

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC DETERMINANTS OF GIRL-CHILD
DROP-OUT FROM PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN NAMBALE DIVISION OF
WESTERN KENYA**

M.A. THESIS

**UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
EAST AFRICANA COLLECTION**

By

WILKYSTER CHRISTABEL WAMUKOYA

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WILKYSTER CHRISTABEL WAMUKOYA

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN SOCIOLOGY IN
THE UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI**

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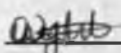
2007

DEDICATION

To mama Prisca Narotso Wamukoya and papa Matthew Wamukoya Bigambo who taught me the virtues of patience and determination from a tender age.

DECLARATIONS

I hereby declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been submitted for award of any diploma, degree or any other similar title or prize

Signed: 

Date: 24th August, 2007

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to unveil factors that contribute to the girl-child drop-out from primary schools in Nambale Division and how the situation can possibly be averted. The specific objectives of the study were to identify personal characteristics of the girl-child that were related to drop-out, parents' characteristics and their relationship to girl-child drop-out and school characteristics that led to drop-out of the girl-child. The study was based on three hypotheses mainly in the relationship between drop-out of the girl-child from primary schools and various determinants such as personal characteristics of the girl-child, parents' characteristics and the school environment.

The study utilised proportionate stratified random sampling technique to select the sample. A sample of 110 school-going pupils was taken from 30 schools in the 5 locations of Nambale Division. The same number of drop-outs was taken from the catchment area surrounding the sampled schools in the 5 locations.

Analysis of data was done using SPSS software and specifically the use of frequency tables where percentages of the respective variables were established. Cross-tabulation was done to compute Chi-square values that revealed how the various variables of study were rated. These Chi-square values were used to test the hypothesized association that existed between the independent and dependent variables of the three hypotheses.

The analysis of independent variables under personal characteristics revealed a strong relationship with dependent variable except the gender of the best friends. All factors under parents' characteristics showed a significant relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable. The third hypothesis on the characteristics of the school environment had all the independent variables in support of it except one. This was the variable on the size of the class a pupil attended.

The research concluded by encouraging policy makers to concentrate the available resources towards the empowerment of the girl-child through education. In view of the study findings, a number of recommendations have been made. The major recommendation is that drop-out girls

be given opportunity to go back to school if they are willing to do so. It is also recommended that further research be carried out to determine the relationship between HIV/AIDS and the girl-child drop-out in Nambale Division.

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Thanks to the Christian Postgraduate Fellowship-Upper Kabete for nourishing my spiritual growth throughout my masters programme; brethren the Lord has done it. I also want to admit that without the support and solidarity of my departmental colleagues and friends who stood by me, I could not have managed to write this paper.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AEO	Area Education Officer
CBS	Central Bureau of Statistics
DC	District Commissioner
DEO	District Education Officer
DO	District Officer
FAWE	Forum for All Women Educationalists
IEA	International Educational Achievement
K.C.P.E.	Kenya Certificate of Primary Education
KNUT	Kenya National Union of Teachers
LDC	Less Developing Countries
NCWD	National Council of Women and Development
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
SES	Socio-Economic Status
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Social and Cultural Organization
USA	United States of America
WCEFA	World Declaration on Education for all and the Framework for Action to meet Basic Learning Needs

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

One of the important concerns in the developing countries is the urgent quest for girl-child education. Education is an instrument of creating values that are necessary in the formation of a modern nation. It enhances national unity and other important values of growth and development of a country. Generally, education of the girl-child is viewed by philosophers, politicians and planners alike as the panacea to problems of overpopulation, underdevelopment, cultural change and class stratification (Quacoopome and Ahdji, 1981). The school is not only presumed to serve the function of inculcating in students correct values, but also to influence them to select those jobs thought to be the most needed for national development.

Improving and widening access to education has been a major goal of the education policy in most developing countries, reflecting the broad recognition of education's contribution to development (WCEFA, 1990). Evidence is overwhelming that education improves health and productivity in developing countries, and that the poorest people benefit the most. Evidence further shows that when schools open their doors wider to girls and women in particular, the benefits multiply. A more educated mother raises a healthier family. She has fewer and better-educated children; she is more productive at home and at the place of work and is in a better position to further her education. Indeed failure to raise women's education to the level of that of men exacts high development costs in lost opportunities to raise productivity and income, and improve the quality of life (WCEFA, 1990).

The education of women has always lagged behind that of men in all African societies for several reasons. In traditional society, the major role of a woman was to ensure the continuity of the lineage, and she was expected to marry soon after puberty (Florence, 1991). She did not need formal education to perform this function. Moreover, a woman was expected to be provided for by her husband. Since education became a means for the highly paid jobs in the formal sector, it was therefore considered more important for boys to have formal education, since they would become heads of families heads and breadwinners. In general, it was fairly easy for a girl with no formal education to make a living than a boy.

In most developing countries, female educational attainment is lower than that of males (Csapo, 1981). Csapo also notes that countries with wide differences between male and female schooling have only a handful females who can read and write. The education gender gap is widest in third world countries. The point to consider is that if the benefits of educating women are so great and the costs of failure to erase inequalities so high, there is reason to do away with differences in male and female education which have continued to persist.

As was noted by Eshiwani (1982), the costs of education range from direct expenses such as tuition and school facilities to opportunity costs of lost work by daughters at home or elsewhere. The cultural costs of going against society's norms of female persons too are foregone in educating the girls (Abigail, 1995). NGOs such as FAWA, the government and international donors have tried to find innovative ways to deal with wider range of constraints that act as setbacks to the girl-child education. Female pupils have been given incentives in form of scholarships to motivate parents to send their daughters to school. However, there is room for much more.

In some African settings, the likelihood of a girl dropping out as a result of pregnancy posed a risk on the part of the family. As a result, whenever money was insufficient and a decision had to be made between keeping a son or a daughter in school, it was the daughter to withdraw (Abigail, 1995). Today, this practice may still show up in a few rural or even urban communities. However, there may be some slight differences in the two settings depending on the availability of facilities of education.

The recent 2002 introduction of free primary education, made it mandatory for all children of school going age to attend primary school. The Kenya government by doing so owes it to its citizens to ensure that the majority of the population can participate effectively in education, and contribute meaningfully to national development. Initially, parents were to pay up for textbooks and buy school uniform. They were also to provide for other domestic requirements such as food and medical care. It is indeed surprising that after all the government has done to reduce the cost of primary school education, there are still many girls deprived of this basic education.

The importance of education in the emancipation of women cannot be over emphasized. It is ignorance that has made women accept the inferior position to which they have been relegated by society for centuries. Spurious beliefs about a woman's subordinate position based on cultural and religious concepts that cannot stand up to close scrutiny, as well as misconceptions about her physiology and intelligence have made women accept without question the superiority of men (Florence, 1991). Moreover, such beliefs and misconceptions have made women feel generally inadequate and incapable of functioning effectively in society at the same level as men.

Education can foster in women an analytical mind that would make them question the religious, cultural and physiological bases of their supposed inferiority. It can also give women knowledge that would expose the fallacies behind the cultural practices that keep them in subordination. Without the relevant education being made available to girls, the emancipation of African women will take several more centuries (Florence, 1991). Thus in turn, it will heighten the contrast between educated citizens and the illiterate population, a contrast which poses a real threat to social stability. Social conflict in Africa is as likely to arise out of the difference in the perception and understanding of social, cultural and national issues because of a difference in educational background, as much as it is likely to arise out of inequality in the distribution of wealth (King, et al, 1986).

African governments therefore, owe it to their citizens to ensure that the majority of the population can participate effectively in education, and contribute meaningfully to national development. One can only hope that the Kenyan economy will continue to support at least eight years of compulsory and free basic education for all children.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Primary schools play a big role in laying foundation for school-going children. The main objective is to impart essential cognitive skills and knowledge. The curriculum gives priority to reading, writing and basic science and art subjects. The curriculum also incorporates music and physical education. In the more successful cases, the curriculum promotes the attitudes and essential life skills necessary for pupils to function effectively in the society. It is therefore important that the girl-child is given chance to go through the entire primary curriculum so that she can partake of its benefits. Drop-out before completion of standard eight denies the pupil

the opportunity to advance beyond the particular stage she dropped out. In terms of visible benefits, parents who are victims of dropout on the part of their girls see no difference between those who chose school and did not continue to higher levels and those who remained at home in the first place (Csapo, 1981).

Participation of the girl-child until the end of the primary school cycle may be necessary if not sufficient condition for achieving an acceptable level of basic learning. Many of the girls drop out long before achieving literacy, and many more will lose that skill once acquired if it is not followed up by further study. It has been estimated that most children need four years schooling at least to become literate, but will usually lapse into illiteracy after such a short period of schooling if their society and the behavior of its members is still pre literate (UNESCO, 1969).

Although there has been a tendency to assume that rich socio-economic background would be the solution to girl-child drop-out, it may not necessarily be so. Eshiwani (1982) observed that girls with wealthy parents stand a much better chance of progressing in the educational system. Those who are privileged initially do best and qualify for higher educational levels. They also find it easier to finance their education. The assumption above in respect to Nambale division needs verification, it may not be true that all well to do families have no cases of female pupils who dropped and continue to drop out of school. For example, are there any cultural practices in regard to the education of female pupils that could conflict or rather stagnate their learning process? Kinyanjui and Munguti (2002) noted that before a girl is married off, there are observable cultural attributes that signify that she has come of age. Would for example, a girl who is slow in learning be married off because it is culturally acceptable? In order for this to be approved, she must meet the cultural expectations of the society that tell that she is ready. If this is the case, then there is need to document and understand these indicators.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The general objective of this study was to investigate the socio-economic determinants of girl-child drop-out from primary schools in Nambale division. The specific objectives of the study were to identify:

1. Personal characteristics of the girl-child that are related to drop-out.
2. Parent characteristics and their relationship to drop-out of the girl-child.
3. School characteristics and their relationship to drop-out of the girl-child.

1.3.1 Research Questions

A research question is basically what you want to understand in a given study. The design of any study revolves around the research question. It is a design component that is directly linked to all the aspects of the study. This study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What personal characteristics of the girl-child are related to school drop out?
2. What parent characteristics contribute to school drop-out of the girl-child?
3. What is the relationship between the school environment and drop-out of the girl-child?

1.4 Justification of the study

Women constitute over half of Kenya's population and bear the major responsibility for family life, childcare, home management, agricultural productivity and farm management. It is therefore important to examine women's participation in education. This is because when our educational system fails to reach, or inadequately develop women's abilities and skills, it is inadequately serving national and rural development.

One of the major education goals is literacy for all. This requires that all children obtain a minimum of eight years primary education. The government is already spending large amounts of its public finances on education; incidences of drop-out therefore constitute wastage of the meager national resources. This is an issue of major concern and should be adequately addressed with the seriousness it deserves by all stakeholders. Premature withdrawal of the girl-child is a symptom of failure on the part of the individual, the local society and the national community as a whole.

Despite the considerable progress to improve female access to schools and educational attainment, serious problems remain and call for urgent solutions. For one, most studies have been carried out outside the sub-Saharan region and very few concentrate in the region of the proposed study. There is need to concentrate our effort in not just the sub-Saharan region but Kenya in particular. So far no study has specifically targeted Nambale division in Busia district.

1.5 Scope of the study

The study was limited to primary schools in Nambale division and the area surrounding the sampled schools for identification of female pupils who dropped out of school. At the primary school level, drop-out girls are often too young to find employment, and as mentioned already,

they often do not even achieve literacy, or at most establish a tenuous hold on it. The female pupils who dropped out of school pre-maturely could still be living in the same community with their parents or married nearby and hence can be traced by the help of the local administration.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

A growing body of literature examines the benefits of educating the girl-child. This chapter is a search through literature to get familiar with the work done by various writers and researchers that would provide a general assessment on what has been done. The review is divided into three sections as presented below.

2.2 Personal characteristics

A number of characteristics were considered to be directly linked to the female pupil's personal life. These affect the life of a pupil as an individual and in some cases lead to drop out before completion of school. Child labour, social class, cultural factors, religious factors, marriage and child bearing were identified and discussed.

2.2.1 Child labour

Existing evidence shows that the girl-child is more likely to be involved in child labour compared to the boy-child (Rosenzweig, 1980; McSweeney and Freedman, 1980). Mothers' time appears to be very constrained especially in rural areas where households must commit many hours to such activities as collecting water or firewood (McSweeney and Freedman, 1980). The demand that children help care for siblings and also do household chores and farm work to assist their mother is in itself quite involving. This is a demand that falls much more heavily on girls than boys. Jamison and Lockheed (1987), cite studies showing that the demand for girls' labour in Nepal exceeds the demand for boys' labour by about 50%. According to Rosenzweig (1980), women's labour is interchangeable with the girls' but not with the boys' in India.

The high fertility rates in sub Saharan Africa may be an adoptive response to the time consuming household and farm tasks that make women's time a scarce commodity. One of the advantages of polygamous marriage is the sharing of household tasks and perhaps as a consequence, women in polygamous marriages have fewer children than other women (Garenne and Van de Walle, 1988). African women who are not in polygamous marriages find it necessary to turn to their children or other younger relatives for additional help with time intensive low skill jobs in the household and on the farm.

The extensive use of child labour has obvious implications for the girl-child drop-out. Using 1974 data from Botswana, Chernichovsky (1985) showed that the enrollment and completion of school by children seemed to be influenced by the presence of elderly people in the home who can be substitutes for child labour. The influence also lie in the household's possession of capital for example livestock that may involve children in income producing activities. Children were more likely to be enrolled in school if their grand parents lived in the household. They were less likely to remain in school if at intermediate levels of family wealth, the household had more livestock. But boys' schooling was more affected than girls' by the household's ownership of livestock because boys' herding activities were more likely to take them away from home and school.

