WITHOUT SANITARY TOWELS: THE EXPERIENCES OF PRIMARY SCHOOL GIRLS IN KOROGOCHO SLUM, NAIROBI.

PRESENTED BY

FLORENCE A._TIENO

Reg. No. C/50/P/8235/04

A research project submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Master of Arts degree in Sociology (rural sociology and community development)

November 2007
DECLARATION

This research project is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

FLORENCE A. OTIENO

C50/ P/8235/04

This research project has been submitted for examination with the approval of University of Nairobi

Supervisors

Prof. Enos Njeru :Sign-

Date: 30-11-07

Prof. Octavian: Gakuru

Date:

Department of Sociology

University of Nairobi.
DEDICATION

This research project is dedicated to my late father Paneras Onyango, who was my source of inspiration to pursue further education but did not live to see me accomplish the mission, and to my loving husband George Otieno for his love, encouragement and support while I was busy studying.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This study was motivated by my great concern over the challenges facing the girl child in accessing and actively participating in education. My main concern being the challenge they face during menstruation period since majority of them cannot afford sanitary towels. My utmost gratitude goes to my supervisors Prof. Enos Njeru and Prof. Octavian Gakuru of the Department Of Sociology, University of Nairobi who provided academic guidance, constructive criticism and supervision throughout my study.

My sincere gratitude also goes to Dr. Wilson Otenga of Kenyatta University for his continuous support. Special recognition and gratitude to my student colleagues and lecturers in the department of Sociology, University of Nairobi for their unwavering support. Finally I wish to express my thanks to the headmasters, teachers and non-teaching staff at korogocho primary school and ngunyumu primary school for their cooperation; and not to forget the research assistants who were with me throughout the period of data collection and analysis.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION ................................................................. i

DEDICATION .................................................................................. ii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT .................................................................. iii

TABLE OF CONTENTS .............................................................. iv

LIST OF TABLES ............................................................................ ix

LIST OF FIGURES ........................................................................ xi

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS ........................................... xii

ABSTRACT ................................................................................... xiii

CHAPTER ONE .............................................................................. 1

1.0 Introduction ........................................................................... 1

1.1 Background to the study ....................................................... 1

1.2 Problem statement ............................................................... 2

1.3 Objectives of the study .......................................................... 3

Specific Objectives ..................................................................... 5

1.4 Justification ........................................................................... 5

1.5 Scope and limitation of the study ......................................... 6

1.6 Definition of the key terms ................................................... 7
CHAPTER TWO

Introduction .................................................................................................................. 9

2.1.1 Education ............................................................................................................ 9

2.1.2 Education policy in Kenya .................................................................................. 11

2.1.3 Challenges facing education for all ...................................................................... 13

2.1.4 Girls and Menstruation ....................................................................................... 17

2.1.5 Benefits of educating girls .................................................................................. 23

2.1.6 Factors which hinder girls' participation in education ....................................... 25

2.1.7 Government measures to improve attendance

2.2 Theoretical Framework

2.2.1 Liberal feminism

2.2.2 Marxist Theory

2.2.3 Hall's psychological theory of Recapitulation

2.3 Operationalization of variables ..>.
CHAPTER THREE ................................................................. 35
3.0 Methodology .................................................................. 35
3.1 Introduction .................................................................... 35
3.2 Research Design ............................................................. 35
3.3 Study Site ....................................................................... 35
3.4 Unit of analysis ............................................................... 36
3.5 Units of observation ......................................................... 36
3.6 Sampling and Sample size ............................................... 36
3.7 Data sources and data collection methods ......................... 38
3.8 Data Analysis ................................................................. 41

CHAPTER FOUR ................................................................... 42
4.0 Data presentation and analysis ......................................... 42
4.1 Introduction .................................................................... 42
4.1.1 Background information of respondents ...................... 42
4.2 Effects on the girls self-esteem ........................................ 50
4.2.1 Menstruation ............................................................. 50
4.2.2 Contentment with oneself during menses ..................... 51
4.2.3 Respondents' feeling during menses ............................... 52
4.2.4 Self confidence ........................................................... 53
4.2.5 Shyness

4.3 Effects of lack of sanitary towels on school attendance

4.3.1 Duration of menses

4.3.2 Absenteeism

4.3.3 Availability and disposal of sanitary towels

4.3.4 Affordability of sanitary towels

4.3.5 Disposal of sanitary towels

4.3.6 Availability and state of toilets

4.4 Effects of lack of sanitary towels on girls' participation class

4.4.1 Sitting arrangement

4.4.2 interaction with boys counterpart

4.5 Effect of lack of sanitary towels on the-girls' participation in co-curricular activities

4.5.1 Physical Education

4.5.2 Movement

4.5.3 Withdrawal from friends

4.5.4 Playing with boys counterparts

4.6 Coping Mechanism

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 Summary of findings, conclusion and recommendation

5.1 Summary of Findings

5.2 Conclusion

5.3 Recommendations
5.3.1 Recommendations for further Research ........................................ 75

REFERENCES ...................................................................................... 76

APPENDICES ..................................................................................... 80

SECTION 4 : DATA COLLECTION TOOLS ............................................. 81

APPENDIX IIS .................................................................................... 88

Interview Guide for in depth interviews ................................................. 88

APPEND III: ....................................................................................... 89

Observation guide (Check list for observation) ...................................... 89

APPENDIX IV: .................................................................................... 90

Focus group discussion guide for pupils .............................................. 90

-viii-
# List of Tables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 2.3</td>
<td>Operationalization of variables</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3.0</td>
<td>Main respondent and sampled size</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3.1</td>
<td>A summary of data source, collection methods and tools</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 1</td>
<td>Distribution of respondents by class</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2</td>
<td>Number of children in the respondents' family</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3</td>
<td>Number of girls in the respondent's family</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4</td>
<td>Number of boys in the respondent's family</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 5</td>
<td>Occupation of respondents' mothers</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 6</td>
<td>Occupation of respondents' fathers</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 7</td>
<td>Level of education of respondents' fathers</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 8</td>
<td>Whether the respondents are happy with themselves during menses</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 9</td>
<td>Feelings of respondents during menstruation</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 10</td>
<td>The extent to which respondents felt self confident</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 11</td>
<td>Whether the respondents felt shy during menses</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 12</td>
<td>Whether there are times when the respondents are absent from school</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 13</td>
<td>Frequently of school attendance during menstruation</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 14: Reasons why the respondents miss school during menses .................. 59
Table 15: Whether the respondents have heard of sanitary towels ..................... 60
Table 16: Number of brands of sanitary towels seen by the respondents ............. 60
Table 17: Whether the respondents are provided with sanitary towels ............... 61
Table 18: Types of sanitary towels used by the respondents .......................... 61
Table 19: Number of packets of sanitary towels used by respondents ................ 62
Table 20: Whether it is easy to change .......................................................... 64
Table 21: Availability of water and toilets in respondents’ schools .................... 65
Table 22: Participation in class ................................................................. 66
Table 23: Whether the respondents are comfortable with the setting arrangement 67
Table 24: Whether the respondents are free to interact with boys during menses 67
Table 25: Whether the respondents attend P.E during menses ......................... 68
Table 26: Whether the respondents feel confident with activities that involve movement .... 68
Table 27: Whether the respondents withdraw from friends during menses .......... 69
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Age distribution of respondents .................................................. 44

Figure 2: Marital status of respondent’s parents ........................................ 45

Figure 3: Occupation of respondents mother.

Figure 4: Occupation of respondents fathers .......................................... 49

Figure 5: Age of onset menstruation ........................................................... 51

Figure 6: Demonstrates findings graphically.

Figure 7: Number of days the respondents absent from school ................ 57

Figure 8: Affordability of sanitary towels ................................................... 63

Figure 9: Number of changing times in a day ............................................. 64
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ASAL: Arid and Semi Arid Lands

EFA: Education For All

FPE: Free Primary Education

MDGs: Millennium Development Goals

MOEST: Ministry of Education Science and Technology

NARC: National Rainbow Coalition

NGO: Non-Governmental Organization

SPPS: Statistical Package for Social Science

UNESCO: United Nation Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNICEF: United Nations Children's Educational Fund

UPE: Universal Primary Education
ABSTRACT

This was a study that investigated the experiences of primary school girls without sanitary towels. The study was limited to understanding the relationship between lack of sanitary towels and performance of girls in selected primary schools in Korogocho. It examined the effects of lack of sanitary towels on girls' self-esteem. It also sought to reveal how the lack of sanitary towels has influenced girls' school attendance. Moreover, the study sought to establish the effects of lack of sanitary towels on girls' participation in class and co-curricular activities.

Finally, it investigated the ways in which the girls cope with lacking access to sanitary towels. The pupils were the main respondents. The demographic data helped to establish background of the respondents. The sample was drawn from standard five, six, seven and eight primary school pupils. Data was generated from both secondary and primary sources. Purposive sampling was applied to get the location and district in which the units of observation have the required characteristics. The two schools in Korogocho slums purposively selected were Ngunyumu and Daniel Komboni primary schools. The tool for data collection was a set of questionnaires specifically designed for pupils.

A key approach adopted by the study was Focus Group Discussion (FGD) supplemented by in-depth interviews and also the study made use of direct observations that were guided by an observation guide or checklist. Furthermore, the inferential and descriptive statistics were used for data analysis. Data was coded and entered into the computer for analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

The findings were useful in establishing the effects of lack of sanitary towels on girls' participation in education. Most of the respondents cited that their self-esteem was affected without sanitary towels (19.5%) were happy with themselves during menses, (54%) were not happy, while (25.6%) were average with themselves. The study also revealed that attendance in school was affected where by (78%) of the respondents are found to be missing school during menses while (22%) was found to be attending school during their menses. On the girls' participation in class (78%) indicated that they did not answer questions in class actively and the same did not concentrate in class, while (22%)
participated in class. In participation in the co-curricular activities (51.2%) revealed that (51.2%) participated whereas (48.8%). The study indicated that majority of the respondents (78%) can afford sanitary towels and therefore have devised ways of coping with the menses. (22%) use sanitary towels. Recommendations sought to put in place measures that will improve participation of child in education. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations.

That is Provision of adequate sanitary facilities to girls in all schools regardless of the socioeconomic status, Development of sound educational policies to create awareness of adolescent girls sanitary towels and general hygiene. Inculcate awareness in stakeholders namely the parents/guardians, teachers on adolescent needs for protection and safeguard of their self-esteem. Also to develop relevant training for teachers and educational officers on adolescents psych development and impact of sanitary towels on girls overall education. The ministry of Education to Finance the provision of sanitary towels in all schools; primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.

Policy
CHAPTER ONE

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Background to the study

Education is an important factor in breaking the vicious cycle of poverty. Education allows people to be more productive, earn better wages, protect their health and have a voice in society. The power of Education extends across generations. Access to Education will bring about changes in cognitive ability, which is essential for girls and women's capacity to question, reflect on and act on the conditions of their lives and to gain access to knowledge, information and new ideas (Sweetman Caroline, 2005:16).

According to Beijing Platform for Action 1995, Education is a human right and an essential tool for achieving the goals of equality, development and peace. It is widely believed that millions of young girls never attend school and millions more never complete their education. Discrimination in girls' access to education persists in many areas, owing to customary attitudes, early marriages, pregnancies, inadequate and gender biased teaching and educational materials, sexual harassment, lack of adequate and physically and otherwise accessible schooling facilities. (United Nations 2006:35).

The 1990 world conference on Education for All, pledged to achieve Universal Primary Education by 2000. But in 2000, 104 million school age children were still not in school, of which Fifty seven percent of those not in school were girls and ninety four percent were in developing countries. Mostly in south Asia and Sub Saharan Africa, (EFA Global monitoring report 2003/4:2). The Millennium Development Goals set a more realistic but still difficult deadline of 2015 to realize MDG 2: to achieve universal primary education when all children everywhere should be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. The conference on Education for All recognized that there was chronic neglect of children's right to education, especially that of girls. This is emphasized in MDG3: on promotion of gender equality. It helped re-establish the view of education as being at the heart of
development and enhanced the recognition of the importance of closing the gender gap. (UNDP. 2005).

