wanted education in order "to be free" (for what was not explained), and in Samalout, Minya, the girls said education would make them "equal to men". They also said that education would increase the chances of their marrying educated men and would help them in bringing up their children and seeing that they become educated.

4.3.2 Reasons for non-participation in schooling. The survey found 13 reasons for why males and females in the families either did not enroll or dropped out of primary school. The reasons are reported by gender and generation in order to examine historic trends.

Fathers: Of the 147 fathers for whom there is information, 7% went to primary school and therefore for this group the question of non-participation was not relevant. Almost half reported poverty and a quarter claimed prevailing tradition or custom for not participating. A few (7%) claimed that they had not wanted to go to school, and even fewer (3-4%) said failure had made them leave school; they were needed at home to help out, they needed to earn income; or their father was absent or dead and therefore their presence was required at home.

Mothers: Of the 143 mothers for whom there is information, 1% went to primary school and thus the question of non-participation was not relevant. Roughly the same percentage reported poverty (38%) and prevailing tradition or custom (40%) for not participating. A few (5%) claimed that they had not wanted to go to school, and even fewer (2-4%) said they were needed at home to help out, they had to earn income, or their father was absent and therefore they were needed at home. A small number (2%) dropped out because of early marriage. There were isolated instances of failure, moving away, and problems with entry because there was no birth certificate or the school was too far.

Sons: Of the 402 sons for whom there is information, 62% are either now attending, finished or are too young for primary school and therefore the question of non-participation was not relevant. 15% reported poverty and only 4% claimed prevailing tradition or custom for not participating. A few (7%) reported that they had not wanted to go to school, and the same number said failure had made them leave school. A much smaller number (1%) said, they were needed at home to help out, they needed to earn income, or school was too far away.

Daughters: Of the 478 daughters for whom there is information, 40% are either now attending, finished or are too young for primary school and therefore the question of non-participation was not relevant. 26% reported poverty and 15% claimed prevailing tradition or custom for not participating. A few (4-6%) reported that they had not wanted to go to school, that failure had made them leave school, or that they were needed at home to help their mothers. A much smaller number (1%) reported the death of a father, early marriage, difficulties entering school (usually because their papers were not in order), or the school was too far away.

To summarize, the older generation claimed poverty and tradition as the most common reasons for non-participation. Poverty was a more significant reason for males, and tradition a more significant reason for females. Both reasons have diminished considerably in the younger generation even though they still constituted the most frequently reported reasons for non-participation. A small but persistent ratio of children, boys even more than girls, didn't go to school because they didn't want to go—because the idea didn't appeal to them or because teachers mistreated them, or because they failed. Overall, the trend for males and females of the younger generation was for increased participation over their parents' generation.

It is worth a closer look at the data to see what lies behind the two main factors of poverty and tradition.

4.3.3 Economic level and educational participation. There are several ways poverty may impact on children's educational participation. A child may be needed at home to help earn income, or to relieve the domestic burdens of a parent who does. Several children whose fathers died were taken out of school. In focal group discussions parents especially noted the high costs of education—of fees, clothing, supplies, and private tutoring. Several mentioned that the costs of schooling girls were not "recoverable" since the girls moved to another household after marriage. Parents said that if they were unable to

educate all their children because of the high costs, they would prefer to educate the boys who were more likely to show an economic return for the money. In rural areas a boy's chances to earn income are enhanced by his "piece of paper", while a girl's opportunities to earn an income are limited. When girls fail in school, parents said, they withdrew them rather than sustain a costly effort that was not succeeding.

Parents in an urban community, however, expressed the contrary view that girls needed education more than boys, because boys could apprentice themselves to learn manual skills, while a girl needed an education to find "appropriate" professional work. Urban parents fear that a daughter's marriage may run into difficulty and she may need skills to support herself. Absorbing a returned daughter into her parents' home—the accepted option, puts more of a burden on poor urban households than rural ones. Earlier research in a poor community of Cairo showed that more girls than boys were likely to continue schooling beyond primary for this and other reasons.

The focal group discussions concerning the issue of poverty demonstrate the careful balancing that goes on in many families to determine the costs and the benefits of schooling against the needs of the family as a whole and the resources available to pay for them. While education can have the long term consequence of enhancing the income earning capacities of a child, parents may be unwilling to forego the opportunity and financial costs associated with such long-term and increasingly poor quality programs. The survey examined some of these "poverty" issues to see if family practice supported parents' claims in focal group discussions.

Costs were one main reason children, especially girls, are said not to enroll in school or, after enrolling, to drop out. The families with primary school children ~~(see)~~ in the study were asked to estimate the annual costs of sending a primary girl child to school. The estimates averaged 30 for fees, 37 for uniforms, 5 for books, 20 for supplies, 32 for tutoring and 8 for other expenses, for a total of 133 Egyptian pounds per annum per child. ~~Some of these averages seemed low to the field workers, even when they made allowance for the kinds of savings villagers make in terms of passing on uniforms from child to child, combining in groups for tutoring, etc.~~ The overall figures are ~~also lower~~ than estimates from other sources in Egypt which put the annual costs per year of primary school at 176 LE (\$52) in rural areas.⁶

Looking at total annual expenditures per primary child, about a third of the families said they spent less than a hundred pounds; another third spent between 100 and 200; a quarter between 200 and 300, and the remaining 12% over 300. When multiplied by several children, the costs could be considerable for a poor family with little disposable income.

Is there evidence that economic level of household affects the extent to which children enroll in and stay in school? As part of the survey, the field workers were asked to give a rough evaluation of the sample households' economic status (well-off, sufficient, below average and poor) as measured against rural standards. Because of the nature of the sample, the weighting was expected to be toward the lower economic groups. Of 1089 individuals, male and female for which complete information was available, 17 came from well-off, 231 from sufficient, 428 from below average and 413 from poor families.⁷

⁶al-Aqqad, Medhat Mohammed et al, "A Study on Family Expenditures on Education in Public Schools," MOE 1990.

⁷The purposive nature of the sample should have put all the families below average or poor but since they were selected by the fieldworkers with the idea of forming training groups, it is likely that location and the fact of an eligible age girl may in some cases have over-ridden the criterion of poverty.

Table 1 shows what appears to be a relationship between economic status and education level. The better-off individuals are, the more likely that they will have completed a significant number of school years (5 or more) and the less likely they are to have had no formal education at all.

Table 1: Education level and economic status: total sample

Ed. Level	Economic Status			
	Well-off	Sufficient	Below Average	Poor
High (5 or more)	7 (41%)	69 (30%)	102 (24%)	99 (24%)
Medium (1-4 yrs)	3 (18%)	35 (15%)	55 (13%)	61 (15%)
Low, None (no formal)	7 (41%)	127 (55%)	271 (63%)	253 (61%)
Total	17 (100%)	231 (100%)	428 (100%)	413 (100%)

Some observers have suggested also that poverty impacts more on the schooling participation of girls. The argument, as already noted, is that families may be willing to sacrifice their limited resources to put boys through school because they see a long-term benefit accruing to the family, but not girls who marry and leave the family home. Others argue the opposite that poor families require the income-earning labor of their sons and thus cannot afford the time it takes for sons to obtain the degrees necessary to increase their income earning capacities. It is possible that these two factors cancel each other out, and that both apply in different families.

Does lower economic status impact more on girls' educational participation than on boys or vice versa? Table 2 shows the educational attainment of the sample households by gender and economic level. For simplicity the economic levels are presented as high (well-off and sufficient) and low (below average and poor).

Table 2: Education level and economic status: by gender

Ed. Level	Males		Females	
	High Econ	Low Econ	High Econ.	Low Econ.
High (5 or more)	39 (37%)	114 (31%)	37 (26%)	87 (18%)
Medium (1-4 yrs)	15 (14%)	54 (15%)	22 (15%)	62 (13%)
Low (no formal)	51 (49%)	198 (54%)	83 (58%)	326 (69%)
Total	105 (100%)	366 (100%)	142 (99%)	475 (100%)

Note: High economic level equals "well-off" or "sufficient" and low economic level equals "below average" or "poor".

As Table 2 shows, the ratios of girls who attain significant levels of schooling at both economic levels are considerably lower than those of boys. If high economic status boys are the optimum against which all other groups are compared, then "poorer" boys are 6%, high economic status girls are 11%, and poorer girls are 19% less likely to complete significant levels of schooling. However, if high economic status girls are taken as the base for girls, then only 8% fewer "poor" girls attain significant levels of schooling. This 8% gap is not greatly different from the 6% difference between high and low economic status boys. The gap is somewhat larger for those who receive no formal schooling: 5% for boys and 11% for girls between the economic classes. Overall, however, the difference in level of participation between the sexes is generally greater than between individuals within each gender coming from varying economic backgrounds.

In other words, while economic status affects the school attendance of both sexes, girls appear to be less affected by this factor than one might expect if parents' claims are true. Rather, there appears to be some other factor preventing girls from going to school that is more significant than economic level and which places girls at a relative disadvantage when compared with boys at all economic levels. This factor is most likely what respondents call "traditional values or customs".

4.3.4 "Tradition" and educational participation. As noted, tradition was one of the major reasons cited for lack of participation in formal education. In the focal groups, family members discussed the reasons why girls were not sent to school as often as boys. Fathers commented that in the long run girls leave home to marry and it was more important for them to learn skills from their mothers that would help them become good wives and mothers. Mothers were more outspoken saying that many parents felt it was "shameful for girls to become educated—that girls were born for housework and marriage. Letting them go to school put them at risk of men's advances and "teasing", and therefore it was better for them to stay home where they could be protected. It was insinuated by some that girls didn't have the intellect to learn, and what they needed to learn they could learn better at home. Brothers emphasized girls' special need for protection, and the girls themselves usually talked about tradition in terms of what other people—family members, parents and especially fathers, say about what girls should do.

