

**CHALLENGES FACING THE EDUCATION OF THE GIRL
CHILD IN KENYA: A CASE STUDY ON EXPERIENCES AND
VIEWS OF GIRLS IN GALOLE CONSTITUENCY OF TANA
RIVER COUNTY, KENYA**

BY

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DECLARATION

Declaration by the student

I declare that this research project is my original work and has never been previously presented for any degree in the University of Nairobi, or in any other University. The work reported herein has been carried out by me and all sources of information have been acknowledged by means of references.

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Declaration by the supervisor

This project has been submitted for examination with my approval as the University of Nairobi supervisor.

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ABBREVIATIONS

APHRC	African Population and Health Research Centre
CPE	Certificate of Primary Education
CREAW	Centre for Rights Education and Awareness, The.
CSA	Centre for Study of Adolescence
EFA	Education for All
EYC	Elimu Yetu Coalition
FAWE	Forum For African Women Educationists.
GPE	Gender Policy On Education
HRW	Human Rights Watch
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights
KCE	Kenya Certificate of Education
KCPE	Kenya Certificate of Primary Education
KCSE	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
KDHS	Kenya Demographic and Health Survey, The.
KEC	Kenya Education Commission
KESSP	Kenya Educational Sector Support Programme.
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MOE	Ministry of Education.
MOEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology.
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
UN	United Nations.

UNCRC	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.
UNESCO	United Nations Education Science and Cultural Organization.
UNGEI	United Nations Girls Education Initiative.
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund report.
UPE	Universal Primary Education
WB	World Bank

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to investigate the challenges of girl child education in Tana River County. The specific objectives thereof were: to establish the social and cultural factors affecting the enrolment of girls in primary schools; to establish the factors which cause school drop-out among girls; to establish whether the school environment is friendly to girls and supports their education; and to examine the role of socio-economic factors affecting girls' education.

The study used the descriptive survey research design to study the factors affecting girls' education in TRC. The study's sample size was 225 girls; 15 girls from 15 schools in the county. The researcher managed to interview 171 girls; a 76% response rate. The research concentrated in girls in classes 7 and 8 who were able to articulate issues better, have experienced dropping out of school and subsequent re-entry. The selection of the schools for interviewing was done through stratified sampling while the girls were selected through systematic sampling. Collection of data was done via questionnaires, individual interviews and focus group discussions while the analysis of the data was done using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). In the resultant analysis pie-charts, frequency tables and bar graphs were used to present the quantitative data.

The research's findings indicated that early marriages, sexual harassment, inadequate teachers and learning materials are among the factors that affect girl child education. Others include childhood pregnancies, child labour, and retrogressive cultural practices. It was also discerned that awareness on the importance of education through mentoring, provision of adequate learning materials and facilities, and school feeding programs would greatly improve on the retention of the girl child in school.

In order to counter the above it is recommended that among others, practices that encourage early pregnancies be condemned while the economic factors which bring about poverty be addressed through economic empowerment of the community. Other measures include the elimination of cultural practices which are retrogressive and the communal addressing of the pestering issues of early pregnancies, school dropout and the resultant poor performance in school. Further research should be conducted to establish a working framework of all stakeholders to address girls' school dropout and poor performance in TRC as well as on how to eliminate retrogressive cultures that affect girls' education countrywide.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Education has long been considered as a fundamental human right as it is the key to sustainable development and peace and stability within and among countries and thus indispensable means for effective participation in the societies and economies of the respective countries (Dy & Ninomiya, 2003). Committed to this perspective, the United Nations launched a Declaration for Human Rights in 1948, in which the Article number 26 states:

Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

The transformative power of education as a key to societal development has been acknowledged worldwide (Kombo, 2005). Education has a major role to play in social, economic and political aspects of human development. It is also through the use of education that the environment has been transformed into a better place to live in. To enhance rapid human development, it is necessary that one acquires education. Education has therefore become a basic human need. Basic education has for some time remained high in the global agenda for education. Its importance in economic and social development makes it a basic right for every child, boy and girl alike. According to the Convention on the Rights of the Child Article 28 of 1979, every child has a right to education and the state has a duty to ensure that primary education is free and compulsory to all children. The state also has a duty to encourage different forms of secondary education accessible on the basis of capacity of the individual. Article 28 of the Convention on Rights of a child spells out the aims of education in the society. Education aims at developing the

Child's personality, talents, mental abilities to the fullest so that the individual and the society benefits. Education fosters respect for the child's parents, his/her cultural identity, language, values and cultural background. Education creates a sense of identity, belonging and also a sense of direction, which is necessary in a growing individual. Many developed countries laid great emphasizes on basic education in their early stages of human development, for instance Denmark achieved Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1914, Sweden in 1942 and Japan in 1842. Many countries of the world that have shown consistent annual growth in capital income are almost at 100% basic literacy levels. Economists have shown that there is a positive correlation between the level of education of the people and economic growth of the country (East Africa Standard, 2005).

According to the declaration on Human Rights Article 28th of 1979 education should be free at elementary and fundamental stages to allow easy access by all. UNESCO, an agent of UN, attached a lot of importance to this section of the declaration on the rights of the child. World conferences on education, for instance the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtein, Thailand in 1990, and World Education Forum, Dakar, Senegal 2002, were a clear manifestation of the realization by international community of the strategic role that education plays towards the achievement of sustainable development. The goals and targets of the international conferences on education were that by the year 2015 they would be able to achieve 50% improvement in levels of adult's literacy especially that of women; ensure that all children particularly girls will have access to and complete free and compulsory basic education of good quality; equitable access to basic and continuing education for all; and the elimination of gender disparities in both primary and secondary education.

The global situation before the Jomtein Conference of 1990 indicated that girls and women were the minority in terms of access to education. There were fewer girls and women who had access to education than were boys and men. Out of 100 million children, 60 million were girls having no access to primary and secondary education: likewise out of 90 million illiterate adults, two thirds ($\frac{2}{3}$) of them were women.

Kenya as a nation realized the important role that education plays in development of the society. At independence the government realized that education is necessary for social and economic development of the country. Kenya attempted to provide Universal Free Primary Education (UFPE) amidst meagre resources was first articulated in the sessional paper No. 10 of 1965 on African Socialism, when the government committed itself to eradicating ignorance, poverty and disease, as was stated in the Ominde Report of 1964. To eradicate the vices it was noted that education had a major role to play. People need education to be able to critically look at issues.

It is presumed that with an education, people would learn how to take care of themselves and therefore, fall sick less often. Healthy people can engage in productive economic activities to create wealth. In view of the above, the government of Kenya has heavily invested in education of its citizens. The heavy investment in education by the government is well demonstrated in the country's annual budget where education sector alone takes more than one third ($\frac{1}{3}$) of the national budget. As a nation, Kenya is committed to the provision of education to all in an attempt to achieve gender parity in education. This has been clearly demonstrated by her participation in the world conference on education; in Jomtein Thailand in 1990 and subsequent endorsement of Education for All (EFA) Declaration made in Dakar, Senegal in the year 2000. Since the Jomtein conference of 1990 several strategies and education programmes have been put in place in an attempt to achieve gender parity in education in Kenya. Some of these

programmes on gender parity include the national conference on Education for All held in Kisumu in 1992 and in the 1994 national symposium on education of the Girl- Child in Machakos. One major resolution was the adoption of a policy on re-entry. The policy permitted pregnant girls to come back to school after giving birth (MOE, 1994). However, despite the various national policies and the signing of international agreements, gender disparities still persists in the Kenya education system. Efforts to address gender disparities in education at policy level have remained largely superficial and uncoordinated despite the fact that Kenya as a nation signed the Dakar frame work of action in which one of the goals was to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education. There has been gender disparity in favour of boys almost at all levels of education systems in Kenya (MOE, 2007). The gender gap in access, participation and achievement broadens as we progress from early childhood education to primary and secondary education. This is revealed by the economic survey, 2001 – 2002 which shows that enrolment in primary school in Kenya from 1998 to 2002 was 89% boys and 88% girls.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Cultural practices make females keep on lagging behind males in education, and this problem has existed since the colonial period (Jezebell, 2002) While the second and third Millennium Development Goals focus on enhancing girls' education and addressing the gender gap in the delivery of education, still there exists the problem of inequity and inequality in the education system particularly at secondary school and tertiary levels.

This inequality seems to have worsened since 1990's (Research and Analysis Working Group, 2004). Some of the researchers have cited inadequacy of funds due to poverty, distance to schools, cultural practices and sexual harassment to be among the factors which have contributed

to poor schooling among girls in African countries (Bendera, 1998). Hence, affirmative action is required to address the situation.

The educational situation in Kenya for marginalized communities is poor as has been documented by researchers and the Kenyan government (Sifuna, 1990) (Sessional Paper, No. 5 of 2005. Gender Equality and Development., 2005). The enrolment in formal primary schools which is one of the ways of measuring success and failure of education is very low in the whole of the former North Eastern and Coast Provinces. Tana River falls under these marginalized counties.

The participation by marginalized children in formal education the world over and more specifically in nomadic marginalized areas of Kenya is seen as a challenging problem to the providers of education (MOEST, 1999). The determination by the Kenyan government to increase access to education inspired the development of policies in the form of approaches and programmes such as free primary education, boarding schools, school-feeding programmes, bursary funds for bright but poor students and recently tuition free secondary education. However, the performances of these programmes among the marginalized peoples have been very discouraging.

Literacy among marginalized parents in Kenya is low and is seen to be another possible dimension contributing to the low participation by these counties in education. According to the Kenya literacy survey conducted countrywide, counties such as Tana River have the lowest literacy level of only 8.1% whereas Nairobi has 87.1% literacy achievement and the overall national literacy level is 61.5% (Elimu Yetu Coalition, 2007). This inequality is reflected in all aspects of life. For example, the ratio of doctors to the population in Wajir is 1:356,340 contrasting with Nyandarua with a ratio of 1:10,000, consequently the mortality rate at birth and

for children under five years is high (SID, 2004). Closely linked to the low literacy level is high unemployment in the marginalized counties of Kenya (SID, 2004) and lack of transition to higher education which are a backdrop to the deliberate avoidance by some parents of education for their children (Krätli, 2001).

The research sought to find answers as to what the marginalized communities and other stakeholders can do to ensure the girl child enrolls, stays in school and completes school like the boy child. This is because, there have been several studies focusing on the factors that push girls to drop out of school. Also there have been efforts by government in terms of policies to ensure that girls complete schooling but there have been no major changes in terms of increasing the numbers of girls completing schooling. The focus of the study therefore, was to ensure the retention of the girl child in school until she completes her period of study. Thus she will not only be able to complete the years of study but also ensure that she performs well in school.

1.3 Research Questions

The research questions that arose from the problem statement are:

- i. What are the factors that affect girl child education in Tana River County (TRC)?
- ii. What factors cause girls to drop out of school in TRC?
- iii. How do school-related factors affect girls' education in TRC?
- iv. How can the community mitigate the factors that cause girls to drop out of school?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 Main Objective

The main objective of the study was to investigate the challenges of girl child education in Tana River County (TRC).

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were:

- i. To establish the social and cultural factors affecting the enrolment of girls' in primary schools in Tana River County.
- ii. To establish the factors which cause school drop-out among girls in Tana River County.
- iii. To investigate whether the school environment is friendly to girls and supports their education.
- iv. To examine the role of socio economic factors in girls' education in Tana River County.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The findings of the study will be of great significance to various stakeholders involved in the campaign for the promotion of girl-child access to education in that they will get to know the main problems facing the girl-child education hence prepare to face the challenge head on. It is hoped that the findings will benefit the Ministry of Education, Education planners, teachers, parents and the whole of Kenyan society in general. Specifically, the Tana River County government shall be able to put strategies in place to ensure the girl child completes school in the county. It will be possible to appreciate the problems facing girl-child education in the society and prepare to design ways of facing the challenges, whether social, economic or cultural in

nature in order to make it possible to the girl child to access education. This will ensure that gender disparity is reduced. As indicated by MOE Strategic Plan (2006-2011) it is only through Education for All, that a wide range of benefits, such as increased growth, enhanced productivity across sectors, increased individual earnings, enhanced democracy and good governance, could be achieved to enhance development for the country.

1.6 Scope and Limitations of the Study

1.6.1 Scope of the Study

This study investigated the education situation for marginalized communities in terms of access, participation and enrolments from the perspectives of the Education for All (EFA). Reports and statistics from the MOEST demonstrate the under participation of marginalized communities in formal education (MOEST, 2001; MOEST, 2004; Republic of Kenya, 2007).

The study was carried out in public schools in Tana River County. The researcher targeted key stakeholders involved in the provision of quality education. Key informants were the government officials at county and national level in charge of education such as teachers, head teachers, Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT) officials, Ministry of education, provincial administration and County government.

On the other hand the research also engaged the beneficiaries of education in seeking to unravel the mystery of education in marginalized areas. These are mainly the children/pupils, parents and community leaders. Special attention and tools were used to ensure the women are positively and productively engaged so that their voices are heard.

1.6.2 Limitations of the Study.

The study was limited to public primary schools in Tana River County (TRC). This means that despite the presence of private schools in the County, they were not sampled. Further, due to the expanse of the county and the poor communication infrastructure, the study was limited to the areas that are easily accessible. This is because it would be very expensive to reach the really hard to reach areas as special transport and security arrangements have to be made which are beyond the budget of the researcher. TRC has had security problems since independence and recently there have been ethnic clashes and attacks by the terror group from Somalia, Al Shabaab. Due to the time and financial constraints, the researcher sampled the schools, institutions and individuals that were interviewed.

1.7 Definitions of Terms

Drop out - Early withdrawal of students/pupils from school without completing the required school years with the concerned students failing to enrol back to school.

Dropout rates - The percentage of students/pupils who withdraw from school eminently before completing the primary school cycle against those who are enrolled in class one.

Gender – Social and cultural distinctions between men and women. The distinctions refer to roles, relations and identities that people associate with sex. Those associated with females are called feminine and those associated with males are called masculine.

Gender discrimination – Refers to unequal or preferential treatment to individuals of groups based on their gender which result in reduced access to or control of resources and opportunities.

Gender equity – Refers to equal treatment of women and men boys and girls so that they can enjoy the benefits of development including equal access to and control of opportunities and resources.

Gender disparity – Refers to differences or unequal or unfair treatment of the males and females.

Parental involvement – This refers to the active participation of parents in matters pertaining to the education of their children such as checking of their books, provision of basic learning materials and equipment and the prompt payment of school fees.