According to Tara (1981), understanding the sources of the demands for girls' labour can lead to strategies for increasing girls' opportunities to attend school. Tara further notes that taking care of siblings usurps much of a young girl's time and therefore recommends the development of some form of community day care. Seetharamu and Ushandevu (1985) suggest that providing a safe and reliable water supply should be made a priority because fetching water can occupy up to four hours of a girls' day. These recommendations may not directly concern the education policy; nevertheless they address factors that influence a family's schooling decisions.

2.2.2 Social class

A number of studies (Levin, 1976; Florence, 1991) have found the social class of the family an important determinant in academic achievement of children. For example, limited incomes among lower class families have been found to restrict the provision of tuition fees, school books and other materials necessary to ensure good performance (Levin, 1976). Levin continues to show that lower class families have lower aspirations for their children than upper class families. In addition, some of the studies have concluded that the intellectual stimulation that reinforces the schooling experience is less likely to be present in lower class families than is likely to be in more privileged families (Florence, 1991, WCEFA, 1990). Other evidence show that girls who come from economically advantaged families are much more likely to enter and remain in primary school than girls from disadvantaged families. Assie (1983) shows that in Cote d' Vore, a girl with a university educated father is more than 35 times as likely to

enter primary school as the daughter of a man with no education. For a son, he shows that the comparable added likelihood is only a tenth at large.

Weiss (1981) found that female children at the primary level in Ghana were also disproportionately drawn from educated families compared with male pupils. The class advantage was even more striking when contrasted with historical patterns of male enrolment. Even when the educational system was much smaller, the sons of uneducated fathers were not unduly at a disadvantage. Despite their higher socio-economic status, however, girl-pupils were more likely to attend inferior schools in terms of basic facilities like proper classrooms, desks and latrines. The increasing numbers of female pupils were finding their way primarily into the newer and less established schools.

2.2.3 Cultural factors

One major reason for the low enrolment of girls in school is the fact that parents are not convinced of the value of girls' education. Socialization of children starts at a very early age and continues during the early years of schooling and beyond (Safilios-Rothschild, 1986). From birth, sons are regarded more highly than daughters, although attitudes vary across classes and communities. Very little research is available on the dynamics of this process. Saadawi (1985), writing about Egypt and Mernissi (1987) writing about Morocco, have detailed the sharp distinction between male and female socialization from a feminist perspective and have discussed the negative effects of girls' self esteem and aspirations. In addition, Patai (1973) has argued that the Arab world has no child rearing practices, only boy and girl rearing practices. Middle Eastern girls are socialized into accepting that marriage and raising a family is their ultimate goal. Schools reinforce gender roles.

The prevailing attitude is that a woman should stay at home to care for her family while her male guardian-husband, father, brother, or elder son supports her. This division of responsibility obviates the need for women to be educated or to join the labour force to earn a living. Perhaps as a result of this dependence, Middle Eastern women are accorded a lower social and economic status than are males. Singhal (1984) cites a study conducted by the National Centre for Education Research and Training in India, which found that domestic work, marriage, betrothal and parental indifference account for 55% of the total wastage caused by repeating classes and dropping out in girls' education at the upper primary level. Clason

(1975-76) reports that poor rural parents in Nepal view female education as immoral; a similar attitude is reported by UNESCO (1975).

In most societies, families place a lower value on educating their daughters than on educating their sons. One reason for parental bias against educating girls is that by the time daughters are employed, they may be married, so parents do not reap the benefits of their daughters' increased earnings (Mernissi, 1987). Education by its very nature has a long gestation period. In a study on China, Greenhalgh (1985) presents evidence of gender discrimination in education. The highly patriarchal traditional family system was reflected in parental discrimination against daughters. Girls had to renounce education and work to finance their brothers' education. The data indicate that in families with a larger number of daughters the level of schooling of sons is also higher. Chinese families' investments in post school training and apprenticeship show a marked discrimination against daughters. Parents viewed their daughters' education as a stopgap between childhood and marriage and as a means of improving their marriage. In Malaysia as well, education seems to have been considered primarily as a way for girls to increase their desirability as marriage partners (Weekes-Vagliani, 1980). In another study, King et al (1986) estimated that if daughters were treated like sons, female schooling levels would rise by 150% in rural Java and by 30% in the Philippines, where discrimination was less severe.

Disentangling the effects of cultural norms from other factors that influence educational attainment can be difficult. In an empirical study on female education in Asia, King et al (1986) sought to ascertain how much of the gender gap in enrolment results from cultural norms as reflected in parents' attitudes and how much results from the individual characteristics of their children. The link between mothers' attitude to their daughters' education has also been studied. Smock (1981), citing a village survey in Pakistan, found that only 10% of the village women supported the notion of equality of opportunity for women. Shah (1986) recounts the results of another survey in Pakistan: among households in the sample that owned no assets, 51% of the urban mothers and 58% of the rural mothers believed that religious education was enough for their daughters. Bason (1981, 1982) reports that within one given family, attitudes may differ toward girls' education. In Jordan many girls dropped out of school because they were needed to help with domestic tasks or because villagers saw 12 years of education as irrelevant to marriage. Often girls continued their schooling under harsh family circumstances.

2.2.4 Religious factors

Religion has a dominant influence on a family's decision to educate children and especially daughters. Religious ideas and teachings exert a powerful influence in shaping society's values in general and its views on female education in particular. In the Philippines religion and linked cultural patterns provide the major origins of division by gender (Smock, 1981).

Although most religions do not explicitly discourage female education, in practice some religions have done so. Certain religions such as the Theravada Buddhism, are regarded as fostering technological change (Niehoff, 1964), whereas others such as Islam and Confucianism, are believed to hinder progress. According to Kelly (1984), Islam has discouraged female education, given its view of the proper place of women. Among the economists in East Asia other than China, the two muslim countries, Indonesia and Malaysia, have had the lowest rates of female literacy and the highest gender gap in literacy. Almost all Asian cultures are conservative, but the manner in which Islam and Hinduism have been practiced leads to an especially restrictive environment for girls' and women's schooling.

According to Dasgupta (1988), progress in education among the muslims in Sri Lanka lagged behind among the Sinhalese, Tamils and Burgers. Dasgupta (1988) observes that in Islamic societies even if literacy is regarded as a good thing for men, the same may not apply to women. Female literacy may be thought at best, to be unimportant. Some may even be persuaded that it is undesirable, for literacy could have the effect of making women less fit for the role they are traditionally expected to perform. The importance of cultural conservatism in discouraging female education cannot be overstated however.

The strongest indictment of Islam as the cause of the gender disparities in education in muslim countries comes from Finn, et al (1979), who observes that 'in no major portion of the world is the non-education of females so much a purposeful part of religious and social custom as it is in the Middle East,' and that 'education is contrary to the social pressure for muslim women to become wives and mothers.' Smock and Youssef (1977) echo this viewpoint. It is true that the record of muslim countries on women's education compared with the record of non-muslim countries has been generally wanting. Contrary to the Western stereotype however, no inherent bias against educating girls and women exists in these countries.

In support of female education, muslims quote the saying of the prophet Mohammed which says that the search for knowledge is the duty of every muslim, man or woman. Within Islamic culture however, certain attitudes and traditions inhibit female education. Muslims have a strong concern for the modesty and safety of the girls and women; a desire to guard their honour is evident in their seclusion and veiling. Abu Zahra (1970), Antonn (1968), Mernissi (1987), and Saadawi (1985) provide insights into the working of this system and the limitations it poses on the private and public roles of women. It is Arab cultural traditions, rather than Islam itself, that have constrained girls' education (Othman 1964). Evidence of these traditions include opposition to co-education and to the presence of male teachers in girls' schools, resistance to sending girls to schools away from home and pressures on girls to marry at an early age.

Chamie (1983) challenges the conventional view that Islam contributes to low enrolment among girls by citing the high rates in Libya and Bahrain. Rosenzweig's (1980) results imply that being muslim was not a significant barrier to female education. He found mixed evidence on the issue and concludes that the hypothesis that muslims are opposed to educating both males and females does not hold. These results suggest that no single factor is adequate to explain gender differentials in schooling. In India, the Hindu caste system indirectly constraints the educational opportunities of low-caste children despite constitutional guarantees of equality. Teachers unconsciously treat low-caste children differently from other children or have reduced expectations of them.

2.2.5 Marriage and child bearing

Initiation rites at puberty are becoming more flexible in some communities. They require extensive periods away from school, especially if parents wish a daughter to be engaged or to marry. The young age at which female children marry in many settings makes marriage an important reason to consider in addressing sudden drop-out of the girl-child from primary schools. Although enrolment of married pupils is unheard of, pregnancy and child birth usually end a school period. For older female pupils therefore, the completing activity of family formation is an additional deterrent to schooling. Marriage can affect primary school children in societies where schools have significant numbers of average children or where betrothal takes place at a very young age. In Ethiopia for example, 20% of the primary school pupils surveyed in a study reported by Biazen and Junge (1988) were either engaged, married or

divorced. Both boys and girls were affected, but this was the most common reason given for the increased girl-child drop-out.

In Hong Kong, women marry late, work before marriage, and help their parents financially. As a result, parents attach the same importance to their daughters' education as to sons (Salaff, 1976). Of the six economies in which data are available, the minimum legal age at which women marry is 18 for Kenya, 15 for Thailand, 16 for Indonesia and Korea, 18 for China and Malaysia (Kurian, 1982). Even though education is associated with higher socio-economic status and other direct benefits, some men may not necessarily prefer to marry better educated women. A survey on university students in China found that only 28% of the male students preferred to marry university graduates (Hooper, 1984: 37-44). The others feared that women with higher education would lose the 'traditional feminine virtues of gentleness and devotion.' Hooper (Hooper, 1984) concluded that in China, 'higher education might well be detrimental to young women's marriage prospects'.

2.3 The school environment

Different school types socialize their pupils to have different expectations. Apart from organizational and curricular features of schools, students learn qualities associated with roles into which the schools are socially licensed to allocate them. Schools with inadequate resources lead to low attainment, poor attendance, and under achievement by pupils (Fuller, 1986). They inhibit the educational attainment of girls and affect the choices they make about what to study. Characteristics of the school environment are an important determinant of whether girls enter and remain in school or drop-out. Several authors have attributed the reluctance to send girls to school in part to society's response to a perceived lack of balance between the vocations for which schooling is supposed to prepare female pupils and the vocations that are regarded as suitable for girls. Csapo (1981) suggests that in Northern Nigeria the only approved role for women was that of wife and mother and therefore that school was deemed unnecessary.

Evidence indicates that the repeated practice of drop-out among girls may have arisen both from the lengthy curriculum in place and the quality of the schools they attended (Eshiwani, 1982, Weis, 1981). Fuller (1986) in a review of about 60 empirical studies found that school characteristics were more significantly linked to levels of educational achievement than were socio-economic characteristics of the family.

The availability of schools is more important in determining levels of participation by both boys and girls. It is more important for girls however, parents may not mind sending their sons to a neighboring village for school but may hesitate to send their daughters. As Kelly (1984) observes, 'the greatest single indicator of whether or not a girl will attend school may well be whether schooling is made both available and accessible in proximity and cost. Scott (1985) observes that daughters are likely to be given equal opportunity with sons. Opening more schools for independence in Malaysia boosted female enrolment significantly (Hirschman, 1979). It is worth noting that the Philippines' achievement in female education is attributed in part to the great expansion of the school system over a period of 15 years.

Closely related to the availability of schools is distance to schools. This implies expenses for travel or boarding. If these costs are prohibitive, parents may send their children to stay with relatives who live closer to the school, or they may simply give up. A study linking availability of schools to school enrolment found that on average, primary school pupils lived closer to the school than did most of the people in the community (Biazen and Junge, 1988). The conclusion is either that school enrollees are disproportionately drawn from families living close to the school or that those pupils who are enrolled in a school move closer to it. 'Among the most problematic factors for girls are the costs of travel to school (in terms of hazards), a matter of both logistics and cultural norms' (Bowman and Anderson, 1982: 43).

Many researchers have reported that long distances to school are a barrier to female education. A review by UNESCO-ROEAP (1984) contents that supply is not the issue in India because 90% of the children have access to a primary school within a kilometer of their homes. Islam (1982) argues on the basis of evidence for Bangladesh that increasing the number of schools will not necessarily foster large enrolments. She cites survey that interviewed 208 female drop-outs, 84% of whom lived within a mile of the school. In another study on Bangladesh, Ahmed and Hasan (1984) report that enrolments are negatively associated with distance because parents may be unwilling to allow girls to cross a major road or a river on the way to school. Given the terrain in Nepal, the remoteness of schools can be an important reason for low female enrolment according to Clason (1975-76). Yet Jamison, Dean and Lockheed (1987) did not find distance to be an important determinant of school participation in Nepal.

Physical accessibility is important in improving enrolments. If a school is within the community and within easy walking distance, enrolment is likely to be high for both boys and girls but more critical to the enrolment of girls. In a study of 400 households in 22 rural villages in Thailand, Cochrane and Jamison (1982) found that the distance to school negatively and significantly affected participation by both boys and girls. Surprisingly, however, the impact on girls' participation was less. In the Philippines the effect was expected when a school was provided within the village or at a short distance, enrolment was estimated to increase by 3% for the girls but by only 1% for the boys (King and Lillard, 1987).