In general, "tradition" as a reason for the non-participation of girls was expressed as: 1) a fear for a girl's reputation and need to protect her until she finds a husband, 2) a belief that she has a special role to play in the family which is not enhanced significantly by schooling, and 3) a desire to conform to perceived norms of the community which do not approve of public activity for girls. Where tradition does not prevent girls from going to school, parents may see these matters differently. Education may be seen as beneficial to a girl in attracting a better type of husband, in teaching her to become a better wife and mother, and in making her a more responsible person with greater latitude to move in public areas without eliciting "talk".

4.3.5 Age and educational attainment. To what extent are non-traditionalist views winning out over traditionalist ones over time? Survey evidence suggests that few parents at this time are willing to admit directly in an interview that they are against the education of girls for traditionalist reasons. They are aware that the government encourages educational participation for all children and know it is therefore not the "correct" response to give to interviewers. They are more likely to explain non-participation in terms of poverty or other reasons that are more "acceptable". In the focal group setting, however, mothers and daughters often lay the blame at the feet of the fathers, saying they are the one who for traditionalist reasons prevent their daughters from going to school.

Traditions have a time-associated dimension which suggests they change over time. We can examine this dimension by looking at data on the age of household members and their education attainment.

Table 3: Education level and age: by gender

Ed.Level	Males			Females		
	6-14	15-29	30 +	6-14	15-29	30 +
High (5 or more)	134(54%)	95(59%)	38(21%)	136(40%)	98(41%)	19(11%)
Medium (1-4 yrs)	74(30%)	7(4%)	10(6%)	81(24%)	16(7%)	5(3%)
Low (no formal)	38(15%)	59(37%)	129(73%)	121(36%)	127(53%)	148(86%)
Total	246(99%)	161(100%)	177(100%)	338(100%)	241(101%)	172(100%)

Table 3 shows education level and age. Because the category 6 to 14 year olds includes young children who have not yet completed their educations, the most interesting data is the "Low (no formal)" category, where it is clear for both sexes that as age groups become younger, there are fewer individuals who receive no formal education. However, the gap in the rates of participation of boys and girls becomes greater. Thus, there remains a persistent difference between the participation of boys and girls.

Research in Egypt in the 80s showed that the pattern of educational participation could be seen as a three-stage phenomenon. The sequence is that a) a few early motivated participants enroll and persist to complete significant numbers of years of schooling, encouraging b) larger numbers with varying degrees of motivation to enroll with larger ratios dropping out until c) the norm for schooling is established and there is pressure on children to enroll and continue for significant numbers of years. This cycle starts first with boys' and later when there is a critical mass of boys, starts for girls, producing a time-lag phenomenon that creates differences in gender participation at any point in time. Obviously, the model is too simple to explain the phenomena of educational participation in every village, but taken as a general hypothesis, it is consistent with the age-related data above.

4.4 "Ma infash" ("It has no use")⁸: Life Skills Test

Ultimately skill learning is more important than the act of participating in school programs. To determine skill levels, the target girls in each household were given a basic competencies test. The test was composed of three parts:

- Some basic "life skills"/general information questions,
- A basic literacy test which included a reading test of simple vocabulary (um, bait, garya, balad, and jiran), a sentence and a paragraph; a comprehension test of questions asked about the paragraph; and a writing test (writing their name, the name of their village, and writing a sentence that is read to them),
- A test of numeracy which included counting, writing some numbers and solving some problems which were read orally.

⁸This is the expression often used by parents to explain why children either did not go to school or dropped out. It means that schooling has little impact—that children learn very little from their time spent there. Some blame the children, others the program.

4.4.1 General knowledge results. The results of the life skills/general information questions were as follows:

- 9% were able to answer correctly to a question about how to make water that is not potable, potable (such as boiling)
- 79% were able to answer correctly to a question asking what activity they should wash their hands **before** doing (eating)
- 11% were able to answer correctly about what activity they should wash their hands **after** doing (going to the bathroom)
- 22% could give a reasonable answer to what should be done if someone's finger were cut to stop the bleeding
- 80% felt that it was just as important for girls to go to school as boys
- 87% could identify Hosni Mubarak as the President of Egypt

The answers show some gaps in hygiene, health and basic first aid.

4.4.2 Literacy and numeracy results. The results of the Arabic literacy test were as follows:

- Vocabulary: 41% could read the word "um" (mother); 42% "bait" (house), 34% "garya" (village), 35% "balad" (country) and 32% "jiran" (neighbor)
- Sentence: 31% could read the sentence "Suad has little chickens that she takes care of"
- Paragraph: 29% could read a simple 5-sentence paragraph and of those most (96%) could answer a question about "how many girls Nadya had"; all could say "where the girls went" in the story; and 85% knew "what Nadya did to earn income"
- Writing: 60% could write their name; 31% could write the name of their village; 29% could write "My country Egypt is beautiful"

The results of the numeracy test were as follows:

- Counting: 60% could count from 60 to 70
- Writing: 52% could write the number "3"; 43% could write the number "49"; 29% could write the number "500"
- Problem Solving: 84% could solve a simple addition problem; 73% could solve a subtraction problem, 66% could do a multiplication problem and 52% could solve a division problem.

Overall the scores were not encouraging given the fact that 66% of the girls taking the test had completed at least one year of schooling, and 60% of those had completed 3 or more years. Of all those entering school at any time the average number of years of schooling was 4 years, and 24% of the target girls were still in school. In both literacy and numeracy, writing was the most difficult for the girls to do and, as would be expected, the more complicated the writing, the lower the scores. Girls also found it difficult to read independently. Again the more complicated the reading, the more difficulty they had in responding correctly.

Problem solving was comparatively easier for them, partly because the problems were read to them and therefore lack of reading capability did not affect the results, and partly because as was clear from the household data, girls in over 70% of the households assisted their parents in shopping where they would have especially needed to learn to add and subtract. As the scores show, they were more proficient in these two operations than in the less-used operations of multiplication and division.

It should be noted that the math problems were exceedingly easy, all requiring one digit answers and none requiring carrying or other complicated operations. It was a test of the most basic competencies. Since many of the girls used fingers and knuckles to come to their answers it is unlikely that they could have accurately come to correct answers if the numbers in the problems had been much higher.

The governorates differed. In reading and writing, the rank ordering from highest to lowest scores was roughly Minya, Cairo, Kalubia, Sharkia, Bani Suef and Fayoum. In writing numbers and solving problems the rank ordering was Kalubia, Minya, Cairo, Bani Suef, with Sharkia and Fayoum about the same. Minya girls, contrary to most official statistics which place that governorate in one of the lowest positions with regard to literacy, ranked higher than the other target communities, probably because CEOSS has started literacy courses in some of the communities. The Cairo and Kalubia girls were also above average for the sample on most literacy and numeracy scores, perhaps because of the more urban nature of Cairo, and the more accessible education opportunities in the Delta. Sharkia (with many of the characteristics of Upper Egypt) and Bani Suef scored consistently at the lower end of the scale, while Fayoum girls' scored so low, that they can be considered virtually illiterate as a group. In numeracy Fayoum's scores were somewhat higher but still lower than the other governorates with the exception of Sharkia. None of the targeted communities approached even close to the 100% levels that would be expected for a minimal competencies test like the one administered.

Given an expectation of 100% correct answers, it is disappointing to find how few approached these levels. Of the 180 target girls tested, 33% could not answer any of the literacy questions correctly, 58% answered fewer than a quarter correctly, 68% answered fewer than half correctly, 73% answered fewer than three-quarters correctly, and the remaining 27% answered from three-quarters to 100% correctly.

Scores in the numeracy test were even lower. Of these 180 target girls, 25% could not answer any of the literacy questions correctly, 63% answered fewer than a quarter correctly, 91% answered fewer than half correctly, 100% answered fewer than three-quarters correctly, and no one answered more than three-quarters correctly.

4.5 Factors affecting results of the competency test.

Are there factors that might explain the poor performance on the basic competency test? One could hypothesize for example, that children from poor families do not have the same access to schooling or, going to school, that they do not have time to do the studying that is necessary. Or one might suggest that with age the children would pick up some of these skills, particularly problem solving which they would become more familiar with in daily life outside of formal education. Since the majority of the girls went to school at one time in their lives, one might also ask whether schooling has a significant impact on the learning of basic literacy and numeracy competencies. Below we examine some of these hypotheses.

4.5.1 Competencies and economic levels. Table 4 looks at the relationship between economic level and literacy scores.

Table 4: Economic level and literacy scores: target girls

Econ.Level	Percent correct literacy scores					Total
	0	-25%	-50%	-75%	-100%	
Sufficient*	12(29%)	10(24%)	4(10%)	6(15%)	9(23%)	41(101%)
Below Aver.	16(29%)	18(32%)	7(13%)	3(5%)	12(21%)	56(100%)
Poor	42(63%)	11(16%)	3(4%)	0(0%)	11(16%)	67(99%)

*The few "well-off" girls were combined with the "sufficient" girls

The girls who come from poorer families are clearly disadvantaged in terms of literacy, with the exception of the few girls (16%) who participated in literacy classes. The difference is not great between those who are marginally better off (below average) and those who had sufficient means. Thus "grinding" poverty appears to have an important association with literacy scores in the sample, though given the poor performance of all groups (where over half score less than 25% correct) the overall differences may not be very important.

Table 5 shows the relationship between economic level and numeracy scores. As the table shows, economic level does not appear to be a strong factor in numeracy scores. Might that be that basic numeracy becomes vital in the daily shopping transactions of all families and particularly of the poor? Again it needs to be pointed out that close to half the individuals in all economic groups scored less than 25% and not one scores the expected 100%.

