SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS INFLUENCING GIRLS’ PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AMONG THE INTERNALLY DISPLACED PERSONS IN CAMPS IN NAIVASHA DISTRICT, KENYA

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A Research Project Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of the Degree of Master of Education in Education in Emergencies

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DECLARATION

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

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This research project is dedicated to my spouse Judith; to my children; Dominic, Steve, Nyaboke and Desmond and my beloved mother Moraa.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work will be incomplete without acknowledging some people whose outstanding contribution encouraged me to complete this work.

I therefore extend my most sincere thanks to the almighty God who guided me and made it possible for my completion of master of education course in Education in Emergencies. My appreciation also goes to my wife Judith Cherotich who consistently encouraged me during my entire period of the study.

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<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of All Discrimination Against Women</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<td>IASC</td>
<td>Inter Agency select Committee</td>
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<td>IDP</td>
<td>Internally Displaced Persons</td>
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<td>IIEP</td>
<td>International Institute for Educational Planning</td>
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<td>INEE</td>
<td>Inter Agency Network for EIE</td>
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<td>KIE</td>
<td>Kenya Institute of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>RoK</td>
<td>Republic of Kenya</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Package for Social Sciences</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNCRC</td>
<td>United Nations Convention on the Rights of Children</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children's Fund</td>
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<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organization</td>
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ABSTRACT

The gender imbalance against girls is a reflection of a complex combination of historical, socio-economic, socio-cultural and other factors which influence the participation of girls in education among the IDPs in Naivasha. Those factors lead to unequal chances for boys and girls to enter primary school. One of the government’s key philosophies for education is the concern that every Kenyan should be educated. However, only a minority has attained such a level of formal education especially girls.

The major purpose of this study was to assess how socio-economic factors influence girls’ participation in education among the IDPs in Naivasha District. The socio-economic factors being assessed include poverty, socio-cultural, and parental attitudes towards girl child education. The study aims to determine the socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the IDPs. The sample for the study was 3 head teachers, 20 teachers and 271 pupils. Respondents were sampled using simple random and systematic random sampling techniques. Data were collected using self-administered questionnaires for head teachers, teachers, and pupils. Descriptive statistics methods were used to present and analyze data. Information from data analysis was presented in the form of frequency tables, percentages, pie-charts and bar graphs. Findings revealed that there were socio-economic factors that contributed to low participation of girls in education. Most parents were economically challenged hence could not meet the basic needs of their daughters especially sanitary towels.

Socio-cultural factors also contributed to low participation of girls in schools. The factors included early marriages, early pregnancies helping at household chores, taking care of other family members, preference of education of boys to girls, cultural beliefs and cultural rites. Parents withdraw their children from school in order to have them engaged in income generating activities. Most schools were not girl-friendly and ended up dissuading some from attending school such as distance covered to and from school. It was also revealed that there were parental factors which contributed to low participation of girls in schools, this included, parental level of education, bias in parental support and parental involvement in their children’s education. There is poverty, gender violence in school, pregnancy, hidden costs in schools like uniforms, lack of school funds. The study therefore recommended that there is need for the government to train the IDP community on the importance of educating girls. It also recommended establishment of more rescue centers to save girls from cultural rites and practice and also establish bursary schemes in order to make education accessible for poor children particularly girls.
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Education is one of the main factors that facilitates and fosters effective attainment of social, economic and national development. Through education, individuals acquire knowledge skills and self-confidence to be competitive in a world that requires them to be more productive economically, (the Newsletter vol.4, Nov 2008). Education is fundamental right of every person. Education has been formally recognized as a human right since the adoption of the universal declaration of human rights in 1948. This has since been affirmed in numerous global human rights treaties, including the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) convention against discrimination in education (1960), the international covenant on economic, social and cultural rights (1966) and the convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against woman (1981). These treaties establish an entitlement in free, compulsory primary education, supported by measures to render it accessible to all children, as well as equitable access to higher education; and a responsibility to provide basic education for individuals who have not completed primary education.

Article 28 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) 1989 sets out the right to education to which every child is entitled. Article 29 of
the convention also attaches importance to the process by which the right to education is to be promoted (UNCRC, 1989). Addressing this widely recognized need for change, the Dakar Framework for Action adopted a world declaration on Education for All in 2000 which affirmed the notion education as a fundamental right and established the new millennium goal to provide every girl and boy with primary school education by 2015 (UNESCO, 2000).

Great progress has been made in the decade since the Dakar World Education Forum’s pledge to achieve universal primary education by 2015. Overall, more students are now enrolling in school and of these new enrolments, arising percentage are females. However, despite a considerable reduction in the gender gap in the primary education, school still remains out of reach for millions of girls in the developing world. While the total number of primary school aged children not enrolled has been reduced by more than 30 million since 1999, 54% of out-of-schoolchildren still is girls (UNESCO, 2010).

Research has emphasized the importance of girl’s education for development. Education has proven to be associated with economic growth (Klasen, 1999), lower fertility rate and reduced rates of domestic violence (Sen, 1999). However, despite the almost universal acknowledgement of the importance of girls’ education, many barriers to their fully participation still remain. Researchers have found that these obstacles exist on a multitude of levels, including entrenched societal beliefs that do not prioritize formal education, practices that create
incentives for early marriage, financial constraints such as school supply fees (Levine, 2006; Roby et al., 2008; Sutherland-Addy, 2008). While in general there are numerous barriers to girls’ participation in education, such as social-cultural barriers, social economic factors, school related factors and conflict problems, some circumstances have been seen to increase the likelihood that girls prematurely drop out of formal education. For example, early pregnancy has been associated with increased drop-out rates for girls (Grant & Hallman, 2009).

Similarly, girls in conflict affected settings are less likely to be enrolled in the formal education system for reasons that range from lack of appropriate school facilities and qualified teachers to concerns regarding the safety of girls travelling to and from the school itself (Kirk, 2003). The Salamanca statement extends the principal of non-discrimination by emphasizing the importance of accommodating the individual learning needs of children. Factors that may cause discrimination against children include: gender, language, capabilities, conflict, HIV/AIDS, hunger and poor health, ethnic or religious minority, status and membership in all ultralow groups within a community (UNESCO, 1994).

The Dakar Framework asserts that ‘education systems must be inclusive, actively seeking out children who are not enrolled and responding flexibility to the circumstances and needs of all learners (UNESCO) 2000. According to the Koech commission (RoK, 1999) gender stereotyping in textbooks and other educational materials was said to be responsible for limiting girls’ expectations and reinforcing negative self-perceptions. There was lack of role models for girls in
textbooks especially in science and technical fields (KIE, 2002). In Kenya, social cultural attitude, late entry, early marriages, the payment of bride-price, gender roles and status, the division of labour, the home environment, physical and psychological security of the female, the costs of education, inadequate and gender-based educational facilities act as obstacles to girl child schooling. Perhaps this contributed to the passing of the Children’s Act (2001) by parliament not only in recognition of education as a basic human right that every child should enjoy, but also to provide equal educating opportunities and to remove cultural, religious and other forms of biases, particularly against girls (Mwagi Omondi, 2008). Alika and Egbochuku (2009) found that socio-economic status of the girls imposes considerable constraints upon their continuing stay in school.

One of the key barriers to education, particularly in situations of war conflict, is insecurity. Hence, to address the gender dimensions of emergency situations, one must examine the issues from both supply and demand side issues such as; when schools are destroyed, and children have to travel long-and possibly dangerous distances to attend the nearest functioning facility, girls are more likely to stay at home. When schools are damaged and no sanitary facilities exist girls are affected and boys may be at risk of abduction and forced to recruitment by fighting forces at school or on their way to and from school and girls may at increased risk of abduction and sexual violence and exploitation. On the demand side factors, where families are impoverished, they may prioritize education for boys because they don’t have money to pay for girls’ school fees, uniforms and other supplies.
Early marriage and pregnancy are additional barriers to girls taking up their education (IASC, 2006).

According to the UNHCR report (2009), at the end of 2009, the number of people of concern was 43.3 million, the highest number since the mid 1990s, this includes IDPS 27.1 m, of 2.2 m IDPS have already returned to their place of origin in 2009. The 1998 guiding principles recognize the rights of IDPS and the obligation of the governments and international community towards these people. These people suffer more because the governments hide the world from watching them and treat them as invisible; principle 23 on education affirms the right of every human being the right to education. Principles 23(1) specify that to give effect to these rights for the IDP children, they should receive education which shall be free and compulsory at primary level (UNHCR, 2009).

During the post-election violence in Kenya in 2007/2008, figures from UNICEF indicate that more than 10,000 teachers were displaced, tens of hundreds more who taught at the middle-level and institutions of learning were also affected. Children were hardest hit. It is estimated that more than 50,000 secondary school going children and over 150,000 primary school children were affected. Despite the slowly returning normalcy most of them have not returned to their homes (KNHCR, 2008).
1.2 Statement of the problem

Great progress has been made in the decade since the Dakar World Education Forum’s pledge to achieve universal primary education by 2015. Overall; more students are now enrolling in school and of these new enrolments a rising percentage is female (UNESCO, 2010). However, greater challenges lie ahead if the goal to Education for All is to be achieved. Fiscal crises, civil strife, political instability, demographic pressures on education systems have resulted in stagnating enrolments and declining quality. There is also poor student participation, high drop-out and repetition rates, low academic achievements and low teacher morale and attendance. Perhaps the most daunting of all is that of promoting girls’ education. Analyses have revealed particularly wide gaps in enrolments in south Asia, Middle East, and North Africa, and Sub-Saharan Africa due to conflicts, for example the 2007 Post-Election Violence in Kenya in which more than 1500 people were killed and thousands displaced from their homes.