Of the 862 million illiterate adults in the world, two thirds are women (UNESCO 2002). These disparities justify the global consensus on the compelling need to enhance girl's education and promote equity in education, especially in those countries where the gender gaps are wide, in order to provide girls and boys with equal opportunities and life choices. This consensus is reflected in current moves among donors and international agencies towards greater co-ordination and partnership through the fast track initiative for education (launched at IMF-World Bank meeting 2002), Sector Wide Appropriates (SWAPS) general budget support to National governments and with specific reference to girl's education through the UN Girls Education Initiative (UNGEI). There has been growing interest in partnership to achieve the goals of education for all, as agreed at the world conference on education for all held in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990. Girls' primary completion rate still lags way behind boys' at 76 percent compared to 85 percent. This yarning gender gap means that millions more girls than boys are dropping out each year. As a result, the majority not in school are girls (UNICEF 2004:33).

In sub-Saharan Africa, over 40% of young girls are married by the time they reach 18 years of age in contrast to women in developed countries who marry in later ages. It argues that early marriages of girls is caused by poverty (UNICEF 2003:31) enhancing the physical environment evidence shows that the availability of safe water and separate latrines is a major factor in getting children especially girls to enter and complete school. This was born out in Guinea where enrolment for girls increased; 17 percent and retention rates, increased 20 percent from 1997 to 2002, following improvements in environmental sanitation which include the construction of separate latrines for boys and girls. (UNICEF 2003).

Cost sharing in the education sector in Kenya was mooted in the 1984/88 education plan. It was further reiterated in various policy documents before finally being implemented in December 1989. Its main objective was to encourage increased cost recovery as a way of mobilizing additional resources (Institute of policy analysis and research 2000:1).
In 2003, the Kenya government in its efforts to fulfill its promise to the people, reintroduced free primary education which has opened the doors for all children irrespective of their socio-economic backgrounds to reduce or eliminate pupil non-attendance of school programmes as well as to facilitate 8-years education (National Action Plan on Education for All 2003-2015 :45 MOEST ).

Free primary education has contributed to increased numbers of children joining Primary schools. In the urban slums, pockets of poverty and other disadvantaged areas the communities have not benefited from free primary education as other factors other than levies have kept them out of school (Ibid). At the primary level, enrolment in formal public primary schools grew from 891,533 pupils in 1963 to 7.2 million pupils in 2004 of which 3.5 million were girls and 3.7 million were boys (Education sector policy overview paper 2006).

According to Karuti (2006:85) the girl child is faced with a number of problems for instance purchase of school uniforms, paying exam fees, transport, purchase of school shoes and health care of which sanitary towels is part of it among others.

While education reforms addressed some of equality and gender concerns, many problems for example those affecting adolescent girls remain unattended to. This has not changed and girls continue to face problems unique to their biological or sex status that in the end negatively influence their educational opportunities.

1.2 Problem statement

The age at which girls are starting their menses seems to be getting lower and even girls of eight years are reported to have started (Jennifer Haupt report 2000). The girls who mature early start their periods even at eight years of age. Improved nutrition is believed to be the main reason (http://www.healthology.com/main/article) I he reforms for free primary education which have led to expansion of enrolment and brought to school more girls but still there are disparities in enrolment. While reforms have been introduced partly to address various problems including girls' participation and performance the stakeholders have neglected the problem of the girl child majorly sanitary towels
Challenges are faced due to girl's biological needs, such as menstruation among others. Therefore the question of special needs becomes a challenge, to ensure that, not only do girls enroll but remain and participate actively in school. The girl child also experiences a problem to do with sanitary facilities at school as exemplified by absence of water, disposal toilet facility and the space for changing (FAWEK 2005).

This is likely to impact on the girl in terms of time allocated for class, participation and concentration of class or school work, not forgetting the co-curricula activities where by the girl child has to either declare her status to the teacher or pretend to be sick to avoid participating and being involved in the co-curricula activities. Making the condition likely to assume an image of stigmatization to the girl child. Most of the primary schools in Kenya are mixed day schools. The problem is common in the mixed schools where boys have to sit with girls. The boys ridicule the girls when the latter mess their clothes.

According to Brehm S. Sharon etal (2002:68) there is need for self-esteem. That people with positive self-image tend to be happy, healthy, productive, successful and confident. While people with negative self-image tend to be more depressed. In the absence of sanitary towels the sense of girl's interaction gets interfered with as they feel very uncomfortable being together with boys counterparts. The girl child constantly fears messing her clothing and getting embarrassed. This damages their self-esteem even further. Girls' low self-esteem slows their progress (Dona Dunn, 1997:26). It is this high expectation in the change in behavior that puts pressure on the girl child to not only be good in class but also be neat.

This study attempts to investigate the experiences of primary school girls and how they cope with their special needs. For girls the issue of availability and affordability of sanitary towels raises concern. These would contribute to the confidence and ease with which girls in slums specifically the study area could participate in education and reduce illiteracy levels in the society.
Research questions

This study will answer the following research questions:

1. In what ways does inadequate access to and lack of sanitary towels affect the primary school girls in slum areas?
2. In what major ways does lack of sanitary towels influence the behavior of the affected girls and with what effects on their participation in education?

1.3 Objectives of the study

Broad objective

To study the behavioural impacts of lack of sanitary towels among primary school girls in korogocho slum in Nairobi.

Specific objectives

- To investigate the effects of lack of sanitary towels on the girls' self-esteem.
- To investigate how the lack of sanitary towels has influenced girls' school attendance.
- To establish the effects of lack of sanitary towels on girls' participation in class.
- To investigate the effects of lack of sanitary towels on the girls' participation in co-curricula activities.
- To investigate the ways in which girls cope with lacking access to sanitary towels.

1.4 Justification

Even if free primary education enabled children and adults to access education without paying fees, there are still some cases of school dropouts and resistance by the girl child. In most cases, parents living these areas have a low income that makes them unable to buy the pads as well as providing the basic needs for the family.
Research questions

This study will answer the following research questions:

1. In what ways does inadequate access to and lack of sanitary towels affect the primary school girls in slum areas?
2. In what major ways does lack of sanitary towels influence the behavior of the affected girls and with what effects on their participation in education?

1.3 Objectives of the study

Broad objective

To study the behavioural impacts of lack of sanitary towels among primary school girls in Korogocho slum in Nairobi.

Specific objectives

- To investigate the effects of lack of sanitary towels on the girls' self-esteem.
- To investigate how the lack of sanitary towels has influenced girls' school attendance.
- To establish the effects of lack of sanitary towels on girls' participation in class.
- To investigate the effects of lack of sanitary towels on the girls' participation in co-curricula activities.
- To investigate the ways in which girls cope with lacking access to sanitary towels.

1.4 Justification

Even if free primary education enabled children and adults to access education without paying fees, there are still some cases of school dropouts and resistance by the girl child. In most cases, parents living these areas have a low income that makes them unable to buy the pads as well as providing the basic needs for the family.
Sanitary wear is beyond the reach of many girls because they are too expensive for the parents. This is because the income that their parents get cannot sustain the budget of food and other basic needs.

This study will also add knowledge to the existing knowledge and to provide guideline to the policy makers. This information will be helpful to the education planners, social planners, developers and implementers of programmes for schools. It will be helpful for innovative adjustments within the program for better results. It will also suggest ways in which the government can help the girl child as well as NGO'S that might be interested in providing the pads, free of charge to schools in disadvantaged areas like Korogocho slum.

The studies finding can be useful to different groups who are already working in areas of Education and the girl child in korogocho and Kenya. The research will also provide a basis on which further research in this area may be done to help reduce the suffering of the people in the poverty stricken urban slums.

Despite the numerous studies done on education for the girl child, there is no scholarly work that has been done on the effect of lack of sanitary towels on girls' education. This study therefore, attempts to fill this gap by looking at how lack of sanitary towels affects girls' performance, attendance, participation in academic, co-curricula activities and social activities.

1.5 Scope and limitation of the study

The study covered the selected public primary schools in Korogocho slum area in Nairobi province. It is limited to understanding the relationship between lack of sanitary towels and performance of girls in selected primary schools in Korogocho. The proposed study being an academic study which is time based covered only one slum area in Nairobi due to time and financial limitation to large study area. Being a case study the findings might not be fully representative of the whole slums in the country.
1.6 Definition of the Key Terms

**Sanitary towels:** is a thin pad made of a soft cotton-like material and absorbent item worn by a woman while she is menstruating.

**Menses:** The flow of blood experienced by mature girls or women every month.

**Equity:** It relates to providing fair access to educational opportunities with a reasonable expectation of success for all citizens.

**Equality:** providing equal opportunities with the resources and education.

**(i)rls Completion Kates:** completion is the proportion of a cohort of girls enrolled in standard who actually survive within the primary school cycle till completion of the last grade of the same level.

**Girl echild:** It refers to the female child or a young woman who has began her menses.

**Attendance:** The act of being present in school to go through the learning process.

**Participation:** Taking part in Education activities,

**Sanitary facilities:** facilities that will help in promoting hygiene.

**Self-esteem:** Feeling good about oneself, competent and decent.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Korogocho slum:</strong></th>
<th>An estate which is inhabited by people with low income.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Upper class:</strong></td>
<td>The highest social class consisting of rich people especially owners of firms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Middle class:</strong></td>
<td>Individuals who are in lower managerial positions or white collar occupations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Low class:</strong></td>
<td>The lowest social class consisting of poor people especially those living in a slum.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The review has been done on the following sub-headings;

2.1.1 Education

Free primary education

IMF reports on economic issue no. 33 of 2004. In an ideal world primary Education would be universal and publicly financed and all children would be able to attend school regardless of their parent's ability or willingness to pay. The costs of educating children are far outweighed by the cost of not educating them. According to United Nations Development Program about 113 million children worldwide were not enrolled in school at the end of 2003. (IMF Report 2004).

Malawi and Uganda in the mid 1990s, Malawi replaced a system of user payments with Free Primary Education. Although government spending on primary education rose sharply, quality declined as school enrolment surged by 60 percent leading to overcrowding and a shortage of teachers. A delay in donor funding contributed to the country's failure to prepare adequately for increased enrollment. Teachers' performance also appears to have deteriorated because parents relieved of the financial burden felt less compelled to monitor the teachers. On the other hand, parents were still expected to contribute labor and materials to school construction and to buy school supplies and clothes this together with the opportunity cost, left total costs high for some parents. The results has a rise in dropout rates by 1999, the primary completion rate was only 50 percent. Gender biases persisted as well. (IMF Report 2004).
Uganda moved most of the way toward free Universal primary education in 1997, when it waived tuition for up to four children per household. Families remained responsible for school supplies and contributions as in Malawi and had to purchase uniform and pay final examination fees as well. Uganda did better than Malawi. However in preparation for the influx of new pupils. The government doubled the share of recurrent government spending targeted to primary education and used external aid to train new teachers build classrooms and purchase teaching materials even though educational quality has fallen with high pupil -teacher and pupil classrooms ratios and inadequate materials and net enrolment has declined from 85% in 1997 to 77% in 2000. Gender biases are still reported as in Malawi.

The experiences of these two countries demonstrate that universal public education cannot be achieved simply by abolishing fees and opening classrooms doors, obstacles arise on both supply and demand sides maintaining quality in Education is not just a matter of increasing spending but also good planning, implementation and monitoring. Achieving the goal of universal school attendance in both countries will require measures to relieve the poor parents of all education related costs perhaps through a system of income transfers.

Education that is publicly financed and free to users is both more equitable and more inclusive than education that is paid for by parents. The higher the expenditure is on education, the more likely the families will decide not to educate their children or be forced to choose on which of their children to educate. Some children may not receive education. If children are unschooled because of lack of demand, resulting from their parent's poverty or information problems or a social bias against educating girls, imposing user payment cannot be expected to increase school enrolment unless the revenues from user payments improve school quality sufficiently to overcome demand side impediments. The cost sharing is one major cause of excluding girls and poor children from the formal education system as it forces parents to prioritise who is sent to school. An education policy that is gender sensitive will incorporate
affirmative action in favour of girls to ensure their enrolment, persistence and transition in the education system (UNICEF Kenya 1994).

Masai (1984) on free Primary Education in Kenya a study of the effect of the abolition of school fees in Machakos district talks of the increase in enrolment due to Free Primary Education but does not tackle the issue of the girl child pertaining to sanitary towels. Okoth Stephen Otieno (2001) on free primary education in schools the implications for private primary schools in Nairobi Kenya only deals with the effect that the private schools had due to mass transfers from private to public etc. This study does not investigate issues to do with the girl child as concerns the sanitary towels. According to Perpetua Areba Maliachi (2000) on free primary school education, an assessment of the response by teachers and primary school children from low income groups. A study of Kakamega District. It does not raise questions on the reaction of the girl child concerning sanitary towels.