Table 5: Economic level and numeracy scores: target girls

Econ.Level	Percent correct literacy scores					Total
	0	-25%	-50%	-75%	-100%	
Sufficient*	10(24%)	10(24%)	15(37%)	6(15%)	0(0%)	41(100%)
Below Aver.	19(28%)	18(26%)	17(25%)	14(21%)	0(0%)	68(100%)
Poor	16(23%)	22(31%)	19(27%)	13(19%)	0(0%)	70(100%)

*The few "well-off" girls were combined with the "sufficient" girls

4.5.2 Competencies and age. One might argue that a girl becomes more competent with age by consolidating her experiences and opportunities through practice. Tables 6 and 7 show competency scores for literacy and numeracy by age. In both competencies there appears to be no consistent association between correct scores and age such that as one increases, the other increases or decreases. The highest scoring group for both skills is the 15-18 year olds, next is the 9-12 year olds, then the 18+ group and finally the 12-15 year olds. The relationship between age and competency in the sample therefore is only that age groups which are better at one skill were consistently better at the other.

Table 6: Age and literacy scores: target girls

Age	Percent correct literacy scores					Total
	0	-25%	-50%	-75%	-100%	
9-12 yrs.	10(24%)	13(32%)	3(7%)	(10%)11(27%)		41(100%)
12-15 yrs.	33(45%)	16(22%)	7(10%)	3(4%)	14(19%)	73(100%)
15-18 yrs.	9(20%)	9(20%)	6(14%)	1(2%)	19(43%)	44(99%)
18+	7(32%)	7(32%)	2(9%)	1(5%)	5(23%)	22(101%)

Table 7: Age and numeracy scores: target girls

Age	Percent correct literacy scores					Total
	0	-25%	-50%	-75%	-100%	
9-12 yrs.	8(20%)	12(29%)	14(34%)	7(17%)	0(0%)	41(100%)
12-15 yrs.	26(36%)	23(32%)	15(21%)	9(12%)	0(0%)	73(101%)
15-18 yrs.	7(16%)	7(16%)	16(36%)	14(32%)	0(0%)	44(100%)
18+	4(18%)	9(41%)	6(27%)	3(14%)	0(0%)	22(100%)

There are several questions that are suggested about the pattern (or lack of pattern) in Tables 6 and 7. For example, was the quality of education better when the 15-18 year olds went to school and have they consolidated their skills, especially in math, by using them in the real world? Were the "more than 18 year olds", less likely to have gone to or stayed in school? Do the methods currently used in schools take longer for children to develop basic competencies? Is the sample biased in some way that affects the results? Are there combinations of factors that produce confounding results in different age groups?

Some of the questions, such as the one concerning the possibly declining quality in present-day schooling can only be answered with further study. It is true (see above) that older girls were less likely to have gone to school than younger girls but this does not explain why the 15 to 18 year olds scored highest on the test, unless there is a quality issue producing a hidden effect. The relationship between length of schooling and competency is explored in the next section.

4.5.3 Competencies and education level. Tables 8 and 9 show how the competency scores for literacy and numeracy vary by the length of schooling.

Table 8: Education level and literacy scores: target girls

Ed. Level	Percent correct literacy scores					Total
	0	-25%	-50%	-75%	-100%	
High (5 or more)	1(2%)	16(28%)	8(14%)	6(10%)	26(46%)	57(100%)
Medium (1-4)	16(29%)	18(32%)	7(13%)	3(5%)	12(21%)	56(100%)
Low (no formal)	42(63%)	11(16%)	3(4%)	0(0%)	11(16%)	67(99%)

As one would hope, the girls with more years of schooling score higher on the literacy test than girls with fewer years of schooling or no formal education. It seems surprising, however, that over half of the girls who have completed 5 or more years of schooling still can not answer all the simple questions of the test correctly.

There are two other interesting aspects to these figures. First, about two-thirds of the girls with only a few years of schooling answered fewer than a quarter of the questions correctly. This suggests that either the girls who drop out early are a self-selected group of poor learners, or schooling doesn't consolidate basic skills until the end of the primary level or higher. Second, a small but significant number of girls with no formal education answered all the questions correctly. A number of these last girls (possibly all of them) participated in nonformal literacy classes outside the regular government schooling. Since these classes are much shorter, more focused and more intense than regular schooling, it is an encouraging sign of what may be a way to build literacy skills in rural children who for some reason miss formal education.

Table 9: Education level and numeracy scores: target girls

Ed. Level	Percent correct literacy scores					Total
	0	-25%	-50%	-75%	-100%	
High (5 or more)	0(0%)	11(19%)	27(47%)	19(33%)	0(0%)	57(100%)
Medium (1-4)	14(25%)	19(34%)	15(27%)	8(14%)	0(0%)	59(100%)
Low (no formal)	31(46%)	21(31%)	9(13%)	6(9%)	0(0%)	67(99%)

As Table 9 shows, the greater the length of formal education, the better the numeracy score, though those with no formal education do better than one might expect compared with children who have had up to four years of education. Regardless of education level, however, none of the girls could answer all the

numeracy questions correctly, even those who had completed 5 or more years of schooling. Like the literacy test the numeracy test consists of simple basic competencies that should be easy for children who have completed primary education.

4.6 Parental attitudes and practices

4.6.1 Preventative and reproductive health. One would hope major decisions made in rural families would enhance the well-being and health of rural children. To act appropriately, however, parents must possess knowledge of what in development circles is considered "ideal" practice. Questions were asked to determine what parents believed was appropriate behavior in key areas of preventative and reproductive health, the assumption being that girls model their attitudes and behaviors on those of their parents.

Most parents answered "correctly" (by development standards) to most of the questions about ideal practice.

- What is the ideal age for a girl to marry (16 years or more)—74% answered correctly (range from 89% in Kalubia to 47% in Fayoum)
- What is the ideal number of children in the family (4 or less)⁹—78% correct responses (range from 100% in Kalubia and Sharkia to 63% in Fayoum)
- What to do for a child's diarrhea (oral rehydration therapies)—73% correct responses (range from 80% in Cairo to 40% in Sharkia)
- What to do to protect children against potentially fatal diseases like polio and measles (immunizations)—81% correct responses (range from 100% in Sharkia to 47% in Fayoum)

The single question which most parents answered incorrectly from the standpoint of the "ideal" concerned the circumcision of girls.

- Only 19% opposed the circumcision of girls. The opposition ranged from 0% in Sharkia and 3% in Fayoum to 44% in Minya (where a campaign to stop the practice had been organized by the local NGO)

Most figures above suggest that information contained in local and national health campaigns has been absorbed by adults in these NGO villages and that they can articulate what ideal practice should be. Evidence from within the families, however, shows that there is still a large gap between articulated ideals and actual practice. For example:

- Anecdotal evidence gathered while administering the survey suggested that mothers frequently married much younger than the ideal of "16",¹⁰ and several of them expressed surprise to hear their husbands speak of ideal marriage ages for girls older than the ages at which their own daughters were marrying. A number suggested that the determining factor was not age as much as when an appropriate suitor appeared.

⁹The researchers felt that to use any number less than four would eliminate all the respondents from the "correct" category. Because rural families are so large, they argue, four children would be a substantial decrease.

¹⁰Trying to determine the age of marriage of already married women proved too difficult given the vagueness of birth dates in older generations.

- Of the parents answering the question of ideal family size "correctly", 77% had more children themselves than the 4 or fewer they said was the right number.

4.6.2 Nutrition. Mothers were asked to list the foods they had consumed the previous day and their answers were recorded under 5 food groupings: 1) vegetables, 2) fruits, 3) bread/grains/pasta, 4) meat/poultry/eggs, and 5) milk/cheese/yoghurt. Not surprisingly 96% had consumed food from the grains category, and 58% from the vegetable category. Less than half had consumed milk (45%) and meat/poultry (44%) products. Only a relatively small number (17%) consumed fruit.

The governorates varied widely in food consumption: Cairo households ate even less fruit (10%) than average and fewer milk products (8%). Agricultural Fayoum ate considerably more fruit (30%) and milk products (67%). Minya, where many of the Christian families were supposed to have been fasting (abstaining from animal consumption), had the highest meat (64%) and milk product (87%) consumption. Kalubia was also conspicuous for higher than average meat (56%) and milk product (67%) consumption while Bani Suef was lower than average in consumption of all food categories except grains. Overall, fruit stands out as occupying a very small part in most families' diets.

Overall, variety in diet was low. Only 4% of the families consumed all 5 food categories on the previous day, 14% consumed 4 categories, 31% consumed 3 categories, 38% consumed 2 categories, and 12% consumed only 1 category. The most common practice was to consume two types of food, usually grains in the form of bread, and vegetables.

That the number and kinds of food eaten by families is subject to circumstances beyond their control is suggested by the fact that the most nutritionally limited families in the sample, those in the governorate of Bani Suef, also fell most heavily into the lowest economic levels. Similarly, most rural families are dependent upon the availability of foods in their vicinity, and might find it difficult to consume a greater variety than they do now.

Still there is probably room for improvement. Many who have access to land, focus on growing cash crops rather than on produce that could be used for home consumption, not perhaps understanding the cost benefits of producing the latter. Similarly, with present attitudes about food (including preferences when they are available for white "fino" bread, white rice, meats as opposed to vegetables and fruits, animal fats, and heavily sugared drinks) the need for information about a healthy diet within the limits of local availability might shift the balance to more variety and "better" kinds of foods. It might also improve the status of "baladi" foods that tend to be discarded when families find the means to buy more costly and less healthy foods.