The Global survey on education in emergencies has found that under-funding of education services is particularly acute for IDPS and that their education also suffers from the lack of a systematic international response to internal displacement. However, despite a considerable reduction in the gender gap in primary education, school still remains out of reach for millions of girls in the developing world (UNESCO, 2010). Despite the expensive investment done in education and facilities with the aim of promoting social, economic, political and cultural advancement, socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in
education among the IDPs in camps in Naivasha, still acts as constraints to girls’ schooling. This study therefore sets out to determine socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the IDP in camps in Naivasha District.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the IDP in camps in Naivasha District, Kenya.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The study was guided by the following objectives;

i. To determine the extent to which socio-cultural create barriers to girls’ participation in education in the IDP in camps.

ii. To establish how poverty creates barriers to girls’ participation in education in the IDP in camps.

iii. To determine the extent to which child labour influences girls’ participation in education among the IDP in camps.

iv. To determine the influence of the adequacy of learning and physical resources on girls’ participation in education among the IDP in camps.

v. To determine the extent to which parents’ level of education influence access to girls’ participation in education among the IDP in camps.
1.5 Research questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

i. How do socio-cultural factors create barriers to girls’ participation in education in the IDP in camps?

ii. To what extent does poverty create barriers to girls’ participation in education in the IDP in camps?

iii. To what extent does child labour influence girls’ participation in education in the IDP in camps of Naivasha?

iv. What influence does availability of learning and physical resources on girls’ participation in education among the IDP in camps?

v. To what extent does the parents’ level of education influence access to education for girls among the IDP in camps?

1.6 The significance of the study

The study would attempt to provide training skills to education practitioners and professional peers on the factors that contribute to girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps. Policy makers may find the skills useful as they try to formulate educational policies that are gender responsive. Stakeholders in education may be trained on gender disparity barriers through the findings of the study so that solutions to the problem may be sought. The results to the study would influence scholarly research, theory and practice leading to educational intervention on the factors creating barriers to girls’ participation in education among the IDP in camps especially during conflicts. The results would call for
further research on socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the IDP in camps in Naivasha.

1.7 Limitations of the study

The limitation of this study was that it was not possible to control the attitude of the respondents which was to affect the validity of the responses. This is because respondents may at times give socially acceptable answers to please the researcher. To mitigate this, the researcher created a rapport with the respondents and requested them to be honest and assured them that their identity would remain confidential.

1.8 Delimitation of the study

The study was delimited to investigating the socio-economic factors influencing the participation of girls in education among the IDP in camps in Naivasha District. Certain variables that influence girls’ participation in education among IDP in camps in Naivasha such as security problems were not dealt with in the current study. The study was confined to 10 Naivasha IDP camps as the findings will be generalized to the rest of the IDP camps in the country with caution. The research targeted head teachers, students/pupils, and teachers from Naivasha IDP camps; hence the findings were not generalized to the rest of the IDP camps of Kenya.
1.9 Basic assumption of the study

i. In this study it was assumed that the respondents were knowledgeable, competent and that they provided the required information on the socio-economic factors that influence girls’ participation in education.

ii. The study assumed that the low participation of girls in education may have been caused by other factors other than socio-economic factors.

1.10 Definition of significant terms

The following significant terms have been used in the study.

**Inclusion** – refers to a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning culture and communities and reducing exclusion within and from education.

**Inclusive Education** – refers to a wide range of strategies, activities, and processes that are universal right to quality, relevant and appropriate education.

**Gender** – refers to the fact of being either male or female, socially constructed role responsibilities and identities on women and men and how these are valued in society.

**Barrier** - refers to problem, rule or situation that prevents somebody from doing something.
Gender equality – refers to equal enjoyment by women, girls to boys and men of rights to opportunities, resources and rewards.

Gender based violence – refers to any harmful act that is perpetrated against persons will and that is based on socially ascribed gender differences

Socio-cultural -refers to something that involves the social and cultural aspects, it is also refers to relating to both social and cultural matters and it is the way people act and develop based around their surrounding

Socio-economic –refers to experiences and realities that help mold one’s personality, attitudes and lifestyle .it is involving both social and economic. It examines social and economic factors to better understand how the combination of both influences something.

Access - refers to getting into the school system or being able to be in school

Participation-refers to the involvement in any activity in the school context, it is the involvement in positive learning process like transition and retention. It is also taking part in educational activities.

Enrolment-refers to the number of learners registered for a particular education process.
1.11 Organization of the study

This study is organized into five chapters. Chapter one consists of the introduction or background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitation of the study, delimitations of the study, the basic assumptions of the study, and definition of the significant terms. Chapter two consists of the literature review, summary of reviewed literature, theoretical framework and conceptual framework. Chapter three consists of research methodology, introduction, research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, research instruments, instrument validity, instrument reliability, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques. Chapter four consists of data analysis, findings and discussions. Chapter five consists of summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses international call for education for all, including education in emergencies. It provides a review of literature on the factors affecting girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps in Naivasha. The section discusses some prior studies relevant to the current study. The literature review of this study is organized under the following topics: Socio-economic factors such as; early marriages, poverty, pregnancies, parents’ educational background, gender discrimination, health, child labour and HIV and AIDS.

2.2 Barriers to girls’ participation in education

Early marriages are barriers to girls taking up or continuing with their education/schooling. When girls are enrolled in large numbers, dropout rates towards the end of primary school are usually high. Girls who are disabled, disfigured or severely mentally affected by the crisis are likely to be kept at home, possibly even hidden from outsiders and very unlikely to be able to go to school (Kane, 2004).

The Dakar Framework for action makes clear that education is important for everybody, from early childhood to adulthood. At the World Education Forum held in Dakar in April 2000. It was recognized that one of the barriers to attain
education for all (EFA) was the existence of countries and regions affected by current or recent conflicts, or natural disasters. Education is important for children and adolescents wherever they are even if they are displaced by man-made or natural disasters, and the Dakar Framework pledges this (UNESCO, 2000).

South Asia remains the gender – unequal and insensitive region in the world (UNICEF, 2005). Cultural, social beliefs and practices interface with each other to form multiple and overlapping disparities that exclude girls from their right to education. Patriarchy and a preference for sons, combined with parental perceptions of the opportunity costs of investing in girls education often seen as watering a neighbors free hand become risk factors for girls education. South Asia leads the world into the number of early marriages (UNICEF, 2005).

In Kenya, social culture attitudes, late entry into education system, adolescents pregnancy, early marriages, the payment of bride, price, gender roles and status, the division of labor, the home environment/home-based factors, physical and psychological security, of the females, the costs of education, inadequate and gender based education facilities act as obstacles to girl child schooling. Perhaps this contributed to the passing of the children’s act (2001) by parliament not only in recognition of education as a basic human right that every child should enjoy, but also to prejudice equal educational opportunities and to remove cultural, religious and other forms of biases, particularly against girls. (Nene, Thursday, Annema, Mwangi, Omondi, 2008).
The Beijing platform for action (1995) identified the social-cultural, attitudes, early marriages, early pregnancies, inadequate and gender-based teaching and learning materials and curricula, sexual harassment, inadequate physical facilities and other resources, competing domestic responsibilities of girls and young women and poverty on the major barriers towards education of girls. There is also safety and security problems, economics and discrimination. Some of the concerns raised out in the Beijing conference and framed within the Kenyan context still persist to a large extent. This is manifested by poverty, the cost of schooling competing domestic responsibilities and the labour market, customary attitudes and negative traditions, early marriage, pregnancy and schooling, the safety and security of girls, gender biased teaching, learning materials, curricula or facilities and lack of role models (Marphaitis and Archer, 2005).

2.3.1 Social-cultural factors influencing girls’ participation in education

Cultural and social beliefs, attitudes and practices prevent girls from benefiting from educational opportunities to the same extent as boys. There is often a powerful economic and social rationale for investing in the education of sons rather than daughters as daughters are perceived to less valuable once educated, and less likely to abide by the will of the father, brothers or husband. In most countries, both the public and private sectors continue to be dominated by men leading parents to ask themselves why bother educating our girls if they will never make it anyway. It would be generally agreed that girls as abroad category are at greater risk during an emergency, because of traditional disadvantage.
Normal patriarchal cultures are strengthened during emergencies, as people seek comfort in routines relations, roles and hierarchies. Afghanistan is traditionally seen as a site of educational difficulties for girls. These links of gender disadvantage with poverty and economic vulnerability is well documented (Mujahid – Mukhatar, 2008).

Early marriages and pregnancy is due to the low value attached to girls’ education and thus this reinforces early marriages against their will. Despite law against the practice, child marriage is common throughout south Asia and it effectively puts a stop to the education progress of many girls (Pttaway et al, 2007). Participation of girls in education continues to be a challenge in some communities in Kenya. In particular, the cultural practice of early marriage for young girls haunts many families as their young girls are withdrawn from school and married to comparatively old men. These practice becomes double tragic when the girls must be quickly married to counteract perennial poverty in their homes (Achoka, 2007). Cultural barriers often cited are limited roles for girls and women, differential treatment of girls in nutrition and health, men viewed as bread winners, a male dominated education system, gender – differentiated child-rearing practices, low status of women; lack of knowledge of the social and personal benefits of education, gender stereotyping and threat of sexual violence (UNICEF, 2007).
2.3.2 Influence of discrimination on girls’ participation in education

Frequently, IDPS suffer discrimination as result of their ethnicity or even the mere fact that of being an IDP. Indigenous and minority IDP students have been turned away even before entering class doors discrimination also exists within school walls, for example in Colombia. Discrimination may take the form of segregated schools established for IDPS as in Georgia (UNICEF, 2009). In most African countries, there has been general belief that education is better investment for boys than girls. Psacharopoulos (1985) argues further that girls in many poor families are expected to contribute to home care production at a much earlier age than the boys hence are likely to be under enrolled. Thus many poor families regard education for girls as low priority, where as education of sons is considered investment in security for old age.

2.4 Social-economic factors on girls’ participation in education

Among the barriers to education that IDP child frequently faces are:

2.4.1. The influence of the adequacy of learning resources

Although primary education is supposed to be free, informal levying of school fees often occurs. In Colombia, the UN special Reporter on the right to education reported that IDP families were forced to choose between eating and sending their children to school (UNICEF, 2009). There are also material requirements, the direct costs of sending all children to school are usually too high for poor parents, while primary school tuition fees have now been abolished in many countries,
nearly all developing countries still requires payment of various kinds, in many areas, and these charges are higher than direct tuition fees. They include charges for books, stationery exam fees, uniforms, contributions to building funds levies imposed by the school management committees, informal tips to teachers and training costs (Alkma & Unterhalter, 2005:39). Pencils, stationery and uniforms must be paid for, costs that IDP families with destroyed livelihoods have great difficulty meeting. In Azerbaijan and Tajikistan an ability to contribute wood for school heating winter kept a number of IDPs out of the classroom (UN, 2010).