Sexual harassment – Unwelcome acts of sexual nature that cause discomfort to the targeted persons. These include words, persistent requests for sexual favours, gestures, touching, suggestions, and coerced sexual intercourse.

Transition – This is the advancement of pupils from one level of education to another. It means that the students who enrolled to school in standard one are able to go through the 12 year course of both primary and secondary education. The students are able to graduate or proceed to the next stage or class.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the reviewed literature of the studies that have been done on the factors leading to drop out among female students from school in formal educational programmes.

2.2 Literature Review

2.2.1 Overview of Education in Kenya

The birth of formal education in Kenya can be traced to the historical records from the travels of missionaries and explorers. Johann Ludwig and Johannes Rebmann reveal that Kenyans had access to formal education as far back as 1728. The Christian Missionaries Society (CMS) set up the earliest mission schools at Rabai upon interaction with the local people. Eshiwani (1990) records that the provision and administration of formal education to the people of Kenya was managed and controlled by the missionaries as a scheme of converting Kenyans to Christianity. Some of the large academic institutions today are among the national schools that were opened by the missionaries as their pioneer centres. The type of colonial education offered to Kenyans was determined by the principle of self-reliance, racial composition, and the idea that colonies were supposed to develop their resources so as not to be reliant on the royal coffers.

Sifuna (1990) noted that developing an education system to replace the one inherited from the colonial government was one of the enormous tasks that Kenya encountered after achieving its independence. He further noted that such a challenge continues to trouble the country today. Although Kenya has made progress in the growth of its education system, it has to deal with some of the pre-independence and post-independence problems in executing its educational

programs. Oketch and Rolleston (2007) contend that access to education had been challenging during the colonial administration particularly because there were many Africans who were simply denied admission to the education system for both practical and political reasons. Hence, they assert that putting an end to the racial school system that had existed during the colonial period, and incorporating it into one national system was an immediate policy initiative in three countries (Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania), with the aim of increasing access to education for Africans. They further showed that, although ever since the three countries gained independence from British colonial rule in the early part of 1960s, they have been determined to increase access to education.

In 1985, Kenya changed its education system. From the one inherited from colonialists, to the 8-4-4 system of education, as the name states, eight years of primary education, four years in secondary and four years in university. With the introduction of the 8-4-4 system of education the Certificate of Primary Education (CPE) became Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE), while the Kenya Certificate of Education (KCE) became the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE).

According to Sessional Paper no.1 of 2005 of the Republic of Kenya, the provision of education and training for all Kenyans is fundamental to the success of the government's overall development strategy. The long term objectives of the government, among others, were to provide every Kenyan with basic quality education and training. This includes 2 years of pre-primary, 8 years of primary and 4 years of secondary/technical education, to enhance the ability

of Kenyans to preserve and utilize the environment for productive gain, and sustainable livelihoods.

Since independence, the government has addressed challenges facing the education sector through commissions, committees and taskforces. The Kenyan Education Commission (KEC) (The Ominde Report, 1964), the report of the National Committee on Education Objectives and Policies (The Gachati Report, 1976), the Report of the Presidential Working Party on the Second University in Kenya (The Mackay Report, 1981), the Report of the Presidential Working Party on Education Manpower and Training for the next Decade and Beyond (The Kamunge Report, 1988) and the Commission of Inquiry into the Education System of Kenya (The Koech report, 2000), all sought to reform the education system inherited from the colonial government and make it more responsive to the needs of independent Kenya.

Nevertheless, there are still those with no access, those who are excluded after first entry, those at risk of dropping out, and a majority excluded from any form of schooling altogether. Some of the victims' of dropping out of school are young girls.

2.2.2 Problem of Girls' Education in Kenya

There are numerous challenges and barriers preventing many girls from accessing education worldwide. This has blocked them from having opportunities to better their lives and hence denied them the enjoyment of individual freedoms. This form of marginalization could be viewed as subjecting the girls to social injustices hence making them unable to enjoy several of their human rights. It is for these reasons that provision of education is regarded as emancipation from those barriers that are confining the girls into marginalised and excluded groups. It is only by understanding the impact of these barriers that significant and meaningful increase in the numbers of girls accessing education can be achieved.

Aikman and Unterhalter (2007) contend that although Africa has some of the most innovative and dynamic examples of what works, neither boys nor girls are doing well in many of these Sub Saharan countries. For example, through FAWE, Africa has a dynamic and active network for working change in girls' education. They further argue that how girls progress through school and complete their education can be problematic even where there are favourable enrolments. In Africa, girls attend school for an average of only 2.82 years before they reach the age of 16. This is less than anywhere else in the world. Only 46% of girls enrolling in Sub Saharan Africa complete primary school.

Maluwa-Banda's (2004) study indicated that there are a variety of reasons that prevent girls from completing education and these include socio-economic, socio-cultural and school related factors. In support of this Bunyi (2008) explains that this combination of factors interacts in complex ways to impact negatively on the participation of girls and women in education. Maluwa-Banda (2004) further noted that in Malawi, teenage pregnancy, disciplinary matters and lack of school fees are the major reasons why students drop out of secondary schools.

Further statistics from the Ministry of Education Science and Technology Malawi (MOEST, 2000) show that 3.1% of the female students and 0.1% of the male students dropped out because of schoolgirl pregnancy; 0.8% of the boys and 0.3% of the girls dropped out because of disciplinary matters; and 2.8% of the boys and 2.6% of the girls dropped out because of other reasons, which include lack of support, taking care of sick parents or relatives, lack of school fees and sickness.

The CREAM (2007) report noted that in a country like Kenya, girls in many communities are still seen as homemakers, not deserving to go to school. Hence, equality and equity in education has not yet been achieved as disparities exist regionally in urban and rural areas and among various communities due to social and cultural factors. The report further points out that despite the introduction of free primary education (UFPE); massive poverty has crippled many families' efforts to educate their children. Many families with limited resources prefer to send their sons to school to acquire skills, since it is believed that they are more likely to be future sources of income to their parents than girls, as the sons will go on to be the breadwinners. This is supported by the Human Rights Watch (2005) and Bunyi (2008) who indicate that parents in many cultures in developing countries give priority to their sons over their daughters for schooling because of their traditional biases against educating girls.

Bunyi (2008) states that, socio-cultural practices such as FGM and other rites of passage as well as early marriages and teen pregnancies cause girls to drop out of school prematurely. A global monitoring report carried out by UNICEF (2004) noted that in many societies it is traditional for girls to marry young and in some countries as young as 14. As a consequence, the report establishes that such early marriages mean that these girls have to stop their schooling.

Mwanzia and Strathdee (2010) suggest that as a result, in order to increase access to services and participation of disadvantaged groups such as women, the aged, youth, children, physically and mentally challenged, and the poor, affirmative action policies are necessary. Notwithstanding this, in their study they found that the cultural belief that women are less intelligent than men limited the effectiveness of affirmative action policies aimed at addressing gender inequalities.

They further claimed that due to such entrenched cultural paternalism, women have arguably become ‘unconscious’ of cultural and gender inequalities and have come to accept a denial of rights to own property and have leadership and decision making authority as the norm. For this reason, they argued women seemed to prefer male leadership and believe that their voices should be heard through male representatives. This has helped to promote the idea that women are less knowledgeable compared to men, enhancing the cultural view that women are good as housewives, and suggests that women are the weaker sex and thereby require male ‘shields’.

Mwanzia and Strathdee (2010) identified a key determinant to the empowerment of women is addressing the cultural barriers which lead them to be treated as lesser beings and which as a consequence, make them feel insecure. Consequently they propose that to reduce gender inequalities both in schools and educational development, men need to unlearn the cultural beliefs and practices that make them devalue education for girls and not listen to women’s ideas. In addition they suggest that unless structural disadvantages such as poverty, lack of information, time, materials and low awareness levels among disadvantaged groups and communities are addressed, emancipation and sustainable development are unlikely.

The Elimu Yetu Coalition (EYC) (2005) drew attention to out of school factors that influence girls’ participation in education. EYC report mentions that these factors could be classified as social and cultural factors which include, among others, early marriage, female circumcision, student pregnancies, the low status of girls and women, poverty and girls ‘and boys’ unequal labour burdens. For example, it states that in communities where traditional practices such as

female genital mutilation (FGM) are widespread, both girls and boys interviewed felt that girls education was not valued as highly as boys education.

The CREAM study (2007) suggested that while boys attend school, girls are less likely to attend and complete school since some of them stay at home to be groomed for marriage and matrimonial responsibility. It further indicates that even where educational opportunities are afforded to girls, equality is not achieved automatically, because girls are many times overburdened with domestic chores, impeding upon their ability to fully concentrate or participate in their studies. Therefore, pregnancy often ensures that they drop out of school permanently, or miss out on attendance to raise the child.

Similarly, the report by Centre for Study of Adolescence CSA (2008) found out that loss of bride price due to pregnancy or the lowering of such prices have forced parents to marry off girls who get pregnant to older men to at least get the anticipated benefits from such marriages. The report indicates that taking such a girl to school is viewed as increasing the risk of the girl getting pregnant again which will erode the bride price further in the event that the girl will be married. The socio-cultural barriers facing girls in Africa therefore appear related to traditional attitudes to the different roles of boys and girls. To overcome these barriers some writers suggest unlearning of some cultural traditions and values. However to date there is no information on the best way to overcome these barriers or, indeed, how to unlearn a tradition.

Bunyi (2008) explains that the high direct and indirect costs of schooling act as a barrier to the education of girls. She further mentions that while many countries in Sub Saharan Africa have

recently instituted free primary education policies, secondary education is still not free in the great majority of the countries. Bank (2007b) maintains that until recently exclusion was more commonly reported by writers who focus on the position of young girls who become pregnant while at school. In most countries where enrolment rates are low in primary and secondary schools, exclusion of pregnant and mothering girls opens up scarce spaces for boys who tend to be more valued in economic terms. He further argues that parenting teens often find themselves isolated and are unable to participate in classes or activities within regular school settings though in many countries they are legally entitled to formal inclusion.

A further example is of the Human Rights Watch (HRW) (2005) report which showed that for many children, particularly those from poor families, school fees and related costs of schooling such as electricity, water, heat, teachers bonuses, books, cost of maintenance, transportation among others put education beyond their reach. Accordingly, in more than a dozen countries, HRW found out that these combined costs often cause children to drop out of school, start late, or never attend at all.

Colclough (2004) and Kane (2004) remarked that forms of exclusion vary for boys and girls since the boys are regarded to be carrying more economic value. They indicated that the financial and social costs of schooling, the low quality of learning and availability of schools are some causes of exclusion from schools for girls.

The EFA monitoring report of 2003/2004 reported that many children may not attend school because they have to work and since most of the work takes place within the household, it is not

paid. The report also indicated the regional variations in the incidence of child labour and of the total number of children in the world engaged in child labour: Africa takes the top place of 41% followed by Asia, 21% and Latin America, 17%. It further noted that in Africa, factors such as population growth, a weak economy, famine and armed conflict have contributed to keeping child labour high and school attendance low.

Bunyi (2008) adds that endemic poverty in many Sub Saharan Africa countries impacts on the education of girls in various ways. She reports that at the national level, inadequate resources constrain governments in their effort to provide education and result is that there are inadequate schools and girls more than boys, get excluded.

The African Population and Health Research Centre (APHRC) (2007) clarified that although the government introduced free primary education in 2003, an estimated 1,000,000 children of school going age are not attending school. Similarly, the World Bank (WB) report (2005b) established that teenage pregnancy is one of the main reasons for girls dropping out of primary school at the age of 12-14. It adds that girls as young as 14 are frequently faced with child care and do not have the support to help them attend school.

2.2.2.1 Violence as a barrier to inclusion.

Unsafe educational environments within the school lead to girls avoiding schools or to their parents asking them to stay away from schools. According to the report by United Nations Girls Education Initiative (UNGEI, 2005) the physical and psychological wellbeing of many children is at risk when the environment within and near their schools is violent. This situation is more likely to cause them to drop out of school entirely and threatens their right to education. Issues of

unsafe environment include corporal punishment, violence and sexual harassment against girls by their fellow students and teachers and the risk of violence against girls when travelling to and from school.

An unsafe environment outside the school could prevent many girls from participating in education. A similar view is given by UNICEF (2004) which reports that war is a major barrier for girls wanting to go to school. School buildings are destroyed and the roads leading to them often have dangers ranging from attack to land mines. It further presents that many families are displaced from their villages during years of fighting. The report notes the contrast, with the number of girls in schools being on the rise in areas with cease fires.

Unequal power relations between men and women, rape and violence are factors that could be responsible for many young girls being subjected to sexual activities early in their lives. There is a likelihood that when young girls engage in sex they are unable to say no to sex, and unable to protect themselves against pregnancy, have no power to decide when to have sex, and this may lead to them withdrawing from schools. Jewkes et al., (2001) study in South Africa found that many pregnant teenagers had probably been beaten repeatedly and experienced involuntary sexual introduction. They further note that these teenage sexual affairs are facilitated through unequal power associations which are strengthened by violence. They add that the inequality and lack of power in the relationships make the teenage girls who become pregnant unable to face their partners about them being unfaithful, and age differences as well as poverty in their homes reinforce the situation.

According to the 2003 KDHS, teenage pregnancy is frequent and the study found that a quarter of young women aged 15 to 19 years were either pregnant with their first child or were already mothers. Further statistics from the survey show that 19% of teenage girls were mothers, 5% were pregnant with the first child and 23% of them had begun child-bearing. The fact that girls are unable to resist sexual pressures and sexual harassment by male teachers and boys may lead to low self-esteem and eventual drop out. Wood and Jewkes (1997) noted that sexual encounters are sites in which unequal power relations between women and men are expressed. In the context of unequal power, it is always men who determine the timing of sexual intercourse and its nature, including whether or not condoms will be used. They further showed that power relations between men and women in South Africa are commonly manifested as, and imposed through, sexual violence and assault, meaning women commonly find themselves unable to negotiate the timing of sex, and the conditions under which it occurs. Many of them feel powerless even to protect themselves against pregnancy.

Stromquist (2001) argues that girls and women continue to face discrimination in the educational systems of their respective countries and studies focussing on access have failed to document these statistics. In this regard, more studies based on qualitative research methods are urgently needed. She further reports that education for girls still has tensions as access, completion and quality goals remain unfulfilled. In as much as compensatory policies make sense, there is a danger in restricting them to poor girls as the group most in need. There seems to have been a shift in policy emphasis around the world away from seeing teenage pregnancy as a problem, to seeing it as a consequence of inequality. However, there is still a lack of research into the experiences of the young mothers (Arai, 2009; Pillow, 2006).