Schools with only lower primary classes may not attract as many pupils as would primary schools with both lower and upper classes. This factor may be more important in decisions regarding schooling for girls than for boys because to complete the primary level a child would have to travel some distance to school. As Johnstone (1976) notes, 'parents perceiving the non-availability of complete primary level schooling are more prone to withdraw their children (or not send them at all) than are parents who live in regions or areas where complete primary schools exist.' De Tray (1979) found that Malaysian children living in communities without secondary schools had lower rates of enrolment in primary school than did children living in communities with a secondary school. This effect was large for girls than for boys.

The type of school and quality influence parents' decisions about their daughters' education. Parents and policy makers are concerned about the behavior of adolescent girls and boys in a mixed environment. Attitudes and policies vary, however, among countries and socio-economic groups. In a traditional or religious environment for example, religious schools may be more effective than other schools in enrolling female children (De Tray, 1979). The Islamic schools in Malaysia assured parents that traditional social values will be taught so that their daughters would make better wives and better Muslims (De Tray, 1979). Female pupils compose a large majority in these schools indicating that religious schools are more important for girls than boys.

Many parents prefer to place their daughters in the protective environment of a girls' school. Free mixing of boys and girls in co-educational schools is regarded as morally unhealthy for girls (Smock, 1981). Empirical research confirms that this attitude exists. Saudi Arabia, for example, prohibits coeducation beyond kindergarten, but in Tunisia and Turkey co-education is

prevalent at all levels. Single sex schools are considered more prestigious for social as well as educational reasons (Smock, 1981). Jimenez, et al (1988) found that even after control for such factors as socio-economic status of the family and school resources was effected, girls in Thailand achieved more in girls' schools than in coeducational schools. A variety of factors contributed to this advantage for girls, including a more supportive atmosphere in girls' schools (Jimenez et al, 1988).

After reviewing several studies on education in primary schools in developing countries, Chamie (1983) concluded that the negative impact which was detected results in part from the problems faced by government in providing separate schools and in recruiting female teachers for girls' schools. Single sex schools may not be necessarily discriminatory provided the same number of places is offered to pupils of each sex, and the conditions under which instruction is given are equal. In many countries, this is a costly proposition. Kuwait and Arabia have, however been effective in this implementation (Chamie 1983). In Kuwait, almost as many girls as boys attend secondary school and more girls than boys go on to get higher education. In Kuwait, much progress has been made in narrowing the gender gap. The success of Kuwait is due to its wealth from their oil wealth, which makes it possible to absorb the costs of separate schools and gender segregation (Chamie 1983). It is probably fair to say that the issue is not whether schools are single-sex or co-educational but whether schools exist at all.

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may discourage girls' attendance of primary school. In his Ugandan study, Anderson (1988) found that the lack of school facilities to have a larger impact in school achievement. In Bangladesh, 71% of the rural schools and 53% of the urban schools in Bangladesh are single-sex schools. Ahmed and Hasan (1984) found that families had withdrawn girls from schools. Many Pakistani parents feel uncomfortable about enrolling girls in schools with high solid boundary walls to ensure privacy (Anderson, 1988).

A cultural concern for the privacy of girls is one reason for single-sex schools. Testing for the effects of separate school facilities, boundary walls, and latrines on female enrolments at puberty would be of great value in guiding policy. Islam (1982) recounts that after the nationalization of schools in Bangladesh, the education administration strongly discouraged

segregated schools, and the statistics imply a downward trend in the number of school institutions.

Many girls' schools in developing countries are not only inferior in physical condition but also lack specialized educational facilities such as libraries, laboratories, boarding facilities and cafeterias (WCEFA, 1990). Well supervised boarding facilities for example are important in attracting girls from remote areas. As part of its massive effort to make primary education universal in the early 1970s, the government of Turkey set up regional boarding facilities for children from sparsely populated areas to benefit (WCEFA, 1990).

In its campaign to increase the enrolment of girls, India experimented with a host of school-related incentives which in effect were intended to reduce the direct cost of education. These policies included providing girls with attendance scholarships, free textbooks, school supplies, uniforms and meals. Seetharamu and Ushadevu, 1985 suggest that many Indian parents were not aware of these incentives and therefore did not take the advantage of the program.

Two experimental projects were conducted to show the special importance of flexible school hours for encouraging female education. If school hours were not to conflict with the times when girls were needed for domestic chores, the opportunity cost to the family was reduced or eliminated. Naik (1982) reports that in a village school project near Pune in Maharashtra state in India, the key feature was that classes were held from 7.00 – 9.00 in the evening, after household chores and dinner were finished. Parents supported the project and the community provided teachers with rent-free accommodations. As a result of this, there was reduced girl-child drop-out.

Rigid examination policy may affect girls more adversely than boys (Chamie, 1983). When girls fail exams, the family perceives that its educational investment has failed and withdraws them from school. Enrolling late at school, repeating a class and withdrawing at puberty contribute to low levels of attainment (Ahmed and Hassan, 1984). UNESCO-ROEAP (1984) suggests compulsory enrolment at the prescribed age to ensure more years of schooling. Forced withdrawal of girls from school by their parents may become more difficult as the pupil continues in school for long periods of time.

2.4 Regional differences

A few studies (Gakuru, 1979 and Kelly 1984) have shown the regional aspect of schools: rural or urban, location and level of regional development to be important in determining drop-out of girls. The regional difference is often combined with the effects of pupils' socio-economic background. Gakuru (1979) observes that the Kenyan society is characterized by great inequality of income among the social classes and between individuals. The educational system is stratified and reflects the class nature of the economic structure. With a few exceptions, he adds, the evaluative literature on the educational development in Africa tends to give the impression that the geographical factor and ethnicity are the most important determinants. The social class concept is only referred to in passing.

Primary education in rural settings is sometimes disadvantaged for reason of failure on the part of crops following drought seasons or heavy rains such as 'El nino' and other natural calamities. Urban areas are less affected by these vagaries of nature for reason of quick response as compared to rural areas. Rural poverty is made worse by occasional droughts. Kelly (1984) found that some rural families do not send all their children to school even when facilities are available. Sometimes parents are also forced to withdraw their children from school due to lack of fees. When a family has to make a decision on who is to be educated, girls are the first to be left out and they are the first to be withdrawn from school when funds are insufficient.

The area of residence is predictive of enrolment of the girl-child in school and attainment of the level of completion of primary school (Assie, 1983; Chernichovsky, 1985; Bedri and Burchinal, 1985). However, the mechanism through which this factor operates is not always clear. The greater availability of schools in urban areas, the higher opportunity cost of rural girls' time, the greater wealth of urban families and the more open attitudes among urban parents towards having girls attend schools are some of the evidence by which to judge the relative strength of various regions towards girls' education. A study in Ethiopia (Abraha et al, 1991) observed that urban girls enrolled in primary schools were more likely to persist and finish primary education than rural girls. This is both in absolute terms and also in comparison to boys.

In their Indian study, Sharma and Sapra (1971) found dropouts and non-dropouts to differ in their attendance rates. Pupils with less than a 60 percent attendance rate were seen to be potential dropouts. In their Nicaraguan study, Jamison and McNally (1975) found attendance to fluctuate with the farming calendar in rural areas. Agricultural family status was found to be significantly related to non-attendance. In Kenya, the great majorities of the people work on the land and derive most of their income from farming. It has therefore been observed that poor families who cannot afford to hire extra help find it necessary to withdraw children from school to work on the family farm or look after cattle (Hooper, 1984). Mbilinyi (1969, 1974) found regional and locational effects in Tanzania to be less important than the sex of the child, family background, and the traditional social structure and stratification among peasants and traders in rural areas.

From the findings of the above cited studies, it may be anticipated that in Kenya, dropouts are more likely to be from rural than urban schools. It is also expected that more females have a tendency of repetition and dropout than males yet still more of the same come from agricultural and unstable families (those practicing petty trade, peasantry and the like) than from non-agricultural families. These effects are however expected to be countered or moderated by pupil family background characteristics.

2.5 Parents' characteristics

These are factors springing from parents of the pupils that relate to drop-out or school going state of the girl-child. A number of factors that have been discussed include; parents' education, parents' occupation, family income and size of the family.

2.5.1 Parents' education

Parents' education is an important factor in determining educational opportunities of daughters in a family. Educated parents want and appreciate education for their children and often encourage them to continue with education as far as possible. Schooling norms become a tradition, and the social demand for education perpetuates itself from generation to generation (Psacharopoulos, 1977). Parents who have themselves benefited from the link between education and well-paid jobs tend to send their children to school. They perceive the intrinsic and monetary benefits of schooling more clearly than less educated or illiterate parents. Working mothers may be especially motivated to send their daughters to school.

A study of a sample of about 500 students at Kuwait University found that the majority came from families in which both parents knew at least how to read and write. Only 14 % had illiterate fathers and 28% had illiterate mothers (Al Thaquib, 1975). Cochrane et al (1986) found that, holding income constant, parental education had the most influence on educational aspirations for children in both rural and urban areas in Egypt. The higher the educational attainment of the parents, the greater the aspirations for their children, and this effect was larger for daughters' than for sons' education. In rural families, this intergenerational effect could imply an increase in education for daughters, which suggests that the level of education among girls in the present generation be raised. A study on Indonesia found that in families where the head of the household had University education, the gender difference in their children's enrolment rates was narrower than it was for the general population. Moreover, in some age groups (or at some levels of education), females had higher enrolment rates than males did (Chernichovsky, 1985).

King, et al (1986) noted that the mothers' education was an important determinant of children's schooling among households in Indonesia and Philippine. Among the Malays in Malaysia, King and Lillard (1987) found that mothers' education had a strong positive effect on the daughters' but not the sons' schooling. On the other hand, the father's education generally did not affect the children's schooling. In the Philippines, in contrast, the authors found a positive link between the educational attainment of both parents and their children's schooling.

In one of the largest surveys of Egyptian students and their families in the southern and western parts of Cairo, researchers found that parents placed a high value on their daughters' education and made economic sacrifices to enable them to continue with their studies. Most of the parents (almost 95%) intended to allow their daughters to pursue education, and 84% of these wanted them to have university education to prepare for prestigious jobs (Khattab, 1984). For others, educating their daughters was compensation for their own lack of schooling. In an Egyptian fertility survey, parents were asked what level of education they desired for their children, overall three quarters wanted University education for their sons and more than half wanted the same for their daughters (Egypt Central Agency, 1983). The regional differences were very sharp however. Cochrane et al (1986) observed that people in urban areas generally held high

aspirations for both sons and daughters, but in rural Upper Egypt interest in a daughter's education was lower.

In a study of two rural communities in Egypt and Tunisia, parents strongly emphasized that education would lead their daughters to an office job and an easier life (Larson, 1988). Similarly, a study of a sample of 100 nomadic, urban and rural women in Saudi Arabia found that the majority of the urban women interviewed wanted their daughters to complete their education up to the University level (Allaghi and Almana, 1984). This finding was also true for the settled illiterate women, although some of them did not understand the differences between the various levels of schooling. In China, among the several determinants of female educational attainment that Hermalin et al (1982) examined, the father's education turned out to be the most dominant factor. In their study on Thailand, Cochrane and Jamison (1982) ascertained that fathers' (but not mothers') educational aspirations for their daughters were important in determining daughters' schooling but that this was not true for sons.

Al Thumali (1984) found that in Saudi Arabia the better educated a mother was, the greater the influence on her daughters' academic plans. A study of Arab University students in Egypt, Kuwait, and Lebanon found that daughters of educated mothers held less stereotypical sex-role attitudes than did daughters of uneducated mothers. A mothers' work experience also had a positive effect on the attitudes of her sons and daughters (Lorfin and Abu Nasri, 1985).

Parents who are educated may have a more enlightened attitude about female education or provide a more stimulating environment for education than other parents. Islam (1982) reports a high correlation in Bangladesh between girls' enrolment and the proportion of adult household members who are educated. This evidence is corroborated by Ahmed and Hasan. They noted that majority of the children from the most educated families with parents of at least 8 years of education were enrolled in school. For Pakistan, Shah (1986) cites a study indicating that about two thirds of illiterate rural women wanted only religious education for their daughters. But out of those rural women, about two thirds wanted their daughters to complete primary education.

Evidence from a number of countries indicates that African women bear a large part of the burden of educating their children (Robertson, 1977). A mother's ability to pay school fees and

to provide encouragement to her children to continue attending school is an important factor in explaining drop-out of girls. In areas where polygamous marriage is common, many women are the prime movers with respect to their children's education and their own levels of education and command of resources are important factors in their ability to keep their children in school (Bledsoe, 1988). This is especially true where male migration is widespread and women become de facto heads of households (Kossoudji and Mueller, 1983). Households headed by educated females are more likely to send girls as well as boys to school, and to keep them there longer than households headed by uneducated females or males (Chernichovsky, 1985). These women's ability to support themselves and their children depends on their own schooling, since education is usually what allows women to find jobs in the formal sector with its more dependable income.

One of the most fruitful approaches to increase female schooling may be a strategy directed not at school-age girls themselves but at their mothers. Such a strategy would have at least two prongs: to reduce the mother's dependence on the labour of her children and to raise the educational levels of mothers themselves. The first prong involves introducing time saving amenities such as a convenient water supply and fuel for the household. At least two projects have used such technological innovations to reduce the time constraints on women and to free them for education; a UNESCO project in Burkina Faso, which provided women with new home technology (McSweeney and Freedman, 1980), and a soil and water project on agricultural innovation funded by U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) in Kenya (Knowles, 1988). The second prong involves literacy programs, which share an on-going feature in many African countries, such as Tanzania, that have had success in educating females.