2.4.2. Child labour on girls’ participation in education

The term ‘child labour’ is often defined as work that deprives the children of their childhood, their potential and their dignity, and that is harmful to their physical and mental development (ILO, 2001). The commission into the education system of Kenya (ROP, 1997) noted that child labour is a rampant practice that continues to keep children out of school especially in the prevailing situations of poverty at the household level. The current data indicates that despite the FPE policy being well on course, there are still up to 19million children trapped in different types of child labour. Out of this number, 13million of them are completely out of school with the remaining lot trying to combine education and the world of work (APPCANN, 2005). Poverty is one of the underlying causes of domestic child labour (Suda, 2001). Girls in poverty are more often employed in the informal sector; either in domestic work, paid or unpaid or in agriculture (population council, 2000). A recent survey of the UNICEF of households in Sub-Saharan
African countries indicate 31% of the children aged between 5 and 14 are engaged in unconditional worst form of child labour (UNICEF, 2004). Girls are being employed as child labour, bearing the main burden of housework and taking on the role of caring for the young siblings; is impacting girls’ performance. Opportunity costs refer to labour time cost to the parent when the child goes to school. The opportunity costs are usually much higher than for boys, since girls are expected to do more domestic work than boys (Alkmar & Unterhalter, 2005; 39-40).

A report by UN (2001) revealed that the division of labour in the home favored males leaving time and energy consuming domestic work to mothers and their daughters. Girls undertake heavy domestic work at a very early age. They cook, clean the house, and with all these chores done girls may be too exhausted to concentrate on their studies often resulting in poor scholastic performance and early drop out from the educational system, (2001). The problem of child labour is quite common in the Naivasha IDP camps where children are engaged in petty businesses. In Nairobi, girls are employed as domestic workers. Most of these girls are from the informal settlements such as Kibera, where children are still in private and community schools in the informal settlements. In rural areas where families are mostly poor, children drop out of school so as to work as house help and thereby earn their family income. Such habit usually denies girls the opportunity to complete their primary education as girls’ labour is seen to be imperative for family survival World Bank (1998).
IDP children often miss school because their labour is needed at home or to generate household income. Posting primary dropout rates are particularly high for IDP girls burdened by domestic, childcare/ and or agricultural responsibilities. Family poverty derives many girls out of school and into early marriages, prostitution and trafficking. Global survey on reduction in Emergencies has found that underfunding of educational services is particularly acute for IDPS and that their education also suffers from the lack a systematic international response to internal displacement (Amnesty International, 2008).

2.4.3 Poverty on girls’ participation in education

Poverty and lack of parental support has led to girls’ low participation in education. Girls from poor families, those in charge of their families and those from households headed by women generally think that after class five or six they are ready to support their families. In other words very poor parents do not give much importance to their children’s education, particularly daughters (UNSECO, 2005). To some parents, girls who have gone to school are not of any help or importance to their parents, since once married, they go to take care of other families, it is therefore useless to invest in education of their girls for there is no direct economic gain to parents (UNESCO, 2005).

Poverty is clearly part of economic disadvantages; the poor are the first to lose their livelihoods as they work as day labourers or child porters. The girls may be looking after smaller children while parents queue for food or handouts and try to
rebuild their lives. Education is low on the list of priorities for economic survival and poor children returns to school cost. Parents face increased hardships and poverty on the result of slow onset or recurrent national disasters, the only option for parents may be to withdraw their children from school or send them out to work (Save the Children, 2008).

Grinding poverty has denied 800,000 children a chance to enjoy free learning, a decade since it was introduced by president’s Kibaki’s government. The children mainly from the rural areas, urban and IDPS have been utilized as child laborers by their families to help earn a living. According to the government’s first ever assessment of the free learning, known as “End of Decade Report” the children have been trapped in pockets of poverty, while others have special learning needs, particularly those living with mental, physical and other learning difficulties. The report sought to assess the ambitious plan that every Kenyan child achieves universal basic education by the year 2015. with the support from the United Nations, the government now says those suffering most are orphans, adolescent mothers, those affected by HIV and AIDS, those discriminated against because of gender, culture and religion, young offenders, victims of domestic and the country’s political violence and refugees. This is the biggest headaches the government faces in ensuring that by 2015 all children complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality (Daily Nation 26, 2012).
The rapid recent increase in food prices in Bangladesh and elsewhere had had an impact on school attendance both because children have become hungry and less attentive and this parents have been less able to meet educational expenses. Parents have also been forced to cut back on the use of kerosene for right lighted. There by reducing the evening study period for students (Raihan, 2008). IDP children often miss school because their labour is needed at home or to generate household income. Post- primary dropout rates are particularly high among adolescents, especially girls burdened by domestic, childcare and or agricultural responsibilities. Family poverty drives many internally displaced girls out of school and into early marriages, prostitution and trafficking and boys into military recruitment (UN, 2010).

Low income and socially marginalized groups’ children to access to education in south Asia remains a challenge even though enrolment has increased, thus contributing to high proportioned out of school children many being girls, Herz, (2006). Many girls face discrimination and challenging circumstances that put them out of school or prevent them from meaningful learning. In some countries there is strong son preference where parents tend to value education for boys more than girls. Girls can be affected differently from boys when there are conflicts or natural disasters. They may be required to stay at home to care for young siblings, because of insecurity or to help with petty trading. The emergency may have left them without decent clothing, so that they are ashamed to attend school. They may lack sanitary materials; poor families often send boys to school
in preference to girls, since this may help improve their capacity to support them in the future. It is important to meet with community groups including women’s groups, youth groups and find out through participative dimensions the measures that can be taken to promote girls participation in schooling (UNESCO, 2002).

Abagi (1995), girls from households with low education and limited resources are disadvantaged than boys from similar backgrounds. Family needs and boy’s education rather than that of girls is prioritized. Abagi (1997) notes that when resources are too limited, parents have no option but to withdraw their children and while doing so, there is likelihood that girl is pulled out of school to give way to their brothers to continue with education. Girls’ education also places greater financial burden on family resources compared to boys for example uniforms, considering that they are less likely to go to school in torn or patched uniforms for propriety and modesty reasons. If girls have inadequate sanitary protections, then the beginning of menstruation may mean the end of the girls’ education (UNICEF, 1999).

Water supply and sanitation and transport facilities are important aspects of girl-friendly infrastructure. This also implies that latrines need to be user friendly regularly cleared and design and constructed in gender sensitive manner. (Save the children, 2008). As infrastructure fails, protective systems also break down, increasing the risk of exploitation and violence especially among girls, with
longer walks to school and limited availability of separate sanitation facilities (INEE, 2010).

2.4.4 Learning resources on girls’ participation in education

In general, the effect of poverty and malnutrition on the health of school age children falls harder on girls than boys. Boys may get preferential feeding, while girls, who have heavier domestic work load, are more likely to be under nourished. Even if they get to school, this adversely affects their performance and therefore retention rate. Health problems associated with pregnancy, especially for adolescent girls, obviously have a negative effect, as do rising trends of sexual activity in the younger generations where these occur. Problems associated with family size and family planning is widespread in relation to possible participation in education and implies the need for sex/health education at school level. It is clear that the health factor, through partly hidden and indirect effect is a very significant one in respect of the quality of young female participation in education as we see the quality of it (UNICEF, 2008).

2.4.5 Physical resources and girls’ participation in education

The uniforms and other school supplies typically required for school attendance are items that most internally displaced families, having cut off from their usual livelihoods, find particularly difficult to afford. Without these and other items, such as soap, IDP children may be turned away from school or they often report feeling too ashamed or even afraid to go to school. For adolescent girls, poverty
affects their access to education in several different ways such as direct and opportunity costs of attending school become greater for secondary age girls as they struggle for them to go to school, pay fees, and forego work opportunities (Kane, 2004).

2.4.6 The influence of HIV/AIDS

The effect of the HIV/AIDS pandemic is undermining the recent positive gains in education. Unfortunately the pandemic has been reported in every District in Kenya. In 2006, over 760,000 adults were tested for HIV/AIDS and 110,000 (35%) of these were in need of treatment and it included 6000 children (UNICEF, 2007). Behind these figures hides the immeasurable detrimental impact of the HIV/AIDS on development in general and on education in particular (UNESCO, 2002). This picture is especially bleak for girls aged 15-19. Girls in this age group are infected at the rates from four to seven times higher than boys, a disparity linked to the widespread exploitation, sexual abuse and discriminatory practices (Human Rights Watch, 2003). The pandemic affects the demand for schooling, enrolment, participation and completion necessitated by high rate of absenteeism from classes by pupils and by teachers leading to high dropout rate (Achoka, 2007). The death of family members to HIV/AIDS has resulted in an increased number of orphaned children, projected to be more than 42m, with 46% of them between the ages of 10-14 (UNICEF, 2002). These children are at risk of living in poverty, not being educated and being sold into the
sex trade (Mctanyre, 2004). In many prevalence countries poverty conspires with HIA/AIDS to affect the lives of the girls. When HIV/AIDS bite a family, girls are often the first to be taken out of school to take care of ailing parent or family member or to take the responsibility for their siblings, sometimes as heads of households (UNICEF, 2003).

The impact of HIV/AIDS is a key challenge to programmes and project development to increase girls’ access and participation in education and provide quality education. The impact of including sex education in the curriculum as a means of reducing transmission does exist. However, very little rigorous information is available addressing the wider impact of HIV/AIDS on the provision of education in particular to retention of girls in primary schools leaving an information gap that the study sought to fill.

2.4.7 Parental level of education on girls’ participation on education

The likelihood that a child will remain in school can be expected to be influenced by cultural attitudes within the family. Parents who themselves are educated other things being equal are likely to impact on positive view of school among their children. Studies on other parts of the developing countries almost invariably report that the educational experience and outlook of parents is transmitted to their offspring. In many instances parental education is more significant predicator than any other factor. Research carried out by UNICEF(2004) in 55 countries two Indian states found that children of educated women are much
likely to go to school and the more education the women have received the likelihood of their children were benefiting from education.