4.7 Household production and consumption

4.7.1 Income generation. The household income in the surveyed families is generated mainly by the males of the household, but a surprising number of females also contribute through their own income generating activities. It appears there is less stigma attached to women earning money when the money is seen as an addition to household income rather than as the main source of income (unless, of course, the woman is the head of household and has no male support).¹¹ When women earn money they

¹¹A study of families in urban Egypt suggested that the issue of full-time income earning activities for women can be particularly sensitive for poor heads of household because of the implication that the man is not satisfying his role as income earner of the family. (Rugh 1979 **Coping with Poverty in a Cairo Community**. Monograph 1, Cairo Papers in Social Science, American University in Cairo).

traditionally have control over how it is spent and therefore the capacity to earn income broadens women's options.

Though not absolute, a tendency exists for males in the sample to concentrate their income generating activities in certain occupations while females concentrate in others. Sample males, for example, were occupied more heavily in salaried employment, daily labor, carpentry, selling crops, selling animals, and renting out lands and machinery, while the women were occupied more in sewing clothes for their neighbors, making handicrafts, and in selling produce, prepared foods, poultry, and eggs. In addition, there were small numbers of women in the sample who were salaried employees, working in daily labor, selling crops and animals, and one who was renting out machinery.

Activities like the ones above where women are already successfully generating income, probably provide the most immediate potential for areas of skill development. In exploring these areas further, one should look at how these skills can best be taught, whether they and/or their products could be improved, whether more women can employ them without over-burdening what may be limited markets, and whether these skills might not be extended into new but related areas (such as sewing school uniforms or items of clothing for shops in nearby towns).

Two additional skill areas which were not explored in the survey, but which might prove useful to women, especially in urban areas, are the skills of simple home and small appliance repairs, and building skills such as masonry and, where appropriate, electrical and plumbing repair. Teaching women these skills takes advantage of the convenience for women of being able to contract women to make simple home repairs. While these skills should ideally earn income, one should not underestimate their importance in barter arrangements which are often the way women accomplish their aims.

In general, rural women will find learning a skill more acceptable if it relates to areas where women are already involved in earning income, or if it relates in some way to their activities in household work. As the next section shows, there is considerable room for expanding production of consumables that households routinely buy.

4.7.2 Household consumption. The surveyed families depended to a surprising extent on purchase of everyday necessities. The vast majority (over 90%) buy vegetables, grains/flour, and meat rather than producing these commodities themselves. Also a substantial majority (over 50%) buy bread, eggs, milk products, honey, jam, chickens, and tailoring services. Substantial but smaller numbers buy water (33%), knitted goods (31%), needlework decorations (23%), wood (24%) and even animal dung (16%) for fuel.

Almost all the families could save household resources by producing these items themselves rather than buying them, and many could probably sell to, or at least barter some of these items to neighbors or at nearby markets. The ones that could be most conveniently produced, depending on the family's circumstances, are vegetables, bread, eggs, poultry, honey, jam, tailoring/sewing, knitted goods, and needlework decoration. Some require skills that could be taught through the CEDPA program in the manner of 4-H groups elsewhere.

One significant saving of household resources, which also has important environmental implications, relates to expenditures on fuels for cooking. Every household pays for fuel or spends considerable time and effort gathering available substitutes. Simple solar stoves could cut these costs considerably, and could provide healthful and cheap means of purifying water.

4.7.3 Children's contribution to household work. Considerable work in the sample households is accomplished by children, almost all of it by girls. Out of 14 household tasks identified by the field participants, a majority of them (11) were almost exclusively carried out by girls with little or no help from their brothers (94% of the families had children of both sexes). These included child care, sewing, milking animals, cleaning the house and yard, baking bread, washing clothes, shopping, preparing foods

for cooking/eating, washing dishes, making cheese/yoghurt, and carrying water. A substantial number of boys, but still only about half as many as girls, collected fuel for cooking. Girls (21%) tended animals with almost the same frequency as boys (22%). Only in one task—field work, were boys reportedly more engaged than girls.

Girls therefore contribute far more significantly to family labor than boys. This conclusion is reinforced by evidence about the kinds of tasks they do. For example, girls' work contribution is significant at an earlier age; boys' work contributions only become significant when they have attained at least minimal levels of physical strength and responsibility. Girls' work is varied and may require skills that develop over time, as in bread making, food preparation, and even water carrying. Girls' work consumes a considerable period of every day in every household. Boys' work, by contrast, is only required in some households and may be largely seasonal. For example, in 65% of the surveyed households there were no animals to tend, and in 63% there was no fieldwork to do. Thus in over half the families, no work at all was required of boys.

Across the governorates, the girls in very similar proportions assisted in the same tasks of the households. The only differences occurred where circumstances differed (for example there were no animals to milk among the Cairo families). The same was true for boys for whom parents reported no contribution at all to household production in Cairo and Kalubia.

The main implications of the fact that girls' contribute more to household work than boys' are that:

- Competing uses for a girl's time such as schooling are a greater burden on the household than for a boy's time
- If schooling does not contribute significantly to the life skills a girl needs (and also consumes large amounts of her time), she may suffer doubly by not learning all the skills she needs from her mother.
- Girls will have fewer hours and less predictable time periods in a day when they are free for training programs, and they may have less energy to devote to such programs.
- Girls will benefit from labor saving technologies that allow them to spend more time acquiring other skills they need.

5 Summary and implications

In summary, the survey has provided information on the skill levels, knowledge and contributions to household production of a sample of young rural girls, as well as on the conditions and circumstances in their families that affect acquisition of these skills. This section summarizes some of the main findings and their implications for the CEDPA project. The following section recommends training needs that are suggested by study results.

The main findings of the report and their implications for CEDPA activities are:

5.1 Participation in formal education.

- Only one-quarter of the girls in the sample households completed significant levels of education (5 or more years) compared to 40% of the boys.
- The trend in the current younger generation is for increased rates of participation in formal schooling over parents. This appears to be a time when many enroll in school, but few continue to levels where they are functionally literate.
- The main reasons reported for the non-participation of children were "poverty" and "tradition".
- The higher the economic level of the child the more likely he or she will have completed significant levels of schooling and the less likely he or she would have had no formal education at all. However, there is little difference in participation between boys and girls of similar economic background when the factor of "tradition" (the persistent tendency in all groups to send fewer girls to school) is removed.
- The costs of schooling can be considerable for poor families with several children. Parents in the sample estimated average annual primary pupil cost at 133LE.
- Tradition is reported less frequently in the younger generation than it was in the older generation.
- For those who use this reason, tradition is expressed in terms of protecting a girls' reputation before marriage, of her special role which is not particularly enhanced by schooling, and of a need for a family to conform to perceived norms that conflict with schooling. Other parents however rationalize sending girls to school for the very same reasons: to help her find a husband, to enhance her role as wife and mother, and to conform with modern norms concerning the education of girls.
- Girls and their mothers say it is primarily fathers who prevent girls from going to school for traditional reasons.

Implications for CEDPA activities

- The majority of girls have not completed significant levels of formal education to ensure a basic skills foundation. Because traditional values are weakening, many parents are likely to welcome programs which help their out-of-school daughters catch up with those attending formal schooling.
- To encourage the participation of poor girls, CEDPA programs need to be free of cost, organized at times suitable to the participants, and shortened to the minimum time possible.
- Advocacy activities need to be directed in part to the village level and specifically toward changing the views of fathers about their responsibilities toward their daughters. The logical approach is through village civil and religious leaders, and through continuation of focal group discussions.

5.2 Basic knowledge/information levels

- There are basic gaps in girls' knowledge of first aid, hygiene, and health.
- Half the families report eating two or fewer food categories in a day
- Parents answer most questions about preventive and reproductive health "correctly" but often do not practice what they preach.
- The circumcision of girls is close to being a universally approved practice

Implications for CEDPA activities

- First aid, hygiene, nutrition and health information should be a priority of CEDPA training. Part of the training should include expanding girls' capacity to practice what they learn, as for example, in learning how to produce a variety of foods for daily consumption where it is practicable.
- While parents articulate appropriate attitudes about preventative and reproductive health, girls are likely to imitate parents' contradictory practice if not provided with training that lets them understand these issues themselves.
- Advocacy activities are needed to educate parents about the deleterious effects of circumcision, again with the help of community leaders and through the vehicle of the focus groups.

5.3 Literacy and numeracy skills

- Few girls have satisfactory competency levels in literacy; none have them in numeracy.
- Girls from poor families have considerably lower scores in literacy than girls from other backgrounds; but their scores were not significantly different in numeracy, perhaps showing the residual effects of daily practice.
- Number of years of schooling correlates positively with literacy and numeracy scores.

Implications for CEDPA activities

- To provide girls with the basic set of skills they need requires a full scale literacy and numeracy course. There should not be rigid limitations on which rural girls can participate since girls of all ages, education and economic levels appear to need the training.
- Literacy/numeracy programs need to be scheduled so they are convenient to the needs of poor girls (see above) who should comprise the bulk of the participants. Numeracy will be most effectively taught through examples from daily life.
- Advocacy activities are needed to encourage parents to keep girls in formal programs until they complete primary level or higher, and in the case of out-of-school girls to commit them to lengthy participation in literacy programs.

5.4 Household income, work, and consumption

- While males are the main earners of family income, females contribute in a variety of ways to household income.
- Girls do far more household work than their brothers and their contribution is significant at an earlier age; is daily, and much of it requires specialized skills.
- Rural households purchase rather than produce a variety of goods.