2.5.2 Parents' occupation

The occupation of parents has generally proved to be a significant factor in the educational attainment of their children, particularly girls. Hermalin et al (1982) found that after parental education, the most important variable influencing female educational attainment in China was parental occupation: the higher the parents' occupations ranked, the greater the possibility that their daughters would go to school. This is similar to results obtained for Indonesia by King et al (1986), who concluded that females whose fathers had white-collar jobs tended to have

significantly more schooling than those whose fathers had blue collar jobs. In both Indonesia and Philippines, children of farmers had much less schooling than others (King et al, 1986).

2.5.3 Family income

Among the many factors that influence parents' decisions to educate their daughters is the family's socio-economic status. A family's income is positively related to the education of the girls. A higher income enables the family to bear both the direct and indirect costs of education. Cochrane and Jamison (1982) observed that parental land holding, an important indicator of rural wealth in rural society, was the most important predictor of female educational attainment. De Tray (1979) found that in Peninsular Malaysia family income had three times as much influence on the probability that 12 – 18 year old girls would be enrolled in school as on the probability that boys of the same age would be in school. Chernichovsky (1985) concluded that in Indonesia, although school enrolments were lower for females than for males in every income group females from better-off and urban families had higher enrolment rates than those from other segments of the population.

Rosenzweig (1980), using multivariate analysis and the appropriate separate equations by gender, found land size and earned income to be positively and significantly associated with rural female education. Ahmed and Hasan (1984), using data from a sample survey in Bangladesh, calculated simple two way cross tabulations to show that girls' education varies positively with their family's income and land holdings.

Family income that is unpredictable and low may force girls to drop out of school because the opportunity cost of sending a child to school is perceived as being higher for a daughter than for a son. Girls may earn wages in labour market or help in household work so that their mothers can take up wage labour. This also enables their brothers to go to school. The higher opportunity cost of educating women, combined with the narrower range of economic opportunities open to them as adults account for the low participation in education by women in Third World countries.

Drawing on a large 1979 data set for Pakistan, Irfan (1985) also explored this intergenerational effect on education. Cross tabulations demonstrated that for all income groups, the education of the head of the household was positively linked to the enrolment rate for 10-14 year old girls in

the family. In a multivariate analysis, Irfan (1985) used enrolment rates as the depended variable in separate regressions by gender to explore the relative effects of supply and demand factors. On the supply side, the existence of a middle (upper primary) school in the community proved to be significant influence on enrolment in non farm but not in farm households. On the demand side, the income of parents was a significant influence for both types of households. For farm households, land ownership was important.

2.5.4 Size of the family

Family size has attracted wide attention among researchers as a determining factor to girl-child drop-out. There is possibility that children in large families receive less individual attention and other resources from the parents than children in small families do. Large families may not be able to send all their children to school given the preference to boy-child education. Small families may not have to choose whether to educate a daughter or a son. A study of parents' aspirations for their children found that larger families with children under 13 years of age had lower aspirations for the education of their children especially their daughters, than did smaller families (Cochrane et al, 1986). In another study, also in Egypt, the number of children in the family affected how much attention a child received at home and how self confident the child felt (Bach et al 1985). These findings are consistent with those of many scholars who agree that in a smaller family parents are able to spent more time with each child, thus enhancing their children's verbal and cognitive development and consequently their educational attainments.

Sometimes it is never a guarantee that all those who come from small families will go to school and those from large families will drop out. In Kuwait, among a large sample of students from Kuwait University, 67% came from families with 7 or more members (Al Thaqib, 1975). The same link was established by research in China and Botswana (Chamie, 1983).

2.6 Conclusion

In general, educational opportunities for women in Kenya are good compared to other developing countries. Literacy and school enrolment among girls and women are fairly high and are in some respects comparable to levels in industrialized countries. East African economies however differ significantly in their social, economic, political, demographic and educational contexts. The factors that have affected girls' educational status in East Africa include negative parental and community attitudes toward education of girls, the opportunity

cost of a girl's school time and indirectly of her mother's general levels of economic development (Florence, 1991). Others include disparities between urban and rural areas and low quality schools with limited curriculum choices. Some of these factors are more manageable than others. They require strategies that reach beyond the school to the family and the entire community at large.

Differences in levels of female education among East African countries can be explained by variations in the social, economic, cultural, political and historical conditions. Whether pedagogical factors are relevant cannot be established from the available research which is short of estimated equations separately for males and females but has included gender only as a dummy variable (Bowman and Anderson, 1980). In this, the available research assumes that all other factors affect the education of girls and boys equally. The tacit and perhaps valid assumption would be that even if enough places were available for all children of primary school age, girls would still be under-represented in many countries and school places would still go wasted (Bowman and Anderson, 1980).

In reviewing girl-child education, several conclusions can be made. First, the educational experiences of most of the economies in developing countries suggest that colonial legacies in education can be overcome easily. They all suggest that education expanded quickly and gender equality in education can be achieved. Second, the development of any economy is never a prerequisite to the expansion of girl-child education. Education and economic policies and programs that are carefully planned and implemented can enhance female schooling to a remarkable extent. Third, social customs such as early or late marriage, do not systematically determine whether girls enroll in school, the decision on how much education should be given to girls rests entirely on the family. The value that the family places on female education and its willingness to bear the costs of schooling is what counts. Fourth, demographic factors such as household size are not necessarily related to female enrolment and completion of the prescribed primary school curriculum.

Traditions have been responsive to changes induced by economic development and government policy. Meaningful government policies have paid rich dividends in improving women's educational attainment in East Africa and specifically Kenya. Ensuring free and universal primary education, improving school quality to increase promotion and survival rates and

establishing single sex schools are among the policies and programs that have succeeded in Kenya. Few well designed and well executed education policies and programs have failed. Efforts to reduce parents' direct costs for schooling such as providing text books, scholarships and meals have had a very significant effect on female enrolment (Safilios-Rothschild, C. 1986). Offered the appropriate incentives, girls and women can enter schools and attain educational levels close to those achieved by boys.

In its effort to encourage girl-child education, the Kenyan government has recognized the enormous educational problems, including gender disparities and has undertaken various reforms. However, the education sector is faced with tough decisions because of inadequate resources. Very few education reforms are specifically directed to the girl-child. Much more needs to be done to enhance gender equity in education and this will benefit not only the girl-child but the entire society at large.

2.7 Theoretical framework

Different writers have defined theory in different ways. Glatthorn (1999) defines theory as a series of concepts organized into assumptions and generalizations that tend to hypothesize about a phenomenon. A theoretical framework is essential to the understanding of factors responsible for the pre-mature withdrawal of the girl-child in primary schools in Nambale division. The two theories utilized for the study have been discussed below.

2.7.1 Social capital theory

Coleman (1990) defines social capital theory in relation to raising of children as the norms, the social networks and the relationship between adults and children that are of value for the child's growing up. Social capital exists both within and outside the family. Within the family, social capital is a resource that aids or deters the present and future well being of the child (Coleman, 1988). The forefather of social capital theory in family studies defines social capital as... a particular kind of resource available to an actor, comprising a variety of entities which contains two elements: they all consist of some aspect of social structures and they facilitate certain actions of actors... within the structure (Coleman, 1988).

Coleman (1990) makes a couple of important statements. First, he clearly distinguishes norms or values within the social network as having a fundamental impact on the development of social capital. He then emphasizes vital relationships through which social capital is built, stating that those relations exist not only between children and family members, but with adults outside the family as well. An important relationship that Coleman (1990) did not discuss is that between peers and siblings, both of which have impacts on the child's well being (Bassani, 2003).

Social capital theory examines how complex relationships in children's lives act to influence their individual well being (Bassani, 2003). Each child holds a unique blend of determinants that produce his/her social capital. In using the social capital theory, the context in which the child lives and how this is related to his/her well being should be taken into account. Without considering the child's life circumstances, it is impossible to correctly theorize and understand children's present and future well being in any form of meaning (Bassani, 2003).

A fundamental relationship between the child and his/her social networks is held. It is through the interplay of the individual and the group, that social capital can be created and actualized, thereby potentially increasing one's well being. It should be noted, that well being can be defined by any of a number of indicators. In the literature, academic achievement is typically used to measure well being though recently children's behaviours and life aspirations have been increasingly addressed (Bassani, 2003).

When applied to children, social capital theory becomes a powerful framework that can be used to understand how children and the social networks that they are part of such as the family, school and community interact to define a child's well being (Bassani, 2003). Social capital theory, though still under considerable formation, enables theorists to bring a 'social' meaning to the child's world, hence facilitating the contextual understanding of the child.

It is important to recognize that social capital is a latent concept. It is intangible, though fundamental, to the understanding and mapping of social reality, children's well being in this case. Social capital theory does not make the naive assumption that families with more access

to social capital will actualize this invaluable commodity. Children and their families may construct or destruct social capital. For example, high education levels among parents; especially mothers have been shown to positively impact the child's well being i.e. academic achievement and behaviour (Bassani, 2003). Higher education is on average associated with higher incomes, and families with higher incomes typically live in up-scale neighbourhoods that may be rich in community development.

A major strength of social capital theory is thus its ability to map complex social relationships that are more representative of reality than past family theories that tend to dummy-down and often neglect the importance of intervening social forces which impact on a child's well-being. Within a child's social network, he/she may attain social capital directly or indirectly via an adult or his/her peers. The younger the child, the more likely that he/she will depend on indirect forms of social capital which are brought into the child's social networks by adults for children do not have the social or economic resources that are essential for the creation of social networks (Bassani, 2003). As children enter into adolescence, they are exposed to more social networks due to their own exploration of the community and peers. This expansion is also influenced by their ability to legal work and as a result increases their social capital. Peers play a fundamental role in accessing forms of social capital, for children learn and are socialized by peers in addition to the adults in the networks to which they belong (Bassani, 2003). Adults who are intimately tied to the child such as parents, family members, and teachers also use their social capital to help encourage the development of a child. As previously indicated, social capital can indirectly be passed through to the child via these adults.

There should be a difference between the holder and user of social capital. A debate in literature exists pertaining to the formation of social capital. Some theorists argue that social capital is held within the group while others concur that it can also be held by the individual as well (Lin, 2001). Most theorists agree, as Lin (2001) argues, that social capital is held at both the individual and group level. Although each person's social capital is unique, people naturally live in a social world thus intimately social reality exists at the group level (Szreter, 2000).

2.7.2 Feminist theory

Mwanje (2001) defines feminism as a theory that seeks for women the same opportunities and privileges society gives to men, or, that the distinctive value of womanhood be asserted against patriarchal denigration. The theory in its origin was concerned with the quest for the equality of the sexes, i.e. the equality of rights and opportunities, and more radically, of conditions. According to Mackinnon (1987), the values of society are geared to men. It is fitting that the first systematic, detailed defense of women's rights came from John Stuart Mill and Harriet Taylor. Both were placed ideologically and pragmatically in the midst of currents of democratic reform in the 19th Century England. According to the principles of democratic theory such reforms would eventually lead to equality (Nye, 1988).

In view of education and marriage, Mill proved that a woman's proper place is as an educated companion to her husband. For the most part, women in developed countries are generally free; free to vote, free to run for public office, free from protective labour laws of work. What this means however is that there are no legal barriers to doing any of these things. Discrimination by employer, hostility of co-workers, socialization in the family and cultural stereotypes that convince women that they are sex objects created with key responsibility to bear as many children as the man wishes (Ardener, 1975).

Sexual stratification as Blumberg (1984) argues, is ultimately driven by the degree to which relative to men, women control the means of production and the allocation of productive surplus or, in Marxian terms, 'surplus value'. Such control gives women economic power that, in turn influences their level of political power, prestige and other stratifying resources (Blumberg, 1984). In Blumberg's view, sexual inequalities are 'nested' at diverse levels: Male-female relations are nested in households; households are nested in local communities (Blumberg, 1984).

The kinship system also influences a woman's capacity to gain power. Blumberg (1984) sees inheritance races as the most critical. Next most important is the residence rule of kinship. Another influence from kinship comes from the descent rule. Is the system matrilineal (with property and power passing through the female's side of the family) or patrilineal (with property and power coming from the male's side)? If the system is matrilineal, women retain

more power (even though much of the property and power goes through her male kin who will, nonetheless, provide support in dealings with her husband.

When all is said and done, Feminist theory still holds that women be given opportunities equal to men in all aspects- education included. The theory lays much emphasis on the education of the girl-child, the only pathway to effective competition with their male counterparts; this can be effected through giving the female children a chance to study. It is possible for the society to choose not to allow culture to stop the girl-child from pursuing her education to completion. In this, the girl-child will be empowered alongside her male counterpart.

2.8 Research hypotheses

Kerlinger (1964) defines a hypothesis as a conjectural statement of the relationship between two or more variables. He premises that hypotheses are always in a declarative form and relate either generally or specifically one variable to another. Mbilinyi et al, (1974) has shown that performance and progress in school are not only related to the background characteristic of students. There are also distinct contextual effects such as the general availability of financial resources, and the extent of non-monetary issues that exert a powerful interdependent impact on rates of enrolment and attributes. On such basis, the following hypotheses were established for testing by this study:

- H₁** Dropout of the girl-child from primary schools is related to a pupil's personal characteristics.
- H₂** Dropout of the girl-child from primary schools is related to parents' characteristics
- H₃** Dropout of the girl-child from primary schools is related to characteristics of the school environment.