2.1.2 Education policy in Kenya

The government policy on provision-of education is linked to her economic growth and social welfare and the fact that education is currently seen as a basic human socio-economic right. The later has been recognized explicitly in sec -7 ot the children Act 2001, which states that every child is entitled to free primary education which shall be the responsibility of the government and parents.

This arose due to Kenyan's commitment to the Dakar Framework for Action of April 2002, which re-affirmed the vision of the world Declaration on Education for all made in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990. It stated that all children have the fundamental right to basic education, which must be free. The government has treated education policy as its top agenda when formulating various development agendas. This is evidenced by more than ten reviews of government-established commissions and working parties on the education sector since independence, ending most recently with the Koech Report released in March 2000.

These reviews indicate the extent to which the government and other stakeholders have gone in search of a policy framework and laying strategies to make education
serve the nation and meet the country’s development goals. Despite shifts in policy paradigms the government should adopt and develop a policy that provides free sanitary towels in schools. Therefore the education policy in Kenya has not tackled the issue of experiences of the girl child in primary schools.

Focus on achieving universal primary education. It will ensure that in 2015 all children complete a full course of primary schooling. The effect of education should not be taken for granted that it will be uniform across all contexts. They point to the various aspects of educational provision that militate against not only its empowerment potential but also even its ability to attract and retain girls in school, particularly those from poor backgrounds. To ensure that universal primary education is achieved in 2015 the issue of sanitary towels for girls should be taken seriously.

**Education as a fundamental right**

The right to educate has a solid basis in the international law on human rights. It has been laid down in several universal and regional documents e.g. Universal Declaration on human rights (Art 26) The European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (Art 2 on the first protocol), the UNESCO convention against Discrimination in Education and the International Covenant on Economic Social and cultural rights.

The rights to educate can be characterized as an empowerment right. It provides individuals with control over the course of his or her life and in particular control over the state. It enables a person to experience the benefits of other rights, express ideas and organize defense of its rights in civil and political rights e.g. freedom of expression, association,, right to political participation and cultural life. For ethnic and linguistic minorities the right to educate is an essential means to preserve and strengthen their cultural identity or right to educate, health, food, security, etc. Erazo Ximena etal (1996:3).
Gender parity

Gender parity in secondary and primary education is the target with a further decade to 2015 for achieving gender equality. Parity is a purely numerical concept: reaching gender parity implies that the same proportion of boys and girls relative to their respective age groups enter the education system and participate in the full primary and secondary cycles. It is measured by the ratio between the female and male values for any given indicator, with parity being equal to one. Gender equality is a more complex notion that is also more difficult to measure full gender equality would imply that girls and boys are offered the same chances to go to school and that they enjoy teaching methods and curriculum free of stereotypes and academic orientation and counseling unaffected by gender bias.

It also implies equality outcomes in terms of length of schooling, learning achievement and academic qualifications and more broadly, equal job opportunities and earnings for similar qualifications and experience. Bandera (1999) attributed the problem of gender disparities to cultural practices that have a pervasive influence on the situation of girls. Cultural practices include initiation rates, early marriages and parental preference for wife and mother role for daughters.

A study by Abagi and Bunyi (2004) on gender equity and equality in primary education covering 16 districts in Kenya revealed that despite free primary education, over two million school age children have no access to primary education. Most of these children are girls who come mainly from poor families or are orphaned due to the impact of HIV/AIDS paramedic.

2.1.3 Challenges facing education for all.

The following are the challenges facing the government initiative to achieve education for all;
**Poor economic Growth and Increased Poverty.**

Poor economic growth in Kenya in the last decade has led to persistent poverty among Kenyans. Official document indicates that about 50% of Kenyans live below the poverty line and are unable to access basic services like food, education, shelter and health. Many parents especially in rural areas, ASAL regions and slums in urban centers have been unable to provide their children with excess education requirements. This has resulted in for instance no enrolment of school age children especially girls, Pulling off those who are in schools to supplement household income, not participating actively in school affairs, marrying off girls when still young and Supporting child labour.

The poverty rate increased from 47% in 1994 to 56% in 2000 (Republic of Kenya 2002:3). Poverty is a major impediment to human development and socio-economic progress in Kenya. This is so despite decades of efforts to overcome the problem, starting in the early days of independence, in 1960 in the 1st 2 decades after independence, one of the principal goals of Kenya's development strategy was to eliminate poverty through economic growth, under the assumption that everyone would benefit from growth, through trickle down effect (kamala, etal 2002). A consistent finding of poverty studies in developing countries, is that education is the main route out of poverty (Republic of Kenya 2002:3).

High poverty rates in the country (56% of the Kenyan population lives below the poverty line) majority of parents cannot afford to take their children to school. The high poverty rates have resulted in the phenomenon of working children. A recent study on child labor in Kenya, revealed that majority of working children came from the very poor households, those with a monthly income of less than Ksh. 2000.00 The survey further found that about 27% of all working children not in school work so as to augment household income, (ibid).

**Increased Cost of Education.**

The enhancement of cost sharing in the mid Lagos shifted education costs to parents and communities. A part from meeting some of the direct cost of education like
tuition fees; parents are also required to put up physical facilities of indeed indirect costs of their children's education. The poor economic growth of the external macro-economic factors has increased the cost of education.

**Inappropriate Policy Frameworks.**

Inappropriate or inadequate policy and legal frameworks and statements have negatively affected the development of quality basic education. Based on the inherited education system the government and other partners have not come up with a clear vision and mission of education, which has changed with time, and circumstances, which would enhance the provision of quality education for all. Education to a large extend still has a colonial orientation, promotes rote learning and is still elitist.

**HIV/AIDS Pandemic.**

This disease affects the parents as well as many children. Such orphans participation in schools becomes irregular and ineffective and in the final analysis they drop out of school. The effort is also spending a lot of resources to take care of those infected with HIV/AIDS. Such resources would have been used to boost public investment in education especially at this time when cost and financing of education has become problematic. Health related factors for example HIV/AIDS. The total number of children with HIV/AIDS has been increasing over the years. The burden of HIV/AIDS cannot be underestimated and its potential role in discouraging schooling is high. In many cases the children of the infected especially girls leave school, sometimes to take care of the sick or the family as a whole (ibid: 17). Other factors challenging education for all have been addressed while lack of sanitary towels which affects the girl child needs to be focused on so that education goals is realised.

**Drop out rates**

Existing data indicate that in almost all African countries the drop out is higher for girls than for boys 8.6 percent for girls and 7.3 for boys while various causes of drop outs have been identified adolescent pregnancy is highlighted because of its serious gender-specific impact. (FAWE, information kit). The gender gap in
primary school enrolment certainly narrowed during the 1990s. The ratio of girls' gross enrolment rate to boys in developing countries increased from 0.86 to 0.92. Nearly two third of developing countries improved on girls enrolment over the decade with the biggest improved in Benin, Chad, Gambia, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Nepal, Pakistan and Sudan.

Yet girls in primary school completion rate still lags way behind boys' at 76 percent compared to 85 percent. This yawning gender gap means that millions more girls than boys are dropping out each year. As a result the majority of the children not in school are girls. (UNICEF 2004: 33). From independence in 1963, development of education has been a longstanding objective of the Government of Kenya (GOK) alongside this key objective the government of Kenya has also undertaken to eliminate gender disparity in Education. At the same time, girls still register a high dropout rate, with majority dropping out between primary 5 and 8 (MOEST Survey, 2004).

Schoolgirl pregnancy is assumed to lead to girl's early withdrawal from school. Furthermore, it is often assumed that those girls who are forced to withdraw due to pregnancy would have continued in school had they not become pregnant. However there are many other reasons a girl might withdraw from school during her adolescence, rather than pregnancy causing girls to drop out, it may be the absence of social and economic opportunities for girls and women and the demands placed on them, coupled with the gender inequalities within the education system, that result in unsatisfactory school experience, poor academic performance, and acquiescence in or endorsement of early motherhood. (MOEST population council 1997:6).

The workshop was held in regions around the world to strengthen policies aimed at improving access to and quality of education and reducing drop out rates. It was also part of a broader effort to help countries achieve the millennium development goal of eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005 and providing quality basic education to all by 2015. The focus of this report is on Africa. Its conclusions can be applied to other regions of the world where education as a right is still an issue. What is
true in Africa in terms of investment is often true elsewhere. Investment in education can be better directed and more effectively and efficiently used.

An analysis of household surveys from 21 African countries, carried out by the World Bank revealed that the children who are not in school are usually from poor households. Thus wealth—or rather the lack of it—is a major source of disparity in education, in addition to gender and proximity to urban areas. Investment options that improve quality will focus on the whole child. In Gambia, Ghana and Mauritania, investments in education are focusing on the whole child. The approach starts from the premise that every child has certain rights, including the right to safety, security, equal opportunity and education, which must be addressed in a holistic manner.

It recognizes that the root causes poverty is manifold. Any response must be multi-sectoral, addressing issues such as health, nutrition, food, security and education. Among these, education is considered pivotal with girl's education seen as a central strategy for poverty eradication. According to Cream Wright, UNICEF Education Chief shows that "Research findings and experimental evidence indicate that investments in the early years of children's lives pay off in terms of greater readiness for school, likelihood of starting school at the right age, more regular and consistent school attendance, lower rates of repetition and drop out as well as better learning achievement level. Without sanitary towels the girls will have an awful experience that is likely to lead to them dropping out.

2.1.4 Girls and Menstruation

This section presents the effects of menstruation on girls' self esteem, perceptions and associations on menstruation, the world view on menstruation and experiences on menstrual hygiene and management.
Girls' self-esteem

Self-esteem refers to our positive and negative evaluations of our selves (Brehm Sharon S et al 2002:68). The loss of self-esteem is another common problem in adolescents, particularly girls which may cause failing at school. Self-concept is extremely sensitive at this stage. A comment from a teacher about any fault or mistake, a few words of indifference about the clothes being worn, laughter of some friends or even a look without any bad intention may be interpreted as "you look horrible, you are not intelligent, you don't know how to do anything, you are not going to pass this subject." Eventually the adolescent conforms to the messages he or she receives. Due to peer pressure, a fourteen years old girl whose main aim in life is to be accepted, respected and listened to by her friends. It is unpopular to get good grades; the girl will relax in the academic area to be just like her friends. (Melgosa Julian 2000:37).

Early matures start periods early. It comes and find them unawares this messes them because they do not know the coping mechanism. Developmental changes and the need to adjust to them cause adolescent to focus on physical appearance and body image, particularly in the early adolescent years. For girls outward appearance and inner self-image are more closely linked than for boys. Girls are more likely than boys to interpret objective remarks about appearance. Whereas adolescent's perception of their physical appearance can be influenced by their, general image of themselves as people that is, their overall self-esteem or lack of it.

To Adolescent girl, menstruation is much more than a physiological readjustment. It's a symbol of sexual maturity of future status as a woman. A girl's reaction to menses may be positive or negative. Late matures view the onset calmly, normal and as a symbol of increased status while early matures reacts negatively. That is, it is not something to be happy about but girls and women just have to put up with it. Girls may experience negative side effects like Headache, backaches, skin problems, and cramps nausea and water retention. To some girls they have no access to sanitary towels and do not know how to use it (Conger W.J Jane 20004:78).
According to Melgosa Julian (2000:14) Menstruation or periods begins depending on each person and on the area of the world where you live. The first period may occur very early at 10 years old or rather late at 16 years. On average it appears at 12 and 14 years old. Menstruation last between 3 or 4 days each month. During this month a girl must use sanitary towels to absorb the blood. At this time you can live life as normal. It's a completely natural process in the healthy woman. In many places it's a reason for joy in the family. Unfortunately in other places, although people are delighted with the baby's first tooth, they do not receive a girl's period with joy, but treat it as if it were a secret and taboo.

People are inherently social animals and that this drives the need for self-esteem more primitive need to connect with others and gain their approval. Our social esteem acts as a sociometer. A rough estimate of how we are doing in the eyes of the others (Brehm S.Sharon 2002:68).

This literature has left out the experiences of primary school girls without sanitary towels as far as self-esteem is concerned. Therefore an investigation on the effect will be done.