Implications for CEDPA activities

- Training should include income generating skills. These skills are more likely to be adopted if they are seen as appropriate to the roles and responsibilities of women.
- Girls may have little time for training if they are involved in much of the household work. Courses need to be conveniently scheduled, and might usefully include training in labor-saving technologies, time management, and organizational short-cuts.
- Training should include skills for the home production of every day needs. Participants should become aware of how savings in these areas are as important as income generation. Such training may also prove attractive to parents who would see in these skills immediate advantages to their households, as well as to their daughters' futures.
- Advocacy activities are needed to raise the consciousness of parents about the contributions of girls' to household production and to demonstrate that the quality of their contribution can be enhanced through training.

6. Recommendations for CEDPA programs

The findings suggest that program interventions (within the scope of this project) should address three needs: for information, for skills and for advocacy. The following section recommends specific areas for the development of program interventions, and some conditions that are necessary to impact most effectively on the project goal of broadening the options of rural girls. The elaboration of the findings are based on field observations.

6.1 Information needs

The survey indicates a number of areas where rural girls do not have the information they need to live healthy, qualitatively sound lives. Training packages designed under CEDPA need to communicate specific types of information that help girls make informed decisions about their lives. It is important that the training be provided in the context of the girls' own experiences and specific needs, and that the information not become too technical or complex. Each training unit should address the question of how the information can be transformed into appropriate behavior changes.

Topics for the training units should include, among others identified later by the field workers:

- **The girl herself:** as an individual, in relation to her family and her community, her needs, her rights, her responsibilities

- **Hygiene and health:** basic household cleanliness, spread of diseases common to the village and ways of preventing them, health hazards, ways of addressing simple health problems such as diarrhea and colds.
- **Nutrition:** balanced diets, the part different food groups play in contributing to general health, nutrition needs for different groups: infants, children, adolescents, pregnant and lactating women; cheap ways to vary the diet.
- **Basic first aid:** what to do for simple problems such as cuts and abrasions, and for more complicated problems such as broken bones and burns before consulting a doctor.
- **Reproductive health** (a sensitive issue in some communities that needs to be considered on a case by case basis): the girls' body and its changes with puberty; circumcision, reproduction, family planning, early marriage, family size.

6.2 Skills training

While girls possess numerous skills related to household work, few allow them to extend their options more broadly. Through CEDPA training girls should be allowed to choose options for skill development which can appropriately be used in their environment. Part of developing a better self-image, is the capacity to make choices about training that will develop the self.

Literacy and numeracy. Literacy and numeracy should be high on the list of training options provided to young girls, most of whom do not have adequate competencies in either area. It will be important that the training be conducted with systematic instructional materials tested for learning results so the course does not recreate the frustrating experiences of the formal system.

Income generation. Poor households always need money. The tradition that women control the use of their earned money has development impact that is well known. Women should be encouraged to earn even incidental amounts in order to broaden their options, and if needed later on, to prepare them to seek other forms of steady income. CEDPA training in income generation skills is more likely to prove effective if it concentrates in areas:

- Where women have demonstrated that they can successfully generate income, such as sewing clothes for neighbors, making handicrafts, and selling produce, prepared foods, poultry, and eggs; these skills can be taught to others, improved upon, and expanded in logical directions (see above);
- Which relate to women's current roles so as not to conflict with their on-going responsibilities at home, to allow even traditionalist women to engage in these activities—such as home food and handicraft (e.g. baskets) production;
- Which are non-traditional but build on the strengths of women's networks, such as small home and appliance repairs, building skills, etc.

The project should not waste the girls' time making frivolous decorative items (such as tissue box holders or doilies) which are not used in low-income homes. Rather it should concentrate on items that are routinely bought in the community.

Resource saving. Local women are not aware that money saved is the equivalent of income earned. A number of skills could be usefully learned in the areas of:

- Home production of items which are now frequently bought by households, including vegetables, bread, eggs, poultry, honey, jam, tailoring/sewing, knitted goods, and needlework decoration; excess production could be bartered or sold to neighbors and might lead ultimately to larger production;
- Time saving, which though not perceived as a valued resource in villages, might lead to increased participation of girls in education and training programs; training could take the form of organization and management of household work; and
- Fuel saving which is one of the most costly items in household consumption from the perspective of financial costs and energy expended in fuel collection. Environmental groups in Egypt might be willing to cooperate in training girls to use alternative types of fuel.

Work saving. Females are the most hard-working members of rural families. Use of the skills outlined above may increase the work load of women unless means are found to compensate with work saving devices or better organization of girls' and women's daily activities. Work-saving technologies, like milk separators, butter makers, foodblenders and grinders are available but often are more expensive than single families can afford. Cooperative money-saving groups may make it possible for a neighborhood to share in the costs of technologies, or to cooperate in tasks such as child care and animal tending. As part of their training girls might be asked to analyze their work tasks and determine ways to carry them out more efficiently. They might find that simple inexpensive technologies like solar cookers could cut down on the time they use in gathering fuel. Introducing these technologies to her family might enhance the status of a young girl in the eyes of other family members, and allow them to see her contributions to the household as immediately worthwhile even though she will eventually move on to another household.

6.3 Advocacy

Advocacy activities of the CEDPA project are the responsibility of the Institute for Research and Training on Family Planning (IRTFP) in Alexandria. Mainly these activities as now planned direct attention to nationwide and governorate level institutions. Advocacy also needs to be carried out at the grassroots level, and specifically directed at the parents whose daughters will become part of the training activities. The need for certain types of advocacy have already been discussed above. In summary, the specific types of advocacy required in the target villages for parents and especially fathers are consciousness raising about:

- The rights of girls to the equivalent benefits as boys: education, food, medical care, etc.
- The importance for a girl of enrolling in and completing basic education in the formal system
- The importance of enrolling in and completing literacy courses as an alternative if the girl is not eligible for the formal system or has dropped out
- The importance of girls' contributions to household production
- How girls' contributions to the household can be both qualitatively and quantitatively improved through training
- The problems of girls' circumcision, early marriage, frequent pregnancies, large family size

6.4 Conditions for participation and impact.

It goes without saying that programs for girls in rural areas of Egypt need certain conditions to make them attractive to the parents and the girls. The environment should be a protected one. Fees should be kept low, or free. Timings should not conflict with times when girls are most busy with their work around the house. There should be a clear resource-saving, female role enhancing, or income generating benefit from the training. The training format should provide opportunities for the girl herself to make choices about her own needs for development, and should allow her to contribute in meaningful and visible ways to better family production in order for her to gain greater status in the eyes of her parents and siblings.

Communities differ considerably in the extent to which they may need various types of training. Training programs need to be packaged in units which can be combined to form the correct mix of topics or courses for each individual community.

Girls cannot be expected to make changes in their lives as a result of the training if they are not given the practical tools to do so. Many training units will require sections teaching practical applications of the learning such as, agricultural activities that increase the variety of foods available to the families, building a simple solar stove to conserve on fuel, etc. At a minimum, girls should be asked to practice what they learn (such as first aid procedures) or provide some evidence that they have recognized the changes that need to take place (like a checklist of cleanliness behaviors a girl has engaged in). The weakest link in any training program comes in the transformation of learned knowledge into behavioral change.

6.5 Measuring training impact

Training objectives: To measure the training impact requires a clear definition of project objectives and especially the objectives with regard to the NGOs, the target girls, and the training packages.

Because some of these objectives have changed since the beginning of the project it is important to redefine them in clear and measurable terms. For example, the specific objectives might be defined as follows:

For NGOs

- Representatives of the NGOs will have completed an RD&E cycle of identifying the training needs, developing training packages, testing them in limited field experiments, and modifying them as needed
- The NGOs will have provided training in x number of areas, to x number of villages, and x number of girls
- The NGOs will have carried out x number of advocacy discussions with x number of fathers, x number of mothers

For target girls

- X number of girls will have studied x number of training units (broken down by unit)
- Independent spot tests of x number of girls will have shown that they can recall 80% (or some other standard) of the main points of the units
- In discussions, parents will provide concrete behavioral evidence of how what girls have learned in the training (broken down by type of unit) has been used in daily life