2.9 Operationalization of study variables

Consistent with conventional practice, the study utilized two types of variables; independent and dependent variables. According to Mutai (2000), independent variables are variables that are manipulated or treated in a study in order to see what effect differences in them will have on the variables proposed as being dependent on them. An independent variable is the antecedent and the dependent variable is the consequent. Dependent variables are those, which

change as a result of changes in the level or amount of the independent variable. The dependent variable is the presumed effect, which varies concomitantly with changes or variations in the Independent variable. For the purpose of this the following independent and dependent variables were used.

2.9.1 Independent variables

1. **Age:** In the study it was used to refer to the actual number of years of a pupil since birth.
2. **Religion:** This was used to refer to the art of worship and submission to the beliefs and practices of a particular congregation/church e.g. Catholic, Protestant, and Islam.
3. **Aspects of friends not appreciated:** These are habits and characters possessed by friends (those who give company to play, study and share ideas) of the respondents that are not appreciated.
4. **Perception:** The personal outlook of a pupil to education.
5. **Gender:** Refers to the state of being male, female.
6. **Level of education:** Refers to how far an individual was able to go in terms of studies.
7. **Occupation:** The means to earn a living (employment).
8. **Land:** Fixed earth owned by families.
9. **Orphan:** The state of death of at least one parent of the pupil.
10. **School type:** This refers to the social classification of the school e.g. rural, mission, private, urban, or government.
11. **Distance:** Refers to mileage traveled by pupil from home to school.
12. **Homework:** These are assignments given to be done at home by the pupil.

13. Performance: The ability of a child to get good marks that can prove her understanding of the subject taught.

14. Repetition: The act of studying in the same class for two or more consecutive years for reasons such as poor performance or failure to undertake promotion examinations.

15. Extra-curricular activities: Exercises undertaken by pupils outside class to aid their growth and development also help discover their gifting e.g. athletics and drama among others.

16. Punishment: Vengeance for wrong doing for example caning and suspension.

2.9.2 Dependent variable

Drop-out: In the study, the term has been used to describe a situation where a female pupil fails to complete the full prescribed curriculum of study for primary schools. It is leaving school before the completion of a given stage of education or leaving at some intermediate or non-terminal point in a cycle of schooling.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methods that were used to achieve the objectives of the study. The chapter begins with a discussion of the research design that was adopted for the study. This is followed by discussion of the sample frame and sample size used in the study. The third part of the chapter deals with sampling procedure and methods used in data collection. The chapter concludes with a discussion of methods through which data were processed and analyzed.

3.2 Research site

The study was conducted in Nambale division of Busia district. Nambale division has five locations namely; Bukhayo East, Bukhayo North, Bukhayo Central, Walatsi and Township locations (see Figure 1). The division has a total of 39 primary schools most (30) of which are government sponsored. There are 6 church sponsored schools 2 private schools and one boys' school (see appendix B).

Many people in Nambale division live in rural areas and earn their livelihood predominantly from agriculture. There exists vast land under sugarcane farming. Dairy and mixed farming are also practiced both on large and small scale. At the divisional headquarters (Nambale town), many people practice business. There are also many bicycle riders commonly known as '*boda boda*' and many others engaging in petty trade such as hawking. The division is served by a major shopping center at the headquarters, which operates under the county council.

3.3 Research design

The study adopted a design that incorporate both descriptive and explanatory research design. Descriptive research studies can be defined as those studies that consider the description of the characteristics of a particular individual or a group of individuals (Singleton et al, 1993). Explanatory studies on the other hand are those studies that are concerned with the formulation of a problem for more precise investigation (Singleton et al, 1993).

Both primary and secondary data was collected and analyzed. Primary data was obtained using a structured questionnaire (see appendix A) from 220 respondents; 110 from the sampled primary schools and 110 from drop-out pupils in the sampled areas. Secondary data was

obtained from both published and unpublished literature, for example, the K.C.P.E. performance of different schools and the performance of girls in various schools.

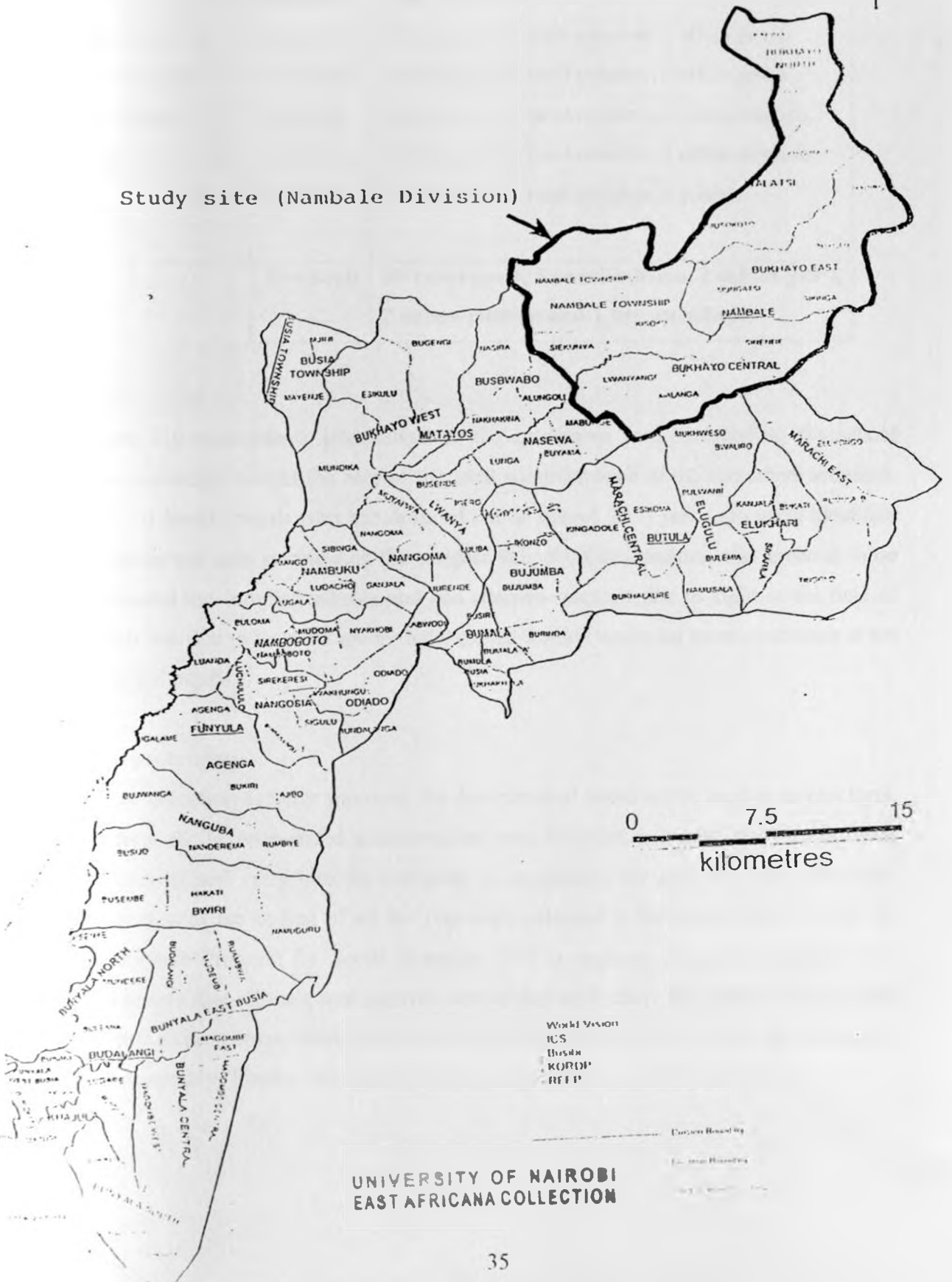
3.4 Study sample and selection procedures

Sampling procedure refers to that part of the research plan that indicates how cases are to be selected for observation (Singleton et al, 1993). A sample is a set of items or individuals selected from a larger aggregate or population about which we wish to get quantitative information (Sneadecor and Cochran, 1980). The study adopted proportionate stratified random sampling technique. This design is used when it is desirable to make comparisons among sub-populations of a population or when it is desirable to reduce either sampling error or the cost of a study (Loether and Mc Tavish 1988). A stratified random study is one in which the population is divided into sub-populations called strata and then simple random samples are drawn from each (Loether and Mc Tavish, 1988).

The study targeted a sample size of 220 respondents in the five locations of the division. One hundred and ten of these were sampled from primary schools while the remaining 110 were selected from the community surrounding the sampled schools. A total of 30 schools were randomly selected from the five locations of Nambale division as shown in Table 1. In each school, a sample of 3-4 girls from standards five to eight were selected by the help of the school administration. This was done by random selection of one bright girl pupil, two average girl pupils and one weak pupil from each school.

Figure 1: Map of Busia District showing study site

Study site (Nambale Division)



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Table 1: Sampled schools in Nambale Division

Location	Number	Type of school
1. Bukhayo East	6 schools	4 rural gov't, 1 rural mission, 1 urban gov't
2. Bukhayo Central	6 schools	4 rural gov't, 1 rural mission, 1 urban gov't
3. Bukhayo North	6 schools	4 rural gov't, 1 rural mission, 1 urban mission
4. Nambale Township	6 schools	4 rural gov't, 1 rural mission, 1 urban mission
5. Walatsi	6 schools	4 rural gov't, 1 rural mission, 1 private
Total	30 schools	20 rural gov't, 5 rural mission, 2 urban gov't, 2 urban mission and 1 private school.

To select the 110 respondents interviewed in the catchment area surrounding the school sampled, the researcher sought the help of the local administration of the respective locations. A total of 3 - 4 female pupils who had dropped out of school 2 - 3 years ago were identified from each catchment area surrounding the sampled schools. Consideration was given to those who had attended the sampled schools and had attained standard five to eight at the time of drop-out. This was due to the assumption that they had studied under the same conditions as the school-going girl pupils.

3.5 Data processing

Once the data collection exercise was over, the data obtained could not be used in its raw form. Responses from all the open-ended questionnaires were analyzed and categorized to facilitate coding, processing and entry into the computer in preparation for analysis. Data processing exercise started with the coding of all the responses obtained to facilitate analysis using the computer Software Program for Social Scientists (SPSS) package. A master codebook was designed to ensure that all the questionnaires were coded uniformly. The coded data was then transferred into a spreadsheet, where proof - reading was made to ensure that the questionnaires were coded accurately. Finally, the coded data was transferred to the SPSS for analysis.

3.5.1 Data analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used to analyze the data. Descriptive analysis of variables such as the perception of a pupil towards primary school education and the causal factors for drop-out were measured using a five point system. Frequencies were used to show comparisons between female pupils who had dropped out of school and school-going pupils. These were then analyzed, summarized and presented using frequency tables before being discussed or interpreted.

The inferential statistical technique of the Chi-square test was used to test the hypothesized associations that existed between various variables in the study's hypotheses. In this, the cross tabulation for all the variables associated with a particular hypothesis were tested on one table and the results given. Chi-square values in each of the three hypotheses were given. According to Mutai (2000), chi-square is a non-parametric technique used to analyse categorical information. Blalock (1981) defines Chi-square as the test used when there is need to evaluate whether frequencies which have been empirically obtained differ significantly from those which would have been expected. According to Weiss (1968), Chi-square takes the following formula:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{\sum (f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$$

where; χ^2 is the chi-square,

f_o is an observed frequency,

f_e is an expected frequency,

\sum is summation.

After finding the value of chi-square, to find out whether a relationship is statistically significant, there is need to look at degrees of freedom (df). In a contingency table there are 'r' rows and 'c' columns. The number of degrees of freedom in contingency table is given as:

$$df = (r-1)(c-1) \text{ (Weiss, 1968).}$$

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of data presentation and analysis. The first part presents the distribution of frequencies of female pupils who dropped out of school against school-going pupils. This has been done by use of frequency tables and percentages to summarize and illustrate the findings of the study. The second part presents the testing of hypotheses based on cross-tabulation between independent and dependent factor using chi Square test to establish the relationships between the variables.

4.2 Personal characteristics of the respondents

Personal characteristics are the specific attributes accruing to a pupil's personal life that tends to either promote her safe study in primary school through completion or cause drop-out. They are things in a pupil's individual life that either aid her pre-mature school-leaving or school going status. The specific personal characteristics are discussed below.

4.2.1 Age of the respondents

The ages of the respondents varied between 12 to above 16. In the first category of 12-13, there were 3.64% of drop-outs and 7.27% of school-going pupils. In the second category of 14-15, there were 38.18% of drop-outs and 73.64% of school-going pupils while the last category of 16 and above had 58.18% of drop-outs and 19.09% of school-going pupils. Table 2 presents this information.

Table 2: Age category of the respondent

Age category (years)	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
12-13	4	3.64	8	7.27	12
14-15	42	38.18	81	73.64	123
Above 16	64	58.18	21	19.09	85
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 35.45$; $df = 2$; $sign = 0.000$

The ages of the respondents varied between 12 years and slightly above 16. Those who fall within this age category are more likely to be in primary school or have dropped out not long ago. Age is important in assessing what relationship it has with drop-out of female pupils from primary school. As shown on the cross tabulation above, the majority (38.18% and 58.18%) of the drop-outs lay within the second and third categories respectively. The third category registered many drop-outs for reason of self pity after a series of repetitions and other factors that make girls feel they have outgrown primary school. A few drop-outs disclosed that they had been left with one alternative of marriage at age 19.