Going to school may entail crossing mine fields or military roadblocks. In Afghanistan, threats of sexual violence en-route to school kept many IDP girls at home. Distance can also be an obstacle for girls to live and stay in school especially continuing school beyond primary (EFA, 2004).

2.5 Summary of literature review

This chapter has reviewed literature that is closely related to socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the IDP in camps in Naivasha. They include socio-cultural factors, socio-economic such as poverty, child labour, school fees, uniforms, HIV/AIDS and policy on girls’ education issues. The research and policy dialogues on girls’ education in Africa remain marginal to the broader debates on how to address the crises in educational systems for girls. The lack of political will in promoting the education of girls, unclear strategies, and weak capacity in research and data collection also acts as constraints to female schooling (World Bank, 1996). Studies have also been carried out in various countries such as Afghanistan, India, Nepal and Pakistan which shows that girls’ enrolment has remained problematic, indicating a clear disparity between girls and boys in terms of access to basic education. There is still inequality in education access of girls and boys in many south Asia countries. This is attributed to cultural traditions and gender role stereotype. Girls improved
access to basic education has not meaningfully contributed to their social and political empowerment.

2.6 Theoretical framework

The orientation of this study was on participation rates that should be brought about by access of and retention. Pertinent steps should therefore be taken to ensure full participation for all in the education system. The study therefore adopted its theoretical framework from the Classical Liberal Theory of equal opportunity advanced by Horace Mann (1796) and advocated by John Rawls (Zilversmit, 1993).

Classical Liberal Theory of equal opportunity asserts that each person is born with a given amount of capacity, which to a large extent is inherited and cannot be substantially changed. Thus the education system should be designed so as to remove barriers of any nature (socio-economic, geographical and policy) that prevent girls from taking advantage of inborn talents. The Theory seeks for further going through the education system whose participation would be determined on the basis of individual merits and not on socio-economic, geographical barriers and polices.

This Theory is found relevant for this study because by removing barriers that hinder girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps in Naivasha, ideal conditions could be created to implement the vision of equal opportunity where everybody has access to the kind and amount of education that suits his or her
inherited capacity. This will in return reduce the incidence of dropouts, absenteeism and repetition which impacts negatively on education.

2.7 Conceptual framework

A conceptual framework is a mode of presentation in which a researcher represents the relationship between the variables in the study and shows them graphically or diagrammatically (Orodho, 2005). This is shown in figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework
The conceptual framework illustrates factors that are key determinants to factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the IDPs in camps in Naivasha. The factors discussed include; socio-cultural practices such as gender bias, discrimination, early marriages, teen pregnancy, domestic chores and parental level of education. Socio-economic factors such as poverty and child labour.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section discusses the research methods that were used in this study. This chapter covers research methodology organized into the following sub-headings, research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedures. Research instruments, sample size and sampling procedures, research instruments, validity and reliability of instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis procedures/techniques.

3.2 Research design

The research design has been defined as the process of creating an empirical test to support or refute acknowledged claim. Borg and Gall (1989) defines research design as a plan showing how the problems under investigation will be solved. The study employed descriptive survey design. The choice of the descriptive survey research design was made based on the fact in this study, the researcher was interested on the state of affairs already existing in the field and no variable was manipulated.
3.3 Target population

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), population is a complete set of individuals, cases or objects with some observable characteristics. The study targeted head teachers, teachers and pupils in Naivasha IDP camps, Naivasha district. The target population for this constituted about 1353 children and about 34 teachers totaling to about 1387 people (Mai Mahiu Primary School, 2012).

3.4 Sample size and sampling techniques

Borg and Gall (1996) defines a sample as a small proportion of a target population selected for analysis. For the purpose of this study, the researcher will use IDP camps in Naivasha, all 34 teachers and 1353 children will be sampled, Mai Mahiu Primary School (2012). Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), support that for descriptive studies 10% of the accessible population is enough while 20% may be required for a smaller population. Simple random sampling will be used to sample the schools. To sample the pupils the research used Krejcie and Morgan table (Mulusa, 1988). To sample the pupils this number will be divided by the number of 5 schools yielding a total of 271 this was then divided proportionately according to the number of boys and girls in the schools.

To sample teachers, the same methodologies were used whereby the number of teachers was divided by the number of schools yielding a total of 6 teachers per school. Simple random sampling using ballot method was used to select the pupils.
and teachers. All the head teachers of the sampled schools were automatically used for the study.

3.5 Research instruments

Questionnaires and document analysis were used to gather data for the study. Questionnaire offers considerable advantages in its administration. It can be used for large numbers of populations of data. All the questionnaires were expected to elicit information on socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps in Naivasha District. All the questionnaires had two sections. Section A was on demographic information and section B was on information concerning socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps in Naivasha District. All the questionnaires were both open and closed. The respondents were required to indicate their choices of answers by ticking against the selected item.

3.5.1 Instrument validity

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), define validity as the extent to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure. Validity is the degree to which an instrument measures what it purports to measure. The instrument for this study will therefore be validated through the application of content validity, which is determined by expert judgment. Gay(1992) identified content validity as matter of judgment by the researcher and professionals and has no specific formula for determination. In order to test and improve the validity of the questionnaire, the
researcher first did pre-test in a pilot study similar to the target population. Head teachers from Naivasha IDP camps were used to pre-test the instrument. The study sought expert opinion from the supervisors and assessment of the instrument on content validity.

### 3.5.2 Instrument reliability

Reliability is the degree to which a test consistently measures whatever it is measuring (Gay, 1976). A researcher’s tool is reliable if it is consistent and stable hence predictable and accurate. Therefore, a scale or test is reliable to the extent that repeat measurements made by it under constant conditions will give the same results. The reliability of a standardized test is usually expressed as a coefficient. The reliability of the instruments in this study was assessed using test-retest method in which the same respondents were subjected to a test twice, the second after two weeks from the first. To attain the reliability coefficient, each questionnaire item was awarded specific maximum scores for relevant response by the respondents. The responses in the first test were scored on the scale of the scores of each questionnaire item. The same was repeated in the second test. The scores were correlated using the Pearson’s product moment of correlation coefficient and this was taken as an estimate of reliability. According to Orodho (2005) Pearson’s product moment of correlation establishes the extent to which the content of the instruments are consistent every time the instrument is
administered. This was done using the Pearson product correlation formula as shown below:

\[
r = \frac{n(\Sigma xy) - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{\sqrt{[n\Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2][n\Sigma y^2 - (\Sigma y)^2]}}
\]

Where: \( r \) is the coefficient of reliability required.

\( n \) is the number of questionnaire items being correlated

\( x \) is the set of scores attained in the first test,

\( y \) is the set of scores of corresponding items in the second test.

If the reliability coefficient alpha was to be greater than 0.5 the study therefore was to be considered reliable for collecting data and if it is less than 0.5, it would be considered unreliable hence requires modification. The reliability score obtained was 0.5 and this was considered reliable study (Orodho, 2005).

3.6 Data collection procedures

The researcher sought research permit from the National Council for Science and Technology (NCST) before embarking on the study. A courtesy call was then made to the DC Naivasha District. Another visit was made to the D.E.O Naivasha to deliver the research instruments. The researcher then made appointments with the head teachers of the schools. On arrival at the school, the researcher created a
rapport with the teachers and explained the purpose of the study with them and then administered the questionnaire to them.

Best and Khan (2003), the person administering the instrument has an opportunity to establish rapport, explain the purpose of the study and the meaning of items that may not be clear. The respondents were assured that strict confidentiality would be maintained in dealing with their responses. The researcher administered the questionnaires to the respondents personally. As the students were filling the questionnaires, the teachers were filling theirs. The researcher collected the questionnaires after they had been filled.

3.7 Data analysis techniques

Quantitative data analysis involved establishing coded catalogues and then counting the number of instances when these catalogues were used in a particular text. This method was used to describe what is recording, analyzing and interpreting conditions that exist. The quantitative data were be generated by the numerical analysis of texts and then analysis using descriptive statistics. These included means, frequencies and percentages. Graphic illustrations in the form of tables were used to represent the data and resulting findings. Data gathered was coded for analysis. This was done after editing and checking out whether all questionnaires had been filled in correctly. This was then entered in the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) software for windows from which descriptions such as percentages (%) and frequencies (f) were used to answer the research
questions. Qualitative data was analyzed by thematic analysis that was the analysis of the main themes found in the study and analysis of the contents within the themes presented. The results were tabulated for ease interpretation. The major themes and patterns in the responses were identified and analyzed to determine the adequacy, usefulness and consistency of the information. Discrepancies in the responses were noted and accounted for.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the result of data analysis of the research study. This chapter has various sections. The first section provides demographic information collected from the head teachers, teachers, and pupils/students of the selected IDP camps in Naivasha. The second section provides information from the various aspects of the questionnaires in relation to the questions which were answered in the order in which they appeared.

4.2 Questionnaire return rate

Three types of questionnaires were used to collect data. The questionnaires were for teachers, class teachers, pupils/students, 20 teachers and 271 questionnaires were administered to 271 pupils in the same selected schools. Questionnaires were also administered to 3 head teachers from the 3 selected schools.

Two hundred and seventy one questionnaires out of 292 were received back completely filled by pupils representing 92.3% return rate while 21 were not well filled representing 7.7%. All questions in the questionnaire were answered by the head teachers in the selected schools, thus representing 100% return rate.
4.3 Demographic information of the respondents

This section deals with demographic information given by respondents which helped the researcher in the study.

4.3.1 Demographic information of teachers

Demographic information for teachers was based on their gender, marital status, age academic qualification and teaching experiences. To establish the gender of teacher, they were asked to indicate their gender and research data on teacher revealed that (60%) were male while (40%) were female.

The findings revealed that there was lack of enough female teachers as role models for girls to emulate in the schools. They were also asked to indicate their age bracket.

Table 4.1: Teachers’ responses on distribution by age

N = 20 teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age in years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25-30</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The findings revealed that most teachers were in the age bracket of (46-50 years). It was also revealed that majority of the teachers were aged 35 years and above. This shows that most of the teachers were quite experienced to be able to understand factors what affect girls in their schools. The results of the findings showed that teachers’ experience is significant and can be used to predict students’ performance. This result is in accordance with the findings of Sweeney (1998) and Jones (1997) who observed that the teacher is a prime factor in the performance of students.