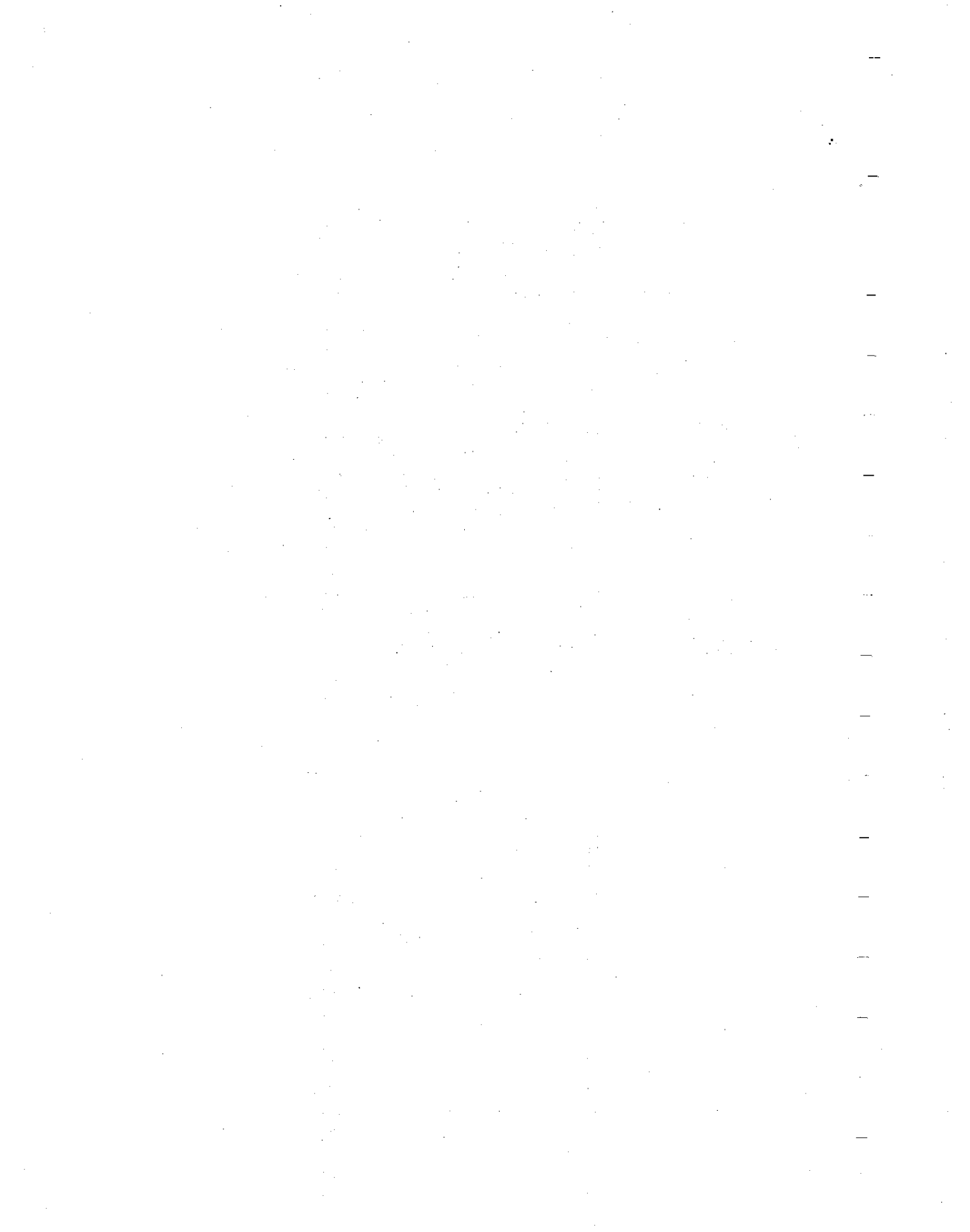
- The majority of girls will report that they find the training interesting and useful

For the training units

- X number of the recommended (by the needs assessment survey) training units will be prepared, tested, and made ready for widespread use
- Each unit will include a definition of the main points it is to cover that can be used in assessing the extent to which the unit's messages are conveyed
- Units will be simple enough for illiterate facilitators to use (as reported by a majority of facilitators)
- Units will be interesting, defined as engaging the girls' attention, and with illustrations relevant to the context (as reported by a majority of the girls' or the facilitators)

Assumptions. The field data show that girls lack basic information and skills that could potentially improve their lives and options. Without the information and skills it would be difficult for their behavior to change and even with them it is not possible to predict that changes will actually occur. Therefore, it needs to be assumed in cases where it is impossible to observe behavioral changes (because they are long-term or carried out privately) that the training in itself is a good that is necessary but not sufficient for change. For this reason, project evaluators will have to rely primarily on behavioral evidence that can be observed, like numbers of training courses, numbers of participants, concrete aspects of training, learning results and attitudes about training, while they look for evidence of changes with broader development implications.

Impact measurement. Once the objectives for each component are clear, assessment can be made by determining the extent to which the objectives have been met. This will be made easier if information on the program is routinely recorded, and if the developers of the program conduct continuous formative evaluations of the training units to ensure their performance before they are disseminated broadly.



ANNEX A

FIELDWORKERS FROM PARTICIPATING NGOS

The following staff have participated in CEDPA workshops:

- **Minya**

5 Supervisors from CEOSS

- **Bani Suef**

1 Member of the Young Women's Muslim Association

1 Board Member of the Young Men's Muslim Association

1 Staff Member of the Ministry of Social Affairs representing a newly formed NGO

2 Members of Women's Development Association

2 Staff Members of ICA

- **Fayoum**

3 Staff representing 3 NGOs working with CARE

1 from the CDA in Bifdmeen

1 from the CDA in Tirsa

1 from the CDA in Abjjj

- **Cairo**

4 Supervisors from CEOSS

- **Sharkia and Kalubia**

2 Doctors from Al Azhar Centre

- **Alexandria**

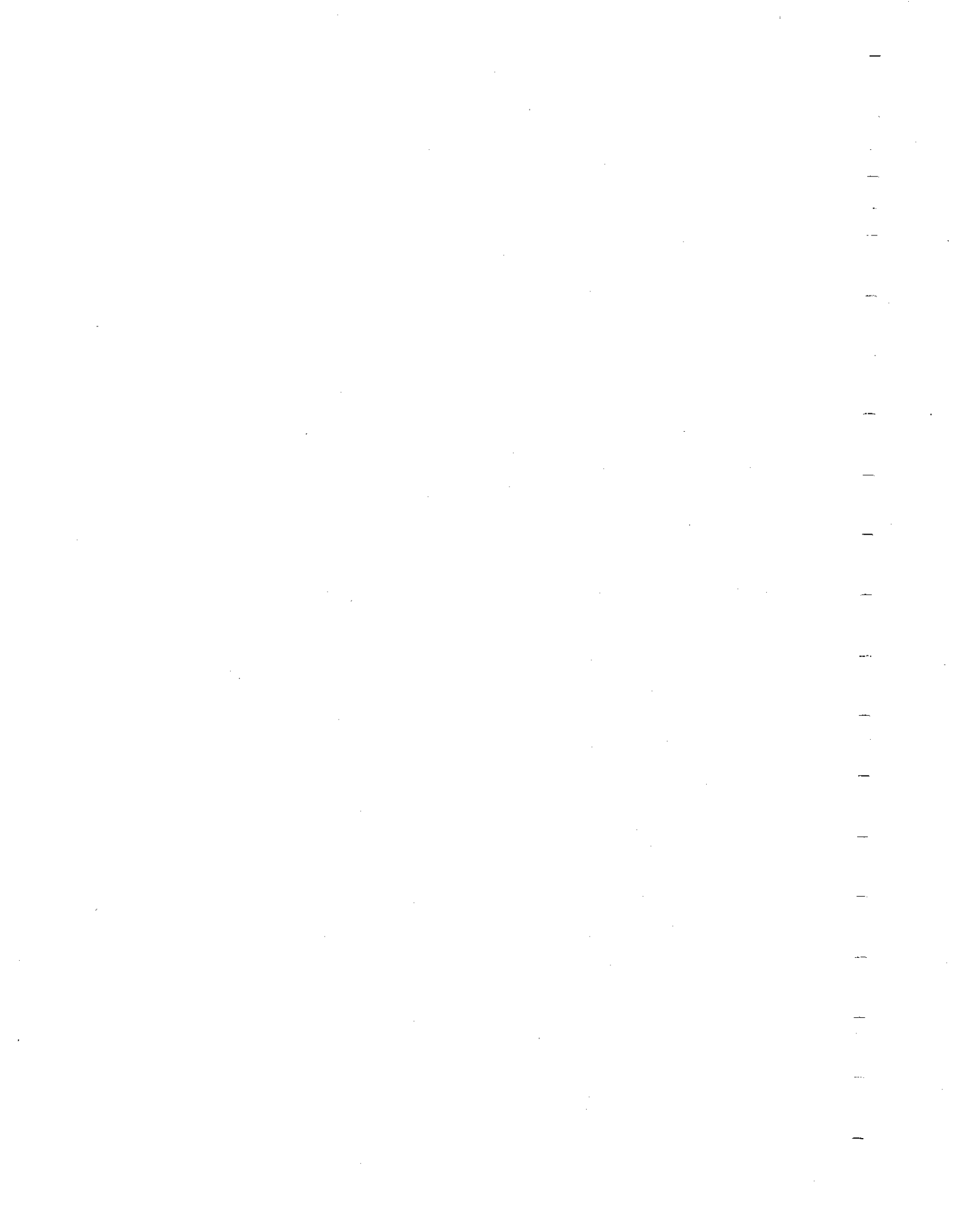
4 Staff from the Institute for Training and Research in Family Planning

ANNEX B

SURVEY COMMUNITIES AND HOUSEHOLDS

Households Bani Suef	
Bayad al Arab	10
Bani Sulaiman	10
Fashion/Manshiya	10
Fashion/Esbet Abu Tabak	10
Biba/Esbet al Safi	10
	<hr/>
	50
Fayum	
Tarza	10
Abgig	10
Nimr/Fadmiin	10
	<hr/>
	30
Minya	
Sharoonah	9
Taiba	10
Samalut	10
Dair al Basha	10
	<hr/>
	39
Kalubia	
Tanan	9
Cairo	
Hekr al Sakini	10
Hekr Haham Agha	15
Asal	15
	<hr/>
	40
Sharkiya	
Kafr al Shubki	10
Grand Total	
	178

21 from Bani Suef



ANNEX C

DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

1. Household survey instrument (see attached)

The two purposes of the household survey instrument were a) to establish baseline data on gender inequities, household practices and attitudes that limit girls' participation and b) to determine the general level of parents' knowledge and attitudes about practices that relate to development indices. It was therefore both a baseline and a needs assessment instrument at the same time.

The instrument was developed in two parts. The first consisted of a family information form adapted by the participants from an instrument provided by Jean Weidemann. The second consisted of questions developed by the participants and refined by the consultants to determine:

- Health, nutrition and preventative health practices
- Attitudes about family size, age of marriage, and female circumcision
- Division of child work within the family
- Income generation within the family
- Household expenditures/household production
- Schooling expenses
- Economic level of the household

The instrument was field tested by the workshop participants in two Cairo sites where the NGO CEOSS is working.