2.2.3 Benefits of Girls' Education

The World Declaration on EFA at the Jomtien Conference in 1990 noted the high incidence of girls amongst the children out of school and outlined some of the first signals that the education of girls was important for a global social justice project. It highlighted that girls and women comprised 2/3 of the large numbers of children without access to primary school and large number of adults without literacy. The exclusion of girls and women from education was thus part of the problem EFA sought to solve. The inclusion of girls and women was seen as part of the solution which was to be supported by policies for universal access and a focus on learning rather than just enrolment. There was also a concern to utilize a range of different forms of delivery, and strengthen the international solidarity that would underpin a common and universal human responsibility (UNESCO, 1990).

Because of its importance for all, and specifically for girls, education has attracted much attention and interest globally as a result of an increasing interest in human rights. It can be argued that education has been viewed as an instrument for success and development both at individual and societal level. Education has also been associated with the realisation of democracy and self-emancipation among individuals, and it is for this reason that deprivation of education, especially to girls, is regarded as social injustice and infringement of a fundamental human right. There are many benefits that could be realized by educating girls at various levels.

CREAW (2007) indicates that education is an important pillar that determines one's health and legal status. Education helps people to become aware of their rights and have adequate knowledge of basic health care skills that include; improving child health and reducing infant

mortality, complying with medical prescriptions, observing basic hygienic standards and seeking medical services such as ante-natal and post-natal care. In addition, the report argues that education enables rationalised thinking and reasoning, providing opportunities for girls and women to learn and understand their rights, making it easier to recognize laws and social attitudes that hinder the enjoyment of their rights. Another aspect outlined by the report is that education is an important tool in liberating girls and women from historical discrimination and disadvantage thus enabling them also to teach the next generation about the benefits of education.

Maluwa-Banda (2004) argues that girls' education is an investment that serves as a way to achieve education for all children. He adds that it has been broadly accepted as being a powerful tool for self-advancement and fulfilment of development outcomes for present and future generations of children. Chege and Sifuna (2006) noted that getting and keeping young people in school, especially girls, dramatically lowers their vulnerability to Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV), leads to them having greater independence, equips them to make decisions pertaining to their lives and provides them with higher income earning potential. Bhana, Morrel, Shefer and Sisa (2010) concur that allowing pregnant teenagers to remain in school and return after giving birth is considered to be significant in delaying a second birth and also in offering young women increased opportunities to get an education and increase their economic standing.

A UNICEF (1999) report confirmed that investing in girls' education leads not only to realisation of female educational attainment, but also benefits such as good mothers' and children's health, sustainable families, women's empowerment, democracy, income growth, and productivity.

CREAW (2007) also reported that women who attain higher levels of education tend to marry later and prefer fewer children. Early marriage in Kenya is higher in rural areas and those areas are reported having lower levels of education. Moreover, harmful practices such as female genital mutilation could be brought to an end by increasing girls' access to education since educated women are less likely to allow their daughters to undergo the cut and are able to make their own choices.

2.2.4 Interventions to Ensure Girls' Education

Recent policy initiatives have focused on the attainment of Education for All (EFA) and in particular, Universal Primary Education (UPE). The key concerns are access, retention, equity, quality and relevance as well as internal and external efficiencies within the education system.

Policies that support on-going access to education for girls who drop out of school after teenage pregnancy are not only important to the Kenyan government but have been of a major global concern. Many international conventions and treaties reinforce the rights of teenage mothers to on-going education. The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (1976), the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW, 1979), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC, 1989), all recognize education as a human right and point out that each child has a right to education and proper measures should be taken to encourage regular attendance at schools and reduce drop-out rates.

According to a United Nations Children's Fund report (UNICEF, 1999), tens of millions of girls are not getting basic education across the developing world and especially in the rural and poor

areas of Sub Saharan Africa, the Middle East and South Asia. This situation has attracted public attention and more than 180 nations have committed to addressing this challenge by pledging that every boy and girl will receive a quality basic education by 2015. Although the above target has been established and endorsed as one of the eight United Nations Millennium Development Goals, the attainment of this goal is still challenging.

The Education for All (EFA) World Education Conference, Dakar 2000, and the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), have brought gender education to the forefront of attention. The Dakar 2000 declaration reaffirms that education is a fundamental right for all people, women and men, of all ages and primary education must be universal (United Nations, 2000b). The focus of the Dakar 2000 conference was on delivery of the Jomtien Vision and six specific goals were identified. Of the six goals, three explicitly mentioned girls and women and addressed certainty of access to education, improving literacy levels for women, and the elimination of gender disparities, that is, the gender gap between girls and boys (UNESCO, 2000a).

The millennium summit of the United Nations in New York in 2000 expressed a number of founding values which included freedom, equality, solidarity, and tolerance. Eight MDGs, all of which affirmed the specific equal rights of women and men were set out. Each MDG had specific targets and indicators that were intended to set a time by which there would be evidence that the target and the goal might be met. Gender and schooling were explicitly mentioned in two targets and formed part of five indicators (United Nations, 2000a).

Kenya has enacted various educational policies in pursuit of EFA. One such policy is the educational re-entry policy for girls after teenage pregnancy. This policy was meant to promote the education of girls and help the country towards the attainment of education for all Kenyans. This policy was introduced in Kenya in 1994 and supported young mothers to continue schooling after delivery (Republic of Kenya, 1994). Through this policy the government hoped to increase the number of young mothers who continued schooling after delivery. Despite the introduction of the re-entry policy there has not been a major increase in enrolment of girls in schools. This scenario is confirmed by the research carried out by the Forum for African Women Educationists (FAWE) which indicates the persistently low levels of girls' participation in education as compared to boys (FAWE, 2001).

The re-entry policy has been reviewed in an attempt to make the policy and its guidelines more relevant and attract more young mothers back to school. For example, a gender and education policy developed in 2003 revisited the 1994 policy making provision for the re-admission of girls who become pregnant while still in school, and even enabling them to seek a place at a different institution to the one they were originally attended to avoid being stigmatised. However, a study carried out by FAWE (2001) Kenya found that though the readmission strategy has been pronounced, it has been left to the discretion of the head teachers and school boards to decide whether to readmit the girls or not. The Forum then concluded that in the event that the head teachers or school boards do not value girls' education, then the girls seeking re-admission suffer.

The policy is not working effectively according to several other reviews. Consequently the Gender Policy in Education, MOE, (Republic of Kenya, 2007) followed up on the 2003 policy, stating that re-admission of girls who become pregnant while in school is one of the on-going initiatives to address gender disparities in education in Kenya. It explains that one of the objectives of the policy is to increase participation of disadvantaged girls and women in education, and ensure gender equity in education. It further recommends that to realize the above objective the following strategies should be employed: there is need for lobbying parents and communities to support education of girls; implementing girl child empowerment programs; working with communities to encourage girls' participation and retention; advocating for girls' education among parents and communities, sensitizing them against negative socio-cultural practices and facilitating the re-entry of girls who drop out due to pregnancy and early marriage into schools.

Again, this does not appear to have had much effect in practice. The Centre for Study of Adolescence (CSA) (2008), a non-governmental organisation that works on reproductive health, gender and social policy for teenagers, found that 13,000 girls leave school every year in Kenya due to pregnancy. The CSA (2008) showed that while only 35% of girls between the ages of 16 and 20 are in school, 50% of boys the same age attend. Yet enrolment of boys and girls in lower primary is almost equal. Many schools prefer to expel pregnant girls as they are seen as a bad influence on other girls in the school. The lack of legal backing or any official communication on how this guideline is to be implemented makes the policy weak and inconsistent. Many parents are either unaware of its existence or just ignore it (CSA, 2008.p 2).

The Children's Act (Kenya, 2001) unequivocally stipulates every child's entitlement to education, thus ensuring full inclusion of girls in basic education. The Centre for Rights Education and Awareness (CREAW, 2007) points to Kenya's responsibilities as a signatory to the Jomtien conference in 1990, the Dakar Framework Action in 2000 and the MDGs Conference in 2000.

The Kenya Demographic and Health Survey (KDHS) carried out by the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS, 2004) reported that up to 13,000 Kenyan girls drop out of school every year as a result of pregnancy and around 17% of girls have had sex before they turn fifteen years. It argues that better educated girls were less likely to marry early, more likely to practice family planning, and that their children were more likely to have had a higher survival rate. The low enrolment of girls is a matter of concern to all as it amounts to denying children their rights to education. This study addresses a critical and sensitive area in the lives of the young mothers and their families.

In an effort to achieve EFA, the Kenyan government set out policies in the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 an educational Policy and Framework. This also led to the Kenya Educational Sector Support Programme (KESSP) 2005-2010, which has seen much improvement in the provision of education to girl children and women. Sessional Paper No. 1 of Republic of Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2005) Chapter 1 indicates that recent policy initiatives have focused on the attainment of EFA and, in particular, Universal Primary Education (UPE) in light of the decline in enrolment and retention particularly at primary and secondary levels in 16 the last decade.

The Sessional paper also reports that the Government is committed to the provision of quality education and training as a human right for all Kenyans in accordance with the Kenyan law and

the international conventions, such as the EFA goal, and is developing strategies for moving the country towards the attainment of this goal. It further notes that the Government of Kenya is already implementing measures to improve access and quality in secondary education.

However, despite these initiatives, the secondary school sub sector continues to face challenges, particularly the low participation rates, low transition rates from primary to secondary and from secondary to tertiary (particularly to universities) as well as gender and regional disparities. In order to address these challenges, the Government is committed to employ the following strategies among others: ensure the re-entry of girls who drop out of school due to pregnancy and early/ forced marriage; sensitise stakeholders and communities to discard socio-cultural practices that prohibit effective participation of girls and boys in secondary school education, and; enforce legislation against the violation of children's rights (Republic of Kenya, 2005).

According to Ainscow, Booth and Dyson (2006) inclusion may be viewed as being about reducing discrimination on the basis of gender, class, disability, sexual orientation, ethnicity and family background. However they argue that setting global targets to be applied for specific groups has limited value, because exclusion always occurs locally. They add that consequently the priorities which need to be addressed are the barriers that need to be overcome within particular countries, regions and communities.

Most of the required changes recommended by the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (1994) do not relate exclusively to the inclusion of children with special needs. They are part of a wider reform of education needed to improve its equality and relevance and promote

higher levels of learning achievement by all pupils. The World Declaration on EFA underscored the need for a child-centred approach aimed at ensuring the successful schooling of all children. Similarly Ainscow et al. (2006) believed that inclusion referred to the presence, participation and achievement of all students vulnerable to exclusionary pressures, not only those with impairments or those who are categorised as having special educational needs. They further added that inclusion is concerned with all children and young people in schools, and inclusion and exclusion are linked together so that inclusion involves the active combating of exclusion, and inclusion is seen as a never ending process.

Ainscow and Miles (2009) claim that inclusion requires a move towards an analysis of the barriers to participation and learning experienced by students within the education system. They suggest that it must involve all stakeholders within the local community, including families, political and religious leaders and the media. They add that certain barriers could limit the presence, participation and performance of some learners. The promotion of inclusive education should encourage the improvement of school conditions in ways that would be of benefit to all of their students.

The existence of exclusion and discrimination of girls as a group has led to some intervention measures being put in place by many developing countries in an effort to overcome the barriers that prevent girls from accessing education. It is believed that these interventions could bring about social justice, equity and inclusion of all and especially girls into educational systems. One of these intervention measures is the re-entry policy for girls after teenage pregnancy. Although this policy has been enacted in law in many developing countries, its implementation is yet to be assessed in terms of benefiting more girls and attracting them back to school.

Grant and Hallman (2008) note that, in the developing world, few studies have focused on the prevalence of school girl pregnancy and its relationship to prior school experiences and subsequent educational attainment. They maintain that except in qualitative studies, the potentially simultaneous factors affecting pregnancy and leaving school are rarely examined. They further report that although more and more countries now officially allow girls to remain in or return to school after a pregnancy, in many instances these policy changes have had little effect on girls' behaviours, perhaps because the policies are not uniformly enforced. They recommend that educational goals that may discourage school girl pregnancy should be fostered.

A program should be designed that can identify and reach girls who perform poorly early with incentives for ensuring their timely progression through primary school and access to reproductive health information and services during the middle and secondary grades. There are some new ideas that propose a new paradigm which is the unmaking of culture and affirmative action programmes in schools (e.g., Mwanzia & Strathdee, 2010). Chilisa (2002) reported that there has been an increase of gender-sensitive policies in education in Sub-Saharan Africa in the last decade which sought among other things to remove imbalances in school access, participation and achievement between boys and girls. One of the strategies which gave boys and girls equal opportunity to educational access and participation was allowing school girls who get pregnant to continue with their education. However in her case study of Botswana, she found that re-entry policies fall short of challenging and transforming existing gender relations. This is because they are still bound to traditional ideologies that encourage domination and oppression of women by men. She concludes that the re-entry policy in Botswana has had minimal success, mainly because it has scarcely addressed the cultural practices that reinforce unequal power

relations between men and women. It is worthwhile considering some of these existing traditional and ideological barriers that are strongly grounded in conservative cultural values which encourage domination and oppression. Dismantling some of these existing traditional barriers would be desirable since it would enable successful implementation of the re-entry policy for girls. However caution should be taken when dismantling the traditional cultures to attain transculturation and avoid resistance to change.

Klein, Kramarae, and Richardson, (2007) show that enrolment in secondary schools in Sub Saharan Africa represents 20 % of the appropriate age group (both boys and girls). This low percentage indicates that access to secondary school education continues to be very limited. They state that in an effort to reduce gender inequalities, policy making organs in many countries have undertaken several measures among them: involving institutions of civil society, especially women led NGOs that support the education of girls and women; developing and implementing school policies that do not expel pregnant girls, but rather enable them to complete their studies; providing accelerated programs for the girls who have been out of school for several years; and, designing and implementing general practices to welcome adolescent mothers and pregnant girls in school setting.

It is valuable to comprehend this connection between culture and re-entry policy since this would bring to light some of the societal, familial, individual and structural barriers that work against access and retention in education. This study aims to give some insights on how to improve the implementation of the re-entry policy and enable it to cater for teen parents' needs and those of their children. This could be realised by identifying existing social disadvantages that are

unacceptable and must be changed, or challenged, and some of the support systems for effective implementation of the policy.

There is little literature in Kenya about the re-entry policy. The EYC (2005) reported that even though Kenya's education policy does not separate girls' and women's schooling, their participation is categorised by noticeable inequalities. It further indicates that there are also wide variations in drop-out rates between regions, and in the last 10 years completion rates in Kenya have never exceeded 50%. The report adds that although legislation exists which recognises the rights and responsibilities of government and schools; it is quite another issue to have these recognized and enforced.