4.2.2 Religion of the respondents

The study identified five sets of religious beliefs and convictions affiliated to the pupils of the sampled schools and female pupils who dropped out of school. These were as follows; the Catholic religion with the highest number of 34.54% of drop-outs and 53.64% of school-going pupils. The Protestant religion with 18.18% of drop-outs and 28.18% of school-going pupils, Islam with 19.09% of drop-outs and 7.27% of school-going. The rest of the religious groups were categorized under the other religion whose representation in the study sample comprised of 14.55% of drop-outs and 6.36% of school-going pupils. This information is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Religion of the Respondent

Religion	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Catholic	38	34.54	59	53.64	97
Protestant	20	18.18	31	28.18	51
Muslim	21	19.09	8	7.27	29
Traditional	15	13.64	5	4.55	20
Other	16	14.55	7	6.36	23
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 21.68$; $df = 4$; $sign = 0.000$

The above analysis shows that the religion of pupils is related to drop-out. According to the study, some religions for example the Traditional religion presented on Table 3 above do not fully support the education of the girl-child. Others like the Catholics and Protestants strongly

approve of the education of girls. The above kind of a situation could in one way or the other hinder or succeed the smooth learning of the girls through primary school. Very few pupils from families affiliated to the Traditional religion attained standard eight level of primary school. A few drop-outs who came from families of this religion confessed that they had to stop school because their parents forced them into early marriage. Catholics seem to have a good strategy of retaining pupils in school thus the highest representation of girls of the school-going category came from families affiliated to this religion.

4.2.3 Aspects of friends not appreciated

The study identified particular habits and characters possessed by friends of the respondents but not appreciated by the respective pupils. These were categorized into four groups as shown on Table 4 below. A total of 13.64% of drop-out pupils did not appreciate poor performance in their friends against 36.36% of school-going pupils. Concerning relationships, 11.82% of drop-outs disliked boy-girl relationships against 24.54% of school-going pupils and 38.18% of drop-outs disliked absenteeism in their friends against 16.36% of school-going pupils. Late coming was disliked by 32.73% of drop-outs and 20.91% of school-going pupils while only 3.64% of drop-outs and 1.82% of school-going pupils admitted they had no particular dislike in their friends.

Table 4: Aspects of friends not appreciated

Activity	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
None	4	3.64	2	1.83	6
Poor performance	15	13.64	40	36.36	55
Boy-girl relationships	13	11.82	27	24.54	40
Absenteeism	42	38.18	18	16.36	60
Late coming	36	32.73	23	20.91	59
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 24.68$; $df = 4$; $sign = 0.000$

It is common practice for girl pupils to take up after the character embraced by their peers and acquaintances. A pupil with friends who do not take their class work seriously will

automatically fall plight of the same even if she was a promising pupil. This is because she spends most times with friends yet being of a tender age she has no wisdom to decide to restrain from activities that can cause her to drop out such as boy-girl relationships. As evident in Table 4, the activities thereof can cause girls to drop out if they are not careful. Statistics gathered from female pupils who dropped out revealed that most of them had acquaintances who had also dropped out due to pregnancy resulting from boy-girl relationships. Others had friends who had dropped out due to poor performance.

4.2.4 Perception of a pupil about education

Primary school education was perceived differently by different pupils in Nambale division. Table 5 shows that 20.91% of drop-outs considered education to be very important against 80.91% of school-going pupils. Of the drop-outs, 32.73% perceived education not to be important against 0.91% of school-going pupils.

Table 5: Perception of the respondent about education

Perception	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Very important	23	20.91	89	80.91	112
Important	16	14.54	20	18.18	36
Not so important	36	32.73	1	0.91	37
Unimportant and not worth	23	20.91	0	0.00	23
No idea	12	10.91	0	0.00	12
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 107.45$; $df = 4$; $sign = 0.000$

According to the above analysis, the attitude a pupil has towards education can play a role in either her completion of primary school or her premature drop-out. If the attitude is wrong, the chances of drop-out are high yet if the attitude is right, these chances are slim. The cross tabulation on the pupil's perception about education shows that majority drop-out pupils had poor attitude about education while on the contrary majority school-going pupils had a right attitude towards studies.

4.2.5 Gender of respondent's best friends

Table 6 shows that there were 19.09% of drop-outs with male friends against 29.09% of school-going pupils. The study also identified 33.64% of drop-outs with female friends against 32.73% of school-going pupils. In addition, 47.27% of drop-outs and 38.18% of school-going pupils had both male and female friends.

Table 6: Gender of the respondent's best friends

Friends' gender	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Male	21	19.09	32	29.09	53
Female	37	33.64	36	32.73	73
Both	52	47.27	42	38.18	94
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 3.36$; $df = 2$; $sign = 0.186$

Sometimes the gender of friends a pupil has can influence her studies positively or negatively. Friends of the male gender are as important as those of the female gender. The fact that drop-out rate of the boy-child is slightly lower than that of the girls could be a big challenge to the girl-child to finish the prescribed primary curriculum. However in this study, the gender of friend the female pupils embraced had no relation to drop-out. The study in other words is suggestive that the problem does not lie in the friendships enhanced but in the pupil herself. Whether the pupil dropped out or remained in school was not based on the gender of friends she embraced.

4.2.6 Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis 1 states that drop-out of the girl-child from primary schools is related to the personal characteristics of the pupil. The results demonstrated strong support for this hypothesis (see Table 2-6). Chi-square revealed the existence of a strong association between all variables analysed, except the gender of the respondents' best friends and drop-out rate. More specifically, the tests showed that:

The age of a pupil is a causal factor to drop-out. The chi-square rated at 35.45 with a degree of freedom of 2 and level of association of .000. This shows that drop-out of the girl-child from primary schools is related to the age of a pupil.

There exists a relationship between the religion of a pupil and drop-out. The chi-square value was rated at 21.27 with 4 degrees of freedom and was significant at the 0.000 level. This means that drop-out of the girl-child from primary school is related to the religion of a pupil.

Aspects of friends not appreciated showed a significant relationship to drop-out. The Chi-square value of 24.68, with 4 degrees of freedom, was significant at the 0.000 level. The results also revealed a significant association between a pupil's perception of education and drop-out. The Chi-square value was 107.45, with 4 degrees of freedom, was significant at the 0.000 level.

There is no relationship between the gender of a pupil's best friends and drop-out. The chi-square tests yielded a value of 3.36, with 2 degrees of freedom and was not significant at the 0.000 level (p -value = 0.186); indicating the absence of a relationship.

4.3 Parents' characteristics

Parent characteristics are specific attributes of a pupil's parents that either cause her safe school-going status through standard eight or drop-out before completion of the primary school curriculum. A number of factors under parent characteristics were identified by the study and have been discussed below.

4.3.1 Education of the father

Table 7 shows that 17.27% of drop-outs had fathers with no education against 26.36% of school-going pupils. 13.64% of drop-outs had fathers with secondary education against 25.45% of school-going pupils. There were no drop-outs in the study sample whose fathers had attained college/University education while 20.91% of school-going pupils had fathers with this category of education.

Table 7: Respondent's father's level of education

Education Level	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
None	19	17.27	29	26.36	48
Adult literacy	7	6.36	14	12.73	21
Lower primary	33	30.00	4	3.64	37
Upper primary	36	32.73	12	10.91	48
Secondary education	15	13.64	28	25.45	43
College/University educ	0	0.00	23	20.91	23
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 66.08$; $df = 5$; $sign = 0.000$

The results showed that the education of the father was seen to be an important factor in assessing the determinants of female pupils who have dropped out of school. Fathers with low education registered many drop-out cases unlike those with considerably high education. There was no known drop-out case under this category. The study shows a direct relationship between the education of the father and drop-out of the girl-child from primary school. The higher the level of education of the father, the lesser the chances of drop-out.

4.3.2 Education of the mother

Table 8 shows that 58.18% of drop-outs had mothers who were illiterate, compared to 27.27% of school-going pupils. Only 1.82% of drop-outs had mothers with secondary education against 20.91% of school-going pupils. While 11.82% of school-going pupils had mothers who had attained college/University education, none of the drop-outs had mothers with this level of education.

Table 8: Respondent's mother's level of education

Education level	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
None	64	58.18	30	27.27	94
Adult literacy	5	4.54	12	10.91	17
Lower primary	34	30.91	14	12.73	48
Upper primary	5	4.54	18	16.36	23
Secondary education	2	1.82	23	20.91	25
College/University educ	0	0.00	13	11.82	13
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 61.50$; $df = 5$; $sign = 0.000$

The results suggested that mothers' education has a great influence on daughters' schooling. Consistent with this view, illiterate mothers registered the highest number of drop-outs. Based on this, it is safe to conclude that Nambale Division is experiencing high drop-out rates of female pupils because there are too many illiterate mothers in the division. On the contrary, mothers with college/University education recorded no drop-out case.

4.3.3 Father's occupation

According to Table 9, no single pupil belonging to fathers in formal employment dropped out of school; in contrast, 40.91% of school-going pupils had fathers in formal employment. The proportion of drop-outs with fathers in business was 44.55% against 36.36% of school-going pupils whose fathers fell within the same occupational category. The highest proportion of drop-outs (55.45%) was recorded among those whose fathers were farmers; only 22.73% of school-going girls had fathers in this occupation.

Table 9: Respondent's father's occupation

Occupation	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Formal employment	0	0.00	45	40.91	45
Business person	49	44.55	40	36.36	89
Farmer	61	55.45	25	22.73	86
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 60.98$; $df = 2$; $sign = 0.000$

The results show the existence of a direct relationship between the occupation of the father and girl-child drop-out from primary school. This is evident from the fact that no drop-outs were recorded among fathers who were formally employed while the highest proportion of drop-outs was registered among fathers whose occupation was farming. It could be argued that a good occupation generates sufficient income that enables children to study and finish the prescribed curriculum. This is because they have access to good nutrition, medical attention and other basic needs at school like school uniform, books and examination fee. On the contrary, fathers who practice farming, especially on a small scale, hardly get enough income to educate their daughters through primary school. The researcher in this study encountered a number of cases of peasant farmers who had two to three drop-out cases. They all seemed to have insufficient funds to cater for additional female pupils' needs at school. There are also many fathers in Nambale Division who do petty business like *'bodaboda'* (bicycle public transport), the study is suggestive that this kind of a business does not generate sufficient income for female pupils to complete primary school.

4.3.4 Mother's occupation

As evident from Table 10, there were no drop-outs with mothers in formal employment against 15.45% of school-going pupils. This is in consistent with the findings for fathers' occupation. Mothers in business had 49.09% of drop-outs against 22.73% of school-going pupils. The majority of the drop-outs (50.91%) were recorded among farming mothers. Similarly, this category of mothers also registered the highest (61.82%) of school-going children.

Table 10: Respondent's mother's occupation

Occupation	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Formal employment	0	0.00	17	15.45	17
Business Person	54	49.09	25	22.73	79
Farmer	56	50.91	68	61.82	124
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 28.81$; $df = 2$; $sign = 0.000$

The study demonstrated the existence of a strong association between mothers' occupation and daughter's educational attainment. The results suggested that mothers in the formal sector of employment do quite well in sponsoring the education of their daughters. This is evident from the fact that mothers in informal employment registered no single drop-out case of female pupils. In the sector of business, the researcher learnt that there are many drop-out pupils whose mothers practice petty trade like the sale of '*sukuma wiki*'. Most of these seem not to have sufficient funds to educate their daughters. Still others in the division practice merry-go-rounds common in many communities of Nambale Division. These too tend to struggle hard to keep their daughters in school though at times they fail. Mothers in the farming sector mainly practice subsistence farming which does not yield sufficient income to allow them to meet expenses related to daughter's education.

4.3.5 Family land

The study showed that although the majority school-going pupils (64.54%) and female pupils who dropped out of school (100.00%) have land acreage of less than 5, the proportion was higher for drop-outs. Of the remaining school-going girls, 22.73% originated from families with land acreage of 6-10, 10% belong to families of land acreage of 11-15 while only 2.73% were members of families owning of 16 acres and above of land. The second to fourth acreage categories had no drop-out pupils (see table 11).

Table 11: Size of respondent's family land

Acreage	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Less than five acres	110	100.00	71	64.54	181
6-10 acres	0	0.00	25	22.73	25
11-15 acres	0	0.00	11	10.00	11
Above 16 acres	0	0.00	3	2.73	3
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 47.40$; $df = 3$; $sign = 0.000$

The results demonstrate a strong association between land ownership and educational attainment of the girl-child. This is not surprising given that land is a very important factor in the growth and development of any economy. It is the backbone of Kenya's economy and thus plays a crucial role in the education of the girl-child.

Table 11 above shows that land is a very scarce resource in Nambale Division. Most families practice peasant farming on land acreage of less than five. This does not involve the application of modern agricultural practices that can increase produce on a small piece of land. The returns are meager and not rewarding at all, forcing majority of families to live from *'hand to mouth'*. This means that such families cannot afford any extra income to meet the common demands of female children's education.

4.3.6 Orphaned pupils

Based on Table 12, there were 91.92% of drop-out girls with parents who are alive against 80.91% of school going pupils. There were 8.18% of drop-out girls with deceased parents against 19.09% of school going pupils.