**Perceptions and Associations on menstruation**

Over decades, women have been taught that having periods is shameful. They have indirectly, if not directly, absorbed the messages that menstrual blood is dirty, smelly, unhygienic and unclean. This message may be perpetuated by advertisements for menstrual products or "feminine hygiene" products. Even the term "feminine hygiene" implies that help is needed with hygiene. With all these negative messages it is natural for women to want to hide their blood and throw it away as garbage. To do otherwise is to go against what they have been taught as women. But menstruation is a natural physical process - a harmless by-product of a biological event.

On average, a woman loses about four tablespoons of blood each month. To deal with the "mess" of it, women ovej the ages have used materials like grass, sponges, cotton wads and other absorbents to catch the blood. The embarrassment
A less obvious but much felt practical need that also affected the self-respect of women in Refugee camps was how as refugees they had to cope with the process of menstruation. Although after the first year or so in the Refugee camp some families had begun to be able to purchase clothes, it was certainly not all, and very few had more than one set. Old cloth to use during menstruation was simply not available. Pastoralists have traditionally used cowhide but they now found themselves in other places as cultivators, and cowhide was not available. Other tribes were using leaves that were not found within the settlement. Many of those who came as refugees, especially people from the urban centers, had become used to either using pads, or otherwise pieces of cloth kept separately and used only for this purpose. In Refugee camps, some found themselves unable to use anything.

The problem of expense and accessibility during the monthly periods makes girls resort to inappropriate methods of containing their menstrual flow. For instance old rags, pieces of blankets, or sack, toilet paper, newspaper, sponge or whatever else they can lay their hands on to manage their monthly periods. The methods of protection used by the girl child are unhygienic and a health hazard. They do not contain the menstrual flow and may lead to unpleasant odours and they negatively affect a girl's confidence and expose her to ridicule and exclusion by her peers.

The literature has not tackled the issue of sanitary towels to help primary school girls in korogocho manage menstrual hygiene and to facilitate their participation in education.

Experiences in Menstrual Hygiene and Management

The general practice that people are comfortable with is disposing of menstruation waste in toilets or rubbish bins. Some also prefer burning them. The rural women respondents usually rinse the blood first before disposing. The reason behind this is the belief that blood is sacred and it should not be left around in the open. The disposal of menstruation protection seems to be influenced by location. Women dispose of this differently depending or where they are at the time. For instance, their behaviour when they are at home is different than when they are in public places.
When in public places, the behaviour of rural people who are accustomed to throwing products in the pit, changes according to the toilet type used. For instance, when they are in a place using flush toilets, they flush the products in the toilet. When it does not flush, they take it out, wrap it with toilet paper and throw it in the dustbin inside the toilet (Molefe Tebogo et al 2001). There are those who also say that they wrap it and carry it home with them and dispose it in their pit toilets. In the suburbs and formal townships the common behaviour seems to be throwing them in the bin or flushing them down the toilet and sometimes it gets burned when at home.

Industrialization brought many changes worldwide. Until disposable sanitary pads were created, all women used some form of cloth or reusable pad to collect menstrual blood. Even after they were commercially available, for several years they were too expensive for many women to afford. It took many years for disposal of menstrual pads to become commonplace, but since then in most areas of the industrialized world, their use became almost exclusive. (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/sanitary-towel).

There is a dearth of information about how women handled their menstrual period during the times before the regular use of some form of sanitary towel. For the most part, it seems that nothing was used apart from normal underwear (Museum of Menstruation and Women's Health) so the development of products such as sanitary towels and tampons is relatively recent, with the revolution in feminine hygiene that has occurred since the early part of the 20th century, the subject is still one that many people would rather not think about.

The sanitary towel had been in use from the 19th century. For many women, they would like to use products with which they feel both confident and comfortable. Sanitary towels were introduced as a menstrual device for women to wear in order to improve their health. The World Health Organization (WHO 1993) defines health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being, and not merely the absence of disease or injury. This has led to an increase in the use of sanitary towels. The first ever advert for sanitary towel on television in the UK was on 10th March 1986. The advert was for the Dr. Whites brand. Should government provide help to enable girls’ access such products? Or
should it reduce tax to make it affordable? If reduced what about income levels? Sanitary towels are worn to absorb menstrual discharge and thereby protect clothing and furnishings. They make girls confident of themselves and are also hygienic.

2.1.5 Benefits of educating girls

Girls' education has more positive effect. Regions that invested over the long term in girl's education such as South East Asia at least until the 1980's debt crisis, Latin America, have tended to show higher levels of economic development. As the primary enrolment rate for girls increases so too does gross domestic product per capita. Countries that fail to increase the cost of their development efforts pay for the failure with slower growth, reduced income and slower the same time economic development. Hence higher income per family can help in convincing reluctant parents to forego the quick economic benefit of their daughter's work and instead send them to school producing long-term benefits for a country's economy.

Adults who lack basic skills have greater difficulty finding well paying jobs and escaping poverty. Education for girls has particularly sticking social benefits. For instance incomes are higher and maternal and infant mortality rates are lower for educated women. Who also have more personal freedom in making choices. Despite considerable progress over the past two decades, however school attendance in the world's poorest countries is by no means universal.

Education will benefit the next generation since when educated girls become mothers they are much likely to take their children to school thereby passing on and multiplying benefits both for themselves and society in a positive intergenerational effect. A recent UNICEF analysis of household data from 55 countries and 2 Indian states is that children of educated women are much more likely to go to school and the more years in school the women have received, the more probable it is that their children will also benefit from education.

Education has the multiplier effect in that it has an impact on areas beyond learning extending a positive influence into most aspects of a child's life e.g.
children who go to school are more likely to learn how they need to stay healthy, including how to protect themselves against diseases, educate girls who are more vulnerable than boys to HIV, the needed protection for those at risk as those benefits cross generations as women with the knowledge of how to guard against HIV/AIDS are also more likely to send their children to school. In addition getting education means that children are less likely to be trafficked or exploited as labourers and less vulnerable to abuse and violence since girls are more likely to suffer these assaults. Education is especially important to their protection and carries its influence beyond the classroom.

Lastly there is a likelihood of having Healthier families. One benefit to society of educating girls is a greater balance between family size and resources. When a society ensures that mothers are educated children will be healthier and fever will die. Children of more educated women tend to be better nourished and get sick less often. The effect of mothers education is greater and so significant (UNICEF Report 2004:17). The benefit to girls’ education is likely to be increased with provision of sanitary towels.

**Literacy level**

High literacy rates among women have positive implications for gender equity and lead to lower levels of child poverty (UNICEF 1999) this will be realised in the benefit for Education of girls. Platform for Action and the Beijing Declaration. United Nations 1996 states that,

The convention on the rights of the child recognizes that state parties shall respect and ensure the rights set forth in the present convention to each child within their jurisdiction without discrimination to any kind irrespective of the child’s or his or her parents or legal guardians race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national ethnic or social origin, property and disability at birth or status. In many countries available indicators show that the girl child is discriminated against from the earliest stages of life through her childhood and into adulthood. Platform for Action and the Beijing Declaration. (United Nations 1996: 145).
According to Muiru (2003:22-23). Adult literacy should contribute to alleviating poverty, consolidating democratic process strengthening and protecting human rights promoting a culture of culture of peace, ensuring the quality and empowerment of women. Literacy has also become an increasingly important topic of discussion around the world. UNESCO declared 1990 as international literacy year. Literacy is a brake on economic and social development literacy is one of the basic requirements that would enable the majority of Kenyans to brake out of the vicious circle of disease, ignorance and poverty on a mass scale according to UNESCO (1997).

2.1.6. Factors which hinder girls' Participation in education

Implicit in the low participation rates among women and girls is the reality that certain factors do militate against their participation in Education as compared to that of boys. According to Njau and Wamahi (1994) project paper. Society's sexism is perceived to be the major factor. In most of the societies, roles and relationships are often determined by one's sex. More often than not the status of males is assumed to be higher than that of females. As a result the male child is usually accorded more attention in as far as education is concerned than his sister. It is this perception that influences family decision to educate or not to educate girls whenever a situation arises where the family cannot afford to meet school costs for both the male and female children. The boy is likely to be given priority. In some instances the girl is forced to drop out in favour of her brother. Dubois Carol Ellen et al (1987:15).

Other related factors include socio-cultural pressures surrounding engagement, marriage and initiation rites. The availability of school places and types the proximity of schools to the homes as well as pregnancies among others. To find out possible reasons for the differentials that emerge among girls after pre-marital pregnancies, while a few of them resume their studies. Many of them do not return, there might be certain socio-economic factors and others, which can explain this phenomenon especially now th’t the official policy is to re-admit the adolescent mothers after delivery.
Socio-economic factors in a situation of poverty, many parents find it hard to send their children to school. Low enrolment or even non-enrolment when children from poor families are enrolled, some are likely to drop out because of failure to meet schooling costs. A study by Nkinyangi (1980) found that drop out at primary school was a result of failure by most parents to meet the cost of primary Education. Nguru (1980) also found out that more children dropout from poor enlightened homes than from rich educated homes. Achola (1994) found also poverty to be the causes of school dropout. In some cares children are considered to be the vital source of lab our and are forced to leave school (Falme 1992) found that most peasant families in Matibane had little money to spend and as such children especially girls were considered a big source of family lab our. Similar findings had earlier been arrived at by Mc Sweeney and freedman (1982) in Burkina Faso.

Cultural Determinants.

Cultural determinants are major determinants of educational participation especially in societies that hold their traditions as being dear. The social cultural values and practice in a given locality have a bearing on both educational participation and educational dropout. It is a given locality's values and practices that determine the level of educational participation by its people. In case schooling interferes with a society's values and practices non-enrollment and dropout are often the results.

Achola etal (1994) found that some students dropout of school to participate in the cultural activities of circumcision and cultural dances.

Social and cultural environments discrimination or certain cultural values in some societies. This can keep girls minority out of the education system. This could be reduced or stopped by putting preventive actions such as effecting legislation that gives age limit for admission to employment - not less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and in any case, not less than 15 years this creates culture which places a premium on education. There also needs to be a broad based effort to get all children into schools or suitable training (Fyfe etal 1997:8).
Early marriage is also another cultural factor that determines educational participation.

In some instances pupils are forced to terminate their studies to get married after attaining certain ages. This often affects girls more than boys. Some girls are subjected to early marriage.

Their respective communities as being appropriate for marriage because either the family wants to get bride price to offset poverty or because they have attained an age generally consider this.

(Achola et al 1994) Findings also from FALME 1992). He found that after first menstruation and after going through initiation rituals girls in Matibane, Mozambique become women. They were therefore expected to get married. Maundu and Mathu (1986) and Eshiwani et al (1987) found incidences of early marriages in their studies. This being the case before pregnancy.

Adolescent pregnancy

The proportion of school dropouts among female students as a result of pregnancy. In Mozambique Falme 1992 found pregnancy to be a common reason for dropout among girls in the suburbs of Maputo with almost half of the interviewed families having unmarried young women who had to abandon school.

Child labour

The idea that the place of children is at school and not in the workplace developed about 150 years ago. Child labour only began to be serious with industrialization and urbanization. It changed the children's working relationships and multiplied the dangers. Latter government began to protect the children by laying down protective legislation in the form of minimum age statutes and the gradual introduction of compulsory education, universal education was seen as a main factor in the development of a modern nation. Trade unions were an important part of the process of transferring children from the workplace to the classroom.
A recent ILO report on child labour covers all economic activities carried out by persons less than 15 yrs of age, regardless of their occupational status (wage earners, own-accounts workers, unpaid family workers etc) but not household work performed by them in their parents home except where such work can be assimilated to an economic activity as for example, when a child must devote his or her entire time to the work that his or her parents can be employed outside the home and is deprived of the possibility of going to school. (Fyfe et al 1997:5). It was also observed that about 58% of working children were of primary school going age.

2.1.7 Government measures to improve attendance

Policy responses.

Government has taken a number of Policy decisions. For instance, Economic recovery plan.

The new government of national unity has embarked on measures to resuscitate the economy with a major focus on increasing the incomes of the poorest members of the society. It's hoped that this will help people out of poverty and consequently makes them able to afford the basic necessities of life. Including basic education. The poverty reduction strategy of the government is also aimed at reducing the incidence of child labour and ensures that parents do not have to send their young children to work at the expense of schooling the dry rangeland districts in the northern part of the country are receiving special attention. (Prof. Saitoti George, MOEST 20003:22)

Free and compulsory primary Education, introduced to encourage school enrolment.