This is supported by Mensch, Clark, Lloyd and Erulkar (2001) who state that there is little attention to the context of adolescents' sexual activity. In their study conducted in Kenya, they found that pregnancy is unlikely to be the leading proximate cause of girls leaving school. They note that many other reasons may cause a girl to withdraw from school during her adolescence, including factors such as the absence of social and economic opportunities for girls and women and the demands placed on them. Coupled with the gender inequities known to exist within the education system, this may result in unsatisfactory school experiences, poor academic performance and resignation to, or preference for, early motherhood. They recommend that in such circumstances, the effort to make schools more congenial to girls would suggest itself as a course of action, rather than focusing on efforts to prevent them from becoming pregnant. These preventative approaches are in keeping with some of the western approaches mentioned earlier.

The CREAM (2007) report agrees that many studies on girls and women vis-à-vis health and education have been carried out in Kenya with conclusions on the various issues afflicting and affecting them. Furthermore, the report indicates that despite the necessity of accessing health and education services for this group of society it is regrettable that, in Kenya, only a small percentage can access these services easily with the majority having to contend with mediocre services that are few and far between. The report shows that education in Kenya is faced with many gender and regional disparities. For example, in Nairobi's informal settlements only 22% of 15 to 17 year old girls were enrolled in school compared to 68% nationally and 73% in rural areas.

Mule (2008) found out that since the 1970s, researchers and critics of Kenya's educational system have argued that the state has historically endorsed an expansionist approach that has obscured the goal of gender equity in education and failed to address gender inequity in its obvious and subtle forms. She further argues that strategies such as boosting enrolments among others to expand education have failed to adequately address educational gender inequity in Kenya. Consequently, Achoka (2007) commented that as a nation, although Kenya hopes to achieve EFA by the year 2015, this is an uphill task, given the various challenges in the education sector. He further states that the year 2015 is also significant globally because it is the target year for the fulfilment of the eight Millennium goals; however, the pandemic secondary school dropout in Kenya is alarming. For instance he found out that, in a period of 10 years, 1992-2002, the average dropout and completion rates for girls were 20% and 80% respectively, while for the boys the dropout and completion rates were 14% and 87% respectively. Achoka

attributes the pandemic secondary school drop out to poverty, early pregnancies and marriages, HIV/AIDS, drug abuse and low self-esteem.

Unterhalter (2007) notes that with the election of new government in Kenya in 2003, 1.3 million children returned to schools due to abolition of fees in primary schools. However this achievement became difficult to sustain due to insufficient provision of classrooms, teachers and general support from the public. She further points out that although there was increase of enrolment countrywide some parents kept their daughters away due to conditions at schools.

It can be observed here that it is vital to seek to know what these conditions at schools are which keep girls away and which become barriers in their accessing education and subsequent exclusion. In order to increase and sustain achievements in education in terms of access and retention, it is important that all these conditions are exhaustively identified and audited with the objective of removing them while making schools safe for all children, especially girls.

Mule (2008) points out that the reality is that adolescent girls and adult women are not always guaranteed the rights implied in various national and international conventions documents in Kenya. Education as a right must not be understood only in terms of access. Research has revealed that there is more to educational gender inequity than access, and that equity issues span across regional and economic differences. It would be of benefit to find out how to move beyond enrolment access and parity to include ways of expanding re-entry of girls into schools while taking care of their needs and those of their children.

Aikman and Unterhalter (2007) agree that an analysis of the barriers and inequalities faced by girls and women inside and outside school in the most marginalised and exploited communities is important to government agencies. They maintain that involvement of girls, women and other marginalised groups in the planning of policy and implementation strategies would be of significant value. The incorporation of these marginal groups into decision making process will lead to successful innovative approaches to education while taking into account their rights of citizenships.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

2.3.1 Functionalist Theory

The functionalist perspective is based largely on the works of Herbert Spencer, Emile Durkheim, Talcott Parsons and Robert Merton. According to functionalism, society is a system of interconnected parts that work together in harmony to maintain a state of balance and social equilibrium for the whole. For example, each of the social institutions contributes important functions for society: Family provides a context for reproducing, nurturing, and socializing children; education offers a way to transmit a society's skills, knowledge, and culture to its youth; politics provides a means of governing members of society; economics provides for the production, distribution, and consumption of goods and services; and religion provides moral guidance and an outlet for worship of a higher power.

The functionalist perspective emphasizes the interconnectedness of society by focusing on how each part influences and is influenced by other parts. For example, the increase in single parent and dual-earner families has contributed to the number of children who are failing in school because parents have become less available to supervise their children's homework. As a result of changes in technology, colleges are offering more technical programs, and many adults are

returning to school to learn new skills that are required in the workplace. The increasing number of women in the workforce has contributed to the formulation of policies against sexual harassment and job discrimination.

Functionalists use the terms *functional* and *dysfunctional* to describe the effects of social elements on society. Elements of society are functional if they contribute to social stability and dysfunctional if they disrupt social stability. Some aspects of society can be both functional and dysfunctional. For example, crime is dysfunctional in that it is associated with physical violence, loss of property, and fear. But according to Durkheim and other functionalists, crime is also functional for society because it leads to heightened awareness of shared moral bonds and increased social cohesion. Sociologists have identified two types of functions: manifest and latent (Merton 1968). Manifest functions are consequences that are intended and commonly recognized. Latent functions are consequences that are unintended and often hidden. For example, the manifest function of education is to transmit knowledge and skills to society's youth. But public elementary schools also serve as babysitters for employed parents, and colleges offer a place for young adults to meet potential mates. The baby-sitting and mate-selection functions are not the intended or commonly recognized functions of education; hence they are latent functions.

In this case, the girl child is recognized as a cog in the main wheel of society. This cog has to play its part in society as explained by the functionalist theory that states that society is a system of interconnected parts that work together in harmony to maintain a state of balance and social equilibrium for the whole. Therefore any challenges that make the girl child not acquire education have to be identified.

2.3.2 Symbolic Interactionism Theory

Both the functionalist and the conflict perspectives are concerned with how broad aspects of society, such as institutions and large social groups, influence the social world. This level of sociological analysis is called macro sociology: It looks at the bigger picture of society and suggests how social problems are affected at the institutional level. Micro-sociology, another level of sociological analysis, is concerned with the social psychological dynamics of individuals interacting in small groups. Symbolic interactionism reflects the micro-sociological perspective, and was largely influenced by the work of early sociologists and philosophers, such as George Simmel, Charles Cooley, George Herbert Mead, and Erving Goffman. Symbolic interactionism emphasizes that human behaviour is influenced by definitions and meanings that are created and maintained through symbolic interaction with others.

Sociologist W.I. Thomas (1966) emphasized the importance of definitions and meanings in social behaviour and its consequences. He suggested that humans respond to their definition of a situation rather than to the objective situation itself. Hence Thomas noted that situations that we define as real become real in their consequences. Symbolic interactionism also suggests that our identity or sense of self is shaped by social interaction. We develop our self-concept by observing how others interact with us; how they label us. By observing how others view us, we see a reflection of ourselves what Cooley calls the “looking-glass self.”

Consequently the girl child in Tana River County will not only be a product of the creative process but also a product of the surrounding society. The girl child in this scenario will always see herself as the community sees her. If education to the girl child is emphasized and valued, she will value it and be diligent in her studies and have ambitions that reflect her academic

advancement. The converse will be true if education to the girl child is spoken of in a derogatory manner; she will lose its importance in her life and will, without regard to the impact her decision will have on her, most probably follow on the path trodden by others before her.

This will also be true of the cultural practices that endanger the continuance of the girl child in school. If practices such as early marriages and teen and pre-teen sexual encounters are taken as an everyday occurrence and hence don't need intervention to stop them, the indulgence in such behaviour and the consequences attendant to them will be equally acceptable. Hence the incidences of girls dropping out of school will continue since the community has come to accept it as a part of their lives.

Another way that the girl child will be affected by her surroundings is the concept of always receiving aid. It has been noted that a lot of the problems bedeviling the constituents of Tana River County are often solved through external interventions. It is seldom that the community is the originator of a solution to their problem. This trend will definitely have a great effect not only to the adult population but to the children and girl child in particular as the society around her is ascribed to the dependence on external solutions to problems.

Through the definitions and meanings acquired about life through her interaction with the society, the girl child in Tana River County will continue to be of the opinion that issues which affect her are dependent on 'others', 'donors', 'well-wishers' and other 'community based organisations'; as a consequence, she will be handicapped in her individual capacity to solve issues.

As a consequence, the individual, irrespective of the advancement of the society they are in, will be inclined to not only think but act in the way that corresponds and reflects the expectations of society and its opinion makers.

Through the theory of symbolic interactionism, the individual is not just a singular creation but the product of the experiences and influences of society around him.

2.3.3 Modernization Theory

Modernization Theory emerged in the 1950s as an explanation of how the industrial societies of North America and Western Europe developed. The theory argues that societies develop in fairly predictable stages through which they become increasingly complex. Development depends primarily on the importation of technology as well as a number of other political and social changes believed to come about as a result. For example, modernization involves increased levels of schooling and the development of mass media, both of which foster democratic political institutions. Transportation and communication become increasingly sophisticated and accessible, populations become more urban and mobile, and the extended family declines in importance as a result. Organizations become bureaucratic as the division of labor grows more complex and religion declines in public influence. Lastly, cash-driven markets take over as the primary mechanism through which goods and services are exchanged.

Modernization theory is a description and explanation of the processes of transformation from traditional or underdeveloped societies to modern societies. In the words of one of the major proponents, "Historically, modernization is the process of change towards those types of social, economic, and political systems that have developed in Western Europe and North America from the seventeenth century to the nineteenth century and have then spread to other European countries and in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries to the South American, Asian, and African continents" (Eisenstaedt 1966, p. 1). Modernization theory has been one of the major perspectives in the sociology of national development and underdevelopment since the 1950s. Primary attention has focused on ways in which past and present pre-modern societies become

modern (i.e., Westernized) through processes of economic growth and change in social, political, and cultural structures.

In general, modernization theorists are concerned with economic growth within societies as indicated, for example, by measures of gross domestic product (GDP). Mechanization or industrialization are ingredients in the process of economic growth. Modernization theorists study the social, political, and cultural consequences of economic growth and the conditions that are important for industrialization and economic growth to occur. Indeed, a degree of circularity often characterizes discussions of social and economic change involved in modernization processes. This is because of the notion, embedded in most modernization theories, of the functional compatibility of component parts.

The effects of modernization as explained in the Modernisation Theory, have found a place in the community of Tana River County. Principal among the effect of modernization has been the breakdown of traditions. For example, the local community has long been documented to engage in the practice of child marriages. This is however slowly coming to an end as this and other traditions which are now considered retrogressive are abandoned for 'modern' practices which guarantee the continuance of the girl child's life in a more acceptable manner. The breakdown of traditions has also seen the decrease in the importance of the extended family on the individual. It is common to see families living in a nuclear set-up rather than the customary set-up where one would be brought up in the same compound with cousins. This has also led to the individualization of decisions affecting the family which hitherto had been the prerogative of the chief patriarch of the homestead. This decrease of the importance of the extended family has been hastened by the choice of many people to adopt living in urban centres and also their

inclination to be mobile in both their living and working engagements. All these have contributed to the uptake of education by the girl-child and an increase in pressure for the punishment of those who deny their daughters an education. It has also seen an increasing number of organisations dedicate their services to the uplifting of the girl-child's lot in life in the areas which they are prone to face abuse or neglect. Chief among these is the provision of quality and assured high quality education to all children and especially to the girl child.

Secondly a change in attitudes has seen the dropping of previously held beliefs. The traditional modes of worship which incorporated the gods and other creatures of the spirit world have been replaced by Christianity and Islam. These two religions place emphasis on the equality of children and the expected equality in the provision of basic needs to children of either gender. The adoption of these religions has also seen their various denominations entering into the provision of education with special emphasis on the girl-child.

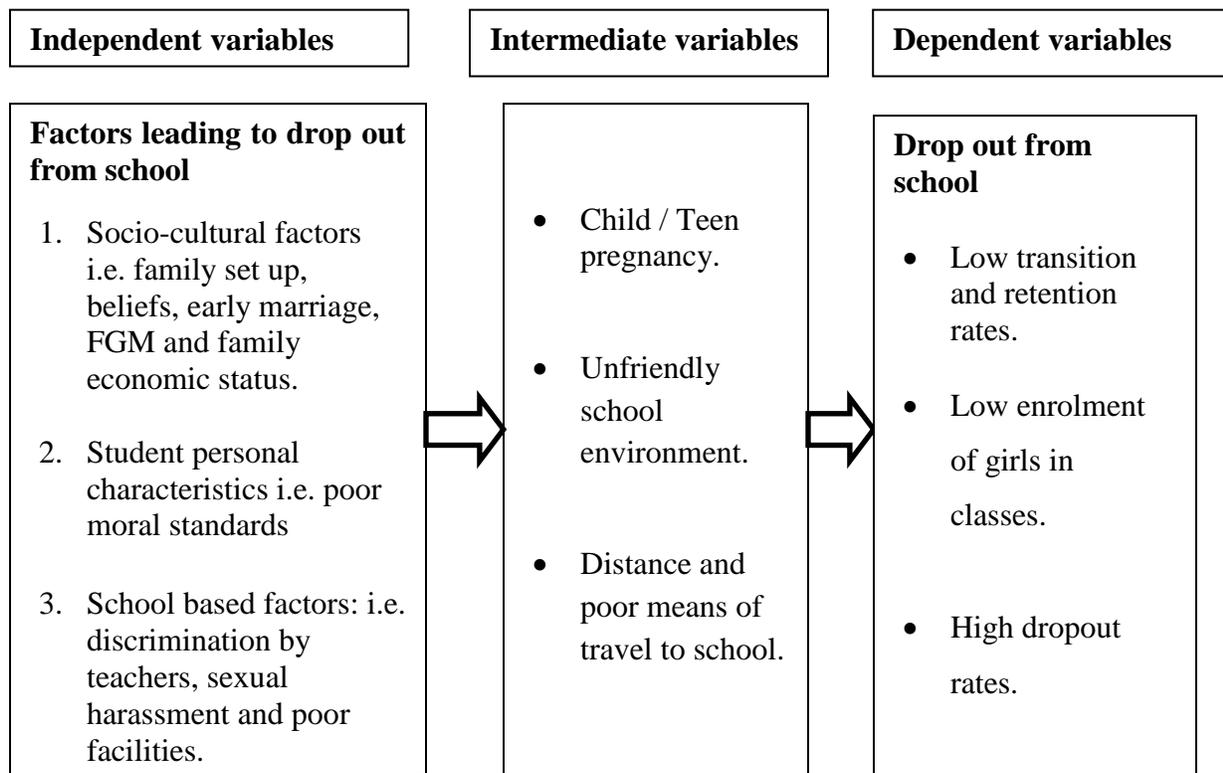
Thirdly, with the modernization of society, people develop new aspirations and lifestyles. This is seen in the increase in accessibility and sophistication of the transport and communication sectors. Communication has grown exponentially with the availability of mobile telephony and internet connection at an affordable and easy manner. As a product of these two areas of life increasing in sophistication and accessibility, we have the dissemination of ideas in a faster way. Therefore, a person is easily influenced by what happens half the world away and is also able to relate with the modern practices which uplift the girl child in other countries. The betterment of the transportation sector has also seen people become increasingly attracted to the urban areas and their way of life and also adopt a lifestyle that is increasingly mobile. They are able to live

anywhere and at the same time communicate with people in the rural areas and be able to influence the way issues are handled.