Table 12: Orphaned pupils

Parent's status	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Living	101	91.82	89	80.91	190
Dead	9	8.18	21	19.09	30
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 0.018$; $df = 3$; $sign = 0.015$

These results suggest that orphaned status has less almost negligible influence on drop-out of female pupils. A higher percentage of pupils who dropped out of school had living parents, relative to school-going pupils. A slightly higher percentage of school-going pupils had deceased parents in comparison to the female pupils who had dropped out and yet they still continued to go to school. The study also showed that among the reasons given for drop-out, only a handful registered death as a causal factor for their plight giving the impression that this is not a serious cause of drop-out in Nambale Division.

4.3.7 Hypothesis testing

The second hypothesis of the study states that drop-out of the girl-child from primary schools is related to parents' characteristics. Based on Tables 7-12 and the analysis ensuing from each table, the study results strongly supported this hypothesis. They demonstrated that:

There was a significant relationship between the education of the father and drop-out. The chi-square value was at 66.08 with 5 degrees of freedom and was significant at the 0.000 level.

A strong relationship existed between the education status of the mother and drop-out of the girl-child, with the outcome that girls with mothers who had attained college education were less likely to drop out compared to those whose parents had lower levels of education or no education at all. The chi-square value was 61.50, with 5 degrees of freedom. It was significant at the 0.000 level.

The occupation of the father had a relationship to drop-out rate among girl-children. For this variable, chi-square value was 60.98 with 2 degrees of freedom and was significant at the 0.000 level.

A significant association existed between the occupation of the mother and drop-out. Chi-square value was 28.81 with 2 degrees of freedom and level of significance of 0.000. The results showed that girls whose mothers were formally employed were less likely to drop out of school.

There was a significant relationship between the size of family land and pupil drop-out. Chi-square value was 47.40 with 3 degrees of freedom and was significant at the 0.000 level. This means that girl-children from families owning small pieces of land were more likely to drop out compared to their counterparts from families owning bigger tracts of land.

The study also revealed some association between the deceased/living status of the parent and drop-out. Chi-square value was 0.018 with a level of significance of 0.015. However, these results were contrary to expectations. They showed that those whose parents were deceased were less likely to drop out compared to those with living parents.

4.4 The school characteristics

These are aspects of the school environment which either promote drop-out of female pupils or provide an enabling environment for their study and completion of the prescribed curriculum. Some school characteristics tend to have greater influence on pupil drop-out than others. This explains why catchment areas surrounding some schools have greater numbers of drop-outs than others. The study focused on the following characteristics as possible factors affecting drop-out.

4.4.1 Type of school attended

The study identified five categories under which all schools in the division were accommodated. These are shown on Table 13. As evident from the Table, rural government schools registered 78.18% of drop-outs and 20% of school-going pupils, rural mission schools registered 6.36% of drop-outs and 20% of school-going pupils while urban government had 11.82% of drop-outs and 20% of school-going pupils. Urban mission schools had only 3.64%

of drop-outs compared to 20% of school-going pupils. Private schools had no drop-out represented in the study sample but accommodated 20% of school-going girls.

Table 13: Type of school attended by the respondent

School type	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Rural government	86	78.18	22	20.00	108
Rural mission	7	6.36	22	20.00	29
Urban government	13	11.82	22	20.00	35
Urban mission	4	3.64	22	20.00	26
Private	0	0.00	22	20.00	22
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 80.19$; $df = 4$; $sign = 0.000$

Based on Table 13, the assessment of the sampled primary schools in Nambale Division revealed that more than half the schools are rural government. These are the schools that provide the environment for most female pupils in the division because they are convenient for travel and also cheap in terms of fees payment. Mission schools are designed to suit the education needs of church members in the neighborhood while urban schools are found only at the major trading center in Nambale. Private schools are few yet very expensive. They also have education demands that are not flexible, such as the attendance of schools over the weekend and public holidays.

There was a notable proportion of drop-out pupils from rural government schools compared to any other school type. This may be because most of the rural schools lacked in basic learning facilities such as proper classrooms, desks and other important facilities. This kind of a situation could have played a role in facilitating the pupils' pre-mature drop-out. Mission and private schools are better equipped in facilities and this in some way contributes to a suitable environment for the girls to study hence these schools registered very few cases of drop-out. It should also be noted most parents of low socio-economic status were more likely to take their children to rural government schools.

4.4.2 Distance to school from the pupil's home

Table 14 shows that 79.09% of drop-outs had to travel a distance of 1 km and below to reach school, this was against 88.18% of school-going pupils. Category two of 1-2 km had 10% of drop-outs and 11.82% of school-going pupils. Also 10.91% of drop-outs had to travel for 2 km and above to reach school, this last category had no school-going pupils represented.

Table 14: Distance to school from respondent's home

Distance	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Below 1km	87	79.09	97	88.18	184
1-2km	11	10.00	13	11.82	24
Above 2km	12	10.91	0	0.00	12
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 12.71$; $df = 2$; $sign = 0.002$

In assessing the results in Table 14, the distance traveled by a pupil to reach school can be a cause of drop-out if it is too long. The analysis shows that all school-going pupils did not travel a distance of above 2 Km to reach school unlike the female drop-outs. The analysis further suggests that female pupils quite easily drop out before completion of the primary curriculum if the school is situated several mileages away. The researcher learnt that this is sometimes caused by late coming and frequent absenteeism which in many cases contribute to poor performance by the pupil. Most drop-out girls confessed that this was responsible for their premature withdrawal from school.

4.4.3 Completion of homework

A total of 20% of drop-outs and 70.91% of school-going pupils confessed they always completed their assignment promptly (see Table 15). The non-prompt completion of assignment registered 2.73% of drop-outs and 4.54% of school-going pupils while 77.27% of drop-outs against 24.55% of school-going pupils were not always prompt.

Table 15: Completion of homework by the respondent

Response	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Prompt	22	20.00	78	70.91	100
Not prompt	3	2.73	5	4.54	8
Not always	85	77.27	27	24.55	112
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 61.90$; $df = 2$; $sign = 0.000$

Based on these results completion of assignments is associated with drop-out rates. Assignments given in class are the determining factor of the general performance of any pupil in school. Pupils prone to not completing assignments perform poorly in school while those who finish assignments, on average, do quite well. Weak girls tend to drop out before completion as shown on Table 15.

4.4.4 Performance in English exam

Table 16 presents the percentage marks scored in English by respondents the term previous to the study or previous to dropping out. A total of 27.27% of drop-outs obtained below 30% against 7.27% of school-going pupils. Also 70% of drop-outs obtained between 31-60% against 65.45% of school-going pupils while 2.73% of drop-outs obtained more than 61% against 27.27% of school going pupils.

Table 16: Performance in English exam

% Marks in English	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Less than 30%	30	27.27	8	7.27	38
31-60%	77	70.00	72	65.45	149
More than 61%	3	2.73	30	27.27	33
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 49.87$; $df = 8$; $sign = 0.000$

This suggests that the performance of female pupils in class is important in determining whether they will drop before completion of primary school or not. Every pupil loves to perform well in each given exam and to be able to progress to the next grade. The researcher learnt that pupils who perform poorly in class are liable to repetition and have poor relationships with their teachers. Citing evidence from the above analysis, majority drop-outs got marks below 60%, giving the impression that poor performance, among other factors, contributed to their drop-out. A small percentage of the school-going pupils obtained less than 30% in English.

4.4.5 Repetition

The study revealed that 11.82% of drop-outs and 37.27% of school-going pupils repeated a class at least once. Those who repeated twice included 75.45% of drop-outs and 50.91% of school-going children while 12.73% of drop-outs and 11.81% of school-going pupils repeated thrice.

Table 17: Number of times the respondent repeated a class

No of times	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Once	13	11.82	41	37.27	54
Twice	83	75.45	56	50.91	139
Thrice	14	12.73	13	11.81	27
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p < 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 19.80$; $df = 2$; $sign = 0.000$

The above analysis identifies class repetition to be a contributory factor to drop-out. Those who repeated a class once seem to have had the morale to press on unlike those who repeated twice. The general trend was such that majority pupils dropped out after the second repetition: very few pupils accepted the offer to repeat a third time.

4.4.6 Extra-curricular activities

There were 6.36% of drop-outs and 16.36% of school-going pupils who participated in drama and 30% of drop-outs and 22.73% of school-going pupils who participated in music and dance (see Table 18). Those who participated in volleyball and netball included 34.55% of drop-outs and 25.45% of school-going pupils while 18.18% of drop-outs and 14.55% of school-going pupils took part in athletics.

Table 18: Extra-curricular activities

Activities	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Drama	7	6.36	18	16.36	25
Music and dance	33	30.00	25	22.73	58
Volleyball, netball	38	34.55	28	25.45	66
Athletics	20	18.18	16	14.55	36
Handwork	12	10.91	23	20.91	35
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 17.99$; $df = 8$; $sign = 0.021$

These results show that participation in extra curricular activities is associated with drop-out. It helps pupils to discover their talents and gifts in different areas. These activities also help a pupil to remain physically fit and mentally sound. It can be deduced from the cross tabulation results that different activities have different effects on drop-out. Music-dance and volleyball-netball registered the highest cases of drop-out. There is a possibility of too much time spent for practice at the expense of class work.

4.4.7 Mode of punishment

According to Table 19, all school-going pupils plus those who dropped out had once been punished during the school life. Also 39.09% of drop-outs and 66.36% of school-going pupils faced the punishment of canning while 39.09% of drop-outs and 21.82% of school-going pupils were suspended.

Table 19: Type of punishment administered to the respondent

Type of punishment	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
None	0	0.00	0	0.00	0
Canning	43	39.09	73	66.36	116
Suspension	43	39.09	24	21.82	67
Other	24	21.82	13	11.82	37
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 18.09$; $df = 3$; $sign = 0.000$

Based on the results, canning and suspension seemed to be responsible for most drop-out cases from primary school. Primary school education needs a lot of encouragement. Frequent punitive canning of a pupil makes a pupil to look for the slightest excuse to stop studies. Suspension is to some extent a direct ticket to drop-out. The study revealed the need to clearly explain to the pupil why she has to be punished in whatever manner so that the pupil can understand and take it rightly. A proper understanding of this will not lead to pre-mature drop-out.

4.4.8 Size of the class

The final variable analysed under school characteristics was size of class. The results showed that 68.18% of the drop-out pupils attended a class of below 30 against 60.91% of the school-going pupils (see Table 20). Also 20.91% of the drop-outs attended a class of the range 31-40 against 22.73% of school going pupils. There were 10.91% of drop-outs who had been members of a class of above 41 against 16.36% of school-going pupils.

Table 20: Size of the class

Class size	Frequency				Total
	Drop-out		School-going		
	No	%	No	%	
Below 30	75	68.18	67	60.91	142
31 – 40	23	20.91	25	22.73	48
Above 41	12	10.91	18	16.36	30
Total	110	100	110	100	220

$p \leq 0.05$; $\chi^2 = 1.734$; $df = 2$; $sign = 0.42$

Further analysis showed that the size of the class did not affect drop-out of the girl-child in Nambale Division. There was no significant association between class size and drop-out rate. As evident from Table 20, most drop-outs attended a class of below 30 pupils just like the majority school-going pupils.

4.4.9 Hypothesis testing

The third study hypothesis stated that drop-out of the girl-child from primary schools was related to the characteristics of the school environment. Results of the Chi-square tests analysis (see Tables 13 -20) produced strong support for this hypothesis. Specifically, the results showed that:

There was significant association between the type of school the pupil attends and drop-out. Chi-square value was 80.19 with 4 degrees of freedom and was significant at the 0.002 level. The results showed that rural government schools provide the environment for most female pupils; they were also the schools that experienced the highest rates of drop-out.

A significant association existed between distance of school from the pupil's home and drop-out. Chi-square value was 12.71 with 2 degrees of freedom which was significant at the 0.002 level. The results revealed that long distances to school were responsible for the premature drop-out of the female pupils from school.

The manner in which homework/assignment was done had a relationship to drop-out. Chi-square value was 69.90 with 2 degrees of freedom which was significant at the 0.000 level. The results showed that female pupils prone to not completing assignments perform poorly and tend to drop out while those who finish assignments on average do well and are likely not to drop out.

The study revealed the existence of a relationship between performance and drop-out. Chi-square value was 49.87 with 8 degrees of freedom; it was significant at the 0.000. The results indicated that female pupils who performed poorly in exams (e.g. English) were most prone to drop-out than those who did well.

There was a significant relationship between drop-out of the girl-child and the number of times a pupil repeated classes. Chi-square value was 19.8 with 2 degrees of freedom at the 0.000 level of significance. The results indicated that most girl pupils dropped out of school after the second repetition.

There existed an association between a pupil's participation in extra-curricular activities and drop-out. Chi-square value was 17.99 with 8 degrees of freedom which was significant at the 0.021 level. The results showed that music, dance and netball-volleyball registered the highest cases of drop-out in comparison to the rest of the activities.

A significant relationship existed between drop-out and the mode of punishment. Chi-square value was 18.09 with 3 degrees of freedom and significance at the 0.000 level. The results of this analysis indicated that canning and suspension were responsible for most drop-out cases of female pupils.

There was no significant relationship between the size of the class a pupil attends and drop-out. Chi-square value was 1.734 with 2 degrees of freedom. This was significant ($p=0.42$). The results of the analysis revealed that the size of the class a pupil attended did not have any relationship with drop-out.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, summary of major research findings of the study are presented. On the basis of these findings, conclusions are drawn and recommendations made that if applied would help alter the pre-mature drop-out state of the girl-child in Nambale Division.