Inclusive education: Accommodate children with disabilities in special school and integrated programs.

Fight against HIV/AIDS and other diseases. It is given special attention because it affects education.  

1
**Special programs for semi-arid districts.** Government has instituted special support programs in these areas for instance financing school feeding programs to boost school enrolment and improve the learning environment by ensuring that people's learning is not distracted by hunger. Social and cultural environments discrimination or certain cultural values in some societies can keep girls minority out of the education system. Unicef's role is to accompany government on the road to gender equality in education. Investing in girls' education today is a strategy that will protect the rights of all children to quality education and a strategy that will jump start all other development goals. UNICEF (2004:5). The measure of the government to improve attendance should accommodate provision of sanitary towels so that the girl child needs is addressed.

### 2.2 Theoretical Framework

Theoretical framework is the basis on which the entire research rests. It is the foundation or base of the project. (Ngechu Mary first edition: 23). A theory is a set of constructs, which explains and predicts observable phenomenon by showing relationship of variables (Peil 1986), Turner (1991) says it is a story that tell us how and why events occur.

#### 2.2.1 Liberal feminism

This theory advocates for equality in all sexes (Lyon 1983). All forms of prejudices, discriminatory behaviour should be done away with, people should be considered equal in terms of education. All needs of both boys and girls should be regarded equally since if their interests are not taken care of then there will not be regular attendance in school. Lack of participation in class and extra curricula activities, then the achievements of specific objectives will not be realized fully. In this case, girls should be provided with sanitary towels to enable them go to school as required.

The basic idea behind liberal feminism and liberal thinking in general is that humans are rational beings who, with enough knowledge and opportunity, will realize their potential as individuals to reason and act. The benefit of themselves and society as a
whole. Things go wrong primarily through ignorance, bad socialization and limited access to opportunities. Equality of opportunity and freedom of choice are seen as the bedrock of individual well-being, which in turn makes possible an enlightened society and progressive social change. Social change is largely a matter of changing how individuals think and behave especially through education and other means of enlightenment (Johnson G Allan 1997:113). Without sanitary towels the experiences of the primary school girls in korogocho would be different from the ones with. Therefore the needs of the girl child should be given attention just like other basic requirement.

The liberal feminist solution is to remove the barriers to women and girls’ freedom of choice and equal participation. The liberal method is to persuade people to change by challenging sexist stereotypes and demanding equal access and treatment. Liberal feminist calls on men to change on how they think about and behave towards women to be less violent, harassing, exploitative, more supportive, emotionally sensitive, expressive and committed to their roles as fathers and partners. Calls on women to be assertive and believe in themselves, strive to achieve. Liberal feminism main assumption is that oppression results from ignorance whose removal through enlightened education will clear the road to equality and a better life for all. (Ibid: 116).

2.2.2 Marxist theory

The theory was developed by Karl Marx (1968). It postulates that society is made up of two conflicting classes, capitalists who own means of production and workers who offer their labour to capitalists. We examine economic inequality in the form of social class and income/wealth differences. Social class has been defined in a variety of ways by classical and contemporary scholars. Traditionally American researchers have defined social class statistically in terms of occupation status, education and income. Persons or families that fall in the same category on these dimensions are then said to be in the same social class. That is individuals and families ranked similarly on several dimensions e.g. income, occupation and power (Hurst 1992:10).
For Marx class was basically an economic phenomenon and was defined by an individual's position in the social relations of production, by control over the physical means (property) and social means (labour power) of production. Therefore class is defined by ownership/ control in the system of production. According to Marx, the earliest societies were classless, being based on a common ownership of land and the engine of change in history has been class struggle. Private property spurs the development of classes. Although societies change and the specific names given to the various classes may change, the presence of dominant and subordinate classes remains.

Generally, classes are defined by their relationship to the means of production. Hence, in the capitalist mode of production by bourgeoisie is meant the class of modern capitalists, owners of the means of social production and employers of wage-laborers who, having no means of production of their own, are reduced to selling labor-power in order to live. However, his use of such terms as "strata," "graduation," "middle classes," and "dominated classes" make it clear that Marx was aware of the complexity that can characterize a concrete system of inequality (Hurst 1992:176).

Because of the classes' different relationships to private property, that is, owners versus non-owners, conflict is inherent in class society. Class antagonism is built into the very structure of society. Marx's theory is one of class struggle. The existence of a given class always assumes the existence of another hostile class. "Who is the enemy?" is a question that can be asked whenever Marx uses "class. When the economic bases for classes are eliminated, the will disappear since the proletariat will be without the enemy, the capitalist (Ibid : 177).

Karl Marx is one of the proponents of this theory. He believed that human society passed through different stages of development and that each stage contained of its own destruction. Marx's analysis of social conflict in capitalist society was the importance of property. To Marx the most distinguishing characteristic of any society is its form of property, and the crucial determinant of an individual's behavior is his relation to property. Classes are determined on the basis of the individuals relation to means of production. Property divisions are the crucial
breaking lines in the class structure. Since work was the basic form of a man's self-
realization, economic condition of the particular historic era determines the social,
political and legal arrangements and set in motion the processes of evolution and

This theory focuses on the income, occupation and education level that will place a
person in a particular class therefore making it impossible for people in the low class
to possess certain things in a society. In the case of this study the issue of sanitary
towels is raised because due to the low income that parents of the pupils living in
korogocho slum are getting they can not afford the basic requirements as well as
purchase of sanitary towels. Due to this the girls are likely to have different
experiences.

2.2.3 HalPs psychological theory of Recapitulation

This study is based on G. Stanley Hall psychological theory of Recapitulation. He
articulated an evolutionary approach to human development. In this psychological
theory of recapitulation, the process of individual growth and development
mimicked the evolution of the species. Each period of life is viewed as an expression
of an earlier iota in the development of human species. Hall's view of development
included the four stages: infancy, childhood, youth and adolescent. The emphasis of
this study is on the adolescence period from puberty to adulthood. The period
reflects the turbulence and conflict that come with a transition to a greater self-
awareness and idealism. It corresponds to the recent human transition to a more
complex, technological and modern civilization.

Its implication for adolescent development is that during this period adolescents as a
group are important and can change the course of their society. The capacity for
personal and social change emerges as a result of a number of natural changes
which occurs simultaneously such as rapid physical growth, sexual maturation,
increased emotional intensity and conflict, the achievement of new forms of
reasoning and an awareness of moral, social and political concerns.
This is a period of storm and stress. The adolescents acquire adult capabilities for reasoning and become sensitive to the contradictions, hypocrisies and inhumanities of their society. According to Hall, it is a period of self consciousness, impulsiveness, idealism and intensity. Therefore the methods of education should be carefully chosen to facilitate growth. Efforts must be made to direct the energy and confusion of this period into productive channels. He also felt the existing educational institutions did not respond to the emerging competences of the adolescents. It is my view in this study that methods of education must be tailored to ensure the adolescent sexuality and feminine needs are adequately catered. The availability of sanitary pads and education of girls on how to handle themselves at this period ought to be a policy concern.
### 2.3 Operationalization of variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable of study</th>
<th>Variable Indicator</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Independent</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status of sanitary towels</td>
<td>Non-use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Messing of clothes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency of use.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of knowledge in use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependent</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self esteem</td>
<td>Self confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Happiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shyness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School attendance</td>
<td>Absenteeism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class participation</td>
<td>Involved in class activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attentive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comfortable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Free interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-curricula activity</td>
<td>Participation in sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Withdrawal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Free movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coping mechanism</td>
<td>Improved self care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Having sanitary towel.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology that was used in this study. It includes research design, research site, unit of analysis, unit of observation, sources of data, sampling design, methods of data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

This study was guided by an exploratory research design.

Research design can be defined as the method the researcher wants to use in executing his or her research. It is the roadmap of the researcher's investigation; the procedure the investigator wants to adopt to solve the identified problem (Anene 1998:71). According to Peil Margaret (1995:9) exploratory design sets out to explore a new area, or at least one about which little is known in the local context.

The design of the research was exploratory in nature attempting to gain familiarity with the phenomenon under study through discovery of new ideas from selected public primary schools in Korogocho Slum of Nairobi, Kenya. It used qualitative methods to capture the experiences of the girls Quantitative methods was used to give insight to the magnitude. Discussions and interviews of a cross-section of the teaching staff was also employed to supplement and validate the findings.

3.2 Study Site

The proposed study site was Korogocho slum, in Nairobi province. The area was purposively selected because it is among the oldest slums in Nairobi. The environment and the neighbouring Estates are of upper low class and lower middle class people. Like Kariobangi North, Gomongo, Babadogo and Dandora. Unlike Kibera slum which is surrounded by Estates of middle upper class and
upper class like Lang’ata, Ayany, Ngumo and Woodley. Mathare is neighboured by muthaiga which is an upper class estate and employment is drawn from upper class region. Korogocho Slum is again justifiably chosen because it is near where the researcher works and could thus facilitate easier research undertaking in its real and practical context because the researcher is familiar with the place. The slum bears characteristic of low-income areas that have poor infrastructures, crowded housing and have serious social disorganization. In this areas the girl child is exposed to many forms of problems. The pupils when from school have either to join their parents or as individuals involve in small business to subsidies for other expenses.

3.4 unit of analysis

According to Singleton et al (1988:69) a unit of analysis is what or who is to be described or analysed. Schutt (1996:539) sees a unit of analysis as the level of social life on which research questions focus. Unit of analysis can therefore be individuals, people, social role, positions and relationships. Unit of analysis in this study was experiences of the primary school girls without sanitary towels.

3.5 units of observation

The units of observation denoted the study of the respondents. That were pupils, as the main respondents. Teachers and support-staff (Toilet cleaners) formed the key respondents because of their roles in the school. This study included, girls from class five to eight. In these classes girls who had started their menses were the only ones studied. The class was picked due to the fact that at class five most of the girls begin their periods.

3.6 sampling and Sample size

Singleton (1988:137) defines sampling design as that part of research plan that indicates how it is to be selected for observation. Orodho (2004) defines a sample as a small part of a larger population. According to Gay (1983) a 10% of the accessible population is enough sample for a descriptive study. So an ideal sample size should be large enough to serve as an adequate representative of the
population about which the researcher wishes to generalise. Purposive sampling is a sampling technique that allows the researcher to use cases that have the required information with respect to the objectives of the study. Cases of the subjects are therefore hand picked because they are informative or they possess the required characteristics.

Purposive sampling was applied to get the location and district in which the units of observation had the required characteristics (Olive M. Mugenda et al 2003:50) The two schools in Korogocho slums were purposively chosen.

The two public schools were Gunyumu primary school and Daniel Komboni primary school. The study employed stratified random sampling in selection of pupils to be interviewed. In stratified sampling, the population is divided into two or more groups using classes and then a given number of cases were randomly selected from each population in a subgroup. The pupils were first stratified into classes five, six, seven and eight and the total number of girls was taken to form a sampling frame. The criteria used was that pupils were selected according to age. Age of the girls was considered in order to obtain the girls that had started their menses. In both schools a total of 82 respondents were sampled.

The actual method of sampling from each subgroup of the population was simple random sampling to get the interviewed respondents. This was to give all of them equal chances. A sample size of pupils was then selected proportionately from each stream afterwards cases of pupils were interviewed from each stream. Key informants from each school were selected. In the two schools the Head-teachers (2), class-teachers (8) guidance and counseling teachers (2) and support-stuffs (Toilet cleaners) (2) giving a total of (14) in the two public schools.
### Table 3.0 Main respondents and sampled size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SERIAL NUMBER</th>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>POPULATION</th>
<th>SAMPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>NGUNYUMU</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>354</strong></td>
<td><strong>35</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>DANIEL KOMBONI</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>SUB - TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>465</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>GRAND-TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>819</strong></td>
<td><strong>82</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Nairobi Education City Office

### 3.6 Data sources and data collection methods

The sources of secondary data were published and unpublished literature, from various library, research centers and national archives. Materials included books, reports of commission journal, extracts and from news letters. Materials were also sourced from the ministry of Education at National level and district level. Also studies carried out by credible organizations. Like UN agencies and International Organizations. The materials were sourced through electronics websites. The researcher reviewed relevant infogation in order to give more required information that might not have been captured by the techniques of primary data collection.
The primary data refers to the information a researcher obtains from the field (Olive M. Mugenda 2003:12). The primary data targeted pupils, teachers in that school using Questionnaires for pupils and interview schedule/guide for the Key informant who were teachers and sub-staff. Focus Group Discussion guide and observation checklist was used. The main source of primary data was key informants. The responses to the questions as well as the observations made provided data necessary for report writing.