The teachers were further asked to indicate their professional qualifications. Findings on the professional qualifications of teachers revealed that (20%) were degree holders, (30%) diploma/S1 holder/ATSIV, (50%) P1 and (0%) were untrained. The fact that majority had a P1 certificate and above means that they were well trained and experienced to understand factors that hindered girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps in Naivasha. These findings indicate that all the teachers were qualified as per the TSC requirement for employment of teachers in primary schools. Hence they were in a position to provide reliable information on the same. The teachers’ qualifications were found to be significant and can also be used to predict students’ participation in education. They were also asked to state the duration they had been teachers in their schools.
Table 4.2: Teachers’ responses on duration in the school

N = 20 teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 yr</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data was presented in table 4.2 showing that most of the teachers had teaching experience of over 10 years. This meant that they were well experienced in imparting their duties and had thorough knowledge on problems experienced in the schools.

4.3.2 Demographic information of the head teachers

The head teachers were asked to indicate their age. Their age distribution is presented in table 4.3
Table 4.3: Headteachers’ responses on age distribution

N = 3 head teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age distribution in yrs</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data presentation in table 4.3 shows that majority of head teachers were aged between 40 and 45. This shows they were mature enough to handle issues affecting girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps in Naivasha.

The head teachers were asked to indicate their academic qualifications. Their responses were presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Headteachers’ responses on academic qualifications

N = 3 head teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data on table 4.4 reveals that all head teachers were well trained as majority held diplomas/S1 certificates and above. They were therefore in a position to explain causes of low access and participation in education by girls.

According to Barasa (2007) head teachers with high working experience are found to have better management skills, quality leadership and more committed to improving quality of outcomes. Educational managers with wide teaching experience understands best practices in education, possesses the right skills and experiences in educational management. Such head teachers and teachers are capable of creating positive influence within the education sector. It is in light of this view that the respondents were asked to indicate their experience as head teachers. Data is presented in table 4.5

**Table 4.5: Headteachers’ responses on experience in the school**

N = 3 head teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 yrs</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total** 3 100.0
Data presented in table 4.5 revealed that 66.7% had been head teachers for duration of over 5 years. This shows that majority of the head teachers had been head teachers for a considerable length of time which would have given them good experience on factors affecting girls’ participation in education among IDP camps in Naivasha.

Their responses are presented in figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Headteachers’ responses on their duration in the school

Data presented in Figure 4.1 revealed that most of the head teachers had been head teachers for a long time.

4.3.3 Demographic information of pupils

The demographic information of pupils was based on their gender, age and parents educational levels. Date on pupils’ gender is represented in Figure 4.2.
Figure 4.2: Pupils’ responses on their gender

Data on gender showed that (55%) was male while (45%) were female. This shows that gender has not been maintained in terms of access to education and participation with very few girls in schools.

Table 4.6: Pupils’ responses on age distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age in yrs</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10-12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-14</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-17</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>271</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6 reveals that majority of the pupils were within the 15-17 age bracket. It further revealed that quite a number of pupils were above 15 years of age. This
implies that the same were quite mature to be in primary schools hence vulnerable to factors affecting access to education especially for girls.

The pupils were further required to indicate the levels of their parents’ education and the findings are presented in table 4.7.

**Table 4.7: Pupils’ responses on the educational level of their parents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCSE/KCPE</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>45.3</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never been to school</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>61.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7 indicates that in general majority of parents were illiterate with fathers representing 52.0% while mothers represented 61.3%. In addition findings revealed that the mothers were not as educated as the fathers. The mothers’ level
of education has a strong positive effect on their daughters’ access and participation in education (EFA, 2005).

Asked whether their parental level of education affected their access to education, (87.5%) said yes while (12.5%) said No. this revealed that children of those parents who received formal educational tend to value education more than those whose parents did not go to school at all. The students were asked to indicate whether parental level of education determined their own access and participation in education, (79.7%) said yes while (20.3%) said no. The reasons they gave for their answers is that educated parents discuss their children’s academic progress, set targets for them and challenge their children to perform well. To convince is the case for indicated parents. The pupils were further asked whether parents were committed to meet their educational needs. This study concurs with a research carried out by UNICEF (2004) in 55 countries whereby two Indian states found that children of educated women are much likely to go to school.
The study revealed that (86.7%) of the respondents had their educational needs met by their guardians/parents while (13.3%) indicated that their needs were not met as indicated in Figure 4.3.

This means that education of the girls is plagued with pedagogy of differences of how the parents perceive the education for girls. Parents who place a low value on girls’ education are unwilling to pay either direct or indirect costs of sending girls to school by considering the opportunity costs included. This is in line with UNICEF report (2005) stating that very poor parents do not give much importance to their children’s education particularly girls. To some parents, girls who have gone to school are not of any help or importance to their parents since
once married they go to take care of other families. It is therefore useless to invest in education for the girls for there are no direct economic gains for the parents.

4.4 Socio-cultural factors affecting girls’ education

Cultural factors and practices influence pupils’ decisions to enroll or withdraw from school. To analyze the research questions on how cultural factors had contributed to unequal access to primary education all the items related to this research question were grouped together from all the categories of respondents and discussed together.

Three (100%) of head teachers said that cultural factors affected girls’ access and participation in education was a factor leading to low participation of girls, the head teachers responses showed that, (100%) said they did while (0) said they did not.

Asked to give reasons, (33.3%) said that the parents valued education of boys more than of girls and (66.7%) said issues of early marriages, circumcision and the provision for the family were other factors. These findings are in line with Wamahiu (1995) who says that girls are discriminated in terms of education access. He says discrimination starts even before birth with parental and social negative attitude. The findings are also in line with a research carried out by Achoka (2007) stating that the practices (early marriages, pregnancy) are double tragedy when the girls are quickly married off to counteract the perennial poverty in their homes.
Head teachers were asked to indicate the extent to which some listed down factors contributed to low access of girls to education.

Table 4.8: Head teachers’ responses to socio-cultural factors

N = 3 Headteachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Most likely</th>
<th>Likely</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early marriages</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural rites</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural beliefs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To help in house</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data in table 4.8 showed that (66.7%) of the head teachers said that early marriages were most likely to contribute to low participation of girls in primary education,(33.3%) said it was likely while none said it rarely contributed. Majority of the head teachers (66.7%) said helping in household chores were likely to contribute to low participation of girls in schools. These activities rob girls of adequate time of study and subsequently they under perform in academic work and consequently lose interest and quit school.

The pupils respondents were also asked to indicate whether there were cultural
factors that hindered pupils’ participation in school. In this item (92%) said yes, while (8%) said no.

Asked to state some of the factors that cause low access to education they responded that early marriages, gender discrimination against girls were some of the factors. This concurs with the findings of head teachers that cultural factors such as marriages, cultural rites and cultural beliefs caused low access of girls to education. It also agrees with the findings of Psacharopoulos (1985) who argues further that girls in many poor families are expected to contribute to home care production at a much early age than the boys hence likely to be under enrolled. Thus many families regard education for girls as low priority, whereas education for sons is considered investment in security for old age.

The pupils were further asked to indicate whether in their opinion parents preferred educating one gender than another. In this item, (78.6%) said they preferred educating boys to girls because girls could be married off and hence no economic return to the family, as opposed to boys who were deemed to be of more economic value than girls. The findings are in line with research carried out by UNICEF (2005) stating that to some parents, girls who have gone to school are not of any help or importance to their parents, since once married, they go to take care of other families. It is therefore useless to invest in education for girls for there are no direct economic gains to parents.

The teachers were asked to indicate whether there were times girls could not
access education due to early marriages. (20%) reported that community around
the school had interest in girls’ education against (80%) who said that it was not
interested. The reason given by those who reported that the community was not
interested in girls’ education was that the community members believed that girls
should be married off since they had no economic returns to the family once
married off. These findings concur with Pttaway et al (2007) who say that despite
the law against the practice, child marriage is common throughout South-east Asia
it effectively puts a stop to the education progress of many girls.. It also concurs
with UNECIF (2005) which says that it is useless to invest in education for girls
for there are no direct economic gains to parents.

Asked to indicate what specific cultural factors led to low participation in
education by girls, majority of the teachers reported that it was due to pregnancies,
irresponsible parents, and negative attitude towards girls’ education as the major
factors. The head teachers were asked to indicate shortest distance that pupils had
to walk to school. The results are shown in Figure 4.4.
Figure 4.4: Head teachers’ response on distance covered by pupils

Date revealed that no pupils had to walk for less than 1 km, (66.7%) revealed that most pupils walked 1-5 km and (33.3%) indicated that pupils walked over 5 km as indicated in table 4.4.

The implication here is that most schools were situated quite some distance from pupils’ homes which often caused absenteeism from school especially by girls. This result is in accordance with the findings of INEE (2010) which said that as information fails, protective systems also breakdown, increasing the risk of exploitation and violence especially among girls, with longer walks to school and limited availability of separate sanitation facilities. It also agrees with the findings of EFA report (2004) which said that distance can also be an obstacle for girls to live and stay in school especially continuing beyond primary.
They further responded that the distance that pupils had to walk to school affected their access to education especially girls since they were exposed to most dangers than their counterparts, the boys. Thus girls arrived to school exhausted and also started classes as well as school late. This was due to the activities girls engaged in at home as opposed to boys.

The head teachers were also asked to indicate which other school based factors affect girls’ access to formal education. Findings revealed that (66.7%) stated lack of girl-friendly school environment, (33.3%) lack of motivation and encouragement from teachers and lack of adequate female role models and intimidation by boys.

**Table 4.9: Headteachers’ responses on school based factors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of girl-friendly school environment</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of motivation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of adequate female role models</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimidation/ridicule from boys</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unsafe environment such as teachers and boys’ harassment and abuse inhibit girls from accessing education.

Girls were asked to state whether they had any challenges, emanating from
violence they faced in schools. Their responses are presented in figure 4.5

Figure 4.5: Girls’ responses on school based factors

![Figure 4.5](image)

Figure 4.5 indicates that (34%) faced harassment by male teachers, (23%) looked down upon by female teachers, and (32%) were harassed by boys while (11%) engage in child labour.