5.2 Summary of major findings

This study investigated the socio-economic determinants of drop-out of the girl-child in Nambale Division. The study attempted to identify the main factors that accelerate the drop-out of female pupils. Three categories of factors namely; the child's personal characteristics, parents' characteristics and the school environment were investigated. Using a sample size of 220 respondents selected from five locations of Nambale Division; one hundred and ten of these were identified from the sampled primary schools while the other 110 were female pupils who had dropped out of school. Consideration was given to those who had dropped out 2-3 years ago, hailed from the community surrounding the sampled schools, and had attended the very schools. The study adopted proportionate stratified sampling technique. Data were obtained from these respondents using questionnaires and analysed using the SPSS statistics package. Chi-square tests were employed to analyze the associations existing between the variables in the three hypotheses tested by the study.

Data analysis revolved around the three objectives of study. The first objective centered on the pupil's personal characteristics which included the following; age, religion, aspects of friends of the respondent not appreciated the pupil's perception about education, and gender of the respondent's best friends. The second objective of study was to find out the relationship between parent characteristics and drop-out of female pupils from primary school. These characteristics included the following; the education and occupation of parents, the size of family land, and orphaned status of pupils. The third objective of study sought to find out characteristics of the school environment that cause drop-out of female pupils from primary school. The study keyed on the school type, distance of school from a pupil's home, homework, performance, repetition, extra-curricular activities, and the mode of punishment.

The first hypothesis was derived from the first objective of study and stated that drop-out of the girl-child from primary schools is related to the child's personal characteristics. Findings from the Chi-square analysis showed that four out of five variables tested under personal characteristics were related to drop-out. The variable on the gender of the respondent's best friends did not show any relationship to drop-out. The association for the four supportive variables rated at $p \leq 0.05$ level of significance. It is therefore safe to state that the first hypothesis was credited in four personal characteristics and rejected in one. This provides a strong support for the hypothesis.

The second hypothesis was derived from the second objective of study and stated that there was a significant relationship between drop-out of the girl-child from primary schools and parent characteristics. To test the hypothesized association, six independent variables were cross-tabulated against one dependent variable (drop-out). Findings of the cross-tabulation indicated that there was a significant relationship between all the independent variables and the dependent variable. The level of significance for all these variables was rated at $p \leq 0.05$. This constituted very strong support for the second hypothesis of the study.

The third hypothesis was derived from the third objective of study. It stated that there was a significance relationship between drop-out of the girl-child and characteristics of the school environment. To test the hypothesized association, one dependent variable (drop-out) was cross-tabulated against eight independent variables. Seven variables were significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level while the test for class size was not significant ($p=0.42$). Based on these results, it can be concluded that the study found strong support for the third hypothesis.

5.3 Conclusion

The first major conclusion is that all three categories of factors studied are key determinants of drop-out and hence affect the girl-child's educational attainment in Nambale Division. Thus is evident from the strong support received by all hypotheses tested by the study. Closely related to this, is the conclusion. In a bid to effectively arrest the situation of girl-child drop-out from primary schools in Nambale Division, there is need to put all three major characteristics into consideration. There is need to understand the culture and way of life of the people, the norms that people in Nambale division have attached much value. This will help understand why

according to the people, a girl of 18 years ought to be married and not go to school. It will help understand why a boy according to the people in Nambale Division must attain a college education while a girl marries to fetch dowry to meet for his educational expenses. It is only in understanding the above issues and many others that a strategy of approach can be devised to save the girl-child from pre-mature drop-out from primary schools.

5.4 Recommendations

The recommendations arising from the study are given in two categories i.e. policy and suggestions for further research recommendations.

5.4.1 Policy recommendations

The major recommendation of this study is that drop-out girls should be given opportunity to get back to school if they are willing to do so. This can be done by availing finances for upkeep and other needs at school such as uniform, examination fee and others. Most of those who dropped out young for reasons such as those of poverty were so much willing to get back but had no means.

Based on the findings of the study, one of the major contributing factors of drop-out is long distance. This is due to the unavailability of schools in the neighborhood which cause pupils to walk for as long as 2 – 3Km to reach the nearest school. There is therefore need for the Ministry of Education to consider establishing more schools in the Division and especially in the very remote areas which are wanting. This is because government schools now offer free primary education and so every female child is supposed to attend school.

The study revealed the great attachment of the people of Nambale to primitive traditions, norms and practices such as the selling of girls in marriage to generate dowry that could pay up for their brothers' education. There is need for the Ministry of Sports, Culture and Social Welfare in the district to sensitize the people of Nambale division of the importance of disposing of such practices and holding onto only those traditions that develop the people.

Primary education needs to be planned in relation to the pre-conditions and concurrent requirements of learning. The pre-conditions of learning include health, nutrition, physical and intellectual stimulation to which the learner has been exposed prior to learning activity. The adverse effects of malnutrition and poor health on the education of the girl-child could render

pupils unteachable and jeopardize their readiness to enter school or even complete their education. Some negative pre-conditions such as disease and malnutrition can exert powerful constraining effects on the capacity of the learner to benefit from a learning opportunity. Positive conditions such as supportive parents, siblings and peers can raise the entry level of girls in standard one and enable learning activities to achieve more substantial and extensive results. Nutrition needs can be met by providing food needs to pupils through the Constituency Development Fund. Alternatively, poor female pupils can be given bursaries by the government or NGOs to aid their studies in terms of food, uniform text books and boarding fees if need be.

5.4.2 Suggestions for further research

Apart from the above policy related recommendations the researcher in this study identified a few areas that need further research. These include;

HIV/AIDS and the girl-child in Nambale Division. It cropped up as a problem hindering the smooth learning of the pupil but was not captured by the researcher. A few female pupils confessed they had to drop out pre-maturely having lost a parent through HIV/AIDS. There is need for such a study to be conducted to give more understanding in this area in the Division.

Another area in the study that proved to be wanting but was not addressed by the researcher was that of adult education. The study showed that majority parents in the Division were non-schooled presenting a need to strengthen the adult education sector so that parents can appreciate education of the girl-child. Most mothers with low education were identified with pre-mature drop-out of the girl-child.

Family planning in Nambale Division is yet another area that was not captured by the study. On average, the people of Nambale Division were shown to keep families of between 6–8 children. The study revealed a few cases of pupils who hailed from such families and had experienced drop-out by siblings. Further research should be undertaken in this area so that recommendations can be given on how to address the problem of keeping large families.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Study questionnaire

Introduction

Greetings, my name is Wilkyster Christabel Wamukoya. I am an MA student at the University of Nairobi studying Sociology. I am currently doing research on problems that make girl children to drop out of primary schools in Nambale Division. Your school has been selected randomly in this study. The information will be helpful in learning more about the problems of girl children in your school. The information will be used to implement policies that can help rectify the situation and will be treated with much confidentiality. I will highly appreciate if you can spare some time and do this.

SECTION I

1. Name of the pupil/x-pupil (tick one (√): _____ Age _____
2. Date: _____
3. Order of birth: _____
4. Religion:
 1. Traditionalist
 2. Protestant
 3. Catholic
 4. Muslim
 5. Other (specify) _____
5. Name of school attended/attending _____
6. Place school is located:
 1. Division _____
 2. Location _____
 3. Sub-location _____
 4. Village/town (specify one) _____

SECTION II

7. Type of school you are attending/attended: (tick (√) the appropriate answer)

	Government	Mission	Private
1. Rural	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Urban	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Private	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. What class are you/were you when you left school? _____
9. State the enrolment of your class (Tick (√) one)
 1. Below 30
 2. 31-40
 3. 41-50

2. 31-40

4. Above 51

10. Distance from home:

1. Below 1km

3. Above 2km

2. 1-2km

11. What marks did you obtain last term/the last term of dropout in the following subjects:

Subject	Marks (%)
Mathematics	<input type="text"/>
English	<input type="text"/>
Kiswahili	<input type="text"/>
Science	<input type="text"/>
G.H.C.R.E	<input type="text"/>

12. Do/did you do your homework promptly? (Tick one)

1. Yes

2. No

3. Not always

13. How many classes have/did you repeat(ed)

1. Class _____

2. Number of times _____

Why? _____

14. What extra-curricular activities do/did you like and participate(ed) in at school?

1. _____ 2. _____

15. What is your perception of the primary school education? (Tick (√)one)

1. Very important

2. Important

3. Not so important

4. Unimportant and not worth

5. No idea

16. Did you have any problems in relating to any of your teachers? (Tick (√) one)

1. Yes

2. No

a. If yes, which problems _____

b Which teacher do/did you find problematic? (Tick (✓) the correct answer)

1. Male

2. Female

17. Were you ever punished at school? (Tick (✓) the correct answer)

1. Yes

2. No

If yes why? _____

18. What punishment was it? _____

How many times were you punished in this way?

19. Who are/were your best friends at school? (Give names)

1.

2.

3.

a. What things do/did you do together?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

b. Was any one of them punished at school? (Tick (✓) one)

1. Yes

2. No

c. Is/was there anything you do/did not like about your friends?

1. Yes

2. No

If yes, what was it? _____

20. Did you drop out of school? _____

If yes why? _____

SECTION III

21. Are your parents living or dead? (Tick (✓) the correct answer)

	Living	Dead
1. Father	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Mother	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

22. How many brothers and sisters do you have?

1. Brother(s) _____

2. Sister(s) _____

23. Who is the most educated sibling in your family?

1. Brother

2. Sister

Tick (✓) one

Highest education obtained so far:

1. Std 1-4 3. Forms 1-3 5. College/University

2. Std 5-7 4. Forms 1-4 6. Other (specify) _____

24. Parents' level of education: **Tick (✓) where appropriate**

Level of Education	Father	Mother
1. None	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Adult literacy	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Lower primary (std 1-4)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Upper primary (std 4-8)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Secondary education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. College/University education	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

25. What are your parents' occupations? (e.g. Farmer, teacher, businessperson, e.t.c.)

	Present	Past
1. Father	_____	_____
2. Mother	_____	_____

26. Do your parents have land? _____

If yes, how big is it? (Tick (✓) one)

1. Less than 5 acres

2. 6-10 acres

3. 11-15 acres

4. Above 16 acres

27. Who is/was paying for your school needs (e.g. school uniform and books, e.t.c.)/fees

28. What do/did you wish to become after school?

29. What do you think leads pupils to drop out before completion of the primary curriculum?

1. Affects pupils most

2. Average

3. Affects pupils least

4. No idea

Rank by ticking (✓) the correct answer based on the above categories

Reason	1	2	3	4
Financial difficulties				
School type and quality				
Peers				
Uneducated parents				
Age				
Poor role models from older girls				
Attitude to teachers				

a. Please specify any other reason apart from the above that lead girl pupils to drop out from your school. _____

Questions 30, 31 and 32 are meant for drop-out pupils only

30. What have you been doing since you dropped out of school?

31. If you had a chance to go back to school would you take it? (Tick (✓) one)

1. Yes

2. No

3. Not sure

4. Not applicable

32. While still at school, did you anticipate dropout before completion of primary school?

(Tick (✓) one)

- 1. Yes
- 2. No
- 3. Not applicable

SECTION IV

Suggestions on how to control girl-child drop-out

33. What three things need to be done to help encourage girls to complete primary education?

- 1. _____
- 2. _____
- 3. _____

34. Is there anything else you would like to add?

Thank you so much for your patience and co-operation

Time taken: _____

APPENDIX B: Primary schools in Nambale division

CODE	SCHOOL	CODE	SCHOOL
601303	Khwirale Primary school	601325	Sianda Primary school
601317	Manyole Primary school	601330	Igara Primary school
601316	Sibembe R.C. Primary school	601328	Mwenge Primary school
601301	Emukhuyu Primary school	601331	Katira Primary school
601307	Mabunge R.C. Primary school	601332	Lupida Primary school
601306	Lwanyange Primary school	601335	Otiiri Primary school
601316	Emakina Primary school	601329	Siera Primary school
601314	Segero Primary school	-	St Appolonuhs
601313	Nang'eni Primary school	-	St Martins Mixed
601302	Esidende Primary school	-	St James Model
601305	Kisoko Girls' Primary school	-	Sunshine Primary
601309	Maolo Primary school		
601308	Malanga Primary school		
601311	St. Marys' Primary school		
601310	Nambale A.C. Primary school		
601312	Nambale Urban Primary school		
601323	Madibo Primary school		
601304	Kisoko Boys' Primary school		
601320	Elwanikha Primary school		
601322	Madende Primary school		
601334	Musokoto B. Primary school		
601327	Sikinga A.C. Primary school		
601333	Musokoto DEB Primary school		
601318	Buyofu Primary school		
601325	Namahindi Primary school		
601319	Ekisumo Primary school		
601321	Khayo Primary school		
601324	Mungatsi Primary school		
		TOTAL	39 schools

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

"Education", Nairobi
Nairobi 33411

REF: 13/001/34C 215/2

.....
and date



JOGOO HOUSE "B"

HARAMBEE AVENUE

P.O. Box 30040 00100

NAIROBI
21 July, 2004

....., 20.....

Wilkyster Christabel Wamukoya
University of Nairobi
P.O. BOX 30197
NAIROBI

Dear Madam

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORISATION

Please refer to your application for authority to conduct research on "Socio Economic Determinants of Drop-out of the Girl-Child from Primary Schools in Busia District". This is to inform you that your application has been considered and approved.

Accordingly you are authorized to conduct research in Busia District for a period ending 30th July, 2005.

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

Upon completion of your study, please ensure that you submit two copies of your research report to this Office.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'B. O. ADEWA'.

B. O. ADEWA

FOR: PERMANENT SECRETARY

The District Commissioner
Busia

The District Education Officer
Busia District

UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI
EAST AFRICANA COLLECTION