Primary data was collected through various approaches as discussed below:

i) **Focus group discussions**

The FGD method was a planned discussion. It was conducted with a group of girls who had started their menses of 7-12 girls with a total of seven groups. The discussion groups were handled separately based on their ages and classes. This was to enable them discuss freely and in depth. The researcher used FGD interview guides to facilitate discussions. The researcher also obtained qualitative data and notes were taken during the discussion.

ii) **Key informant interviews**

In this study key informant interviews were also conducted using discussion/interview guides to obtain explanations on the experiences of primary school girls in Korogocho slums, Nairobi. They were selected by virtue of their knowledge and understanding of the target group. 14 key informants were interviewed from the two public schools. The researcher used interview guide and held one to one interviews with the people enlisted as the key informants.

iii) **Direct observations**

The study also made use of direct observations that were guided by an observation guide or checklist. Direct observation is the process in which one or more persons observe what is occurring in real situation and records pertinent happenings according to some planned scheme. This study used direct observation in assessing school facilities such as toilets,
pit latrines, taps, water, Rentokil facility and many more. Sitting arrangements within the classes was also observed.

### Table3.1: A summary of data sources, collection methods and tools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Tool</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Key informant interview</td>
<td>Key informant guide</td>
<td>• Head teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(In-depth Interview)</td>
<td>(Interview guide)</td>
<td>• Guidance and counseling teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Class teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Pupils</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Support staff (Toilet cleaners)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Interview</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>• Pupils who have started menses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGD</td>
<td>FGD guide</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>Observation checklist</td>
<td>• Toilets, water, Rentokil facility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Taps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Pit latrines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Pupils who have started menses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of secondary data</td>
<td>Checklist</td>
<td>• MOEST Reports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• International Organisation Reports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Relevant literature</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.7 Data Analysis

This study was mainly qualitative in nature and therefore the method used in the field and the data collected was qualitative in terms of practices, processes, procedures, attitude and opinions. The collected data was organized into emergent themes. This was a continuous process from the onset of data collection. It involved working through the full range of detailed field notes, scanning data to enable the development of a set of coding categories which constitute the basis of analysis. Statement of relationships from the categories was generated and modified. Hence the use of descriptive statistics for example frequency, tables and percentages was used besides narrative approaches. The data was analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).
4.0 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

Questionnaires developed for this study targeted primary school girls who have started undergoing menstruation cycle. This chapter therefore, presents data obtained from 82 respondents who filled in questionnaires and were also engaged in focus group discussions. The collected data are summarized, organized, presented, analyzed and interpreted using descriptive and inferential statistics such as percentages, frequency distribution and measures of central tendency.

The chapter presents and analyses findings of the study. These findings were organized under various sub-headings according to research objectives. The subheadings were;

4.1.1 Background information of respondents

All the subjects were school girls, forty seven (47) (57.3%) from Daniel Komboni primary school and thirty five (35) (42.7%) from Ngunyumu primary school. These schools are located in Korogocho slums. The slum bears characteristic of low-income areas that have poor infrastructures, crowded housing and have serious social disorganization. In these areas the girl child is exposed to many forms of problems. The pupils when from school have either to join their parents or as individuals involve in small business to subsidies for other expenses.

Table 1: Distribution of respondents by class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Five</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>32.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Six</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seven</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eight</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Majority of the respondents were in class five (32.9%), closely followed by class six (26.8%) then class seven (22.0%) and class eight (18.3%). The progressive decline in the number of respondents from class five to class eight may be attributed to the low transition rate of girls from lower classes to upper classes. This is due to the high drop out rates among girls, with a majority dropping out between class five and eight (MOEST Survey, 2004). Pregnancy is assumed to lead to girl's early withdrawal from school. However, there are many other reasons a girl might withdraw from school during her adolescence, it may be the absence of social and economic opportunities for girls and women and the demands placed on them, coupled with the gender inequalities within the education system, that result in unsatisfactory school experience, poor academic performance, and acquiescence in or endorsement of early motherhood. (MOEST population council 1997:6).

**Age distribution of respondents**

The participants were aged between- 11-15 years with a mean of 13 years. The minimum age was 11 and the maximum was 15 years. 29.3% (24) were 11 years old, 28.0% (23) were 12 years old, 18.3% (15) were 13 years old, 15.9% (13) were 14 years old and 8.5% (7) were 15 years old. This depicts early adolescence period when the girls have just started undergoing menstruation cycle. According to Melgosa Julian (2000:14) menstruation begins depending on each person and on the area of the world where you live. The first period may occur very early at 10 years old or rather late at 16 years. On average it appears at 12 and 14 years old.
Majority of the parents of the participants were living together with their spouses (63.4%), 22.0% were widowed while 12.2% were single parents. 2.4% of the participants did not know the marital status of their parents. None of the respondents indicated whether their parents were separated/divorced. The high percentage of widowed parents may be attributed to HIV/AIDS pandemic which has largely affected the poor. They are unable to purchase anti-retroviral drugs to prolong their lives. Significantly high also is the number of single parents, majority of them are women. This may be traced to teenage pregnancies which leads to a majority not getting married.
Family Size

Families with 1-3 children were described as small families, these were 20.7%. Medium families (4-6 children) were a majority with 53.7% while large families (7 children and above) were 25.6%. The trend is for smaller manageable families. Small sized families depict rising literacy levels and awareness of burdens of raising large families. The effect of mothers education is greater and so significant (UNICEF Report 2004:17). One benefit to society of educating girls is a greater balance between family size and resources. When a society ensures that mothers are educated, there is likelihood to have smaller and healthier families.

The sampled population consists highly of primary school drop outs (51.2%) thus
explaining the considerably large family sizes as shown in table 2 below.

**Table 2: Number of children in the respondents' families**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of children</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Small families (N3)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium families (4-6)</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large families (7 and above)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Number of Girls in the respondents' families**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Girls</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A few (7-3)</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>72.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (4-6)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many (7-9)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

72.0% of the respondents' families had the number of girls ranging from 1-3, 24.4% had 4-6 girls while only 3.7% had 7-9 girls in the families as shown in table 3.

**Table 4: Number of Boys in the respondents' families.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Boys</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A few (1-3)</td>
<td>65~</td>
<td>79.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium (4-6)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many (7-9)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A similar trend is depicted in the number of boys in the respondents' families. Majority of the families (79.3%) had between 1-3 boys, 15.9% had 4-6 while 4.9% had between 7-9 boys in the families.

Comparing the sexes, there is no statistically significant difference between the
number of boys and girls in the respondents' families

**Occupation of respondents' parents/guardians**

The researcher sought to find out the occupations of the parents or guardians of the respondents parents- mothers and fathers separately. The study reveals high rate of unemployment; 38.3% of the respondents mothers were unemployed as well as 22.1% of the respondents' fathers. Only a paltry are formally employed with the rest informally employed. This agrees with the recent survey that revealed high poverty rates in the country (56% of the Kenyan population lives below the poverty line).

Many parents especially in slums in urban centres have been unable to provide their children with excess educational requirements. This has resulted in low enrolment of school age children especially girls, pulling off those who are in schools to supplement household income, not participating actively in school affairs, marrying off girls when still young and supporting child labour.

**Occupation of respondents' mothers**

Only 18.5% of the respondents' mothers were formally employed, 43.2% of them were self-employed while 38.3% were unemployed. Most of the households do not consider women to be bread winners. Those with opportunities to earn income were mainly vendors. There is a high rate of unemployment with only 18.5% of the respondents formally employed. This further compounds their inability to provide basics like food, shelter and obviously sanitary pads. Even those self-employed are vendors with a relatively low income. Women are not seen as bread winners hence disregarded as economically unable to provide basics.
Table 5: Occupation of respondents' mothers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self employed</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>81</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 3: Occupation of respondents' mothers*

**Occupation of respondents' fathers**

42.6% of the respondents' fathers were formally employed, 35.3% were self-employed while 22.1% were unemployed. Since most respondents' fathers were primary school leavers, their educational levels are low. This explains that they are employed in low paying jobs that are commensurate with low level of education. A significant number have no formal education and low awareness level.
Table 6: Occupation of respondents' fathers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>42.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self employed</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4: occupation of respondents' fathers

Level of Education of respondents' parents

Considering the educational level of the respondents' parents or guardians; 51.2% were primary school leavers and 32.9% secondary school leavers while 15.9% did not undergo any formal education. This agrees with the high rate of unemployment and inadequate formal employment. Education is the key to breaking the vicious cycle of poverty. Education allows people to be more productive, earn better wages, protect their health and have a voice in society. The power of education extends across generations. (Sweetman Caroline, 2005:16).
Table 7: Level of Education of respondents' parents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>51.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>32.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Effect on the girls self-esteem

4.2.1 Menstruation

All the respondents (100%) indicated to have started experiencing menstruation cycle. Asked how old were they when they started, 2.5% started when 10 years old, 1.2% when 11 years old, 21.0% indicated to have started when 12 years old, 38.3% when 13, 30.9% when 14 years old and 6.2% when 15 years old. This agrees with a study by Melgosa Julian (200:14). According to her study; menstruation or periods depend on each person and on the area of the world one lives in. the first period may occur early at 10 years old or rather late at 16 years. On average it appears between 12 and 14 years old.

The findings are illustrated in figure 5 below.
4.2.2 Contentment with oneself during menses

Asked whether they were happy with themselves during menses, 19.5% indicated that they were happy and 54.9% of the respondents were not happy while 25.6% were average with themselves. To adolescent girl, menstruation is much more than a physiological readjustment. It is a symbol of sexual maturity of future status as a woman. A girl's reaction to menses may be positive or negative. Late matures view the onset calmly, normal and as a symbol of increased status while early matures view it negatively. It comes and find them unawares this messes them because they do not know the coping mechanism. That is, it is not something to be happy about but girls and women just have to put up with it. Girls may experience negative side effects like headache, backache, skin problems, and cramps nausea and water retention. To some girls they have no access to sanitary towels and do not know how to use it (Conger W.J Jane 20004:8).
Table 8: Whether the respondents are happy with themselves during menses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.3 Respondents’ feelings during menses

The researcher sought to find out how the respondents feel when the periods come when the monthly flow finds them in school. Apart from 7.3% and 2.4% who indicated that they felt happy and average respectively; majority (90.3%) of the respondents’ feelings were on the contrary as depicted in table 7 below.

Over decades, women have been taught that having periods is shameful. They have indirectly, if not directly, absorbed the message that menstrual blood is dirty, smelly, unhygienic and unclean. With these entire negative messages it is natural for women to have negative feelings towards menstruation. The embarrassment surrounding menstruation is a somewhat universal phenomenon, found in most cultures of the world and with many associated code words; euphemisms and phrases used as linguistic substitutes (Bharadwaj Sowmyaa et al 2004:2).

A teacher commented, "during this time majority of the girls who happen to have menses feel sick, tired and bored and they do not participate in class."
Table 9: Feelings of respondents during menstruation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feelings</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Worried</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>54.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very bad</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embarrassed</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moody</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shy</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sick</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bored</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happy</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.4 Self confidence

73.2% of the respondents indicated that they had low self-confidence during menses while 4.8% had neither high nor low self-confidence. Only 22.0% indicated to have high self-confidence. The loss of self-esteem is a common problem in adolescents, particularly girls which may cause failing at school. Self-concept is extremely sensitive at this stage. A comment from a teacher about any fault or mistake, a few words of indifference about the clothes being worn, laughter of some friends or even a look without any bad intention may be interpreted as "you look horrible, you are not intelligent, you don't know how to do anything, you are not going to pass this subject." Eventually the adolescent conforms to the message he or she receives. Due to peer pressure, a fourteen years old girl whose main aim in life is to be accepted, respected and listened to by her friends. It is unpopular to get good; the girl will relax in the academic area to be just like her friends. (Melgosa Julian 200:37).
Table 10: The extent to which the respondents felt self confident

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>73.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.5 Shyness

Majority of the respondents (73.2%) indicated that they felt shy to mix with friends during menses while 26.8% indicated that they did not feel shy. This agrees with the respondents' responses on the extent to which they felt self confident. Despite menstruation being a completely natural physical process in a healthy woman, some do not receive a girl's period with joy, but treat it as if it were a secret and taboo. The problem of expense and accessibility during monthly periods makes girls resort to inappropriate methods of containing their menstrual flow. The methods of protection used by the girl are unhygienic and a health hazard. They do not contain menstrual flow and may lead to unpleasant odours and they negatively affect girl's confidence and expose her to ridicule and exclusion by her peers. This in addition to some cultural negative views makes the girls shy to mix with friends during menses.