The findings imply that girls face gender violence in the school environment which is perpetuated by teachers and male pupils which often leads to girls, poor performance in school. The head teachers were asked to indicate what school factors dissuade girls from accessing education in their schools. Their responses indicated peer pressure, understaffing, inadequate resources and distance from school.
4.5 Effects of poverty on girls’ participation in education

Poverty is a compounding factor along with culture, school factors and policies which further reduces the chances of girls being educated. This is backed by poverty eradication plan of the Kenya Government (1999-2015) which discovered that eradicating child labor was difficult due to ignorance of most parents especially the illiterate. The situation is worse for the girl child who becomes the first victim to drop out of school due to the boy preference in a situation of reduced resources (Republic of Kenya, 2001). The pupils were asked to indicate the nature of work their parents engaged in and their responses are presented in table 4.10

Table 4.10: Pupils’ responses on the nature of their parents’ work

N = 271 pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of work</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Father</td>
<td></td>
<td>Mother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal employment</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self employment</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual labour</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subsistence/livestock</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>271</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>271</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10 indicates that (3.7%) fathers and (2.0%) mothers were formally
employed (29.5%) fathers were self-employed while (17.0%) mothers were self-employed. Findings also indicated that (37.3%) fathers were casual laborers while (57.0%) while mothers were casual laborers, (22.8%) fathers were involved in subsistence livestock farming. While (4.0%) mothers involved in the same. (6.6%) fathers were involved in business while (20.0%) mothers were involved in business.

Considering returns got from self-employment where majority of mothers engaged in and subsistence/livestock farming where majority of fathers engaged in it can be concluded that the parents are not able to raise enough money for the education of girls considering cost benefits. This is despite the fact that the levies were more but parents were still not able to meet the basic needs for their children especially girls. This result is in agreement with the findings of UNESCO (2005) which revealed that girls from poor families and those from households headed by women generally think that after class five or six they are ready to support their families. In other words very poor parents do not give much importance to their children’s education, particularly daughters.

4.6 Socio-economic factors affecting girl-child education

The high cost of living and deteriorating economy has reduced the income available to families and the same has made it difficult for parents to provide education for all their children. The head teachers were asked about socio-economic challenges affecting girls’ participation in education and the results are
shown on table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Headteachers’ responses on the socio-economic challenges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-economic challenges</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bride wealth</td>
<td></td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No sanitary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child labour</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.11 shows that socio-economic challenges affecting girls’ participation in education among IDPs are varied. The highest proportion, 66.7% of the head teachers cited poverty as a barrier to girl child education. Traditional practices of preference for boys influence parents to take sons to school rather than their daughters in situations of economic constrains was common said the head teacher from Mai Mahiu primary school. This result is in accordance with the findings of Herzl (2006) who observed that many girls face discrimination and challenging circumstances that put them out of school or prevent them from meaningful learning. In some countries there is a strong preference where parents tend to value education for boys more than girls.

The head teachers added that girls from poor families are expected to contribute to the economy of the household. Girls’ contribution to the economy of household is
viewed from the perspective of incubating responsibilities and transfer of life skills from parents and older siblings to the young ones on future survival. This result is in agreement with the findings of UNICEF (2004) which said that girls are being employed as child labour, bearing the main burden of housework and taking on the role of caring for the siblings, is impacting girls’ performance. From table 4.13 the result shows that 33.3% of head teacher stated that parents’ desire for bride wealth and greedy attitudes to accumulate wealth have denied girls the opportunity to participate in education. This is in line with the findings of Achoka(2007) who observed that the cultural practice of early marriage for young girls haunts many families as their young girls are withdrawn from school and married off to comparatively old men. This practice becomes a double tragedy when girls must be quickly married to counteract perennial poverty in their homes.

The result from table 4.13 showed that, 33.3% of head teachers indicated that sanitation affect boys and girls retentions in school with girls more affected. The head teachers commented that lack of gender sensitive and culturally appropriate facilities is a deterrent to girls’ persistence in school. They added that many schools had no water or toilet facilities to meet the girls, needs, while sanitary pads may not be even available in IDP camps. Head teachers said that even in situations where there are sanitary pads for sell in shops some girls may not access the same due to the challenges of financial constrain. This result is in agreement with the findings of Save the Children (2008) which said that water supply and sanitation and transport facilities are important aspects of girl-friendly
infrastructure, 33.3% of the head teachers stated that parents prefer girls to work for immediate economic gain to the parents from the table the study therefore decided that poverty is a great hindrance to girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps.

The teachers stated that when parents are unable to meet indirect cost of education like uniform and sanitary pad for girls. They may place boys’ education priority as opposed to girls. Regarding teachers responses to the socio-economic challenges to girl child education 43.4% of the teachers mentioned poverty, 20% teenage pregnancy, 10% said parents negative attitude, 6.6% noted female genital mutilation 20% indicated child labour. Therefore, from the responses it is quite evident that both the head teachers and teachers agreed that poverty is a major impediment to girls’ participation in education. This concurs with the Ministry of Education view which highlights girls’ and women – empowerment – in general has been impeded by several factors such as cultural and religious practices, in adequate policy guidelines, poverty and lack of community awareness (MoE, 2007). Therefore in communities where girl education is not particularly valued poverty can further aggravate their lack of access to education (MoE, 2001).

4.7 Economic activity of people around the IDP camps

The economic activity refers to the means of livelihood that the community depends on for their daily survival. The means of livelihood may affect girl child participation in education and hence when teachers were asked on the economic
activities of the people around the school the result in table 4.6 was received.

**Figure 4.6: Teachers’ responses on economic activities**

![Pie chart showing economic activities with 70% for small scale businesses and 30% for livestock farming.]

The analysis of the economic activities of the people around the school indicates that 30.0% practice livestock farming while 70.0% carry out small scale business. The results showed that, majority of the people involve themselves with small businesses. The study showed that children are used as a source of labour to assist in roadside business which highly interferes with their smooth learning said the head teacher from Mai Mahiu primary school.

The head teacher added that girls are even more disadvantaged as the boys may be allowed to go to school while the girl may be forced by some parents to stay at home to take care of the business. This result is in accordance with the findings of UN (2001) which revealed that the divisions of labour in the home favor the males leaving time and energy consuming domestic work to mothers and their daughters.
Girls undertake heavy domestic work at an early age. They cook, clean the house and with all these chores done girls may be too exhausted to concentrate on the studies resulting in poor scholastic performance and early dropout from the educational system.

4.8 Economic activities on girls’ participation in education

Economic activities refer to things that people do to earn themselves livelihood in order to enhance their survival. However, the means of attaining livelihood may have negative impact on girl-child participation in education. Hence when the teachers were asked the effects of economic activities the results was as on Table 4.12

Table 4.12: Economic activities on girls’ participation in education

N = 20 teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child labour</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small scale business</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bride wealth</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 4.12, (40%) of the teachers said that the girls engaged in child labour as way of life that makes girls to miss education, (30%) of the teachers gave the responses that girls are engaged in domestic chores where they do house chores,
look after young children or do small business which may disadvantage them from getting education, (20%) stated that girls were engage in small scale business to earn additional income to the family. The teacher respondents identified that girls are even employed by businessmen as house help and the same may be more preferred by the parents who are poor. While (10%) of teachers also indicted that girls are pushed into early marriages to bring bride wealth inform of livestock to the family. At times the same bride price is used to educate the boy child by the parents at the expense of the girl child. This result is in agreement with the findings of UNICEF (2004) which said that girls are being employed as child labour, bearing the main burden of housework and taking on the role of caring for the young siblings, is impacting girls’ performance.

Some parents may have more preference for bride wealth at the expense of their daughters’ education in order to accumulate wealth from girls’ marriage. The study also revealed that this small business is not predictable may face competition from established businessmen and results into parents’ inability to pay for indirect cost of education that is not catered for by the government such as food and uniform. Thus even when resources are scarce parents may opt to educate the boy child while the girl is withdrawn from school. Hence from Table 4.16, the study deduced that child labour is strong impediment to girls’ participation in education. This result is in accordance with the findings of Abagi (1997) who observed that when resources are limited, parents have no option but to withdraw their children from school and while doing so there is likelihood that girl is pulled out of school.
to pave way for their brothers to continue with education.

However according to the researchers’ view, girls’ contribution to the household economy, is the boy factor that impedes girls’ participation in education. This is because children are expected to contribute to the household economy through doing small scale business, caring for siblings, fetching water, collecting firewood or selling milk.

The study sought to find the influence of child labour on access to education. To achieve this, respondents were asked to indicate whether they did any work at home after school and if they were asked to state the type of work they do at home. Their responses were presented in table 4.13.

**Table 4.13: Pupils’ responses on the kind of work they engage in at home**

N = 271 pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farming</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child rearing</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road side selling</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fetching water and firewood</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charcoal burning</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rearing livestock</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does not perform any work</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>271</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(17.0%) pupils reported that they did farming, (30.0%), child rearing, (7.4%) roadside selling, (24.0%) fetching water and firewood, illustrate herding (3.6%) charcoal burning (11.0%), (7.4%) do not perform any tasks.

They were also asked to indicate which gender performed more chores.

Findings revealed that (73%) said girls performed more chores, (20%) said boys performed more while (7%) said that both boys and girls performed the chores equally. Majority felt that girls performed more household chores than boys which can be a hindrance to their performance in their studies. This result is in accordance with the findings of UN (2001) which revealed that the divisions of labour in the home favor the males leaving time and energy consuming domestic work to mothers and their daughters. Girls undertake heavy domestic work at an early age. They cook, clean the house and with all these chores done girls may be too exhausted to concentrate on the studies resulting in poor scholastic performance and early dropout from the educational system.