As such the breakdown of traditions, change in attitudes and the development of new aspirations and lifestyles has seen the improvement of the girl-child’s way of life.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework represents the relationship between independent variables, intermediate variables and dependent variables. This conceptual framework has therefore been developed from the reviewed literature above.



Conceptual framework has been developed from the reviewed literature and related theories. The independent variables are students’ personal factors, socio-cultural factors and school based factors. The dependent variables is drop out. Factors like pregnancy, early marriage, poverty, unfriendly school environment, discrimination by teachers and sexual harassment leads to

frequent absenteeism from school, repetition, loss of interest and poor academic performance and finally drop out of school. Drop out is the presumed result of independent variable. The independent variables are factors that influence drop out from school leading to drop out which is the dependent variable. However the intervening variables like the guidance and counselling and government policies comes in between the independent and dependent variables. The intervening variables influences the dependent variables in that although there are factors which leads to drop out, the government policies once enhanced can control drop out of female students from school. The study will clearly show the relationship between these variables.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the descriptions of methods that were used to carry out the study. The subsections includes research design, study location, target population, sampling procedures and sample size, research instrumentation and their validity and reliability, methods of data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Site Description

This study was carried out in Tana River County, Kenya. TRC has three sub-counties (formerly districts) of Tana North, Tana Delta and Tana River. The County has 14 secondary Schools and 161 primary schools. The study was done in Tana River Sub-County (Galole Constituency) of TRC. It has 51 primary schools, 8, 952 boys and 7,612 girls totalling to 16,564 pupils. This sub-county has also a total of 416 teachers; 251 Males and 165 female. There are four administrative wards; Chewani, Mikinduni, Kinankomba and Wayu. The researcher picked schools in all four wards. The researcher identified and selected from advantaged and disadvantaged schools. Advantaged schools are the ones close to main towns of Hola, Wayu, Wenje etc. and very close to the main roads and government facilities. The opposite applies to the disadvantaged schools. This was necessary because of the unique nature of the lifestyles of the pastoralist and farming communities.

3.3 Research Design

The study used the descriptive survey research design to study the factors affecting girls' education in TRC. According to Lovell and Lawson (1971) descriptive research is concerned with conditions that already exist, practices that are held, processes that are ongoing and trends

that are developing. A descriptive survey design helps the researcher to collect information from various respondents. The researcher then summarizes the data and presents it using data presentation methods such as frequency tables and percentages, then makes interpretations for the purpose of clarification (Orodho, 2004). Descriptive survey research design is most appropriate when the purpose of study is to create a detailed description of an issue (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). This research design was appropriate to use since it led to the study of factors influencing female students' dropout from school and the practices and conditions that already exist that exacerbate the same. A survey design was used in this study to investigate and establish the factors that influence girl-child participation in education.

3.4 Unit of Analysis and Units of Observation

In this research, the unit of study was the education of the girl child. The study looked into the challenges facing the education of the girl child in Tana River County. The unit of analysis is the major entity that is being analysed in a study. It is the 'what' or 'who' that is being studied.

In this research the unit of analysis were the challenges that face the girl child in her quest for an education. Therefore, the unique experiences that define the education of the girl child were examined.

On the other hand the unit of observation was the girls who are in the upper classes of primary school i.e. standard seven and eight. The research did, as its unit of observation, concentrate on the experiences and views of the girls in this age and education bracket as they continue with their education. The research also benefited from the experiences of the girls who, for various reasons, have already dropped out of school while they were in the above bracket.

3.5 Target Population

The total population was as follows: TRC has 161 primary schools and 14 secondary schools. In primary there are 27,057 boys and 23,322 girls making it a total population of 50,379 pupils. In secondary there are 3,073 boys and 1,727 girls totalling to 4800 students. There are a total of 1197 primary school teachers, 717 being male and 480 females. There are 177 secondary school teachers with 135 male and 42 female according to the County Education Office.

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) a target population is that population which the researcher wants to generalize results. In this case, the study targeted the Tana River Sub-County pupils who are in 51 primary schools; 8,952 boys and 7,612 girls totalling to 16,564 pupils. The researcher selected 10% of girls. In order to gain in-depth insight, the researcher further focused on girls in the upper classes of std. 7 and 8 who were better placed to articulate issues and may have experienced dropping out and re-entry. Further, the researcher also interviewed education stakeholders and opinion leaders in the County.

Primary

Sub-County	No. of Schools	Pupils Enrolment		TOTAL	Teachers		TOTAL
		B	G		M	F	
Tana River	51	8,952	7,612	16,564	251	165	416
Tana Delta	63	10,670	9,926	20,596	270	204	474
Tana North	47	7,435	5,784	13,219	196	111	307
Total	161	27,057	23,322	50,379	717	480	1,197

3.6 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

3.6.1 Sample Size

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) a target population is that population which the researcher wants to generalize results. In this case, the study targeted the Tana River Sub-County pupils who are in 51 primary schools; 7,612 girls. The researcher selected 10% of girls. In order to gain in-depth insight, the researcher further focused on girls in upper classes 7 and 8 who were better placed to articulate issues and may have experienced dropping out and re-entry. The researcher randomly selected 15 primary schools where 15 girls were to be interviewed from each school selected making a total sample size of 225 respondents. The researcher managed to interview only 171 girls in total, translating to a response rate of 76%.

The researcher also sampled 30 members of the community who were the key informants to the study. The 30 key informants group was comprised of; the County Director of Education, 2 District Education officials, 5 primary school head teachers, 17 female teachers, 2 school matrons, and 3 girls who have dropped out of school within the constituency. Through interviewing these key informants the researcher was able to gather in-depth information on the subject of the study. Apart from the intended questions prepared in the key informant interview guide, the researcher also probed more through spontaneous questions hence generating rich data. With no clear cut timelines, the key informants were accorded ample time to discuss the issues satisfactorily.

15 focused group discussions were carried out from the 15 schools that were sampled. Each was composed of a group of 10 girls those of classes 7 and 8. These were not part of the respondents that filled the questionnaires.

3.6.2 Sampling Procedure

According to Kothari (1985), Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) and Peter (1996) in a descriptive survey, a sample enables a researcher to gain information about the population. Gay (1992) suggests that at least 10% of the population is a good representation where the population is large and 20% where the population is small.

For the purposes of this research stratified random sampling was used to select the schools interviewed. Stratified random sampling is used in situations where the members have shared attributes or characteristics. A random sample is then taken from an individual stratum based on the ratio of the stratum's size to the general population. In this case, the two main strata were the advantaged and disadvantaged schools within Galole constituency. The next step was the random picking of a specific number of schools from each stratum based on their prevalence in the general population of schools in Galole constituency.

In sampling the girls who filled the questionnaires, systematic sampling was used. Systematic sampling is the selection of subjects from an ordered sampling frame in a fixed periodic interval. This was used to select the actual girls in classes seven and eight who were interviewed in the selected schools. Class registers in both classes were used as the ordered sampling frame. The periodic interval were the skipping of one girl and opting for the second one from which the starting point was random; therefore in a class that had twenty-five girls a position was randomly selected and from there every second girl was selected.

In sampling the key informants to the study, purposive sampling was used. Purposive sampling is used where subjects are selected because of some characteristic. This is a non-probability sampling technique that is also known as judgemental, selective or subjective sampling. It is

characterised by a deliberate effort to gain representative samples by including groups or typical areas in a sample. The researcher relies on his or her own judgement to select sample group members. Purposive sampling is mainly popular in qualitative studies. This was therefore used in selecting the key informants that were interviewed, together with the girls that participated in the focussed group discussions.

3.7 Methods of Data Collection

In education and social sciences research, the most commonly used instruments are questionnaires, interview schedules and observation forms.

3.7.1 Collection of Quantitative Data

In this study questionnaires were used. These questionnaires were developed and administered by the researcher for the purpose of data collection. Each question in the questionnaire addressed a specific objective or research question in the study. The respondents were given questionnaires to fill on their own (self-administered questionnaires).

The main respondents were girls who have spent the longest time in the primary schools (hence the preference to those in class seven and eight). These students have experienced a lot of dropping out and might even have been victims of such at an earlier time. They are also able to explain and express themselves in a better manner and also able to correctly fill out the questionnaires.

3.7.2 Collection of Qualitative data

Quantitative and qualitative data was collected through questionnaires and one-on-one interviews. These were tabulated at the end to address the outlined variables. The researcher used

various data collection approaches such as direct interaction with individuals on a one – on – one basis and or with individuals in a group setting. However, due to the fact that qualitative data collection methods are time consuming, a smaller sample of the total population was targeted. The researcher used individual interviews and focus groups discussions which contained open ended questions as this gave respondents an opportunity to share as much information as possible. The targeted groups of respondents, who formed the key informants, included; the County Director of Education, the District Education officials, girls who have for one reason or another dropped out of school, matrons in the schools, female teachers and a few head-teachers. The selection of the above key informants was necessary since each one of them possessed critical information to the research. The female teachers were selected basing on the following considerations:-

- teachers in charge of girls forum,
- teachers in charge of guidance and counselling,
- teachers in charge of a programme called “Wasichana Wote Wasome” sponsored by CfBT (Centre for British Teacher)
- a few class teachers of class seven and eight pupils.

The focused group discussions were composed of groups of ten girls in classes 7 and 8 from the 15 sampled schools. The views and experiences gathered from all the key informants and the focussed group discussions as to what contributes to the dropping out from school, poor performance of female students as well as other factors were highly informative to the research.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Reliability of the data collection instrument refers to the extent to which an instrument is capable of generating similar results when used more than once to collect data from two samples drawn from the same target population (Mulusa, 1990). The following measures were taken to enhance reliability:-

- a. Ensuring clarity of items in the questionnaire.
- b. Use of clear instructions.
- c. Use of unambiguous words.

The instruments were pilot-tested to ensure that unclear terms and vague questions were detected and corrections made before the final data collection. To enhance content validity, the questionnaires were subjected to thorough scrutiny by competent experts (project supervisors) to assess the relevance of the content used in the questionnaire. Once this was done and feedback included, the researcher used them for the study.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data collected from the field was coded and cleaned to remove outliers or missing values and categorized manually according to the questionnaire items using frequency distribution tables and percentages. Simple descriptive statistics such as percentages have an advantage over more complex statistics since they can easily be understood especially when making results known by a variety of audiences. The coded data was then transferred and processed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5. Martin and Acuna (2002) observe that SPSS is able to handle large amounts of data; it is time saving and also quite efficient. Frequency tables, bar graphs and pie charts were used to analyse the quantitative data. The responses to open ended

items (qualitative data) in form of phrases and words were organized according to themes and patterns related to the research questions. The researcher then proceeded to draw conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

This study sought to answer four research questions: What are the factors that affect girl child education in Tana River County (TRC)? What factors cause girls to drop out of school in TRC? How can school-related factors affect girls' education in TRC? How can the community mitigate the factors that cause girls to drop out of school?

Among the specific objectives the research sought to achieve were: To establish the social and cultural factors affecting the enrolment of girls in primary schools in Tana River County. To establish the factors which cause school dropout among girls in Tana River County. To examine the role of socio economic factors in girls education in Tana River County. To investigate whether the school environment is friendly to girls and supports their education.

4.2 Social and Demographic Characteristics

Demographic characteristics or information consists of numeric data or statistics involving groups of people. Demographic information has many purposes; it is used for research in the social sciences, creation of policy, identification of potential customers in marketing. The following resources will be particularly useful for research in the social sciences, although they may have other applications as well. Some demographic information takes the form of data, numbers that must be interpreted. Other demographic information takes the form of statistics, numbers that have already been interpreted. In this case therefore, the demographic information collected is purposely used for research in social sciences.

Here, the respondents were asked to indicate their gender. All of the respondents were female, who were primary school girls which translate to one hundred percent (100%). This is because

the questionnaires were meant for girls and were filled by primary school girls, those in classes 7 and 8 since they have been in school for long and are likely to have experiences that can yield valuable information on the challenges of girls' education.

The researcher asked respondents to indicate their age. Where the results indicated that majority of the respondents were in the age bracket of 14-17 years (69.6%, n=119) while 29.2% (n=50) were aged 10-13 years. Only 0.6% (n=1) of the respondents were 18 years and above. Table 4.1 presents the distribution of the respondents by age.

Table 4. 1: Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age group	Frequency	Percent
10-13 years	50	29.2
14-17 years	119	69.6
18 years and above	1	0.6
Total	170	99.4

Respondents were asked to indicate which grade they are in school. The results indicated that majority of the respondents were in class 7 (57.3%, n=98) while respondents in class 8 were 42.1% (n=72). Only 0.6% (n=1) of the respondents was in class 6. The study focused on girls in upper primary classes for the reason that they have stayed long in school and are better placed to articulate issues and may have experienced dropping out and re-entry. Table 4.2 presents these results.

Table 4. 2: Distribution of Respondents by Class

Class	Frequency	Percent
Class 6	1	0.6
Class 7	98	57.3
Class 8	72	42.1
Total	171	100.0

The researcher wanted to know the head of the household where the respondents came from. Majority of the respondents indicated father (70.8%, n=121) as the head of household while 17% (n=29) of the respondents indicated mother. Only 12.3% (n=21) of the respondents indicated other as the head of the family. Those who indicated other were asked to specify and they indicated that they lived with guardians such as aunts, uncles and grandparents. This was done in order to determine if there is any relationship between the family setup and the girls' performance in school. Table 4.3 shows the results.