2. Skills test (see attached)

The skills test was developed to determine young girls' knowledge of basic life skills, including literacy and numeracy. The test was adapted from one developed by the National Institute of Psychology of Qaidi Azam University in Islamabad, Pakistan. It consists of questions concerning health, first aid and cleanliness, as well as basic competencies of reading, writing, comprehension and simple arithmetic. It was administered to one girl in each household between the ages of 9 and 20. The test was tried in the field (in the two CEOSS Cairo sites) before it was finalized and taken to the target villages.

3. Focus group outline

A brief outline was prepared by the consultants describing how to use focus groups to elicit the communities' attitudes about issues relevant to the training program. The fieldworkers were asked to conduct four focus group discussions in each target community with fathers, mothers, brothers and girls from the households which were surveyed. The four questions that were to be discussed included:

- Is education important to girls? Why?
- Why do some girls not enroll in school?
- Why do some girls drop out of school before completing their education? How many years of education should girls have?
- What kinds of education programs would you feel were useful for girls in your village?

A facilitator was to conduct the sessions and a note taker was to write down the points raised. The report of the sessions were then discussed in the May workshop as a preliminary to preparing initial sets of training materials.



**PARTNERSHIP PROJECT FOR GIRLS AND YOUNG WOMEN
HOUSEHOLD INTERVIEW**

Interview should be administered to a family having a girl between the ages of 9 and 20.

Date of interview _____ Interviewer name _____

- 1. Respondent's full name _____
- 2. Family No. _____
- 3. Village _____
- 4. District _____
- 5. Governorate _____

Part I: Household General Data

	Fam. mem. name	Relation to head (a)	Highest educa. class (b)	Gender (c)	Age (d)	Marital Status (e)	Resid. at pres. (f)	Occup. for non-enr/d.o. (g)	Reasons (h)
1.									
2.									
3.									
4.									
5.									
6.									
7.									
8.									
9.									
10.									
11.									
12.									
13.									
14.									
15.									

a) Relation to head: head=1, spouse=2, son=3, daughter=4

b) Level of education: Illiterate=X Reads/writes without formal schooling=Y Last completed class of formal educa=1, 2, 3,...etc.

c) Gender: Male=1 Female=2

e) Marital status: Single=1 Married=2 Widowed=3 Divorced=4

f) Living at this place=1 Living elsewhere=2

g) Self-employed agricultural worker=1 Self-employed other=2 Wage earner: private sector=3 Wage earner: civil servant=4 Student/trainee/apprentice=5 Unpaid family worker=6 Military=7 Unemployed but able=8 Unable to work (too young, too old, physically handicapped)=9 Other (specify)=10

Part 2: Household practices/attitudes

Interviewer: Ask these questions and tick the proper box

9. Which of the following do you buy and which do you produce in the household?

Yes=tick No=N Not applicable= -

	Buy	Produce
Water		
Vegetables		
Grains		
Bread		
Eggs		
Milk, cheese, yoghurt		
Honey		
Jams		
Chickens		
Meat		
Tailoring		
Knitting		
Needle work		
Wood		
Animal dung		
Other (specify)		

10. Costs of primary education

a) How many children are in primary school in the household? Number _____

b) Estimate the annual costs of one girl child in formal primary school?

Estimated annual cost

Fees
Uniforms
Books
Supplies
Tutoring
Other costs (specify)

Total

11. Interviewer: Estimate the socio-economic level. Tick one

Well off
Sufficient
Below average
Poor

Estimated economic level

**PARTNERSHIP PROJECT FOR GIRLS AND YOUNG WOMEN
LIFE SKILLS TEST**

Administer to one girl per household in the age of 9 to 20.

1. Name: _____ 2. Age: _____
3. Father's full name: _____
4. Family No. _____
5. Has she ever gone to school? Yes ___ No ___
6. Does she go to school now? Yes ___ No ___
7. What is the last class she completed? _____
8. How many years did she study? _____
9. What type of school did she attend? Government ___ Private ___
10. Is the father educated? Yes ___ No ___
11. What is the last class he completed? _____
12. Is the mother educated? Yes ___ No ___
13. What is the last class she completed? _____
14. What is the economic level of the house?

Well off	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sufficient	<input type="checkbox"/>
Below average	<input type="checkbox"/>	Poor	<input type="checkbox"/>

Interviewer: Ask the child the following questions:

15. If the water is not potable, how can you make it potable?

Write the answer: _____

Yes No Don't know

Answer is correct: _____

16. You should wash your hands before doing what?
(Correct answer: Before eating)

Write the answer: _____

Yes No

Don't know

Answer is correct:

17. You should wash your hands after doing what?
(Correct answer: After using the WC)

Write the answer: _____

Yes No

Don't know

Answer is correct:

18. If your finger is cut what should be done to stop the bleeding?

Write the answer: _____

Yes No

Don't know

Answer is correct:

19. Of boys and girls, who in your opinion should go to school?

Write the answer: _____

Yes No

Don't know

Answer is correct:

20. Who is the president of Egypt?

Write the answer: _____

Yes No

Don't know

Answer is correct:

Ask the child to read the following:

21. "Mother" Read correctly Yes ___ No ___

22. "House" Read correctly Yes ___ No ___

23. "Village" Read correctly Yes ___ No ___

24. "Country" Read correctly Yes ___ No ___

25. "Neighbor" Read correctly Yes ___ No ___

26. "Suad has little chickens that she takes care of."

Read correctly Yes ___ No ___

27. "Nadya lives in the village. She is married and has three girls. Her husband works in the field. She raises chickens and sells the eggs. Her girls go to school."

Read correctly Yes ___ No ___

Ask the girl the following questions:

28. How many girls does Nadya have?

Answered correctly Yes ___ No ___

29. Where do the girls go?

Answered correctly Yes ___ No ___

30. What does Nadya do to earn money?

Answered correctly Yes ___ No ___

Ask the girl to write the following:

31. Write your name.

Written correctly Yes ___ No ___

32. Write the name of your village.

Written correctly Yes ___ No ___

33. Turn over the paper and ask her to write "My country Egypt is beautiful"

Written correctly Yes ___ No ___

34. Ask child to count from 60 to 70

Counted correctly Yes ___ No ___

35. Ask child to write the number "3"

Written correctly Yes ___ No ___

36. Ask child to write the number "49"

Written correctly Yes ___ No ___

37. Ask child to write the number 500

Written correctly Yes ___ No ___

Ask child to solve the following problems:

38. "You bought tomatoes for 3 pounds and oranges for 2 pounds. How much did you spend?"

(Correct answer is "LE5") Answered correctly Yes ___ No ___

39. "You have 9 pounds. You bought a book and a pen for 6 pounds. How many pounds do you have left?"

(Correct answer is "LE3") Answered correctly Yes___ No___

40. "You bought 4 pens. The price of one pen is 2 pounds. How much did you spend for all four?"

(Correct answer is "LE8") Answered correctly Yes___ No___

41. "You divided 15 pounds between 3 children. How many did each receive?"

(Correct answer is "LE5") Answered correctly Yes___ No___

ANNEX D

EXPERT LIST OF RURAL GIRLS' NEEDS

The participants who are expert field workers were asked to describe the educational needs of rural girls and the constraints that prevented them from meeting these needs. The general categories of girls' needs they identified as a group were:

- Self-enlightenment which involves self-understanding, confidence, knowledge of her rights, etc.
- Health information
- Education—literacy and numeracy skills
- Life skills and knowledge
- Reproductive health
- Income generation/savings skills

In groups, they next produced an exhaustive list of needs and constraints related to these general categories. Each item was written on a slip of paper and then separated into four piles based on the appropriate way to address the need. The categories they used to classify interventions were:

- Advocacy to engage the support of:
 - Family members
 - Community leaders
 - National leaders
- Information/knowledge
- Skills learning
 - Literacy
 - Numeracy
 - Income generation/savings
- (Can not be solved by this project)

The detailed lists of needs provides a set of training objectives for those who will be developing intervention programs.