However, with appropriate coping mechanisms take it as a symbol of sexual maturity. They take the cycle calmly, normal and as a symbol of increased status.

Table 11: Whether the respondents felt shy during menses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>73.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 Effects of lack of sanitary towels on school attendance

4.3.1 Duration of Menses

41.5% (34) of the respondent's menstruation period lasts for three days, 32.9% (27) of them lasts for four days while for 10.9% (9) of the respondents it lasts for five days. The rest revealed that their periods lasts as follows: 5.3% (4) two days, 5.3% (4)six days , 3.9% (3) seven days and 1.2% (1) of them for one day. For the majority of people Menstruation lasts between 3 and 4 days each month depending on an individual. However, it extends to seven days in some women. During this period a girl must use sanitary towels to absorb the flow and therefore live life as normal. This number of days the menses take is likely to be the number of days the girls misses school. This will also show how much the girl child loses in terms of participation in class and school

Figure 6. Demonstrates the findings graphically.
4.3.2 Absenteeism

The respondents were asked whether there are times when they are absent from school. (78.0) % indicated that there are such times while 22.0% did not miss coming to school. An analysis of household surveys from 21 African countries, carried out by World Bank revealed that children who are not in school are usually from poor households. Thus lack of wealth is a major source of disparity in education, in addition to gender and proximity to urban centres. Investments in education are focusing on the whole child. The approach starts from the premise that every child has certain rights, including the right to safety, security, equal opportunity and education, which must be addressed in a holistic manner.

According to Cream Wright, UNICEF's Education chief shows that "Research findings and experimental evidence indicate that investment in the early years of children's lives pay off in terms of greater readiness for school, likelihood of starting school at the right age, more regular school attendance, lower rates of repetition and drop out as well as better learning achievement level." Without sanitary towels the girls will have awful experiences that are likely to lead them in dropping out.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Number of days the respondents are absent from school

Out of those who at times are absent from school, 14.6% miss one day, 17.0% miss two days, (24.4%) miss three days while 22.0% miss four days; 22.0% of the respondents are constantly in school.

Incidentally, the girls miss school between one to four days. This corresponds to the
duration of menses. This is attributed to lack of sanitary towels since the same number which misses school cannot afford sanitary towels (78%).

Menstruation does not stop just because there is an emergency. The girls who cannot afford sanitary towels are forced to use old rags, pieces of blankets, toilet paper, newspaper, sponge or whatever else they can lay their hands on. With these items it is hard to attend school, since there are bound to be leakages and unpleasant odors.

Figure 7: Number of days the respondents is absent from school
(b) Frequency of school attendance during menstruation

Asked how often they attend school during menstruation, 40.2% of the respondents indicated that they at times attend school, 37.8% always attend school while 22.0% never attend school.

With only 22.0% of girls attending school regularly, the issue of gender parity can not be ignored. Parity is purely a numerical concept: reaching gender parity implies that the same proportion of boys and girls relative to their respective age groups - enter the educational system and participate in the full primary and secondary cycles. Gender equality is a more complex notion that is also more difficult to measure. Full gender equality would imply that girls and boys are offered the same chances to go to school and that they enjoy teaching methods and curriculum free of stereo types and academic orientation and counseling unaffected by gender bias.

A male teacher commented, "these girls who have started their menses not only miss school but also lessons because I have watched with a lot of concern in some days some specific girls will leave the class immediately after break to go to the toilet and they take a long time in the toilet leaving me wondering what they do and how much they lose."

Table 13: Frequency of school attendance during menstruation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School attendance</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At times</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(c) **Reason for missing school during menses**

The respondents who indicated that they always or at times miss school during menses cited lack of sanitary towels (78.1%) and abdominal pains (21.9%) as the main reasons for their failure to attend school. A study by Abagi and Bunyi (2004) on gender equity and equality in primary education covering 16 districts in Kenya revealed that despite free primary education, over two million school age children have no access to primary education. Most of these children are girls who come mainly from poor families or are orphaned due to the impact of HIV/AIDS pandemic.

To ensure that universal primary education is achieved by 2015, it is imperative for the government to take the issue of sanitary towel seriously.

**Table 14: Reasons why the respondents miss school during menses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for absence</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of sanitary towels</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>78.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abdominal pains</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.3.3 Availability and disposal of sanitary towels**

While sanitary towels are readily available in shops and super markets, the major problem is how many of the girls can afford them? This section looks at the level of awareness of existence of sanitary towels, its accessibility and affordability and disposal mechanisms.

**(a) Awareness of sanitary towels**

13.4% of the respondents have never heard of sanitary towels but 86.6% have heard. This high level of awareness may be attributed to the fact that the respondents are drawn from an urban area and thus sanitary towels are readily available.
Table 15: Whether the respondents have heard of sanitary towels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>86.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A majority of the respondents have heard of only one brand of sanitary towel (45.1%). This is shocking since the respondents are from an urban area, where all the brands are readily available.

Table 16: Number of brands of sanitary towels seen by the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>45.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Provision of sanitary towels

Only 22.0% of the respondents are provided with sanitary towels. This is explained by the fact the respondents were drawn from slums with high levels of poverty. Consequently, most of the families are unable to access basic services like food, shelter, health and education. The parents are therefore not in a position to provide their children with excess education requirements and sanitary towels is least among them. Some respondents revealed that they save money to purchase sanitary towards while others rely on the school to purchase for them.
Table 17: Whether the respondents are provided with sanitary towels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) Types of sanitary towels used by the respondents

Majority of the respondents who were provided with sanitary towels (68.3%) indicated to have used always sanitary pads. Other brands that have been used by the respondents are dream girl (1.2%), marvel girl (2.4%) and sunny girl (3.7%) as indicated in table 16 below.

Table 18: Types of sanitary towels used by the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sanitary towels</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>68.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dream girl</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marvel girl</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunny girl</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(d) Quantity of packets used

12.2% of the respondents indicated that they use one packet of sanitary pads during the monthly periods followed by 6.1% who use two packets and 3.7% who use
three. This is mainly due to the high costs of sanitary towels. Even though they are provided with sanitary towels (22.0%), the parents are unable to purchase enough packets. The respondents in this class are therefore forced to minimize changing of pads to cope with the situation. This presents an unhygienic situation and is unhealthy. They therefore do not feel confident and comfortable, the feelings supposed to be achieved by use of sanitary towels.

Table 19: Number of packets of sanitary towels used by the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of packets</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One ~</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.4 Affordability of sanitary towels

Most of the respondents (78.0%) find sanitary towels too expensive to afford. Only 22.0% indicated that they can afford sanitary pads. This is because the respondents are from very poor backgrounds and therefore sanitary pads are not considered a necessity. Even if free primary education enabled children and adults to access education without paying fees, there are still some cases of school drop outs and resistance by the girl child. In most cases, parents living these areas have a low income that makes them unable to buy the pads as well as providing the basic needs for the family. Sanitary towel is beyond the reach of many girls because they are too expensive for the parents. This is because the income that their parents get cannot sustain the budget of food and other basic needs. Poverty is a major impediment to human development and socio-economic progress in Kenya. With 56% of the population living below poverty lines, there is need for drastic measures to be
undertaken to alleviate poverty especially in the slums. A consistent finding of poverty studies in developing countries is that education is the main route out of poverty (Republic of Kenya 2002:3).

A toilet cleaner commented, "I have never seen any sanitary towel thrown on the floor, I have only seen rags on the floor and other funny things."

Figure 8: Affordability of sanitary towels

![Affordability of sanitary towels](image)

4.3.5. Disposal of sanitary towels

During their days of menstruation, 15.9% of the respondents change only once in a day, 3.7% change twice and 2.4% change thrice. This is in agreement with the fact that most of the respondents can only afford one packet of sanitary towels.

These findings are illustrated in figure 8 below.
Figure 9: Number of changing times in a day

![Graph showing number of changing times in a day](image)

Asked whether it was easy to change while in school; 72.3% indicated that it was not easy compared to 27.7% who found it easy. Majority did not find it easy because the toilets are either inadequate or if available they lack doors thus no privacy. The general practice that people are comfortable with is disposing of menstruation waste in toilets or rubbish bins. Some also prefer burning them. The disposal of menstruation protection seems to be influenced by location. Women dispose of this differently depending on where they are at the time. For instance, their behaviour when they are at home is different than when they are in public places.

Table 20: Whether it is easy to change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>72.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.6 Availability and state of toilets

On availability of toilets in the schools; 57.3% of the respondents indicated that the toilets were many. However, 42.7% indicated that the toilets were inadequate for girls. 97.6% of the respondents indicated that water is available in the school compared to 2.4% who were on the contrary.

Evidence shows that the availability of safe water and separate latrines is a major factor in getting children especially girls to enter and complete school. This was born out in Guinea where enrolment for girls increased; 17% and retention rates, increased 20% from 1997 to 2002, following improvements in environmental sanitation which include the construction of separate latrines for boys and girls. (UNICEF 2003).

A class teacher said, "during breaks many of these girls queue to get into the toilets and the big girls will wait even if they are getting late because they need privacy and most of the toilets lack doors."

Table 21: Availability of water and toilets in the respondents' schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Availability of toilets</th>
<th>Availability of water</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
<td>Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Few</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Effects of lack of sanitary towels on girls' participation in class

Asked whether they answer questions actively during menstruation periods, 78.0% of the respondents indicated that, they did not answer questions actively. Similarly, 78.0% of the respondents did not concentrate in class during menstruation.
The reforms for free primary education which have led to the expansion of enrolment and brought to school more girls but still there are disparities especially in girls' participation and performance. The girl child who lacks sanitary towel during menses is unable to concentrate and participate actively in class. They are uncertain and actually not healthy according to definition by (WHO 1993) which defined health as a state of complete physical, mental and social well being, and not merely the absence of disease or injury.

**Table 22: Participation in class**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answering questions</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Concentration in class</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>22.76</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>~22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>78.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.4.1 Sitting arrangement**

59.8% of the respondents were not comfortable with the sitting arrangement in class. This is because they are made to sit in between boys. The rest were comfortable because they sit girls only.

Since a majority of the girls (78%) are unable to afford sanitary towels, sitting between boys as is the case in one of the schools, is a real nightmare. The boys ridicule the girls when the latter mess their clothes making the condition assume an image of stigmatization to the girl child.
assignments, read or sleep. Some of those who go for PE just watch others playing and cheer them. The situation is worse whereby the girl child has to either declare her status to the teacher or pretend to be sick to avoid participating and being involved in the co-curricular activities. Therefore, the question of special needs becomes a challenge, to ensure that, not only do girls enroll but remain and participate actively in school.

Table 25: Whether the respondents attend PE during menses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>48.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>51.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.2 Movement

Asked whether they felt confident with activities that involve movement, 59.8% were not confident while 40.2% were confident. Most of them are worried of leakages, while those who have sanitary pads are worried that they may fall down.

Table 26: Whether the respondents feel confident with activities that involve movement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>59.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.3 Withdrawal from friends

59.8% of the respondents indicated that they withdrew from their friends when in periods during sports, 40.2% do not. This may be attributed to low self-esteem as a result of lack of sanitary towels. Girls’ low self-esteem slows their progress (Dona Dunn, 1997:26). According to Brehm S. Sharon et al (2002:68) talks of a need for self-esteem that people with positive self image tend to be happy, healthy,
productive, successful and confident. While people with negative self-image tend to be more depressed. This may explain the high percentage of withdrawal form friends among the girls during menses.

Table 27: Whether the respondents withdraw from friends during menses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>59.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.4 Playing with boys counterparts

The respondents (96.4%) which is (79) do not like playing with boys during menses. Only 1.3% which is 3 of them, indicated that they liked playing with boys during menses. They expressed fears the boys will ridicule them since they may notice that they are on menses.