4.9 Child labour and access and participation

Child labour dissuades students from participating in school regularly. This supports the contribution of UN (2001) that the division of labour in the home favoured males leaving time and energy consuming domestic work to mothers and their daughters. Similarly the study sought to find out that influence of child labour on access and participation in education. To achieve this, respondents were asked to indicate the type of work they do at home. Their responses are represented in
Table 4.14: Pupils’ responses on the nature of work they engage in at home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of work</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>House hold chores</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child rearing</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garden and child rearing</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Road side selling</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>271</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 271 pupils (37.0%) reported that they engaged in household chores, (15.0%) child rearing, while another (35.0%) involved in gardening and child rearing. The remaining (13.0%) engaged in road side selling. In line with this respondents were asked to indicate the period of time when they performed their duties. Their responses are presented in table 4.15

Table 4.15: Period of time respondents perform their duties at home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period of time</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before school</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After school</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekends</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holidays</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>271</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Out of the 271 pupils, a majority (37.0%) reported that they performed their duties before going to school, (35.0%) performed theirs after school, another (13.0%) performed their duty during weekends while (15.0%) performed their duty during holidays. This implies that majority of the pupils (37.0%) were engaged in work before going to school thus depriving children off the opportunity to attend or oblige them to leave school prematurely in order to attend to their duties. This result is in agreement with the findings of UNICEF (2004) which said that girls are being employed as child labour, bearing the main burden of housework and taking on the role of caring for the young siblings, is impacting girls’ performance. It is in agreement with the findings of World Bank (1998) which said that in the rural areas where families are mostly poor, children drop out of school to so as to work as house help and thereby earn their family income. Such habit normally denies girls the opportunity to complete their primary education as girls’ labour is seen to be imperative for the family survival.

4.10 Adequacy of learning and physical resources

The study also set out to establish the influence of the adequacy of learning and physical resources which affect equal access to education by both genders. All the items regarding school based factors were grouped together and analyzed and their conclusions drawn. The influence of the adequacy of learning and physical resources cut across teaching pedagogies, gender stereotyping (violence), availability of physical facilities, teachers-pupil factors, administrative factors and
distance from home to school. The teachers were asked to state whether there were any cases of absenteeism in their classes.

**Table 4.16: Teachers’ responses on the influence of the adequacy of learning**

N = 20 teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of motivation from teachers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor pupil – teacher relationship</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of facilities</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from home to school</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings from teachers’ responses as presented in table 4.19 indicate that absenteeism was given as a factor hindering access to education by both genders. All the teachers (100%) of the teachers said they had cases of absenteeism in their classes. These findings concur with the findings of Rono (1990) who found out that lack of facilities as a major factor leading to school dropouts.

The pupils were asked to state whether there were any cases of absenteeism in their classes due the adequacy of learning and physical resources. The findings are tabulated in table 4.17 presented
Table 4.17: Pupils’ responses on the influence of the adequacy of learning

N = 271 pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of school funds</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>55.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of uniforms</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of stationeries</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truancy</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>271</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.17 indicates that out of 271 pupils (55.0%) indicated that absenteeism was a result of lack of funds, (23.0%) reported that it was due to lack of uniform while (9.0%) said it was due to lack of text books and stationery while (13.0%) was due to truancy. From their responses it can be said that lack of funds was a major cause of absenteeism among pupils. This owes to hidden costs of basic education. This is in line with UNICEF report (2009) which states that, in Colombia, the UN special reporter on the right to education reported that IDP families were forced to choose between eating and sending their children to school there are also material requirements, the direct costs of sending all children to school are usually too high for poor parents, while primary tuition have now been abolished in many countries, nearly all developing countries still requires payment of various kinds...
in many areas and these charges are higher than direct tuition fees. They include charges for books, stationery, exam fees, uniforms; contributions to building funds, levies imposed the school management committees, informal tips for teachers and training costs. These findings also concur with the findings of Alkman and Unterhalter (2005), UN (2010) who says that pencils, stationery and uniforms must be paid for, costs that IDP families with destroyed livelihoods have great difficulty meeting.

**Figure 4.7: Pupils’ responses on the causes of absenteeism**

Teachers were required to answer the question on availability or adequacy of both physical and resource facilities in school.
Table 4.18: Teachers’ responses on the availability of resources
N = 20 teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facility</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Toilet facilities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classrooms</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textbooks</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings show that a few schools did not have adequate facilities as shown in table 4.18 Findings further indicate that (40%) did not have adequate toilets (15%) did not have enough classrooms, (55%) did not have water (75%) lacked teachers while (15%) said they lacked textbooks. Many schools lacked adequate toilet facilities at water which could have a deterring effect on education participation for girls on one hand. This result is in accordance with the findings of Save the Children (2008) which that water supply and sanitation and transport facilities are important aspects of girl-friendly infrastructure. This also implies that latrines need to be user friendly, regularly cleaned and design constructed in gender sensitive manner.

4.11 Parental factors contributing to low access to education

The study also sought to determine the extent to which parental factors contributed to education access by gender. Patriarchal societies are affected by descent systems which give preference for investment to schooling for boys
(Wamahiu, 1995). Analysis of parental level of education are continued in table 4.19

**Table 4.19: Pupils’ responses on educational level of their parents**

N = 271 pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education level</th>
<th>Father Frequency</th>
<th>Father Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Mother Frequency</th>
<th>Mother Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCSE/KCPE</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>45.3</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never been to</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>166.0</td>
<td>61.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>271</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>271</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings indicate that most parents were illiterate hence could not motivate their children especially girls on educational matters. Despite their low levels of education, most parents had high expectations from their children derived from education. This result is in accordance with the findings of UNICEF (2004) which said that parental education is more significant predictor than any other factor.
4.12 Suggestions for enhancing girls’ education

The study sought to seek ways from the respondents on how the participation of girls in education could be enhanced. The respondents were therefore required to indicate some of the suggestions that could be used to enhance girls’ participation in education. For example the head teachers were asked to suggest solutions for promoting girl child education in their schools. The data is presented in Table 4.20

Table 4.20: Head teachers suggestions for enhancing girls’ education

N = 3 headteachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestions</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivating girl child/guidance and counseling</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government to intervene/provision of basic needs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimize cultural practices</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Head teachers suggested that there was need to educate people so that cultural practices that impact on girls’ participation in education could be minimized as indicated by (33.3%) and they also suggested that the Government should intervene through administration for girls and should have forums for motivating girls, as well as providing guidance and counseling sessions as shown by (33.3%) and (33.3%) respectively. Other suggestions included educating people against
early marriages, and introducing public education to create awareness in the community. The teachers’ suggestions are presented in Table 4.21

Table 4.21: Teachers’ suggestions for promoting girls’ education

N = 20 teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestions</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Build more girls Boarding Schools</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling girl child</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create awareness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide sanitary towels for girls</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiver payment of school fees</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The teachers suggested that there was need for building of more boarding schools as shown by (40.0), that girls should be counseled as suggested by (25.0), creation of awareness on the importance of girls education in the IDP community and waiver of sanitary and school fees for girls as Suggested by (10.0) and (10.0) respectively.

The suggestions from the pupils are presented in Table 4.22
Table 4.22: The pupils’ suggestions for promoting girls’ education

N = 271 pupils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestions</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>discourage early marriages</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage girls to work hard in school</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to their views</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide them with basic needs</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide equal opportunities to both gender</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>271</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pupils suggested that, there was need to stop early marriages as shown by (35.0%), encouraging girls to work hard in school as indicated by (26.0%), listening to girls views as shown by (5.0%) and provision of equal opportunities for both boys and girls as indicated by (10.0%).
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the findings of the study, presents conclusions and recommendations concluded by suggestion for further research.

5.2 Summary of the study

The purpose of the study was to assess the socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among IDP camps in Naivasha. Five research questions were formulated to guide the study research. Research question one, sought to determine how early marriages create barriers to girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps in Naivasha. Research question two aimed at establishing how poverty creates barriers to girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps. Research question three sought to determine to what extent child labour influenced girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps. Research question four aimed to establish the influence of the availability of learning and physical resources on girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps. Research question five sought to determine to what extent parents’ level of education influence access to education for girls among the IDP camps. The study employed descriptive survey. The sample size for the study was 3 head teachers, 20 teachers and 271 pupils in Naivasha IDP camp.
Literature review focused on international call towards education for girls, the Kenyan government efforts to mainstream gender in primary education, access of education among girls, barriers towards education of girls which include poverty, cultural factors, socio-economic factors and parental related factors.

5.3 Findings of the study

Findings revealed that there was inequality in accessing education based on gender owing to the following; the study found out that there were cultural factors that contributed to low participation of girls in school. Such cultural factors included early marriages, helping at house work and taking care of other family members, preference in education of boys to girls, cultural beliefs, culture rites and gender stereotyping.

The study found out that there were socio-economic factors that affected girls’ participation in education such as poverty, helping in household chores, missing school to look after the siblings at expense of education. Poverty also made some parents not able financially to provide essential commodities such as school uniform and sanitary towels especially for girls and other hidden costs in the course of free education implementation. Head teachers rated poverty as the highest prevalence. Pupils also concurred with the head teachers that poverty was likely to influence their participation in education. The study found out that child labour was one the factors that influenced the participation of girls in education.
Girls going to earn money to support themselves and their families were equally rated highly.

The study found out that there was the influence of the adequacy of learning and physical resources that contributed to low participation of girls in schools. These included lack of adequate physical facilities such as girls’ toilets, conflict between teachers and students, lack of encouragement from teachers and long distance to and from school. Girls were exposed to severe assault and violence in the school environment perpetuated by teachers and male pupils.

The study also found out that some parental factors such as There were various factors that led to low participation by girls in education. The study found out that lack of education among parents, negative attitude of parents towards girls’ education, lack of encouragement from parents and poverty within the family. Lack of role models at home, negligence and lack of interest in education especially for girls, inability to appropriately prioritize resources towards education especially for girls, inability to appropriately prioritize resources towards education and ignorance on importance of education.

5.4 Conclusions

On the basis of the findings, it was concluded that challenges such as poor school performance, poverty, child labour and education background of the parents, lack of money to buy essential school materials, pregnancy, rape and early marriages
affected girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps in Naivasha. It was also concluded that early marriages and poverty were some of the causes of girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps. Most school environments also were not friendly to the education of girls.

It was also concluded that cultural practices of the people played significant role in denying equal access and participation of girls in education. Those factors included early and forced marriages, gender discrimination, cultural beliefs and cultural rites.

Poverty made girls engage in economic tasks to ease the family’s income; household chores carried out by girls denied them time to concentrate on school work and at times absenteeism in schools or withdrawal. The influence of the learning and physical resources also led to unequal access to education by gender.

The study concluded that parental factors such as level of education, lack of parental participation in the education of girls, lack of provision of basic necessities led to low access to education by girls. Factors such as family poverty, lack of encouragement for girls led to low access to education by girls.