Table 4. 3: Distribution of Respondents by Head of Household

Head of Household	Frequency	Percent
Father	121	70.8
Mother	29	17.0
Other	21	12.3
Total	171	100.0

In trying to understand the family background of the respondent, the researcher wanted to know the occupation of the respondents' parents. Could it be the nature of the parent's occupation that is a contributing factor to the girl dropping out of school, may be because of lack of enough income that can enable him pay the full school fees amount? Or is there a stereo type of some kind related to the parent's occupation? The findings then presented these results; majority of the respondents indicated that their parents were farmers (55.3%, n=94) while respondents who indicated that their parents were business people were 20.6% (n=35). Respondents whose parents are civil servants were 18.2% (n=31) and only 5.9% (n=10) were casual laborers. Table 4.4 shows the distribution of the respondents by the parents' occupation.

Table 4. 4: Distribution of Respondents by Occupation of the Parent

Parents' Occupation	Frequency	Percent
Civil servant	31	18.2
Farmer	94	55.3
Business person	35	20.6
Casual laborer	10	5.9
Total	170	100.0

The researcher wanted to know how long the respondents have been residents of Tana River County. In doing so, the researcher intended to establish if there is any relationship between the performance of the girl child in school and the nature of the occupation of the parent. Could it be

the frequent transfers between schools brought about by the frequent transfers of the parent at work that contributed to the deterioration of the girl's performance in education? Or is it the change of the environment that is the problem? In finding out the period of stay in Tana River County, the research arrived at the following results; majority of the respondents indicated that they were born in Tana River County (76.8%, n=129) while 10.1% (n=17) indicated they have lived in Tana River for 4-7 years. Respondents who had lived in Tana River County for 12 years and above were 6% (n=10) while those who had lived in the county for 1-3 years were 4.8% (n=8). Only 2.4% of the respondents indicated they have lived in the county for 8-11 years. Table 4.5 shows these findings.

Table 4. 5: Duration of Stay in Tana River County

Duration of stay	Frequency	Percent
Born here	129	76.8
1-3 years	8	4.8
4-7 years	17	10.1
8-11 years	4	2.4
12 years and above	10	6.0
Total	168	100.0

This indicated that most of the girls were born in Tana River County and have lived in the county from the period they were born till the time of the interview. The number of those born and raised in the county is large which shows some level of ignorance brought about by the lack of exposure, hence poor competition in education experienced amongst the pupils in schools.

Respondents were then asked to indicate the number of children that are there in their families. Majority of the respondents indicated that there were more than five children in their family (62.9%, n=107) while 17.1% (n=29) indicated that there were five children in their family. Respondents whose family had 4, 3, and 2 children were 9.4% (n=16), 7.1% (n=12) and 2.9% (n=5) respectively. Only 0.6% (n=1) of the respondents indicated that their family had 1 child. Table 4.6 presents these findings.

Table 4. 6: Distribution of Respondents by Number of Children in the Family

No. of Children in the Family	Frequency	Percent
1	1	0.6
2	5	2.9
3	12	7.1
4	16	9.4
5	29	17.1
More than five	107	62.9
Total	170	100.0

Respondents were requested to indicate their birth order in the family. According to the results, respondents who were first borns were 27.6% (n=47) while second borns were 26.5% (n=45). Respondents who were third, fourth and fifth borns were 10% (n=17), 11.8% (n=20) and 5.3% (n=9) respectively. Respondents who indicated they were last borns were 18.8% (n=32). Table 4.7 shows the results on birth order.

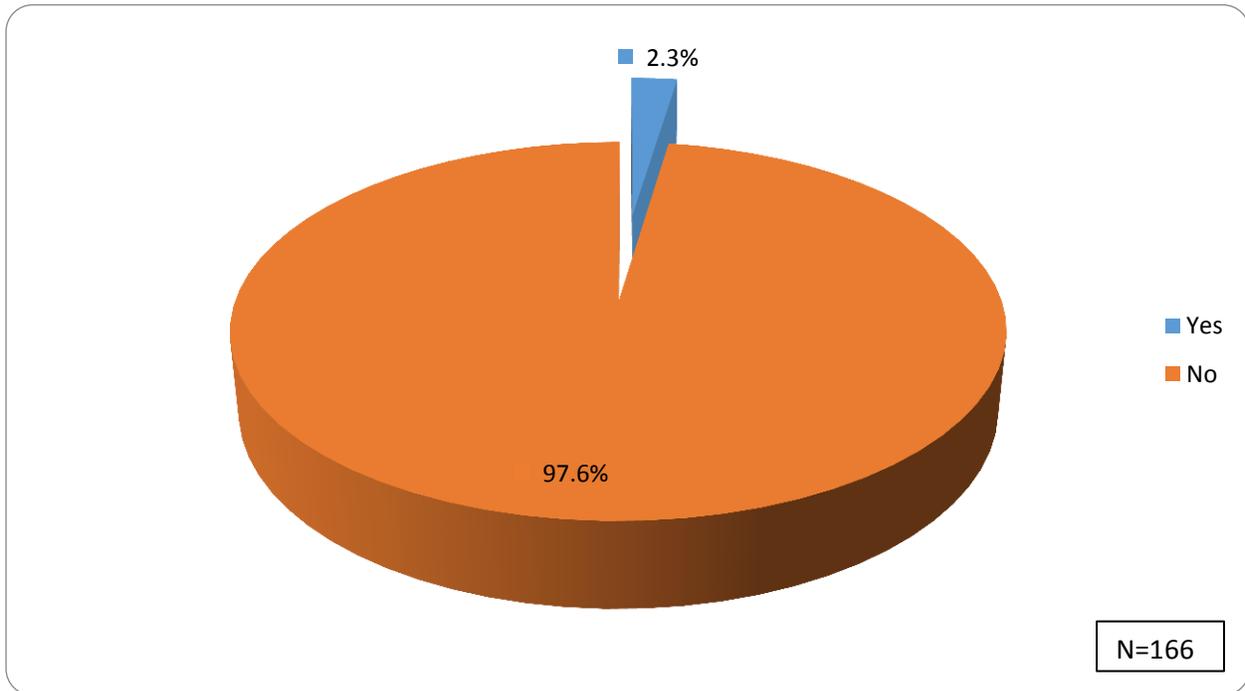
Table 4. 7: Distribution of Respondents by Birth order

Birth order	Frequency	Percent
First born	47	27.6
Second born	45	26.5
Third born	17	10.0
Fourth born	20	11.8
Fifth born	9	5.3
Last born	32	18.8
Total	170	100.0

The collection of data on the number of children that there are in the respondent's family and the birth order of the respondent was done purposely to determine whether the size of the family has any effect in the learning of the girl child. This to some extent led to the conclusion that some families especially the big families i.e. those with many children, it did affect the schooling of the girl child in the family since some parents gave priority to the boy child than the girl child.

The respondents were then asked whether they had a child. Majority of the respondents indicated No (97.6%, n=162) while 2.3% of the respondents (n=4) indicated Yes. Figure 4.1 shows the results.

Figure 4. 1: Respondents who have children



The few of the respondents who had children (1.2%, n=2) indicated that they became parents at the age bracket of 14-17 years.

The researcher further wanted to know the grade at which respondents with children became parents. Half of those who had children became parents when they were in class 5 (50%, n=1) and class 7 (50%, n=1). This was carried out in order to establish if the girls who drop out of school because of pregnancy are allowed back to school. The finding of this from the key informants was that many of the schools give chances to these girls to come back and continue with their studies, but these girls shy off from coming back to school for fear of mockery from their fellow pupils. They feel embarrassed and feel that they may be ridiculed by fellow pupils and teachers. They feel they have assumed new responsibilities that would not allow them to go back to school so instead they opt to get married. Low self-esteem is another reason that make

them not to go back to school as they feel they are not worth the eyes of their fellow pupils whom they have been in the same class for long; they cannot go back to their old selves due to scorn. The key informants also sighted lack of parental support and encouragement as one of the contributing factor to these girls not going back to school to continue with their studies since some of the parents influence these girls to get married instead of encouraging them to go back to school. The research found out that half of the respondents became pregnant while in standard five while the other half while in standard seven.

The respondents with children were asked to indicate how many children they had. Half of them indicated they have one child (50%, n=1) while the other half (50%, n=1) indicated they have more than five children.

The key informants to the study comprised of 57% (n=17) female teachers, 16.6% (n=5) head teachers, 10% (n=3) girls who for one reason or another have dropped out of school, 6.6% (n=2) school matrons, 6.6% (n=2) District Education officials and 3.3% (n=1) County Director of Education. 83% (n=25) of them were female and 17% (n=5) of them were male. 90% (n=27) of the key informants were employed while 10% (n=3) of them were unemployed.

4.3 The Social and Cultural factors affecting Enrolment of Girls in primary schools in TRC

The population of Galole constituency in Tana River County is made up of three communities; the Pokomo, Oromo and Wardei. The Oromo and Wardei are nomadic pastoralists while the Pokomo are agrarian. Due to their socio-cultural and socio-economic engagements, the Oromo and Wardei are prone to move from one area to another in search of pasture for their flocks. This destabilises the education of the children in terms of enrolment, attendance and performance. The children are often used in herding the animals, household chores and running errands for their parents. The children are also discriminated against based on their gender as boys are

preferred to girls in terms of educational priorities. Due to the strong influence of their culture, many children drop out of schooling to pursue a life that they feel will provide a better living for them. To them, education is an option they can do without as their cultural practices provide for their sustenance.

Some of the socio-cultural practices that negatively affect the engagement and continuance with education of girls among the Oromo and Wardei raised by the respondents as well as the key informants include female genital mutilation (FGM), early marriages, teen pregnancies, child labour, poverty, negative attitudes towards education and stereotypes that prejudice the education of the girl child. Other factors which predispose the girl child to a life without education include an increase of child-headed homes due to the death of parents and low levels of sanitation which keep the girls out of school and other societal engagements during their menses. Due to the practice of female genital mutilation (FGM), girls are often married off early thus cutting short their education. Since girls are considered only fit for marriage, their education is considered a loss and hence boys are preferred for education. The education of a girl is also seen as counter-productive and in some cases a loss as it is considered that her leaving for her husband's home will end up benefitting her in-laws more than her parents.

On the other hand, education of girls among the Pokomo community is higher but still negatively affected by socio-cultural factors. The girls suffer from negative cultural beliefs which place the boy prominently above the girls and hence the recipients of education. It is commonly argued that there is minimum or no meaning in educating a girl who will only end up married and be of benefit to her in-laws instead of her parents. Another socio-cultural influence that negatively impacts on girl-child education is the lack of proper sanitation both at home and at school. The lack of sanitary facilities is evidenced by the absence of toilets or pit latrines in some schools.

Though sanitary towels are provided in some areas for the school-going girls, the adequacy and frequency of their distribution is still low and erratic. This forces some of the girls dependent on such donations to miss out of school during their menses.

The above socio-cultural practices present to the girl child a disadvantage on the educational and social fronts. They are denied of rights and privileges at home where they should be protected and at school where they would have their lives shaped to the current and future world trends.

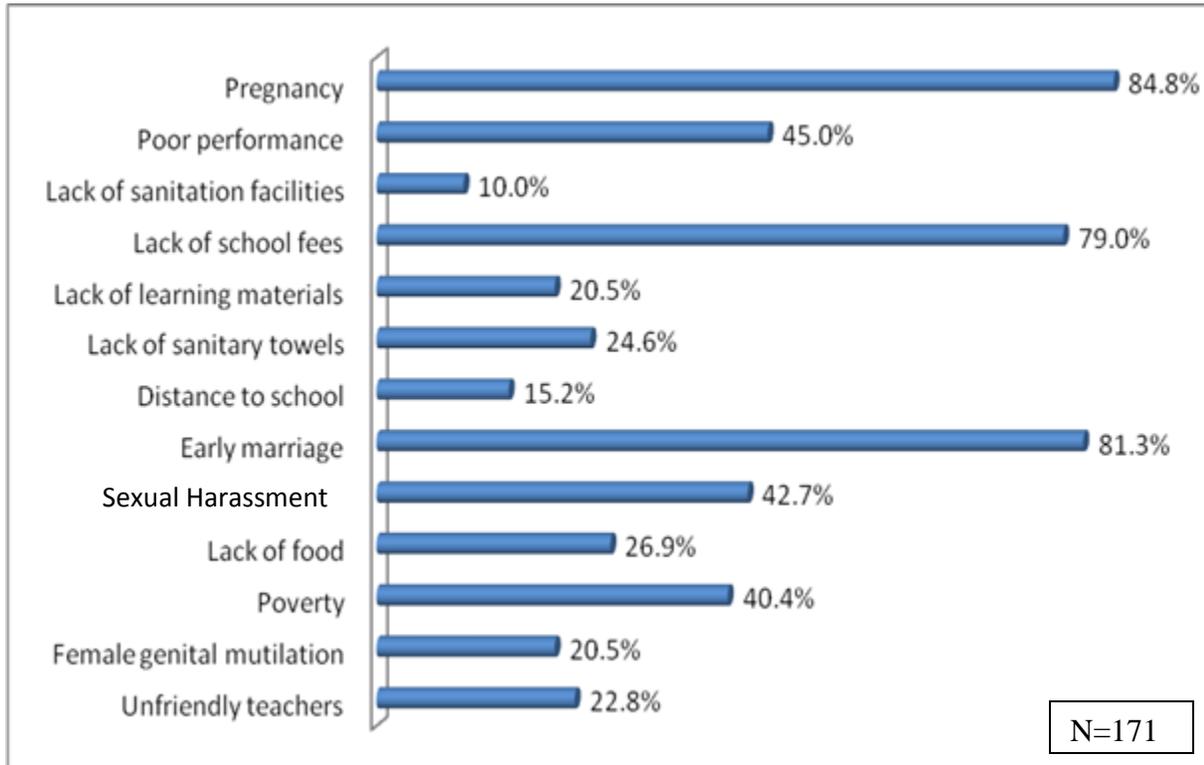
4.4 Factors that affect Girls Education

In an attempt to establish the factors that affect girls' education, respondents were asked to indicate factors that led to girls dropping out of school and factors that affect girls' performance.

4.4.1 Factors that Led to Girls Dropping out of School

According to the results as indicated by the respondents, pregnancy (n=145), lack of school fees (n=135), early marriage (n=139), poor performance (n=77), sexual harassment (n=73) and poverty (n=69) are the top six factors that led girls dropping out of school. Figure 4.2 summarizes these results.