4.6 Coping Mechanism

Majority of the respondents (78%) can not afford sanitary towels and therefore have to devise ways of coping with the situation. They at times fail to attend to school when it becomes difficult to cope with the menses. However, they have devised the following ways to cope:

- When the menses starts while in school,
- They tear pieces of paper from their books and use them
- Some remove and use their stockings.
- Others prepare for menses by using old pieces of clothes.
- Some are given tissue papers by their teachers.
- Sponges from mattresses and pieces of blankets are used by some.
- Quite a number revealed to be using cotton wool.
- Incase of leakages, the girls tie sweaters around their waists.
- Some even go to the extent of using handkerchiefs.
- Some respondents reported that they wear many pants.
Comments were made by the respondents as follows

One girl said that at times their parents ask whether there are rats eating their mattresses. Since they are not free to tell their parents the truth, they do insist that it is the rats that chewed the mattresses.

A standard seven pupil said, "When am in my periods, I feel fresh after bathing because I use rags and they leak."

Another pupil said, "We are lucky because of our school uniform, even if we mess one cannot detect easily"

A guidance and counseling teacher commented, "many girls come to me for assistance and at times I give them money just to buy any cheap material they can get and this is expensive for me because even in my house I have other things to buy".

There is a dearth of information about how women handled menstrual period during the times before the regular use of some form of sanitary towel. For the most part, it seems nothing was used apart from normal underwear (Museum of Menstruation and Women's health) so the development of products such as sanitary towels and tampons is relatively recent, with the revolution in feminine hygiene that has occurred since the early part of the 20th Century. The sanitary towel had been in use from the 19th Century. Industrialization brought many changes worldwide. Until disposable sanitary pads were created, all women used some form of cloth or reusable pad to collect menstrual blood. Even after they were commercially available, for several years they were too for many women to afford. It took many years for disposal of menstrual pads to become common place, but since then in most areas of the industrialized world, their use became almost exclusive. For many women, they would like to use products with which they feel both confident and comfortable. Sanitary towels were introduced as a menstrual device for women to wear in order to improve their health. Sanitary towels are worn to absorb menstrual
discharge and thereby protect clothing and furnishings. They make the girls confident of themselves and are also hygienic.

The way the respondents cope with menses, seems to reflect what used to take place before 19th Century. Two Centuries later, sanitary pads should have been a basic requirement. It is imperative that the needs of the girl child be given attention just like other basic requirements.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary of Findings

The study was interested in investigating the behavioural impacts of sanitary towels among primary school girls in Korogocho slum in Nairobi. The first objective was to investigate the effects of lack of sanitary towels on girls' self-esteem. The second objective was to investigate how lack of sanitary towels has influenced girls' school attendance. The third was to establish the effects of lack of sanitary towels on girls' participation in class. The fourth was to investigate the effects of lack of sanitary towels in co-curricular activities. The final objective was to investigate ways in which the girls cope with lacking access to sanitary towels.

Findings of this study clearly revealed that although the Free Primary Education has expanded educational opportunities for all children, the girl child in low income areas still faces obstacles because of biological factors. It was found that lack of sanitary towels greatly affects the girls' self-esteem. 73.2% of the respondents indicated that they experience low self-confidence and feel shy during menses. This number almost corresponds to those who have no access to sanitary towels (78%). This greatly affects their participation in class and in co-curricular activities and even results to the girls' failing to come to school during such periods.

The study revealed 62.2% of the respondents are forced to be absent from school during certain times as a result of lack of sanitary towels. The number of days they miss school varies from one day (9.8%), two days (12.2%), three days (19.5%) to four days (20.7%). It is only 22.0% of the girls who always attend school, even during menstruation period.

On the respondents' participation in class, 78.0% indicated that they did not answer questions actively and they did not concentrate in class during menstruation. 59.8% of them were not comfortable with the sitting arrangement which had them sit
between boys and 81.5% were not free to interact with the boys' counterparts.

It was found out that participation of girls' in co-curricular activities was greatly hampered during menstruation. 51.2% of the respondents did not go for physical Education (PE) during menses, while those who went did not participate actively. 59.8% of the respondents' did not feel confident with activities that involve movement hence feared participating in curricular activities. A similar number (59.8%) withdrew from their friends during sports and a clear majority (96.4%) did not like playing with boys counterparts during menstruation.

Menstruation is a biological process and does not stop just because the girls have no sanitary towels. In order to cope with lack of sanitary pads, the study found out that the girls resort to inappropriate methods of containing their menstrual flow. For instance they use old rags, pieces of blankets, toilet paper, newspaper, sponge, handkerchief, tying sweaters around their waists or whatever else they can lay their hands on to manage the monthly periods. These methods are however, unhygienic and a health hazard.

5.2 Conclusion

Free primary Education was launched in Kenya in January 2003. This was the time the NARC-government took over power and promised to invest heavily in human resource development. In the government's view, investment in human capital of the poor is seen as a key pillar and strategy for recovering the country's economy through creation of wealth and employment. Due to the governments' recognition of education as a fundamental strategy towards human resource development, free primary education was implemented with the main objective of bringing back to school thousands of children who had dropped out due to numerous levies charged. By eliminating payment of levies at primary school level, the government aimed at achieving 100% enrollment at primary school level. This is a fulfillment of the provisions of the Children's Act that provides for free and compulsory education and to ensure the country conforms to the various international frameworks and conventions. Specifically, free primary education is aimed at conforming to the EFA goals, and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) that recognize education
as a fundamental human right.

Study findings indicate that, after implementing free primary education learning opportunity for all children in Kenya, however, the girl child in slums still face obstacles due to biological factors that need to be addressed to allow her to participate fully in education. Lack of sanitary towels is a great impediment to the girls' full participation in education since it lowers their self-esteem. They fail to attend school at times every month and this may affect their academic performance. Even when they manage to attend school, they cannot fully participate and concentrate in class as revealed by this study.

Information from the data collected in this study indicated high levels of unemployment and low levels of education among the respondents' parents. Faced with limited resources the parents are majorly concerned with putting food on the table and disregard sanitary towels as a luxury. This has resulted to the girls either opting to stay at home during monthly periods or using all sorts of paraphernalia in their disposal.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

i. Provision of adequate sanitary facilities to girls in all schools regardless of the socio-economic status
ii. Development of sound educational policies to create awareness of adolescent girls needs for sanitary pads and general hygiene.
iii. Inculcate awareness in stakeholders namely the community and parents/guardians, teachers on adolescent needs for protection and safeguard of their self esteem.
iv. Develop relevant training for teachers and educational officers on adolescents psychology and development and impact of sanitary pads on girls overall education.
v. Finance the provision of sanitary pads in all schools; primary, secondary and tertiary institutions as a policy
5.3.1 Recommendations for further Research

To strengthen this research, there is need to carry out a study aimed at capturing information on the impact of poverty and on socio-economic status on the self-esteem of girls during puberty stage. More studies should also be carried out on the impact of availability/unavailability of sanitary pads on the academic performance of adolescent girls in schools.
REFERENCES


EFA Global Monitoring Report 2004 Gender and Education for All the leap to equality.

FAWE Information Kit


http://news.bbc.co.Uk/1/in/world/Africa/default.stm

Hurst E.Charles (1992) Social inequalities: Forms, causes and consequences. Allyn and Bacon


Jennifer Haupt Report 2000, more girls experience early puberty


UNESCO/UNICEF (Sep 1992 & March 1994) Monitoring Education for all goals


APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PUPILS.

Dear Respondent,

My name is Florence Otieno and I am a Master of Arts student in Sociology at the University of Nairobi. I am carrying out a research on effect of lack of sanitary towels on the girls in primary schools - a case study of the Korogocho slum in Nairobi. Your participation will be highly appreciated and your response to the questions below will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Thank you in advance.

Yours sincerely,

Florence A. Otieno
Section A

(Please tick where relevant)

Background Information

Date

School

Personal Information

Age

Marital status of parents

a) Married
b) Single
c) Widow/ Widowed
d) Separated/Divorced

Marital status of parents

e) I do not know

Number of children in your family

Girls

Boys

Occupation of mother/guardian.

(a) Employed
(b) Self-employed
(c) Unemployed
(d) Handyman

Occupation of father/guardian
(c) Employed [ ]
(0) Self-employed [ ]
(g) Unemployed [ ]
(h) Handyman [ ]

Education level of parent/guardian

(i) Primary [ ]
(j) Secondary [ ]
(k) University [ ]
(l) None [ ]

In What class are you?

a) Std 5
b) Std 6
c) Std 7
d) Std 8

Whom do you live with?

a) Both parents
b) Single parents
c) Relative
d) Other specify

Effect of lack of sanitary towels on self Esteem

1) Have you started your menses/periods?

a) Yes
b) No
2) How old were you when you started your menses?

_____________
Specify years

3) Are you happy with yourself during this time?

5. Very much
4. Very
3. Average
2. Little
1. Very little

4) How do you feel when you get your periods when you are in school?

5) How much self confidence do you have in yourself?

5. Very high
4. High
3. Average
2. Little
1. Very little

6) Do you feel shy to mix with your friends?

How lack of sanitary towels influences school attendance

1) Are there times when you are absent from school?
2) What happens during these times?
3) How many days do you miss?
4) How often do you attend school when you are menstruating?
   a) At times
   b) Always
   c) Never

Other (specify)

5) Have you missed school during your periods?

Give reasons for missing

6) How many times do you change in a day?
7) Do you find it easy to change during your menses in school?

Give reasons

8) When it feels difficult to attend school in such circumstances, what do you think of doing?
   a) 
   b) 
   c) 

9) How does one feel without sanitary towels and with it while in school? Explain briefly.

**Effect on class participation**

1) How long do you go for your menses?
2) Do you answer questions in class actively during your periods?
3) Do you concentrate in class activities?
   
a) Yes
   
b) No

4) How attentive in class are you during that period?
   
a) Very
   
b) Not at all
   
c) Not very

5) Are you free to interact with your boys counter parts during your menses?
   
Give reasons

6) Are you comfortable with the sitting arrangements in class?
   
Give reasons

Co-curricula activities

1) Do you go for P.E during your menses?

2) What do you do during this time?

3) Do you feel confident with activities that involve movement?

4) What worries you most during this Period?

5) Do you like playing with boys during this time?

Give reasons

Coping strategy

I) Have you ever heard of Sanitary towels?

   a) Yes
b) No

2) Are you provided with sanitary towel at home or in school?

3) How do you cope with the situation without sanitary towels?

4) Do you withdraw from your friends when in periods during sports?

5) Do you move freely during your periods in sports?

6) Who buys it for you?
   a) Parents/Guardian
   b) School
   c) Self
   d) None

7) In the event that days are approaching what do you do?

8) How many brands of sanitary towels have you seen?

9) Which type of sanitary towel have you used?

10) How many packets do you use for the whole period?
    a) One
    b) Two
    c) Three
    d) None

11) How many toilets do you have for girls in school?
    a) One
    b) Many
    c) Very few
d) None

'2) Do you have water in school?
   a) Yes
   b) No

14) How affordable is the cost of sanitary towels
   a) Affordable
   b) Not affordable
   c) Too expensive
   d) I don't know
APPENDIX IV:

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR IN DEPTH INTERVIEWS

1) Introduction
2) Establish a report
3) Introduce the topic
4) Discuss the effect of lack of sanitary towels on the girl's self-esteem.
5) Discuss how the lack of sanitary towels has influenced girl's school attendance.
6) Identify the effects of lack of sanitary towels on girls participation in class activities
7) Identify how the lack of sanitary towels affects the girls participation in co-curricula activities
8) Explain how girls cope the situation without sanitary towels.
APPENDIX III:

OBSERVATION GUIDE (CHECK LIST FOR OBSERVATION)

1) Toilets available
   - Are there toilets for girls only?
   - How many are they?
   - Where are the toilets facing?
   - Do they have doors?
   - Are they lockable? (with shutter)
   - How far are the toilets from the girls?
   - If no toilets where do they go?

2) Sitting arrangements
   - How many sit in a desk
   - What is the ratio between girls and boys?

3) Number of pupils on the register

   Boys

   Girls

4) Number of pupils on the register?
5) Get ages of girls in each class from youngest to oldest.

6) General pupils appearance e.g.

   Clean, neat and well groomed

7) Observe girl interaction with other boys
APPENDIX IV:

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR PUPILS

1) What are the reasons that have made girls miss school?

2) How do girls feel without sanitary towels?

3) How does lack of sanitary towels affect girls during co-curricula activities?

4) Give reasons for not participating actively in class during menses?