5.5 Recommendations

From the study it is evident that if these factors are not controlled, girls would continue to lag behind in their participation in education. Hence the study recommended the following;
a. There is need for the head teachers, teachers, parents, policy makers and other stakeholders to join hands in addressing the factors hindering girls’ participation in education among IDP camps in Naivasha.

b. The government, non-governmental organizations and other stakeholders should train the parents and the entire local community about the need to treat children of both sexes equally and provide them with equal learning opportunities at whatever level. The parents’ negative attitudes should be changed through constant education on the value of educating girls.

c. The government should take legal measures against parents who force girls into early marriages while in school and punish those who conduct the forbidden practice of female genital mutilation (FGM).

d. Due to the IPD life style, the government should settle all the IDPs.

e. The government must be committed to all international protocols, conventions and resolutions that promote the rights of all children and particularly those from vulnerable groups.

f. Increasing access, retention and performance of girls in education must be a government priority.

g. Supporting measures that allow girls to get back into school in the event that their schooling was interrupted by early marriage or unplanned pregnancies.
h. Bursary schemes for girls must be established in order to make accessible for poor children particularly girls.

i. The government should take deliberate effort to deploy female teachers to rural and IDP areas to be role model for girls.

j. The head teachers should support gender training programmes and implement.

k. Through children’s officers, child labour should be monitored and parents who deny their girls education because of child labour should be prosecuted.

l. The ministry of education should establish guidance counseling units in schools so that girls can be counseled about the challenges facing them during adolescence.

m. The school management committees should establish gender friendly facilities and increase the number of boarding schools

5.6 Suggestion for further research

Where attempt was made to address knowledge in the area of socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation, there are few things that other researchers can address or investigate in the same IDP camps focused by this study.
This study was not able to venture into the following areas due to limitation and scope of the study.

Hence other researchers can carry out research on the following areas.

i. Effect of government policies on gender mainstreaming in IDP education

ii. The role of school community in enhancing girls’ participation in education

iii. The role of guidance and counseling in reducing girl child drop-out among the IDP camps.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Enock Osugo
University of Nairobi
School of Education
P.O. Box 92
Kikuyu.

Dear respondent

Re: questionnaire for research proposal

I am a post-graduate student at the University of Nairobi pursuing a master’s degree in Education in Emergencies. I am carrying out a research on ‘socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the IDPs in camps in Naivasha District, Nakuru County. The findings in this study will provide skills to enlighten the pupils, teachers, the IDP community, the government and other stakeholders in education and possibly put measures in place to improve the current situation. I therefore kindly request you to participate in the study by filling the questionnaires as honestly as possible and to the best of your knowledge. You are therefore asked not to indicate your name or any other form of identification. Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely

Enock Osugo
APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE HEAD TEACHERS

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

1. Gender;  Male [ ]  Female [ ]

2. Age bracket 20yrs and below[ ] 20yrs-29yrs[ ] 30yrs-39yrs[ ]
   40yrs-49yrs [ ] 50yrs-59yrs [ ] 60yrs and above [ ]

3. What is your highest level of education?
   P1 certificate [ ]  Diploma holder [ ]  Graduate [ ]
   Others specify ……………………………………………………………

4. How many streams are there in your school? …………………

5. How long have you been a head teacher?
   0-5yrs [ ]  5yrs-10yrs [ ] 11yrs-15yrs [ ]  over 16yrs [ ]

SECTION 2: socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the IDP camps

6. Do pupils drop-out of school because of early marriages? Yes, [ ]  No[ ]
   If yes, give reason..............................................................

7. Do you think students /pupils drop-out due to teenage pregnancy? Yes [ ]  No[ ]
   If yes, give reasons..............................................................

8. Do gender preferences create barriers to girls’ participation in education? Yes [ ]  No [ ]
   If yes, give reasons................................................................

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9. If sexual violence, harassment and sexual abuse make students /pupils drop-out of school, which gender is most affected? Boys or girls give reasons ……. 

10. Do you think pupils drop-out of school because of corporal punishment? 
Yes, [ ] No [ ] if yes, give reasons…………………………………………………………………………………

11. Do you think pupils drop-out of school due to the long distances to and from school? Yes, no if yes, give reasons…………………………………………………………………………………

12. Do you think pupils drop-out of school due to high school fees/levies charged? Yes,[ ] No [ ] if yes, give reasons…………………………………………………………………………………

13. Are latrines accessible, located safely and adequate in number? 
Yes [ ] No [ ] If No give a reason …………………………………

14. Are there separate latrines for boys and girls? Yes [ ] No [ ]
If No, explain ………………………………………………………………………

15. Do you think pupils drop-out due to poverty? Yes. [ ] No [ ] if yes give reasons…………………………………………………………………………………

16. Are there girls and boys suffering from stigma because of specific war experience e.g. rape, survivors, ex-child-soldiers? Yes [ ] No [ ]
If No, give reasons ……………………………………………………………………..

17. Is the distance to be travelled to school acceptable to parents for girls and boys? 
Yes [ ] No [ ] If No explain …………………………………

18. Suggest ways for reducing socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education……………………………………………………

Thanks for your cooperation

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APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

1. Gender? Male[  ] Female[  ]
2. Age bracket 20yrs and below[  ] 20yrs-29yrs[  ] 30yrs-39yrs[  ]
   a. 40yrs-49yrs [  ] 50yrs-50yrs [  ] 60yrs and above [  ]
3. What is your highest level of education?
   a. P1 certificate [  ] Diploma holder [  ] Graduate [  ]
   b. Others specify ............................................................
4. How long have you been teaching in your current school?
   a. 0-5yrs [  ] 5yrs-10yrs [  ] 11yrs-15yrs [  ] over 16yrs [  ]

SECTION 2: Socio-Economic Factors Influencing Girls Participation in Education.

5. Do the pupils drop-out of school because of early marriages, Yes, [  ] No [  ]
   If yes, give reason..........................................................................

6. If ........................................................................................................
7. Do you think students/pupils drop-out due to teenage pregnancy, Yes [ ] No [ ]
8. If yes, give reasons
9. Do gender preferences create barriers to girls’ participation in education? Yes [ ] No [ ] if yes, give reasons
10. Do you think pupils drop-out of school due to the long distances to and from school? Yes [ ] No [ ] if yes, give reasons
11. Do you think pupils drop-out of school due to high school fees/levies charged? Yes [ ] No [ ] if yes, give reasons
12. Do you think pupils drop-out due to poverty? Yes [ ] No [ ] if yes give reasons
   If Yes, give reasons
   .....................................................................................................................
13. Is the distance to be travelled to school acceptable to parents for girls and boys? Yes [ ] No [ ]
   If No explain
   .....................................................................................................................
14. What safety precautions are expected for girls by the parents? ...........

15. Are latrines accessible located safely and adequate in number?
   Yes [ ]  No [ ]  If No explain

   …………………………………………………………………………

16. Are there separate latrines for boys and girls? Yes [ ]  No[ ]

   If No explain ……………………………………………………………

17. Suggest ways for reducing socio-economic factors influencing girls’
    participation in education.

   …………………………………………………………………………

   Thanks for your cooperation
APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS/PUPILS

SECTION 1: Background information

1. Gender
   Male[ ]    Female[ ]

2. Age bracket
   12yrs and below[ ]      13-14yrs[ ]   15-17yrs[ ]
   18yrs and above[ ]

3. Number of children in your family
   1-5 [ ]       6-10 [ ]   10-18 [ ]

4. Who is paying your fees/levies, father    mother    both parents
   Others specify .................................................................

5. Which class/form are you? ..............................................................

SECTION 2: socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education

6. Do pupils drop-out of school because of early marriages, Yes [ ]
   No [ ]    if yes, give reason...............................................................

Do you think students/pupils drop-out due to teenage pregnancy, Yes [ ]
   No[ ]    if yes, give reasons............................................................

7. Do gender preferences create barriers to girls’ participation in education?
   Yes [ ]    No [ ]    if yes, give reasons...........................................

8. If sexual violence, harassment and sexual abuse make students/pupils drop-out of school, which gender is most affected? Boys [ ] or girls [ ]
   if yes, give reasons...........................................................................

                                  94
9. Do you think pupils drop-out of school because of corporal punishment? Yes, [ ] No [ ] if yes, give reasons.................................................................

10. Do you think pupils drop-out of school due to high school fees/levies charged? Yes, no, if yes, give reasons.................................................................

11. Are latrines accessible, located safely and adequate in number? Yes [ ] No [ ] If No give a reason ......................................................

12. Are there separate latrines for boys and girls? Yes [ ] No [ ] If No, explain .................................................................

13. Do you think pupils drop-out due to poverty? Yes [ ] No [ ] If yes give reasons.................................................................

14. What is your parent’s highest academic qualification?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Father</th>
<th>mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
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<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tertiary/college</td>
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<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dropped out of school</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never been to school</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


..............................................................................................

**Thanks for your cooperation**
APPENDIX E

AUTHORIZATION LETTER

NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Our Ref: NCST/RCD/14/012/1578

Date: 21st November 2012

Enock Osugo
University of Nairobi
P.O.Box 92-0902
Kikuyu.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application dated 13th November, 2012 for authority to carry out research on “Socio-economic factors influencing girls’ participation in education among the Internally Displaced Persons Camps in Naivasha District, Kenya,” I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in Naivasha District for a period ending 31st December, 2012.

You are advised to report to the District Commissioner and the District Education Officer, Naivasha District before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf of the research report/thesis to our office.

DR M.K. RUGUTT, PhD, HSC
DEPUTY COUNCIL SECRETARY

Copy to:

The District Commissioner
The District Education Officer
Naivasha District.
APPENDIX F

RESEARCH PERMIT

[Image of a research permit form]

Research Permit No. NCST/RCD/14/03/217

Date of issue: 21st November, 2014

Fee received: KSH. 1,000

Location: Naivasha

District: Rift Valley

Provincial Council of Science and Technology: National Council for Science and Technology

Applicant's Name: [Signature]

Secretary: [Signature]

Period ending: 31st December, 2014

The permit is to conduct research on the topic: Socio-economic factors influencing participation in education among the Internally Displaced Persons Camps in Naivasha District, Kenya.