Figure 4. 2: Factors that Led to Girls Dropping out of School

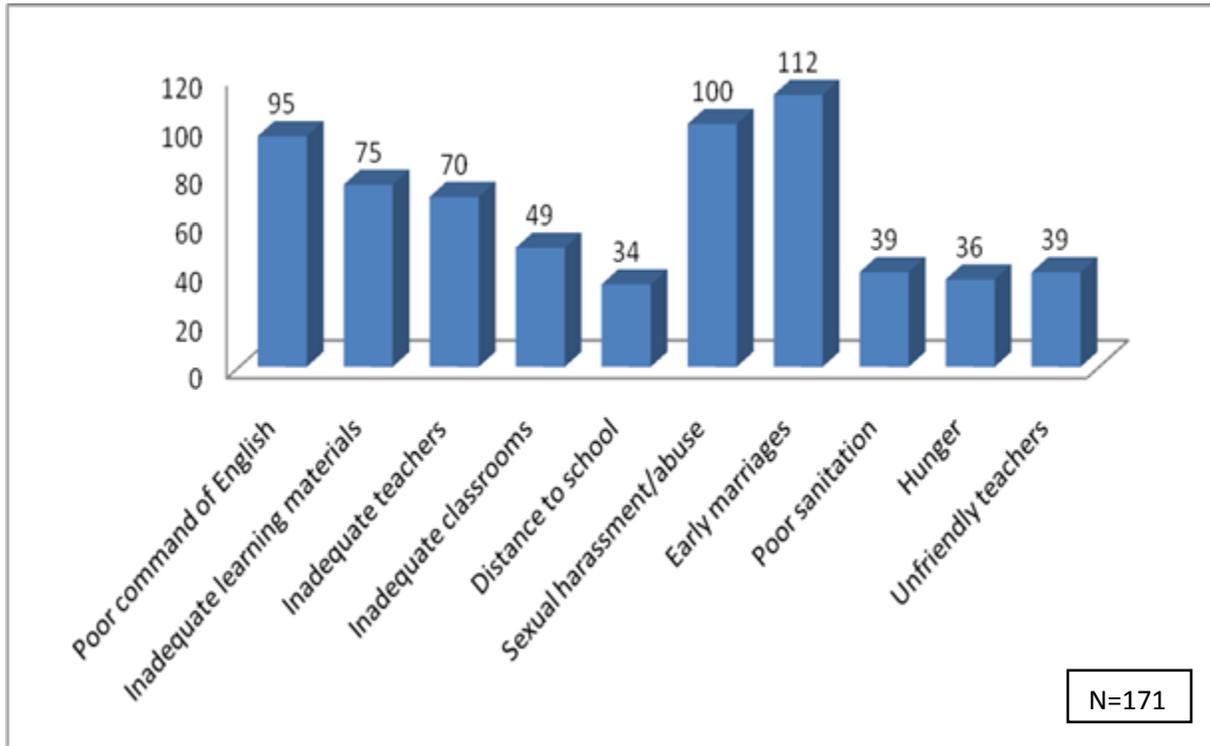


These results are supported by the key informants who indicated that cultural beliefs, poverty, lack of role models, lack of parental support, low moral standards, early marriages, early pregnancies, peer pressure and lack of school fees affect girls' education in Tana River County.

4.4.2 Factors that affect Girls' Performance in School

The results show that early marriages (n=112), sexual harassment/abuse (n=100), poor command of English (n=95), inadequate learning materials (n=75) and inadequate teachers (n=70) are the top five factors that affect girls' performance in school. Figure 4.3 presents results on factors affecting girls' performance in school.

Figure 4. 3: Factors that affect Girls' Performance in School



There was an important addition by the key informants on factors affecting girls' performance in school. The key informants cited that there was truancy especially when girls were having their menstrual periods, lack of competition, lack of role models to emulate, substance abuse, stereotypes about girls' education, child labor, neglect by teachers and language barrier. All these affect the performance of girls in school.

4.5 School Environment and its Support to Girls' Education

From the interviews done through the key informant guide, it can be deduced that there is a general dissatisfaction with the services that are offered in schools. These services are the ones collectively regarded to as 'the school environment'. Majority of the key informants were of the opinion that all schools should have trained counsellors. The role of the counsellors would be to

guide and counsel the girls so as to dissuade the girls against early marriages, premarital sex, enlighten the girls about their rights and encourage them to complete schooling.

The respondents were of the opinion that with the provision, improvement or introduction of these services and products, they would feel supported by the school authorities and community in general.

By studying the questionnaires, it might seem as if there is a general malaise or incapacity to provide services and products that can enhance the education experience of children in Tana River County. However, there are academic institutions and communities where a lot has been put in place to better the lives of the children. The areas which the respondents felt need addressing can be categorised in five broad areas; **sanitary, administrative, leadership/inclusivity, hospitality and security.**

The issues which can be classified as **sanitary** include the building and renovation of toilet facilities to accommodate the privacy and health needs of a school with children of mixed gender. In many schools there either are no toilets, they are dilapidated, are shared by both boys and girls or a combination of the latter two issues. The stress that is experienced by the use of dilapidated facilities or the rush to relieve oneself has a telling effect on the education of the children in general and girls in particular. The second issue that is regarded as a sanitary need is the availability of sanitary towels for girls. The levels of poverty that are in the larger Tana River County account for the inception of free sanitary towels to adolescent girls in primary school. Noble as this idea is, it is fraught with many challenges and oftentimes the girls find themselves without their supplies. During times when the supplies are delayed or absent altogether, the girls are most disadvantaged as they are forced to skip school during these days. The greatest concern

borne by the girls is the predictability of the supply as opposed to their availability which has already been taken care of. Plans need to be put in place as the enthusiasm the girls have for education is drowned by the unnecessary breaks in their learning cycle. The accompanying ridicule and jest from their male colleagues arising from their three to five day's absence which at best is innocent banter, is potentially catastrophic to the girls during this vulnerable time of their lives as teenagers.

The second group of issues fall under **administrative and infrastructural needs**. There are concerns raised by the girls on the state of their classrooms, the general administration of the schools and proposals on the provision of boarding facilities for children in classes seven and eight. Foremost were concerns on the dilapidated buildings that are used as classrooms and the general disrepair on which some schools operate. There were also concerns on the imbalance of the number of women teachers vis a vis their men counterparts. The renovation of schools to acceptable levels of upkeep would lift the confidence of the children as learning in dilapidated schools has been noted to eat away at their confidence with school life and the school's administration. Their low levels of confidence affects their performance and they are disillusioned that despite their best attempts, life might just end up as frustrating as it is in the present. Administratively, it would really be beneficial to the girls if there were to be an increase in the number of women teachers as they would feel much at ease in their company. The women teachers would also serve as role models to the young girls. These teachers would not only provide the much needed moral support to continue with education but the respect that is normally reserved for teachers in the community can act as a magnet to pull the girls to higher education. A third issue raised by the children was a desire that pupils in class seven and class eight be provided with boarding facilities. This would enhance their concentration levels as they

approach their final exams. The boarding facilities would be full time or partial; that is the pupils would be allowed to go home on Friday evenings and report back on Sunday evening.

The third group of issues fall under **leadership and inclusivity**. Many of the children interviewed felt that there was a need to involve them in the choosing of the school's student leadership. They also opined that with their inclusion in some of the decision-making processes in the school they would gain much needed skills and also develop their innate leadership skills from an early age. Through their inclusion in choosing the student leadership, preferably through open elections, the children will feel valued, they will identify with the leaders and they will learn more about the electoral process that governs the country. The inclusion into the decision-making process in the school can be done through the setting up of student groups from whom ideas and opinions concerning some aspects of school administration will be articulated. The general effect of these measures will be to foster inclusivity into the learning experience and hence create an appealing learning environment for the children.

In the fourth category there are issues which surround the **psychological and hospitality issues** in the learning experiences of the children. The key informants felt the need for adequate number of teacher-counsellors who would help the girls in guidance and counselling needs. These teachers should preferably be female so as to foster accessibility by the teenage girls. The hospitality issues include the provision of lunch at the schools for the pupils. This measure would ensure concentration during class time and the admission and retention of pupils in schools. Being a semi-arid area, Tana River County is faced with food security challenges which affect the enrolment and retention of pupils in schools. Thus the extension of school feeding to more schools and the sustenance of the program would provide a conducive environment for learning for the girls as they are usually the ones to be pulled out of school to help the family search for

food. Other issues which fall in this section include provision of guidance and counselling sessions for the children, prompt medical attention for children who fall sick while in school, provision of water in schools as opposed to the children going long distances to fetch the same during class hours. Finally the children felt that there was unnecessary incitement from their parents towards the teaching fraternity. The negative comments, outright abuse and belittling of the teachers and the profession in general contributed to the children lacking a positive attitude towards education. It was felt that with proper community sensitization this trend would be reduced and consequently eradicated.

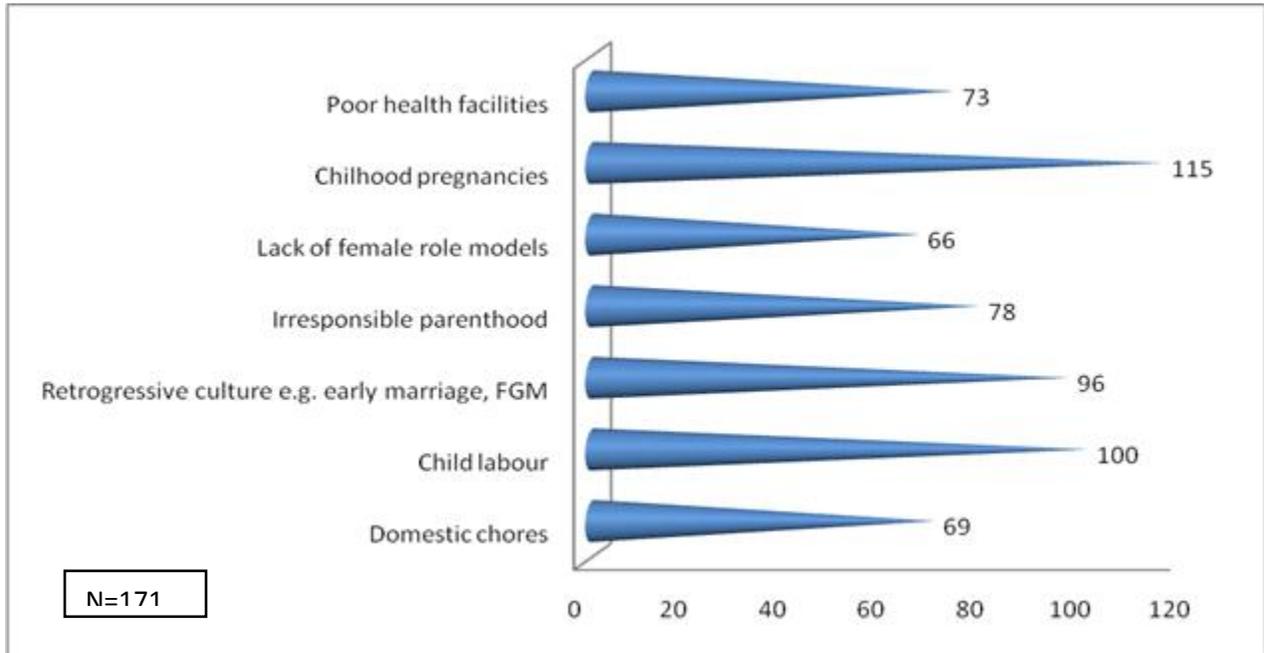
The last issue that needs to be addressed in the pursuit of a favourable environment for girls education is **security**. Many schools lacked basic security mechanisms such as a fence, gate and dedicated watchman. To the children interviewed, the lack of these symbols of security caused unnecessary tension and fear especially in areas where banditry and lawlessness was common.

The respondents acknowledged that much had been done in seeing to retain the numbers of girls in schools in Tana River County. Measures such as school feeding and provision of sanitary towels to girls ranked very highly in the respondents answers. There is therefore need to strengthen these two areas and ensure that other areas are covered and continuity of all projects is guaranteed.

4.6 Socio-Economic Factors Affecting Girls' Education in Tana River County

Respondents were asked to indicate the activities that affect the proper education of girls. The results as presented in figure 4.4 show that childhood pregnancies (n=115), child labour (n=100), retrogressive culture (n=96), irresponsible parenthood (n=78) and poor health facilities (n=73) were the top five socio-economic factors affecting girls education in Tana River County.

Figure 4. 4: Socio-Economic Factors Affecting Girls' Education



As earlier discussed in this chapter, the population of Galole constituency in Tana River County is made up of three communities; the Pokomo, Oromo and Wardei. The Oromo and Wardei practice nomadic pastoralism while the Pokomo have an agriculture-based economy. The Oromo and Wardei are prone to constant shifting due to their search for viable grazing land. As a consequence, the children are usually excluded from opportunities in education. This constant movement also negatively affects their enrolment, attendance and performance. The children are often used in herding the animals, running household chores and errands for their parents.

The constitution of households, the educational levels of parents, the family health, income levels and wealth of the family in general constitute the socio-economic factors in the society. In order to come up with a clear analysis of the effects of the socio-economic factors in a community, we need to look into the measures a community takes to realise their socio-economic goals.

In the case of Tana River County and specifically Galole constituency, pastoralism and peasant agriculture are the main economic activities. As a result, the well-being of animals and crops takes centre stage in the family. The Pokomo, being agrarian in their socio-economic engagements, are prone to pulling their children from school during peak seasons such as planting, weeding and harvesting. The children are also used in child labour as they are often sent to the markets to trade the food that has been harvested. During the interviews, the respondents identified home chores such as cattle herding, cultivating in the crop fields, selling of farm produce in the markets, migrating with animals to better grazing lands among other home based chores constitute to the biggest impediments to girls attending school.

Due to the low income levels in many of the families in Galole constituency, items such as sanitary towels are unavailable to the teenage girls. This leads to skipping of classes for at least four days in a month during their menses. The accumulative loss of school days in a year affects not only their understanding of the school syllabus but also their performance in crucial exams and also their morale. Another effect of low income in this community is the lack of uniforms for the children or the wearing of tattered uniforms. This affects the children's self-esteem and other than lacking enthusiasm for school, they tend to drop out of school all together in the long run.