ANNEX E

SUMMARY DATA REPORT

Household Questionnaire Part 2*
Skills Test Results

*Part 1 includes information on family histories

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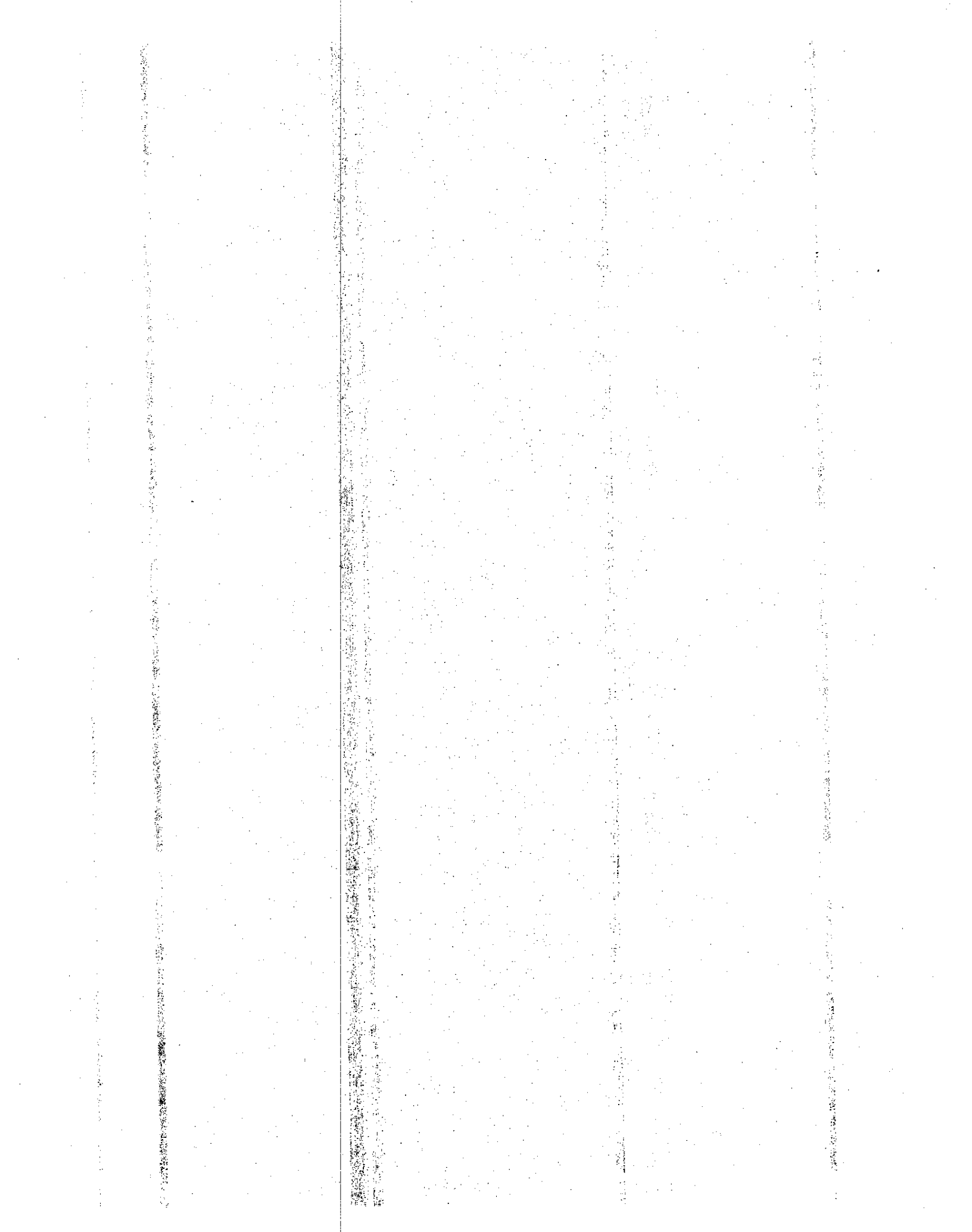
ALL

Partnership Project For Girls and Young Women									
Part 2: Household Practices/Attitudes									
		No. Correct	% Correct	No. Incorrect	% Incorrect	No. Don't know	% Don't know		
1	If children suffer from diarrhea, what do you do?	109	73	38	26	1	1		
2	How can you save children from fatal diseases like polio and measles?	130	87	16	11	2	1		
3	What did you eat yesterday?								
a	Vegetables	92	62	34	23	22	15		
b	Fruits	21	14	92	62	35	23		
c	Bread/grain/pasta	143	96	5	3	0	0		
d	Meat/poultry/eggs	64	43	60	40	24	16		
e	Milk/cheese/youghurt	60	40	61	41	27	18		
4	What is the ideal age for a girl to marry?	117	79	25	17	6	4		
5	Should a girl be circumcised?	32	21	109	73	7	5		
6	What is the ideal number of children in the family?	119	80	25	17	4	3		
7	Which of the following kinds of household work do children in this family do?	No. Girls	% Girls	No. Boys	% Boys	No. Both	% Both	No. NA	% NA
	Child care	126	93	0	0	4	1	18	0
	Sewing clothes	64	43	0	0	1	1	83	56
	Milking the animals	26	17	1	1	0	0	121	81
	Cleaning the house/yard	135	91	0	0	5	3	8	5
	Baking nread	83	56	0	0	0	0	65	44
	Washing clothes	135	91	0	0	1	1	12	8
	Shopping	109	73	1	1	5	3	33	22
	Preparing food (cutting, etc.)	125	84	1	1	4	3	18	12
	Cooking food	136	91	0	0	0	0	12	8
	Washing dishes	19	13	17	11	3	2	109	73
	Tending animals	21	14	0	0	0	0	127	85
	Making youghurt/cheese	41	28	14	9	1	1	92	62
	Collecting fuel (wood, animal)	3	2	36	24	3	2	106	71
	Field	65	44	0	0	2	1	81	54
	Carrying water	137	92	7	5	3	2	1	1

8	Which of the following do members of the household do to gain income?	No. Girls	% Girls	No. Boys	% Boys	No. Both	% Both	No. N/A	% N/A
		Salaried employment	12	8	28	19	0	0	108
Daily labor	13	9	65	44	8	5	62	42	
Carpentry	1	1	6	4	0	0	141	95	
Sewing clothes	10	7	1	1	1	1	136	91	
Handcrafts	9	6	7	5	0	0	132	89	
Selling products	6	4	8	5	1	1	133	89	
Selling crops	2	1	20	13	1	1	125	84	
Selling animals	1	1	28	19	3	2	116	78	
Selling poultry	2	1	2	1	0	0	144	97	
Selling prepared foods	27	18	1	1	0	0	120	81	
Selling eggs	31	21	1	1	1	1	115	77	
Renting land	0	0	11	7	0	0	137	92	
Renting machinery	0	0	11	7	0	0	137	92	
9	Which of the following do you buy and which do you produce in the household?	No. Buy	% Buy	No. Produce	% Produce	No. Neither	% Neither		
		Water	50	34	30	20	68	46	
Vegetables	144	97	2	1	2	1			
Grains	144	97	2	1	2	1			
Bread	92	62	55	37	1	1			
Eggs	86	58	60	40	2	1			
Milk, cheese, youghurt	89	60	34	23	25	17			
Honey	101	68	0	0	47	32			
Jams	72	48	1	1	75	50			
Chickens	86	58	48	32	14	9			
Meat	138	93	1	1	9	6			
Tailoring	116	78	9	6	23	15			
Knitting	40	27	16	11	92	62			
Needle work	29	19	2	1	117	79			
Wood	30	20	41	28	77	52			
Animal dung	19	13	34	23	95	64			
10	Costs of primary education	Average							
		a Average number of children in the primary school		2					
b Average annual costs of a girl in primary school		31							
Fees		36							
Uniforms		5							
Books		38							
Supplies		70							
Tutoring		53							
Total		201							

		No. Well to do	% Well to do	No. Sufficient	% Sufficient	No. Below average	% Below average	No. Poor	% Poor
11	Percentage socio-economic level	3	2	32	22	45	30	68	46
LIFE SKILLS TEST									
			Average						
2	Average girl age		14						
8	Average number of years of study		5						
		No. Yes	Yes	No. No	% No				
5	Percentage of girls having gone to school	111	74	38	26				
6	Percentage of girls that go to school now	42	28	107	72				
		No. Government	% Government	No. Private	% Private	No. N/A	% N/A		
9	Percentage of type of school	106	71	6	4	37	25		
		No. Educated	% Educated	No. Not educated	% Not educated	No. N/A	% N/A		
10	Percentage of educated fathers	46	31	102	68	1	1		
12	Percentage of educated mothers	20	13	126	85	3	2		
		No. Well to do	% Well to do	No. Sufficient	% Sufficient	No. Below average	% Below average	No. Poor	% Poor
14	Percentage of economic level	3	2	39	26	44	30	63	42
		No. Correct	% Correct	No. Not Correct	% Not correct	No. Don't know	% Don't know		
15	If the water is not potable, how can you make it potable?	12	8	114	77	23	15		
16	You should wash your hands before doing what?	125	84	18	12	6	4		
17	You should wash your hands after doing what?	19	13	125	84	5	3		
18	If your finger is cut what should be done to stop the bleeding?	37	25	105	70	7	5		

19	Of boys and girls, who in your opinion should go to school?	128	85	20	13	3	2		
20	Who is the president of Egypt?	130	87	19	13				
	Reading								
21	Mother	71	48	77	52	1	1		
22	House	73	49	74	50	2	1		
23	Village	59	40	88	59	2	1		
24	Country	61	41	86	58	2	1		
25	Neighbor	56	38	91	61	2	1		
26	Suad has little chickens that she takes care of	53	36	90	60	6	4		
27	"Nadya lives in the village. She is married and has three girls. Her husband works in the field. She raises chickens and sells the eggs. Her girls go to school"	51	34	95	64	3	2		
28	How many girls does Nadya Have?	64	43	82	55	3	2		
29	Where do girls go?	64	43	82	55	3	2		
30	What does Nadya do to earn money?	52	35	94	63	3	2		
31	Write your name	102	68	40	27	7	5		
32	Write the name of your village	53	36	87	58	9	6		
33	Turn over the paper and ask her to write "My country Egypt is beautiful"	51	34	89	60	9	6		
34	Ask child to count from 60 to 70	103	69	46	31	0	0		
35	Ask child to write the number "3"	91	61	54	36	4	3		
36	Ask child to write the number "49"	76	51	73	49	0	0		
37	Ask child to write the number 500	53	36	96	64	0	0		
	Solving problems:								
38	"You bought tomatoes for 3 pounds and oranges for 2 pounds. How much did you spend?"	137	92	12	8	0	0		
39	"You have 9 pounds. You bought a book and a pen for 6 pounds. How many pounds do you have left?"	115	77	34	23	0	0		
40	"You bought 4 pens. The price of one pen is 2 pounds. How much did you spend for all four?"	104	70	45	30	0	0		
41	"You divided 15 pounds between 3 children. How many did each receive?"	79	53	70	47	0	0		



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سيدا ٥٢ شارع المنيل - جناح ٥٠٠ منزل الأرضة - القاهرة ١١٤٥١

ت. ٣٦٥٤٥٦٧ فاكس: (٢٠٢) ٣٦٥٤٥٦٨