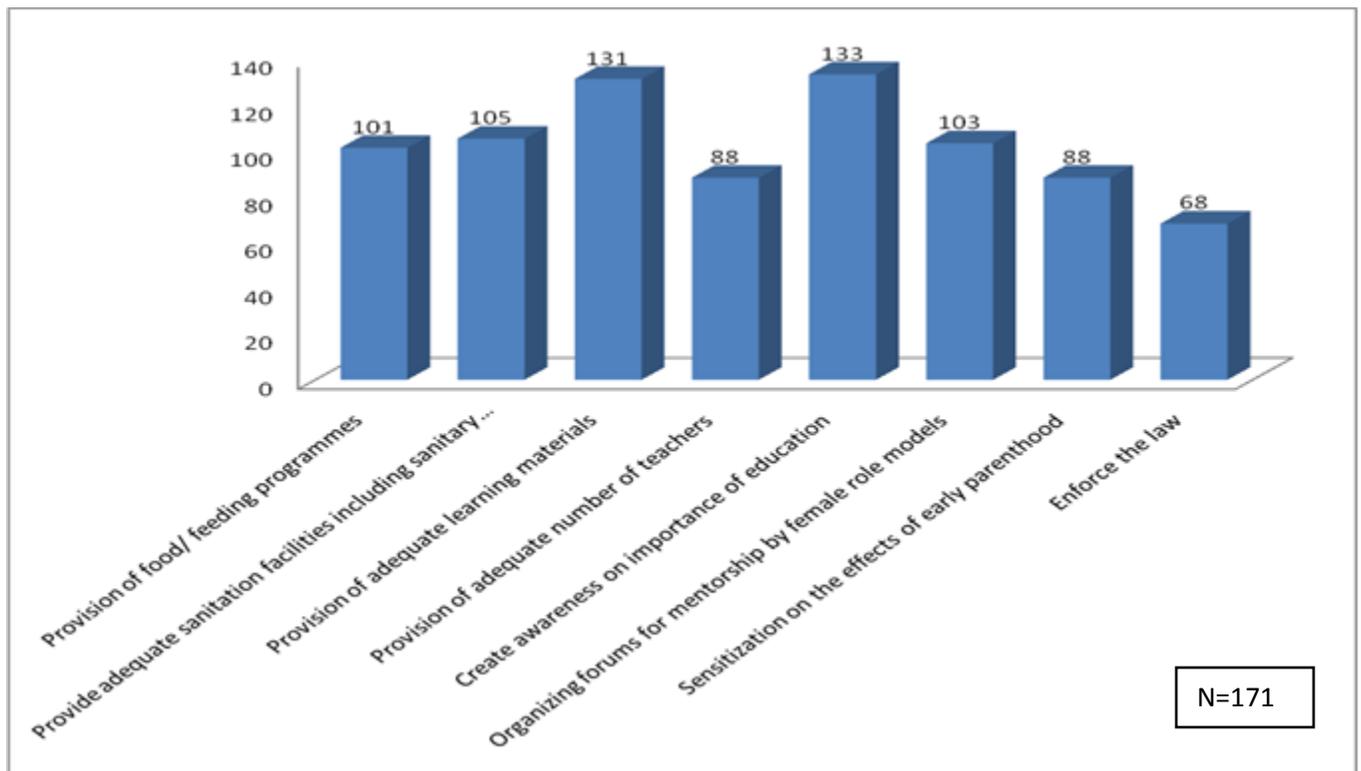
The key informants gave an important contribution to this, that among the many factors affecting the education of the girl child is the fact that some of the community members have a negative attitude towards educating a girl child, since they strongly believe that the girl's place is in marriage and be submissive to the husband and not to waste money in educating the girl. They argue that there is no point in educating a girl who will eventually get married and the benefit of her studying will be enjoyed by the husband's family instead of them who labored for it.

4.7 Mitigation Factors

Respondents were requested to indicate their opinion on what should be done to ensure girls in school fully participate in education. The respondents indicated that creating awareness on the importance of education (n=133), provision of adequate learning materials (n=131), providing adequate sanitary facilities including sanitary towels (n=105), organization of mentorship forums by female role models (n=103) and provision of food/ feeding programmes (n=101) are the top five mitigation factors that can ensure girls in school fully participate in education.

An additional factor that was supported by most of the respondents and the key informants is the building of a permanent boarding facility in schools. This, according to them will ensure that the girls remain in school after the day's normal school programme to have extra hours for their studies and concentration in their homework. This will therefore help save the girls from child labor, house chores and the likes. According to them this will go a long way in ensuring that they have maximum concentration in their studies and thus improving their performances in school. Figure 4.5 presents the results achieved from the opinions of the respondents and the key informants.

Figure 4. 5: Mitigation Factors



As a mitigation factor, the key informants indicated that girls have been nominated in positions of leadership, encouraged to join clubs, and provision of facilities and materials such as toiletries and toilets that are separated from those used by boys.

Key informants also called on the community to identify and help needy girls. The community according to the key informants is also responsible for guiding and counselling these girls. The community according to the key informants should teach girls good moral values. The girls who drop out of school because of pregnancy should be guided, counselled and allowed back to school to continue with their education. For this to happen, the key informants recommend civic education to community on the importance of educating girls and parents who will go against the requirements, strict measures be taken against them to ensure that they take their girls to school. The community should also work hand in hand with the school administration. Female role

models from other communities be invited to come and mentor the girls in the community in order to boost their morale and see the importance of education in life. Donors should also sponsor bright girls to continue with their studies so as to give the rest of the girls in the community female role models that they can emulate according to the key informants. Regular visits to other schools outside the county will also go a long way in exposing the girls to see the importance of education and the need for competition according to the key informants. Key informants also added that it will be a good initiative if every school will have trained counsellors who will be carrying out sessions of guidance and counselling the girls so as to put sense into them on the effects of engaging in sexual activities at an early stage, and to let them acknowledge the need of them to concentrate in education first. Some negative cultural beliefs like female genital mutilation, marrying off a girl at an early age, stereotypes, attaching too much importance on acquisition of dowry at the expense of the girl's education should be discouraged and done away with.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of the study, conclusions made from the findings and recommendations derived from the conclusions of the study.

5.2 Summary

The study sought to investigate the challenges of girl child education in Tana River County. The specific objectives that the study sought to achieve were to establish the social and cultural factors affecting the enrolment of girls' in primary schools in Tana River County; to establish the factors which cause school drop-out among girls in Tana River County; to investigate whether the school environment is friendly to girls and supports their education and to examine the role of socio economic factors in girls' education in Tana River County. This study was carried out in Tana River County, Kenya which has three sub-counties (formerly districts) of Tana North, Tana Delta and Tana River. The County has 14 secondary Schools and 161 primary schools. The study used the descriptive survey research design to study the factors affecting girls' education in TRC. The study was done in Tana River Sub-County (Galole Constituency) of TRC which has 51 primary schools, 8, 952 boys and 7,612 girls totalling to 16,564 pupils. The researcher selected 10% of girls. In order to gain in-depth insight, the researcher further focused on girls in upper classes 7 and 8 who were better placed to articulate issues and may have experienced dropping out and re-entry. Stratified random sampling was used to select the schools where girls were interviewed. In sampling the girls who were interviewed, systematic sampling was used. Questionnaires, individual interviews and focus groups discussions were used to collect data. Data collected was analyzed using simple descriptive statistics such as percentages and

frequencies. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5 was used to aid in the analysis. Frequency tables, bar graphs and pie charts were used to present quantitative data analysis results. Qualitative data analysis was done using content analysis where phrases and words were organized according to themes and patterns related to the research questions. The study revealed that pregnancy, lack of school fees, early marriage, poor performance, sexual harassment and poverty are the key factors that lead girls dropping out of school in Tana River County. The findings of this study also indicated that early marriages, sexual harassment/ abuse, poor command of English, inadequate learning materials, and inadequate teachers are the factors that affect girls' performance in school. The socio-economic factors affecting girls' education in Tana River County were established to be childhood pregnancies, child labor, retrogressive culture, irresponsible parenthood and poor health facilities. The mitigation measures that can ensure girls in school fully participate in education were proposed as creating awareness on the importance of education, provision of adequate learning materials, providing adequate sanitary facilities including sanitary towels, organization of mentorship forum by female role models and provision of food/ feeding programmes.

5.3 Conclusion

This study concluded that since pregnancy is one of the key causes of girls' school dropout in Tana River County, the environment that make girls pregnant has to be addressed. This environment has a multifaceted set of factors that causes early pregnancies among girls key among them cultural beliefs. These cultural beliefs create an avenue for early marriage and sexual harassment/abuse that lead to poor performance for girls. Economic factors such as poverty and lack of school fees has also contributed significantly to girls' school dropout.

The community in Tana River County has encouraged socio-economic factors affecting girls' education to thrive. These include childhood pregnancies, child labour, retrogressive culture, irresponsible parenthood and poor health facilities.

Mitigation measures that can ensure girls in school fully participate in education need to see that there is awareness on the importance of education in the community; see to it that there is provision of adequate learning materials, provide adequate sanitary facilities including sanitary towels, organize mentorship forums by female role models and provision of food/ feeding programmes.

5.4 Recommendations

5.4.1 Policy Recommendation to Tana River County Government

This study recommends that Tana River County Government should intervene to stop cultural practices that make girls drop out of school and affect their performance in school. The central government should enforce laws that guard children against sexual harassment and abuse to minimize or eliminate these incidences in Tana River County. Government and donors should empower economically the parents and guardians of the girls in Tana River County to ensure that the social economic factors affecting girls education has been addressed. Tana River County communities have a role to play in ensuring that girls stay in school and perform well. They need to embrace the importance of girls' education and provide solutions to the problems facing these girls. Community generated mitigation measures will be sustainable in addressing the plight of girls in Tana River County.

5.4.2 Recommendation for Further Research

Further research should be carried out to establish a working framework of all stakeholders to address girls' school dropout and poor performance in Tana River County. Future research should be done on how to eliminate retrogressive cultures that affect girls' education not only in Tana River County but Kenya in general.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data on the challenges facing the education of the girl child in Kenya: a case study on the experience and views of girls in Galole Constituency of Tana River County, Kenya.

Your school has been sampled to take part in the survey and you have been selected as a key informant. All information provided here in shall be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Instructions

Please note the following:

- a. Kindly answer all the questions.
- b. Do not write your name on the questionnaire or any other form of identification.
- c. Fill in the blanks or tick (✓) your answers from the choices given.
- d. The information you will give will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Gender of the interviewee

Male []

Female []

2. Age of respondent.....

3. Which class are you in?

Class 5 [] Class 6 [] Class 7 [] Class 8 []

4. Who is the head of your family?

Father [] Mother [] Other []

If other please specify.....

5. What is the occupation of your parent?

Civil servant [] Farmer [] Business man [] Casual laborer []

6. How long have you been residents of Tana River County?

Born here [] 1-3yrs. [] 4-7 yrs. [] 8-11yrs. [] Above 12 yrs. []

7. How many children are there in your family?

.....

8. Please indicate your birth order i.e. first born, second born etc.

.....

9. Do you have a child?

Yes [] No []

10. If yes;

- Age at which you became a parent.....

- Class in which you became a parent.....
- How many children do you have.....
- What encouraged you to go back to school.....
- Are your parents supportive.....

SECTION B: FACTORS THAT AFFECT GIRLS EDUCATION.

According to you;

11. What factors lead to girls **dropping out of school**?

- a. Pregnancy. []
- b. Poor performance. []
- c. Lack of Sanitation facilities. []
- d. Lack of school fees. []
- e. Lack of learning materials. []
- f. Lack of Sanitary towels. []
- g. Distance to school. []
- h. Early Marriage. []
- i. Sexual harassment. []

- j. Lack of food. []
- k. Poverty. []
- l. Female Genital Mutilation. []
- m. Unfriendly teachers. []

12. What factors affect girls' **performance** in school?

- a. Poor command of English. []
- b. Inadequate learning materials. []
- c. Inadequate teachers. []
- d. Inadequate classrooms. []
- e. Distance to school. []
- f. Sexual harassment/Abuse. []
- g. Early marriages. []
- h. Poor sanitation. []
- i. Hunger. []
- j. Unfriendly teachers. []

SECTION C: SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING GIRLS' EDUCATION.

13. What activities affect the proper education of girls?

- a. Domestic chores []
- b. Child labour []

- c. Retrogressive culture e.g. early marriage, FGM []
- d. Irresponsible parenthood []
- e. Lack of female role models []
- f. Childhood pregnancies []
- g. Poor health facilities. []

SECTION D: MITIGATION FACTORS.

14. What should be done to ensure girls in school fully participate in education?

- a. Provision of food/feeding programmes. []
- b. Provide adequate sanitation facilities including sanitary towels. []
- c. Provision of adequate learning materials. []
- d. Provision of adequate number of teachers. []
- e. Create awareness on importance of education. []
- f. Organizing forums for mentorship by female role models. []
- g. Sensitization on the effects of early parenthood. []
- h. Enforce the law. []
- i. Any other specify. _____

15. Do you have any experiences you would like to share as a girl?

.....

.....

.....
16. Do you have any comment, a burning issue or suggestion on this survey?

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

Thank you for your sincere contributions,

God bless you.

APPENDIX II: KEY INFORMANT GUIDE

SECTION A: FACTORS THAT AFFECT GIRLS EDUCATION

1. What are the factors that affect girl-child education in Tana River County (TRC)?
2. In your opinion what are the benefits of educating girls?
3. What are the contributing factors that lead to girls dropping out of school?
4. What factors affect girls' performance in education?
5. Does your school have trained counselors? What role do they play in enhancing the chances of girls completing schooling?
6. What measures have been taken to ensure that the school environment is girl-friendly? If not how can these be achieved?
7. What roles can community based institutions/organizations play in ensuring girls complete schooling?
8. Are girls who drop out because of pregnancy allowed back into school?
9. If not, what are the reasons that prevent them from re-entering school?
10. If yes (*to Question 8*), how does your school cater for teenage mothers?
11. What role can community leaders (religious, political, administrative etc.) play in ensuring that the girl-child remains in school?
12. How does your school cater for girls with disabilities?

SECTION B: MITIGATING FACTORS.

13. How can the community mitigate the factors that cause girls to drop out of school?

14. Recommend ways which can be used to improve the participation of the girl-child in education in Tana River County.

APPENDIX III: FOCUSED-GROUP DISCUSSION

1. What factors lead to girls dropping out of school?
2. What factors affect girls' performance in school?
3. Is the school environment friendly to girls? If yes, how? If not, how?
4. How is the teacher – pupil relationship like in your school?
5. What activities affect the proper education of girls?
6. What should be one to ensure girls in school fully participate in education?
7. Are girls who drop out because of pregnancy allowed back into school?
8. How does your school cater for teenage mothers?
9. How does your school cater for girls with disabilities?
10. What kind of recreational activities does the school offer and at what level?
11. Do you have any experiences you would like to share as a girl?
12. Do you have any comment, a burning issue or suggestion on this survey?